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TEACHING ADOLESCENTS

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GILBERT C. KETTELKAMP

Associate Professor of Education
University of Illinois



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PREFACE

This book is designed to meet the needs of the young men and women who are entering or have already entered the field of secondary school teaching. For the former, it can serve as a guide through the period of student teaching; for the latter, it can serve as a reference in the solution of problems which they will meet day by day in their work.

The author believes that the young people who elect to enter the teaching field do so because they enjoy working with boys and girls. Of their number those who enter the secondary field have the privilege as well as the responsibility of guiding adolescents through the transitional teen-age years into the early years of adulthood. It is the writer's hope that this book will make these young teachers not only more able to recognize this obligation but also more able to meet it in an acceptable manner. But before it is possible for them to do this, they will have to become acquainted with at least some of the numerous implications of this obligation. For that reason, this book includes illustrations and sketches which provide these beginners with an insight into various aspects of the teacher's environment. In addition, examples drawn from everyday school experiences provide for them a means for recognizing the kind of problems faced by a teacher in his extracurricular as well as his class activities.

In this book the author discusses various types of teaching methods, methods by means of which the student teacher can achieve success in his teaching efforts. Yet familiarity with systematized and approved

practices and techniques of teaching alone does not make an individual an effective teacher. Personal qualities that reflect the humanizing influence of daily contact with other people are also necessary. The author has tried to keep in mind that it is the intelligent combining of these factors that makes for an effective and successful teaching career.

The first chapter of the book presents a brief overview of teaching as a profession, with emphasis upon the professional responsibilities which the student teacher is assuming when he begins working on his first assignment. The second chapter acquaints him with the characteristics of the adolescents with whom he will be working. Since student teaching is a general requirement for entrance into the teaching field, the third chapter is planned to aid the student in understanding better the type of experiences which he will meet during his laboratory period. Chapter four discusses various aspects of the secondary school as a functioning organization and the student teacher's place in this organization. The fifth chapter directs attention to various aspects of classroom instruction, such as the type of preparation needed for teaching, the selecting of objectives, and the directing of learning activities. Discipline is emphasized as it relates to the establishment of an acceptable learning environment.

Most teachers will, sooner or later, be called upon to serve in some guidance capacity. The author emphasizes the responsibilities connected with this work from the standpoint of the classroom teacher and not from the standpoint of the guidance specialist. He discusses teaching aids from the point of view of how they strengthen and enrich learning experiences. Every teacher is concerned with the measuring, the evaluating, and the reporting of pupil progress. These aspects of the teacher's work appear in the light of recent experimentation and study. The closing chapter of the text directs attention toward ways and means by which it is possible for the teacher to promote his professional growth. In the appendix appear sample instructional units prepared and used by cooperating teachers and student teachers. In addition, a brief section discusses steps which the prospective teacher may follow in order to obtain a teaching position.

The author could not have produced this book without the assistance of numerous colleagues. To each of these he wishes to express his gratitude. However, he especially wishes to express his appreciation to Liesette J. McHarry, who read the entire manuscript and offered valu-

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The author also wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to the several school systems who permitted him to take pictures and use them as illustrations in the book. In addition, he is grateful to the several publishers who so willingly granted him permission to quote from their publications.

Gilbert C. Kettelkamp

Urbana, Illinois

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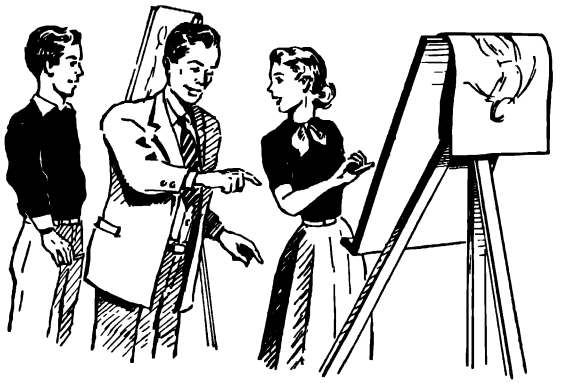
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TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

Teaching Contributes to the Development of Man's Social Order

Man is a curious, restless creature who is seldom satisfied with his level of attainment. He learns to speak one language and then wants to speak a second. He writes a lyric and then wants to produce an epic. As soon as he has achieved one goal, he directs his efforts toward attaining another.

Man has discovered that he can improve his social and economic status by developing his abilities. For example, he develops the sound of his voice and finds that others enjoy hearing him speak or sing. By applying his ability to improve various skills, it is often possible for him to achieve the social recognition and the economic security which he desires.

He has also discovered that he can develop his abilities best under the encouragement and guidance of a skillful teacher. Schools have been established and educational systems have been developed as societies of men have planned to bring teachers and learners together. Educational institutions flourish in those cultures where parents are ambitious to have their children rise to higher social and economic levels than those of the family into which the parents themselves were born.

The above summary is neither new nor startling. But it does focus at-

tention on a fundamental purpose of education in the United States, *i.e.*, the development of a socially mobile people. The teaching profession is responsible for helping people to achieve this end, along with others which parents and educators believe are desirable. This is no light responsibility. No individual should plan to enter the teaching profession without understanding and being willing to accept his share of this responsibility.

Teaching as a guiding process. Teaching guides the learner in the development and use of his abilities for selected purposes. It determines the steps that are necessary to achieve such purposes and then attempts to provide situations in which the necessary learning experiences can take place. Teaching cannot force the individual to learn, but it can be instrumental in creating within him the desire to learn. Ability and initiative are both essential to success in the learning process. Teaching cannot provide these, but it can help in directing them.

The concept that teaching is a guiding process is not a recent one. Five hundred years before Christ, Confucius describes his "ideal teacher" as a superior man who "guides his students, but does not pull them along; he urges them to go forward and does not suppress them; he opens the way, but does not take them to the place. Guiding without pulling makes the process of learning gentle; urging without suppressing makes the process of learning easy; and opening the way without leading the students to the place makes them think for themselves." The description which Confucius gives of a good teacher is clear and specific. "Now if the process of learning is made gentle and easy, and the students are encouraged to think for themselves, we may call the man a good teacher."[1]

Teaching and the perpetuation of social heritages. The members of society are interested in having certain general or universal knowledges, attitudes, beliefs, and skills perpetuated. They have delegated to the home, the school, and the church much of the responsibility for doing this. Measures have been set up for giving youth specific and organized training. Although these institutions differ in structure, throughout the years they have led the way in providing security for mankind and for integrating and expanding the social order.

Today organized education is assuming an increasingly greater share

[1] By permission, from *The Wisdom of Confucius*, Lin Yutang, translator, copyright 1938, Random House, Inc., p. 247.

of the responsibility for training youth. This is no simple responsibility, for the entire social organization of mankind is becoming more and more complex. As a result, continual changes must be made in the content and methods of instruction.

The growth in the complexity of our social order has created many problems of social adjustment. This is especially true in areas where population centers have expanded rapidly. Today man can no longer escape his neighbor by moving away; instead, he must learn to live with him. The school must help the individual acquire the ability to do this in a satisfactory manner. Teaching is no longer limited to instruction in the three R's; its purpose has become much broader, it has been given the responsibility of developing a society capable of surviving the complexities surrounding it. The school is expected not only to select and to help perpetuate those ideals which will serve as a foundation for society's growth in the future, but also to provide opportunity for that growth to take place in the learning experiences in which the individual participates. This is an assignment to which every teacher needs to give serious attention.

The Relationship between National Growth and Interest in Education Has Been Very Close

The founders of our nation came from diverse cultures and religions, yet they eventually developed a common interest in promoting education. This interest, for example, led to the establishment of the small rural school as a means for providing educational opportunity for pioneer children. Later came the secondary school. Gradually the concept of equal educational opportunity for all boys and girls came to be accepted generally by educational leaders throughout the country. In 1944 the Educational Policies Commission of the N.E.A. formulated this ideal into a policy which was later revised as follows:

> Schools should be dedicated to the proposition that every youth in these United States—regardless of sex, economic status, geographic location, or race—should experience a broad and balanced education which will (a) equip him to enter an occupation suited to his abilities and offering reasonable opportunity for personal growth and social usefulness; (b) prepare him to assume the full responsibilities of American citizenship; (c) give him a fair chance to exercise his right to the pursuit of happiness through the attainment and preservation of mental and physical health; (d) stimulate in-

tellectual curiosity, engender satisfaction in intellectual achievement, and cultivate the ability to think rationally; and (e) help him to develop an appreciation of the ethical values which should undergird all life in a democratic society. It is the duty of a democratic society to provide opportunities for such education through its schools. It is the obligation of every youth, as a citizen, to make full use of these opportunities. It is the responsibility of parents to give encouragement and support to both youth and schools.[2]

The prospective teacher may well have heard such objectives propounded in his first courses in education. At that time they may have sounded rather beatific. Now, however, as he is entering upon his first real teaching experience, he has to recognize the responsibilities that go along with his new position. He himself is to play a role in helping every youth to shape these purposes so that they become realities for him. If he feels that he cannot wholeheartedly contribute to these purposes, he owes it to himself and to the profession not to accept an assignment to a student teaching position. If he were to do so, he would not be fair to himself or to those with whom he is to work. Above all, he would be doing an injustice to the pupils who come to him as learners.

The Secondary School Is an American Institution

The American secondary school dates back to the early nineteenth century. At that time Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson were especially interested in promoting general public education; Jefferson himself introduced measures into the Virginia legislature which were to provide for a state system of public schools. In this system the state was to provide the tuition for three years of elementary school. The children of all citizens were eligible to attend. Selected children from these schools were later to be given secondary training at state expense. The measures were not passed, but several of the principles which Jefferson proposed have been incorporated into our educational systems of today. Elementary and secondary schooling is being provided for many children at public expense.

The secondary school normally covers four years of work, following eight years of elementary school. In some instances this pattern may be varied by having an organized junior high school after the first six grades. This intermediate division may last for two years or three years. For

[2] By permission, from *Education for All American Youth, a Further Look*, by Educational Policies Commission, N.E.A., Washington, D.C., 1952, pp. 32–33.

convenience these various divisions are commonly called the 8-4, the 6-2-4, and the 6-3-3 systems. Today some communities are adding two years of instruction beyond senior high school in the form of junior college training.

The size of the school usually determines the extent of its offerings, while the type of community affects the kind of courses which are offered. In a rural area courses in agriculture and homemaking are common. In an industrial area many pupils expect to receive training which will prepare them for vocations.

Only a minority of the pupils enrolled in high school go on to college. The majority have no further formal education before they accept adult responsibilities in society. The secondary school must, therefore, help prepare them so that they can assume such responsibilities in a satisfactory manner.

Teaching Deals with the Individual

The public school teacher is expected to accept from the community any of the qualified pupils who wish to enroll in his classes. Thus a cross section of local society is represented, rather than a select group of individuals. The teacher should become familiar with the interests, the abilities, and the backgrounds of each of these pupils. He should try to understand what factors influence and motivate them. Each of the boys and girls in his classes is an individual, unique as to personality and environment. The teacher may work with them as a group, but each person has to learn as an individual. It becomes the teacher's responsibility to evaluate the work that each pupil is doing in relation to his own ability, as well as in relation to similar work being done by other individuals within or outside of the class.

Helping the child develop as an individual. The school and the home are both interested in helping the child make such adjustments to his environment as are desirable and necessary. They want him to come to know what he is capable of contributing to society and what, in return, he can expect society to do for him. He enters school with certain habit patterns already established. If these are desirable, the school attempts to apply them to useful ends. If they are undesirable, the school may find it necessary to modify or redirect them into more desirable channels.

The school assumes a definite responsibility for the individual when

he enrolls as a pupil. He comes there knowing that he can derive certain benefits if he applies himself in a prescribed manner. The school has no right to disappoint him in this. The opportunities that are opened to him will have to be provided largely through the efforts of the classroom teacher. When the teacher has carried out this responsibility, then the school has gone a long way toward fulfilling a major obligation to the individual as well as to society.

Educational Philosophies Affect Teaching Practices

Every individual who enters the teaching profession follows certain principles and practices in his work. These principles and practices become his way of doing things, even though there may be times when the principles are not too clear to himself.

Philosophies of education. Many of the practices which the teacher follows in his classroom teaching are products of the theories or philosophies of education with which he has at some time had contact. Some of these theories may be rather complex, and some may even overlap. There are, for example, the ten which Cole [3] groups into pairs in which the first contradicts or is in contrast to the second. They are as follows:

1. Public Service vs. Individual Development
2. Utilitarian vs. Cultural
3. Content vs. Disciplinary
4. Repression vs. Naturalism
5. Preparation for Adulthood vs. Immediate Needs

In the first of these, education is intended to fit the individual to become an enlightened citizen. Society or the state is all-important; therefore, rigid discipline is necessary to subject the individual to its will. Opposing it, the individual-development theory regards the growth of the individual as of utmost importance. Discipline in this case is of minor importance, for it is assumed that the individual's ultimate development will make possible the creation of a superior form of society.

In the first of the second pair, education is intended to prepare the individual to make a living. In contrast, the cultural theory emphasizes cultural training especially for a select group of society, usually the up-

[3] By permission, from A *History of Education* by Luella Cole, copyright 1950, Rinehart and Company, pp. 623–29.

per classes. Lower class groups should have utilitarian training to prepare them for entrance into trade work or trade courses.

In the first of the third pair, emphasis is placed largely upon curriculum content. The theory in this case is that "knowledge is power." Opposing this, the disciplinary theory regards the development of mental power as more important than knowledge from studies; in other words, the pupil's mind can be disciplined to think. Because of the nature of their content, Latin and mathematics are regarded as being especially appropriate for achieving this purpose.

In the fourth pair, the repression theory holds that human nature is innately bad; therefore, it needs training to effect improvement. For example, the practice of mastering unpleasant subject material is regarded as a desirable learning experience. The naturalistic theory assumes that human nature is innately good and that children will develop naturally if they are only provided with the opportunity for doing so.

The last pair match preparation for adulthood with the immediate needs of the child. In the former, pupils are to receive training in those basic skills which they will find useful in adulthood. The opposing theory limits school work to the immediate needs of the child's daily life. For example, the child learns to spell new words only as he meets them in his normal daily experiences.

In contrast to the above organization Brubacher [4] looks at the problem of educational philosophies from a somewhat different angle. On the one hand, he sees adults, either singly or in groups, planning what is supposedly good for the child. They set up aims of education around adult interests, and design the curriculum to achieve these aims by specified procedures. They present material on a supposedly logical basis which they expect the pupil to follow. If the pupil is uninterested in the material, it becomes the teacher's responsibility to arouse his interest and to motivate him accordingly. The teacher may even resort to external pressure backed by adult authority if the pupil is unwilling to apply himself to the goal at hand. The teacher may practice punishment as a motivating force if the school and the home can find no other way of convincing the pupil of what he is to do. Some school people hold that the results of such a practice upon the individual are not always desirable. Others believe that the moral discipline involved in training the

[4] By permission, from *Modern Philosophies of Education* by John S. Brubacher, copyright 1950, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., p. 184.

individual to do unpleasant tasks warrants such a procedure. The latter view bears numerous resemblances to certain of the theories which Cole mentions.

In the second theory which he points out, Brubacher sees at least one major difference from that of the first. In the second the teacher gives major attention to the child and his learning experiences. He places subject matter in a secondary position. He considers the problems which grow up around the child's experiences and not necessarily those proposed and formulated by an adult group previous to the child's participation in the planned learning experiences. Such a practice naturally focuses attention on contemporary problems rather than on those of some earlier period. Some educators claim that this theory represents the spirit of democracy more truly than does any other. Such a claim is, of course, open to question. Since in this type of planning the teacher recognizes the pupil's interest rather directly, the problem of motivation becomes less critical for him.

Principles governing teaching practices. Most individuals do not wait until they begin their teaching to select the principles which they plan to use as a guide to their teaching practices. Their attitudes on such matters will already have been conditioned during the time that they were being trained at home and in school. It is from these experiences that they come to have rather established views on how to deal with certain phases of their work—for instance, pupil conduct. As a result of such varied backgrounds, the members of a single teaching staff may hold a variety of views. But this need not make it impossible for them to function together in a smooth and effective manner. In fact, some administrators prefer having a moderate amount of stimulating and challenging disagreement on viewpoints among staff members. They believe that such differences open ways for action that make educational progress and growth possible among the group.

Effective teaching is partly the result of the intelligent application of sound teaching practices. The successful teacher usually has most of his practices organized around a workable philosophy of education which he has found satisfactory to himself. The fact that he is successful indicates further that his practices are acceptable to the profession.

A teacher modifies his viewpoints and interpretations of educational philosophies as he obtains new information from continued studies of human behavior. It is doubtful if an individual ever follows one particu-

lar philosophy completely. Social and technological developments have a bearing on the methods and materials which a teacher uses. For this reason he must be aware continually of the changes that are taking place about him. By being familiar with these, he places himself in a position where he can choose and apply techniques which will tend to improve the effectiveness of his work.

Teaching Has Its Economic and Social Aspects

The economic status of the teacher. There is little incentive for an individual to enter the teaching profession if his major expectation is to become wealthy. The monetary remuneration is usually not large, yet it does offer limited financial security, along with rewards, such as released time for travel and study. Of course, this released time is frequently without pay. Yet the outlook for the teacher's future financial status is improving. In the first place, salaries are being increased in most public schools to the point where the teacher has a respectable, even if not an extensive, income. There is also a tendency toward placing the teacher on a full year's contract. This provides additional income for him and also makes his services available for the school and the community during the summer months. Such services may be in the form of teaching; workshop participation; curriculum planning; or community service, such as recreational supervision. Compensation for summer travel and study by the teacher has even been endorsed by officials in some schools. In such instances, financial adjustments are usually made for the teacher who wishes to spend his summer in some activity not related to teaching. Obviously, there are reasons enough to support the claim that teachers need to have a respectable income if they are to maintain good standards of living in the community where they work. Failure to achieve this status can easily lead to the lowering of morale with resultant poor teaching.

The pension arrangements for teachers in most states today are quite in line with those of other public employees and provide a fair income for old age retirement. It is customary for school boards to withhold a certain percentage of the teacher's salary and apply it to a pension fund. This practice is usually compulsory.

The improvement of the teacher's social status. Every teacher is familiar with the story of Ichabod Crane in Washington Irving's *The*

Legend of Sleepy Hollow. This itinerant teacher was a ridiculous figure socially. His kind may well characterize some of the people who have drifted into the teaching field and who have taught school because it provided a simple means for acquiring an income. In contrast, there are also many sincere individuals who have left a wholesome imprint on the profession. The latter are remembered by their pupils for their pleasant relationships both inside and outside of the classroom, their willingness to recognize individual problems, and their willingness to help pupils gain the satisfaction of worth-while achievement in school work.

The writer recalls a secondary school teacher whose pupil he had once been who had gained the respect of an entire community for this type of work. She went on teaching year after year without losing her spirit of interest in the welfare of others. Years later chance brought him together with a former schoolmate who was then carrying mail in the community. It was Christmas time, and the carrier pointed to his bursting mail bag as he exclaimed, "You know who gives me most of my work? Miss ——. Yesterday I delivered sixty cards to her door, and they came from every part of the country. None of her former pupils ever seem to forget her." Teachers of this type will seldom fail to gain and hold the respect of the persons among whom they work.

Teaching has gained in professional status during recent years. Teachers are being better trained than formerly. There is little doubt but that more of them are planning to devote their life to the work and not to use it as a steppingstone to some other field of activity. Localities are coming to depend upon them as leaders in and as contributors to community life. This has made them more willing to forget about plans to spend week ends out of town. In many instances, the life of the community has become their life because they have made themselves a part of it. Such changes have brought about an increasingly favorable attitude toward themselves as well as toward their work. Thus with increased respect from others, they have also come to have a greater respect for themselves and their profession.

Democratic responsibility and freedom of the individual as fundamental concepts in American education. American society has been built on the belief that democratic responsibility and individual freedom are basic to the structure of the organization. The secondary school has played a major role in preserving this belief.

The individual attends the secondary school during the years when the responsibilities of adulthood are taking shape and becoming signifi-

cant to him. During this time decisions have to be made apart from the guiding influence of the home. Some of these decisions affect not only the individual himself, but others as well. During this transition the individual becomes increasingly active in his local community and then in larger units of society. As this growth takes place, society expects that he become more and more aware of the responsibilities of citizenship that go with this transition.

School experiences and the child's understanding of individual freedom and social responsibility. Over the years immigrants have come to the shores of the American continent for diverse reasons. Many of them have come seeking freedom in a new land. Of this group some, no doubt, realized that freedom could not be had without social responsibility. The school has been one of a number of institutions responsible for perpetuating the concept that citizens can enjoy the privilege of freedom only when they are willing to work together for the mutual advantage of each member of the society in which they live.

Society expects every child to experience the satisfactions of shared interests and cooperative action. Along with this, he must also learn how to adjust himself to the conflicts that arise from differences of opinion and action. As he plays and plans with others, he comes in contact with the problems associated with group action. As he grows through childhood and adolescence, he comes to participate in more and more group activity. The school is responsible for providing facilities for making this experience as broad and meaningful as possible.

The complexities of modern society have complicated the teaching of the value and status of the individual. In many phases of pioneer society the individual had little need to be concerned about the problems of social adjustment. If he found it difficult to get along with his associates or did not like the environment in which he found himself, he could usually move into undeveloped areas and become an independent worker. The opportunities for doing this were rather numerous. Conditions have changed considerably since then. Today the individual must learn how to adjust himself to others. There are few frontiers where he can any longer work alone. The people of Asia and Europe have, of course, been face to face with this problem for a long time. Many of their people found a solution to the problem by migrating to the New World. Today there is no longer a New World to which to go.

In modern society individuals have a tendency to organize themselves

in order to achieve certain purposes. Under such conditions they do not always find it easy to represent their own interests directly. This situation has increased the danger that the individual may lose his sense of personal responsibility and become a mute member of an organization that speaks for him but not through him. The school has a responsibility not only in helping the individual to recognize this danger but also in helping him gain experience in meeting it in a satisfactory manner. It can do this by providing opportunity for the adolescent to function as a member of a working group in which he assumes a representative share of the responsibility for that group's growth and progress.

The Preparation of the Teacher Is an Involved Process

Development of professional skills. A background of information is an important asset for the teacher, but he must also be able to employ certain skills if he is to do well in his chosen field. In most teacher-training institutions the prospective teacher gets his first impression of classroom work by observing classes in action. Along with these experiences he does a certain amount of preparatory work in professional courses in education. These two activities are generally correlated rather closely. The laboratory teaching experience may follow or be carried on concurrently with professional courses in education as well as with courses in the teaching field.

Teaching is both a skill and an art. The beginner can develop his skill in this field only if he is provided with an opportunity for participating in the experience with which this skill is concerned. However, he is not in a position to participate in such an activity until he has achieved a background of general knowledge along with specialized preparation in one or more subject fields. Furthermore, he needs to know how to organize content material so as to establish situations where desirable pupil learning experiences can take place. His work as a student teacher should provide experiences for developing these numerous abilities. If the results of these experiences are satisfactory, the individual should then be capable of going out and doing a creditable piece of work in his profession.

Development of attitude toward pupils. Successful teachers enjoy working with children. Boys and girls quickly sense whether the teacher is sympathetic with their problems or not, and whether he understands and appreciates their interests. The alert teacher finds a way to tie his

instructional planning around these interests. This gives him the opportunity of becoming even better acquainted with his pupils. The teacher who respects his pupils and recognizes them as individuals can, in turn, expect to obtain their respect. This mutual exchange tends to create a wholesome atmosphere in which both the teacher and his pupils can work together to advantage.

The successful teacher must be willing to apply an abundance of tact, sympathy, and patience to the work which he is doing with his pupils. It is the need for applying these qualities at appropriate times that often makes teaching more of an art than a science.

Background differences and successful teaching. Teachers and pupils can very well come from communities whose local characteristics differ widely. However, the teacher who is willing to make reasonable adjustments to the community where he begins his work can expect to be accepted by that community. On the other hand, if he is overly critical, he may never find it a pleasant place in which to live. The teacher who participates actively in the life of the community and of the school usually enjoys the associations that he finds there.

Differences in individual backgrounds between teacher and pupils, or between pupils, can readily become assets rather than liabilities to classroom instruction. To achieve worth-while results of this type, it may only be necessary that each individual be willing to share his experiences with the other members of the group. The writer recalls an incident in which he saw a student teacher make excellent use of such a situation.

A young boy whose family had traveled widely because of the father's military assignments was able to describe crop harvesting procedures in various European countries and in the New England states where he had lived. When asked by his teacher to compare Eastern harvesting methods with those of the Midwest, the boy answered hesitantly, "How can I? I haven't been in the Middle West long enough to see how they do their harvesting here." Another pupil, however, quickly volunteered to describe the local methods, and with this information and that of the boy who had traveled, the class had material which led to an interesting discussion of harvesting methods.

The prospective teacher seldom has need to fear that he will not have background experiences upon which to draw. His major problem is to know how to use those that he has.

Professional growth a continuing process. Society is never static. The teacher continually faces the need for modifying his educational practices and methods to meet changes in emphasis. As such shifts go on

about him, he must know how to prepare his pupils so that they can meet the changes that society expects them to meet. The teaching profession expects its members to become familiar with such improved methods as grow out of educational research and to adopt those that will improve the effectiveness of the teaching in which they are engaged.

Subject mastery basic to successful teaching. In addition to specialized training in at least one subject area, the teacher should have a broad general education in several of the common fields of knowledge. The natural and physical sciences, along with the political, the social, and the economic structures of society should be fairly well understood by those who are active in the teaching field.

The secondary school teacher usually specializes in one or more teaching fields. In addition to having an adequate background in the content material in these fields, he should also be skilled in such abilities as are an inherent part of that field. In modern foreign languages, for example, a high degree of conversational skill is necessary if the teacher is to carry on effective oral instruction in the classroom.

The teacher who recognizes the interrelationships between subject fields is usually able to maintain a good perspective of education as a whole. Today there is a tendency to remove some of the hard and fast lines that have separated the materials in subject fields. With some subjects this can be done with little difficulty. For example, English and history are frequently fused to make possible broader and more effective interpretations.

Teachers who have had preparation in only one field occasionally forget that other fields also contribute to the general program of the school. Pupils expect a teacher to believe fully in the importance of his own teaching field, but they also appreciate a sympathetic interest in the other subjects and activities that make up the entire school curriculum.

School and Community Make Varied Demands upon the Teacher

Before he has had experience, it may be difficult for the prospective teacher to realize the full extent of the load to which he will be assigned when he begins his work. Under normal conditions he can prob-

ably expect to receive about five daily classes and a study hall or an activity. In some instances, the administrator may lighten the teacher's regular class load to allow for his doing additional work with extra-class activities. Many teachers sponsor one or more extra-class activities in addition to carrying a full teaching load. Of course this increases the amount of work which the teacher must do, but through these experiences he has the opportunity to make pupil contacts outside of his own classroom. Such relationships should help him to understand and appreciate more fully the purposes and functions of the entire school program in a community.

Teacher participation in community social life. There are always many demands upon the teacher's time. Most communities expect the teacher to participate in some local activities, in addition to assuming regular school responsibilities. A stay in any locality will usually bring invitations for him to participate in various organizations. Scout work, Sunday School teaching, or leadership in sports and musical groups are a few examples of the noncontroversial type of activities in which many teachers engage. Teachers differ widely as to the amount of time and effort which they devote to community activities. Some participate widely, others only sparingly.

Educational Progress Necessitates a Certain Amount of Change

Progress without change is scarcely possible, yet change in itself does not necessarily mean progress. Progress in teaching results only when viewpoints toward education change; when viewpoints change, methods and practices may also change. Educational theories often change when social theories change. For example, a nineteenth-century educational system may not prepare individuals adequately to meet the social and economic needs of the present century. Only a small number of students sought secondary school training in the nineteenth century. Today a high percentage of young people between the ages of thirteen and eighteen attend the secondary school. The problems and needs of such a diverse group are, obviously, quite varied.

Years ago it was common for those individuals who could not adapt themselves to the secondary school program to drop out of school and seek employment, which was frequently of an apprenticeship nature. Today it is the duty of the school to provide offerings that are broad

enough to meet the needs of the many pupils of adolescent age who enroll in its courses. Teachers, administrators, and parents should find it mutually helpful to work together to keep the schools in step with social changes. But such changes often occur so rapidly that it is difficult for adjustments in education to keep pace with them.

Changes in subject matter content. The secondary school curriculum of today includes many of the subjects that were taught decades ago. But in some instances the content of these subjects has changed decidedly. These changes, in turn, have brought about a change in teaching procedures. For example, there is less and less memorization of abstract material in many subjects today. Teachers place greater emphasis upon application rather than upon rote mastery. In foreign languages, for example, ritual drill on grammar is giving way to improvement on the functional use of the language. Thus the teaching of grammar becomes a means to an end, rather than an end in itself. In science new discoveries are opening the way for new knowledge. As a result, the teacher has to recognize learning materials in the light of these changes. Subject fields change from day to day. For that reason he must keep himself informed about these changes and modify his work accordingly.

The concept of freedom in our democracy. Never before in the history of our country has the teacher in our public schools faced such a serious threat to his freedom of action and expression as today. Fear of the forces that threaten the truths in which our people have long believed has sometimes led teachers to go in the very direction in which those forces have wanted them to move, *i.e.*, away from the democratic way of life. Of that situation Hutchins has this to say, "Instead of encouraging independent thought and criticism as the best demonstration of the vitality of the truths inscribed on our hearts, we are busily engaged in suppressing them." [5]

Laws are being introduced into legislatures asking that certain state officials be instructed to examine and censor text materials in our schools. Dictatorships have followed this same practice with one purpose in mind, *i.e.*, to gain control of educational training. Teachers are finding it increasingly difficult to teach the truth as they see it.

[5] From an address by Robert Maynard Hutchins, Chancellor, University of Chicago, Chicago, given in 1950 at the University of Illinois Summer Education Conference. Charles M. Allen and J. Lloyd Trump (ed.), *Education for Freedom*, University of Illinois Press, Urbana, 1950, p. 23. Used by permission of the publisher.

The wise use of the problem method has come to have a strong influence upon American teaching. Pupils and teachers alike have profited from the opportunity of examining issues objectively. Hutchins, no doubt, had this in mind when he added the following to his previous statement:

> When we say we want free minds we mean that we want minds able to operate well. The glory and the weakness of the human mind is that it is not determinate to certain things. It may range at will over the good and the bad. To be free to operate well, therefore, the mind requires habits that fix it on the good. . . . The free mind is first of all the disciplined mind. The first step in education is to give the mind good habits.
>
> The next step in the education of free minds is the understanding of what is good. The mind cannot be free if it is a slave to what is bad. It is free if it is enslaved to what is good. To determine the good and the order of good is the prime object of all moral and political education.[6]

Kern expresses a similar view when he states that:

> The teachers must be free to teach the truth about life, regardless of whose political philosophy is for the moment in control. You cannot legislate either by vote of a state legislature or of a city council or of a county board of education; you cannot legislate the truth into or out of a textbook.[7]

The teaching profession attracts candidates from many social and intellectual levels of society. The opportunity for service is frequently emphasized as an attraction for those entering the teaching field. Most teachers do enjoy their work but they also enjoy the rather definite financial returns that they receive for their work. Some teachers who enter the profession consider the opportunities available for travel and study; others are interested in the development of avocational interests during vacation periods. Many young people enter the profession because they have been under the direction of inspired instructors. Every individual has the right to choose his field of work, but there are standards which he is expected to meet and maintain whenever he makes that choice. This is certainly true of the teaching profession.

Student teaching is in many respects an aptitude test to determine the prospect's fitness for the profession. If the results of the experience are favorable, the student should have no reason to hesitate taking his place confidently along with others who have succeeded in the profes-

[6] *Ibid.*, pp. 27–28.

[7] P. B. Kern, "The Teacher's Place in Modern Civilization," *National Education Association Proceedings,* Washington, D.C., 1947, Vol. 85, p. 52.

sion. He should be able to look forward to many pleasant days ahead. However, should the results of his training period be unsatisfactory, the experience can still have been a valuable one. There is still time for him to change to some other type of work for which he may have a greater aptitude.

If at this point in his preparatory work the student is convinced that he wants to accept the responsibilities that go with teaching, it is the author's hope that he will find in the chapters that follow the type of guidance which will make his period of student teaching a challenging experience.

DISCUSSION TOPICS AND QUESTIONS

1. What factors should an individual consider before entering the teaching profession?
2. Should teaching attempt to perpetuate our present society or seek ways to change it?
3. What should determine a teacher's educational philosophy?
4. What are some of the means by which a teacher may help to increase society's respect for the teaching profession?
5. What were your concepts of individual freedom and democratic responsibility when you were a high school pupil? How did you gain those concepts?
6. To what extent is the theory that you learn to teach by teaching a sound basis on which to train teachers?
7. What social changes must the school recognize if it wishes to make its educational program worth while?
8. What types of background did you expect your teachers to have when you were in high school? How did those relate to their skill in teaching?
9. Discuss the extent to which your high school teachers participated in the social life of the community. Did they appear to be successful in serving both school and community?
10. What major contributions should the secondary school make to pupils of both high and low ability?
11. How may moral concepts best be taught?

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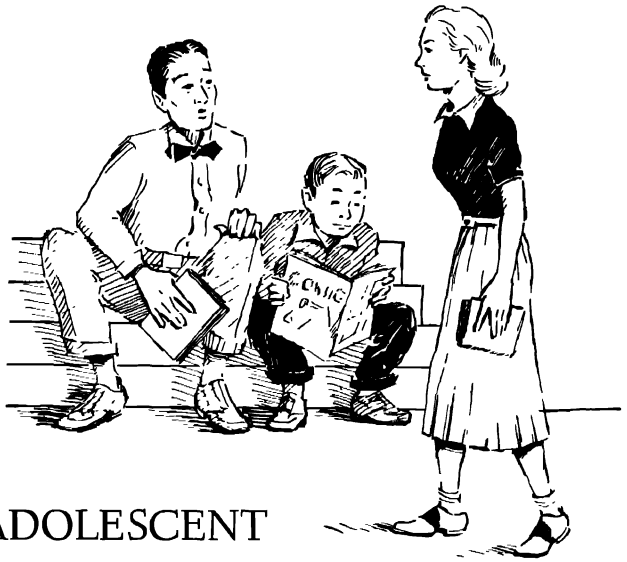
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CHAPTER TWO



THE ADOLESCENT AND THE SCHOOL

Various Types of Individuals Attend High School

It is essential that a workman understand the nature of the material with which he works. The same is true of the teacher. The successful teacher familiarizes himself with the general nature of the boys and girls under his direction. He knows that this nature varies according to the age level and the individuality of each child. It is for this reason that schools and colleges give the prospective teacher training in adapting learning conditions to the needs of the pupils with whom he works. In order to do this effectively, they should teach him to consider the pupils' backgrounds, their interests and abilities, as well as the stage of their physical and mental development.

This chapter discusses the nature of the boys and girls with whom the secondary school teacher works. He is in contact with them from the time that they enter high school as immature freshmen to the time that they leave as confident seniors. What happens during this period of transition is in many ways a fascinating story of human development.

Age range. As everyone knows, pupils normally attend high school when they are between the ages of thirteen and eighteen. It is possible,

of course, that a particular individual who is mentally advanced for his age will begin attending when he is younger. However, the number who do this is usually not very large.

With improved facilities for meeting the needs of pupils of adolescent age, schools are retaining a greater number of the weaker individuals until they have been graduated. Most of these are able to complete the required work in the normal period of time, although an occasional pupil may attend an extra year in order to make up poor work or to take certain advanced courses. The few older individuals who are found in high school today are usually those whose attendance has been interrupted by illness or by economic conditions.

The years of adolescence are marked by rapid and startling changes in the individual. The four or more years during which he attends high school bring him from childhood into adulthood. During this period he experiences numerous emotional and physical changes. Some of these are of such a nature that social maladjustments can result unless appropriate personal adjustments are made along the way. The rate of change that occurs varies considerably between the sexes as well as between individuals. It is with such a diverse and changing group then that the secondary school teacher spends his time and effort.

Represent cross section of society. A majority of boys and girls of adolescent age are enrolled in high school today. Every type of home and every section of society is represented. Furthermore, secondary school enrollments have been increasing not only because a greater percentage of youth are attending school but also because the population total itself is increasing. For this reason, the necessity for including diversified offerings in the secondary curricula and subject matter fields is becoming greater than ever before.

Certain social and economic changes of the last decade have made it increasingly difficult for high school pupils to make desirable personal adjustments. Military demands and industrial changes have made it necessary for some families to move repeatedly from community to community. As a result, it has often been necessary for the children of these families to attend several different high schools before they can accumulate enough credits to be graduated. Such changes in environment naturally result in a certain amount of social buffeting for these young people. For the teacher this situation means that he has to be prepared to meet the problem of having pupils enter his classes at any time dur-

ing the term. Many of these newcomers will have had learning experiences that are quite different from those of his own pupils. As a result he has to fit them into a type of learning situation which is already fairly well established. Such experiences are only a few of the many which the teacher has to face repeatedly in dealing with the variety of individuals who attend high school at some time or other.

Dropping out of pupils of low ability. The holding power of the secondary school has recently come in for considerable attention by school people. Everyone who has any familiarity with high schools knows that many boys and girls do not complete their high school work. Frequently, those who drop out are pupils who have done poor work academically and who are not interested in the type of instruction which the school has to offer. Many such individuals are in attendance only because the state requires that they be in school until they have reached a certain minimum age; hence, they have little reason to develop an interest in their work; their immediate attention is centered on the day when they no longer have to attend school. Even though some pupils of low ability enter school with the intention of continuing until they graduate, they sometimes find themselves unable to meet the demands of academic course work and, as a result, lose interest in what they are attempting to do. After they have reached this point, it is only a step until they develop an attitude of defeatism and persecution. Under such conditions the secondary school may fail completely in helping an individual make a satisfactory personal adjustment to his educational environment; in fact, it may even tend to make him more maladjusted than he was when he left the elementary school. Fortunately for everyone concerned, the number of such cases is usually not large.

Teachers and administrators are aware of the secondary school's inability to hold the pupils who have profited little from their course work. School people as a whole are making determined efforts to improve this situation by modifying instructional methods and subject matter content. But there is always the possibility that in doing this they will direct more attention to the needs of the weaker pupils than to those of high academic ability. This is not too surprising; it is the weaker rather than the stronger pupils who usually drop out of school and, in doing so, attract attention to their needs. Many secondary schools are attempting today to set up programs of study and course offerings that will make more pupils, regardless of academic ability, want to stay in school and

complete their high school work. However, the nature of this problem is such that the school cannot solve it alone. The community must join with the school in providing the type of opportunities which will assure success in the program.

Poor attendance by pupils from low socio-economic status. It is normal for young people to want to make satisfactory social adjustment among their peers. In fact, this drive is often the reason for their being enrolled in high school. But some become unhappy and fail to attend school regularly, as soon as they discover that they are unable to make these social adjustments to their own satisfaction.

It is not unusual for boys and girls to select the membership of their social groups rather critically. Unfortunately, a pupil from a low socio-economic family may find himself barred from acceptance in certain popular social groups because he is unable to dress as expensively as others in those groups dress, or is unable to pay his share of the costs of the recreation in which such groups participate. Such a condition may even cause him to withdraw socially to the extent that he refuses to attend school unless outside pressure is exerted upon him. The emotional reaction in such a situation is certainly one that is not conducive to good learning. Practically every community has problems of this type even though the individuals concerned may very well try to keep their difficulties hidden from teachers and from parents. That such conditions are rather widespread is evidenced in the results of a recent study pointing out the direct relationship between hidden tuition costs and the school attendance of pupils from homes of various income levels.[1]

Many homes expect adolescents to make a contribution to the family income. Wherever this is the case, it may be difficult for a boy or girl to attend school regularly and do good work. Yet solutions to this type of problem are usually possible. A common arrangement is for the pupil to carry a reduced load at school so that he can continue with his other work at the same time. Such an arrangement does not necessarily deprive him of participation in the social affairs of the school, nor does it necessarily carry social stigma. Many a pupil has done very well under such a plan; in fact, he has sometimes derived an insight into, and an appreciation of, economic values which his more affluent associates never acquired.

[1] Harold C. Hand. "Principal Findings of the 1947–48 Basic Studies of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program," Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program Bulletin, No. 2, Springfield, 1949.

During the last decade a new type of problem has entered into the economic environment of the adolescent boy and girl. Both industry and agriculture have been acutely in need of manpower and, therefore, have been willing to pay young people relatively high wages. As a result, some of them have come to believe there is little to be gained by continued school attendance; they have felt motivated to drop out of school and to accept some of the many employment opportunities open to them. Such a situation makes it especially difficult for a school to attract and hold boys and girls whose scholastic work is unsatisfactory. As a result of being employed, many of them enjoy certain social advantages; they may have at their disposal more spending money than their associates who apply themselves to their books. Such conditions tend to place school attendance in a rather unfavorable light, especially in the eyes of those young people whose social aspirations may be somewhat above average.

Adolescence Is a Period of Change

Physical, mental, and emotional changes are common throughout life, yet during adolescence they seem to occur with more rapidity and intensity than at most other times. This condition makes it difficult for young boys and girls to maintain outlooks on life that are mentally and emotionally balanced.

The freedom and independence of adulthood appeal very strongly to most adolescents. However, in accepting the responsibilities of that age group, many of them discover that they must break away from the protective influences of the home and the family. In this maturing process they sometimes move back and forth between adulthood and childhood a number of times before they finally gain the courage and confidence to take their permanent position with adults. It has been well said that "adolescence is that indefinite period of human life between childhood and maturity." [2]

Social and cultural confusion common. The problems of adolescence naturally become increasingly acute as society becomes increasingly complex. Therefore youth can best make satisfactory adjustments only when they consider all of the complexities involved in their proper perspective. Landis comments on this problem in these words:

[2] By permission, from *Secondary Education* by Thomas H. Briggs, copyright 1937, The Macmillan Company, p. 138.

It follows that adolescent-youth problems can be understood in large part by learning how contemporary culture and social organization handicap young people in making transitions to adulthood. It follows, also, that the psychology of adolescence and youth has little significance except as it is related to these forces which impinge upon the personality of the individual and which explain in large part whatever mental turmoil he may manifest. . . . Culture patterns, rather than innate make-up or sexual maturation, define the social roles of adolescents and youth. For us the problem is to analyze these roles as a product of group- and culture-conditioned behavior.[3]

Teachers sometimes find it difficult to establish economic and moral values which the adolescent is willing to, or has been permitted to, accept. He wants to earn money, but he is told that it is best for him to attend school. He wants to assume adult responsibilities, and he is told that he has not yet had appropriate background experience. Where or how he is to get this experience without having the opportunity to apply himself is seldom explained to his satisfaction. Honesty is emphasized as a desirable pattern of conduct, but he sees society, both culturally and politically, often rejecting this principle as inexpedient and outmoded. On the other hand, he also sees individuals following patterns of conduct that are exemplary and highly respected. This contrast in values may well cause him to wonder at the selection of his own ideals. Hence, the teacher's relationship to the pupil's selection of desirable and worthy ideals is a most important one—to paraphrase an old proverb, what the teacher does has probably more bearing upon the pupil's selection of these concepts than what the teacher says.

Adolescents who do not find satisfactory answers to personal problems in their homes frequently turn to the high school teacher for counsel and advice. Whenever this occurs, the teacher is in a position to establish enduring friendships for himself, as well as to become a factor in helping to stabilize the lives of maturing citizens. He should always accept these confidences in a kind and sympathetic manner and, as most experienced teachers know, consider them in the light of the environment in which they exist and of the nature of the individual concerned. The teacher who counsels without understanding all of the factors involved is in danger of betraying the confidences with which he is being entrusted. This is a responsibility which he should consider carefully before he accepts it.

[3] By permission, from *Adolescence and Youth* by Paul H. Landis, copyright 1947, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., p. 30.

Ability to adjust self to changes. Experienced teachers realize that the pupil's social success often depends upon the manner in which he is able to make suitable adjustments to the changes going on about him. At times these changes occur so rapidly that he, no doubt, becomes bewildered. He is expected to make adjustments at home and at school. The changing environment in which he finds himself requires that he act at least somewhat differently from the way he did before. The community, the home, and the school all exert pressure on him to conform to certain established mores, some of which have all the appearances of being in conflict with one another. Thus he is faced with the problem of finding his way by trial and error through a social maze out of which even adults do not always find their way satisfactorily. Under these circumstances he is not deserving of severe censorship whenever he becomes frustrated and emotionally disturbed in trying to do the best that he can to adjust himself. The teacher who understands these problems is in a favorable position to help him make the type of adjustments that will ease his tensions.

In the classroom unsuccessful pupil adjustments frequently result in a behavior pattern that is socially undesirable.

For example, the pupil is sometimes unwilling to face the unpleasant consequences of his actions so he resorts to evasion and thereby hopes to escape punishment. Lying is a common example of such action. Again, a pupil may lack certain desirable personal qualities. To compensate for this lack, he may attempt to develop superiority in some unusual form of behavior or skill. This condition may also arise after he has done unacceptable work in the classroom. Such action is often his way of attempting to attain status for himself. There is also the case of the pupil who resorts to daydreams in order to escape from the realities about him. When hard pressed, this individual frequently resorts to self-pity, even going so far as to anticipate personal injury with pleasure because of the suffering and remorse it will bring upon others.

Some individuals rationalize every act that they perform, especially those that they recognize as being undesirable. They do this rather than face the fact that they have made a poor choice in their form of conduct.

There are, of course, also many other motives back of undesirable pupil conduct. It is the teacher's problem not only to acquaint himself with these types of maladjustments but also to find ways and means for resolving them in a manner that is beneficial and satisfying to himself as

well as to the pupil. Suggestions for doing this appear in later chapters of this text.

Rapid physical development. The adolescent years find the individual making many rapid physical changes. There is normally an increase in height and in weight during this period. Frequently this increase is attained in spurts, during which the individual loses a certain amount of muscular coordination. The result is commonly known as the "awkward age," and many a young person suffers unlimited humiliation from the careless and thoughtless remarks of adults who regard his uncoordinated movements with ridicule instead of sympathy. Unfortunately, some teachers themselves participate in such unjust attacks. They are tempted to do this particularly when they have been needled by the irritating actions of some mischievous pupil. The loss of respect that follows the making of inappropriate remarks at such times can seldom be regained.

The rapid physical changes of adolescence are often a heavy drain upon the stamina of the teen-age individual. Even with an abundant appetite, he may need more rest than an adult if he is to retain his normal vitality. Rapidly growing boys and girls often appear listless and indifferent to the work in the classroom. However, this listlessness may be followed by a burst of energy in these same individuals when the bell rings at the end of the period. Such changes in response are quite normal. Some adolescents have an animal-like facility for relaxing at times convenient to themselves but not necessarily convenient to the adult who has planned an activity for them.

The secondary school teacher has to be sympathetic with the problems of the adolescent if he is to succeed in working with him. He must be cognizant of the changes that are taking place in the adolescent and plan his work accordingly. He can help the young boy or girl to recognize that most of these changes are normal. Since they are normal, they should be considered in a realistic, unemotional manner. Both teacher and parent need to recognize that in shielding the young person too much from an understanding of these changes, they may only be causing him to become overly self-conscious of them. Whenever the adolescent has the cooperation of the teacher and the parents in such matters, it is usually possible for him to make his social adjustments without undue emotional disturbances. This is especially valuable at the time, for it gives him the satisfaction of knowing that he is moving normally along the way toward becoming an adult.

Sexual changes and resulting social problems. The child who is mentally conditioned at home for the sexual changes that appear at adolescence is indeed fortunate; such conditioning usually simplifies his adjustment problems. It is natural that physical changes should result in the individual's developing new interests. For example, he begins to be more concerned about his personal appearance and becomes more conscious of his voice when he speaks. He engages in actions which he hopes will attract the favorable attention of the opposite sex. Because of inexperience in such matters, he sometimes does things that may appear crude and even ridiculous to adults, most of whom have probably forgotten what they did at that age.

The teacher's position in relation to this period of change in adolescence is a delicate one. If he understands that such youthful reactions are normal, he can help the pupil gain the self-confidence and the status which he is seeking. On the other hand, as was pointed out above, ridicule can leave on his sensitive emotions a mark that may last a lifetime.

The writer recalls an incident of such a nature when a somewhat impatient teacher discovered a boy and girl whispering across the aisle between them. Since whispering had been forbidden, the teacher made no comment on the violation, but simply stalked down the aisle, grasped the boy by the collar, and pushed him into the seat beside the girl. The girl began to sob as the boy sat there glaring at the teacher. The emotional tension in the classroom was almost unbearable; the sympathies of the pupils were, obviously, with their unhappy classmates. During the weeks that followed, the boy and girl, who had once been good friends, avoided each other. They did not dare speak together because of the humiliation that they had suffered. The boy never forgave nor forgot. Years later he could seldom speak of the incident except with bitterness in his voice.

The adolescent age is one when impressions are strong and lasting. Most adults are able to recall with considerable vividness, pleasant as well as unpleasant emotional experiences from those years. Boys and girls enjoy growing up in an atmosphere where they learn to respect one another. Experiences in such an environment can later become some of the most pleasant recollections of adulthood.

Rapid mental development. Jersild points out that during his teens the young person makes continued gains "in the sense of increased in-

formation, knowledge, ability to draw upon past experience, increased ability to make decisions, to form judgments, to exercise common sense, and so forth. Sooner or later during the adolescent period, he is likely to give some thought to the meaning of life and to his place in the scheme of things." [4] At this age the adolescent begins to realize the need for thinking through his own problems and making his own decisions.

Studies, such as those of Jones and Conrad,[5] indicate that mental growth normally continues throughout the period of adolescence, but that it does not develop uniformly in all individuals. Such a variation tends to complicate any attempt on the part of the school to organize classes on the basis of ability groupings. Social problems also result from the wide variation of individual interests during this period.

Frequent changes in behavior pattern. Adolescence is a period of experimentation. Many a maturing boy or girl attempts to solve personal problems by means of trial and error procedures. Such practices naturally result in changes in behavior and conduct. For example, the pupil sees the classmate beside him gaining status by performing a certain act. It is only natural for him to follow a similar practice in an attempt to gain equal recognition. If he is successful, his form of behavior may become fixed; but if he is unsuccessful, he may make modifications until he achieves his purposes in some form or other.

Teachers recognize such forms of behavior almost daily. A witty pupil enters the classroom and makes a remark that draws a favorable response from the assembled group. A less clever member of the class envies this recognition and tries to gain similar distinction by making a remark of his own. Since he is less witty, his remark may be inappropriate, or even stupid, and may result in considerable embarrassment to himself as well as to others. Whenever this happens, he knows only too well that he has failed. In desperation he may then try a form of behavior even more extreme in order to attract the attention that he previously failed to get. Classroom pranks are often the result of such motivation. Teachers who recognize this type of behavior problem in time can

[4] By permission, from *Child Development and the Curriculum* by Arthur T. Jersild and Others, copyright 1946. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, pp. 183–84.

[5] By permission, from "Mental Development in Adolescence" by H. E. Jones and H. S. Conrad. Forty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, *Adolescence*, copyright 1944, University of Chicago Press, Chapter VIII.

plan to engage the pupil in some form of acceptable activity in which he can have a taste of success. By this means undesirable forms of conduct are often avoided.

Sudden shifts in pupil behavior patterns are sometimes the result of individual or group pressure. As the pupil tries to maintain status as a "good fellow in the gang," he may resort to forms of behavior quite unlike those which he exhibited previously. Recognition by his peers ranks high in his scale of values. He is particularly sensitive to the demands for fads in dress and in conduct. He feels he must be up-to-date, even though what he does may be cause for consternation among parents and teachers. He may even resent adult attempts to interfere with these moves. All of these reactions can very well be the outgrowth of the feeling that it is necessary for him to maintain status among his youthful associates. The teacher should respect this feeling as a normal one and help the adolescent to participate in experiences in which he can gain recognition for worth-while achievements.

Acceptance and rejection of adult attitudes and practices. Adults and young people do not always agree on the relative importance of certain social practices.

For example, adults who have established homes may well have forgotten their own juvenile efforts at gaining and retaining the favor of the opposite sex. For most adolescents this is an immediate and serious problem. They sometimes give it a position of importance above that of success in any other line of endeavor.

It is natural for youth to want to find a satisfactory mate and to establish a happy home. As boys and girls work and play alongside each other it is natural for them to become interested in each other. But this interest does not always result in adult approval; there are times when it is apparently regarded as a mark of immaturity. Such differences of viewpoint can result in considerable unhappiness for all parties concerned. For this reason, it appears that the teacher should help develop boy-girl relationships on a normal, wholesome basis. Pupil response to such efforts will often take the form of support and cooperation in classroom as well as out-of-school activities. Thus both stand to profit from the arrangement.

Some adults are especially sensitive about the rejection of religious and moral practices by members of the younger generation. This situa-

tion may be accounted for by the fact that some young people have the habit of becoming increasingly liberal in their attitude toward traditional views on religion. As young people from one community mix with those of another, there is a need for some of them to change their codes of behavior. Although unavoidable, such changes are sometimes cause for ill feeling between parents and children. There may even be times when such differences are projected into the social life of the school. Such a situation can arise when the teacher is called upon to sponsor certain forms of social activities which do not have the approval of all parents. Under such conditions the adolescent may find himself torn between loyalty to the school and to his home and parents. Many schools try to solve this problem by promoting only such social affairs as have the respect and support of most or all members of the community. The teacher's position in this arrangement is truly a strategic one. If he makes a wrong move, he will probably find himself in considerable disfavor with certain family groups.

Parents who profess to certain standards and codes of conduct, sometimes may not realize how far they deviate from these standards in their own living. Children usually have little difficulty in recognizing such discrepancies. They may act no worse than their elders, yet because they may make less effort to cover up their actions, or are less able to make some of the fine distinctions which their parents maintain, they find themselves subject to censure. This could well be the reason why some young people reject the counsel of their elders and attempt to establish other standards of conduct.

The adolescent naturally craves new experiences. For him the adult world is a series of unfolding mysteries. He wants to explore this world. Many of his actions are the result of his attempting to satisfy his natural curiosity. It is the teacher's responsibility to guide this curiosity into worth-while channels. To curb it is only to tie down a safety valve which may lead to an emotional explosion later.

Growing awareness of personal responsibility. As the adolescent matures, he comes to realize sooner or later, that he must make decisions and assume increasing responsibility for his actions. This realization sometimes comes with shocking suddenness. Some young people find it difficult to maintain a balanced perspective when they experience a taste of this freedom of choice and of responsibility.

The school can play an important role in helping the adolescent as-

sume this new position with poise and dignity. There is need for instruction and training in making decisions; the several factors involved in making an intelligent choice need to be considered. The pupil should be able to profit from participating in activities where evaluation and selection are involved. Work on a project, a school newspaper, or even the organization of a class report can provide experiences that can help him realize the importance of the various steps that go with intelligent selection and choice.

It is obvious that a pupil will make mistakes as he assumes more and more personal responsibility for his actions. But adults themselves are not immune to making mistakes. If the school can help the young individual recognize a mistake whenever he has made it, and then help him plan his future activity so that this error will not be repeated, the adolescent should be making progress toward becoming a responsible individual.

Individual Differences Are Many and Varied

The adolescents who attend secondary school differ in so many respects that it appears almost impossible to provide for their every need. Every member of this age group has unique characteristics, the result of differences in social backgrounds and in physical and mental abilities.

Variation of growth patterns. It has already been emphasized that adolescence is a period of rapid growth. But growth patterns vary widely even among individuals of the same age. Girls are normally more mature physically during the early teens than are boys. But boys appear to close this gap rather quickly by the time they reach graduation from high school. This condition may account for the fact that girls in their early teens frequently prefer to associate with boys who are several years older than they are.

General differences in physical growth are apparent in any group of children of the same sex. Although this may not be as marked as some individuals suppose, it does exist, and must be considered by the teacher. For example, most teachers have had the experience of seating a class alphabetically and of finding that some small boy has seemingly disappeared completely. Later he makes his reappearance by peering out from behind a big boy seated directly in front of him. The alphabetic

seating arrangement had failed to consider the differences in body sizes of the two boys. Extreme differences in physical development are common among adolescents and may require special attention in the routine arrangements of the classroom.

Extremes in physical development may cause an individual to compensate in his behavior pattern. An overgrown boy may appear stubborn and unwilling to participate in certain class activities. Possibly he feels that participation places him in an unfavorable position and makes him appear ridiculous before his classmates. Teachers who have physically over- or underdeveloped boys and girls in their classes will certainly want to help these individuals adjust themselves to their environment as inconspicuously as possible. Such assistance is usually received with considerable gratitude on the part of these pupils.

Differences in amount and kind of intelligence. It is well known that individuals differ in amount of intelligence. They also do not make equal progress in mental growth during adolescence. This presents a problem for teachers, especially when pupils are grouped together for extended periods of time. Under such conditions they may do their best work when facilities are provided which allow for variable progression. This is especially the case when applied to those pupils who stand at the extremes of the ability spread within the group.

Students also differ in the kind of intelligence they possess. Pupils who are unable to do well in academic classwork may be able to exhibit considerable ability in some other type of endeavor. Even though he wants to, the teacher may not always find it easy to adapt the learning experiences of the classroom to the needs and abilities of all of his pupils. Some individuals exhibit forms of ability which appear quite unacceptable to society. Probably the best that the teacher can do in such cases is to try, as far as possible, to modify these until they conform to approved mores and, at the same time, contribute to the individual's welfare. An example of such an adaptation can be found in the skill which the famous magician Houdini possessed. His ability to escape from confinement was probably the envy of every criminal in the country. Yet Houdini applied his ability for the entertainment of society and in that manner made it acceptable to others as well as profitable to himself.

The average classroom can scarcely provide opportunity for the de-

velopment of every type of worth-while skill. The boy who wants to become a steamboat pilot, for example, will probably have to develop most phases of this desired ability outside of the classroom.

The secondary school recognizes differences in amount and kind of intelligence, but it is not always in a position to provide training in all specialized fields of endeavor. It can, however, help the individual recognize the types and kinds of abilities which he does possess. Then it can direct him toward an environment where these can be developed.

Variation in cultural backgrounds and practices. Individuals who come from different cultures naturally differ in their ways of living. For example, children who come from homes where certain foreign cultural practices exist sometimes find it difficult to adjust themselves to the mores with which other children are familiar. It is natural for these young people to want to conform to the patterns of behavior around them so that they will be accepted by their peers, but extreme differences in behavior may often interfere with such an acceptance for extended periods of time. The school has a responsibility in making this process of assimilation a natural and pleasant one.

Impact of moral and religious influences. The moral and religious ideals which children hold are usually those of their parents or of the adults with whom they associate. Such influences are deep and lasting and often carry over into adulthood. Most individuals appreciate having their viewpoints respected, and children are no exception to this. They are conscious of the ideals which their parents hold. They may not always follow all of these ideals themselves, but they are usually sensitive to attack upon them, whether it be in the classroom or on the playground.

Most pupils are willing to discuss their moral and religious backgrounds freely in the classroom if they believe that such discussions will be kept on a dignified and respectful plane. In fact, they may take particular pleasure in participating in such discussions because they have their own experiences upon which they can draw. Objective discussions of this type often reveal the many deep impressions which the home and church have made upon the young person. There are teachers who even plan to have their pupils become directly acquainted with certain differences in background common to the community. For example, they arrange visits to various churches where religious leaders explain the basic beliefs of their people and the part that the sanctuary plays in the

worship service of their membership. In this way pupils gain information about the moral and spiritual life about them. It is possible that such experiences will help them develop tolerant and understanding attitudes toward their associates. Furthermore, they may come to appreciate and respect more readily the differences in religious viewpoints and opinions which are prevalent in the community.

Differences in social values between sexes. Boys and girls of the same age frequently differ in their estimate of social values. For instance, boys of twelve are commonly interested in boisterous, aggressive activity. They enjoy group games in which there is need for skill. Two or three years later they are probably more interested in excellence in physical competition, and in physical attractiveness as related to social situations between the two sexes. Interest in personal care has also usually become significant to them by this time.

On the other hand, girls of twelve are likely to be concerned with personal appearance and in being gracious and ladylike. Shortly thereafter, they are probably more concerned about being attractive to boys. At the same time, they may take an active interest in sports, with the result that some of their ladylike manners of previous years are quickly lost.

Boys appear to have certain social advantages at these age levels, for the qualities that make them attractive to other boys also seem to make them attractive to girls. But the qualities that make girls attractive to boys may cause the former to be disliked as readily as to be liked by girls of their own age. All this makes for a complex situation. One may well wonder that teachers are as successful under such conditions as they are in guiding the social activities of young people.

Influence of the home on habits and attitudes. The habits and attitudes which the adolescent develops in his home often condition him for the school experiences in which he participates or refuses to participate later. Some parents take a definite interest in helping the school understand the needs of their boy or girl. Others do not wish to be bothered. They leave the school and the young person to work out such problems as best they can. Such parents enter into the relationship only when they are asked to do so because of unsatisfactory conditions in individual relationships.

Parental interest in books and formal education may help the adolescent develop a favorable attitude toward his academic work, although

there is no assurance that this will happen. Similarly, a negative attitude toward such matters may leave the pupil with a negative viewpoint. Some parents make the acquisition of wealth a major purpose in life. Whenever they do this, it is sometimes difficult for the young person to see the immediate need for staying in school and continuing with his academic work. If he does continue, he may take an interest only in such work as will bring in quick monetary returns. The adolescent with such a home influence is often impatient with school and as a result becomes a dropout.

It is natural for pupils to differ widely in their habits. Some are careless in their work, others are not accustomed to assuming responsibilities. The following story illustrates a situation of this latter type.

A mother walked into a certain high school office one day and placed a sealed envelope in the mailbox of her son's homeroom teacher. The latter's curiosity was naturally aroused as he opened the letter. Inside was a note and a dollar bill. The note requested that the teacher take the dollar and go around and pay numerous small charges that the boy owed—such charges as class dues, library fines, and similar items. The mother stated that she was not certain that she could trust her boy to take care of these matters. After a moment of consideration, the teacher added a few words at the bottom of the page, enclosed the money and mailed both back to the mother. He did this not because the money did not cover the total bills—it was sufficient—but because Bill was a junior in high school, was seventeen years old, and stood at least six feet two inches in height. The teacher felt that it was high time that Bill should be made to assume responsibilities.

Most teachers will sooner or later have to face some rather strange requests from overly solicitous parents who fail or do not want to realize that their child should eventually become a responsible individual.

The Teacher Must Consider the Pupil's Emotional Reaction

Mores and emotional reactions. Emotional tensions are rather common during adolescence. Affairs which to an adult may be of only routine concern can appear extremely important to the teen-ager. Many of his experiences are new and novel. Yet at that age he has not always reached the position where he can face them openly and with confidence. Some adults assume that childhood and adolescent worries are minor and unimportant; but these worries often occupy an important

position in the mind of the young person. For example, he may be emotionally disturbed because the teacher asks him to participate in an unfamiliar form of activity. If at such a time he does not understand what is expected of him, the teacher can help remove tensions by making the situation clear to him.

The pupil who is just entering school comes in contact with many unfamiliar situations. Encompassed by a new environment and by new classmates, he is usually more than willing to accept any form of assistance that helps him make appropriate adjustments. It may be that he is disturbed at not being able to find the correct classroom before the bell rings, or he may be afraid to speak up to tell the teacher that he has been unable to get the required texts for preparing his first assignment. The pupil who is not accustomed to speaking freely before adults may find such experiences very disturbing.

Fear plays a significant role in the life of the adolescent. At school he comes to fear examinations, punishments, and teasing by others. He is fearful of losing status with his associates, especially with those of the opposite sex. Failure to understand the changes in bodily growth and development that take place may lead to social withdrawal and emotional disturbances. The teacher should make every effort to help the growing boy or girl banish such fears as may interfere with normal attitudes and responses. But it is difficult to do this unless he can gain and hold the confidence of the pupil at all times. This step requires that he really have the interests of the young person at heart as he works with him.

Love as a new experience for the adolescent. The love expressed between members of a family is an experience familiar to most children. But this experience differs somewhat from the infatuation for a member of the opposite sex that is quite a normal occurrence during adolescence. The impact of this youthful experience upon some individuals is terrific. All other interests suddenly become secondary and school work becomes both an inconvenience and an interference with one of life's unique experiences. The pupil affected may lose all interest in his school work and regard the teacher as an unjust taskmaster who doesn't understand what this experience is all about. The fact that homework is assigned just when romance demands the full attention of the individual appears inexcusable to him. On the other hand, the considerate teacher realizes that such infatuations are often of short duration; after a short

period of time both individuals may very well find other interests again. Teachers can best meet such situations with patience, tolerance, and a goodly amount of self-composure. Ridicule, sarcasm, or laughter at such expressions of affection usually only lead to the development of personal antagonisms. To achieve a wholesome result in such situations, the teacher may have to help the affected individuals realize that society expects them to conform to certain standards of conduct if they wish to avoid the ridicule of their associates.

Although exceptional interest in members of the opposite sex is a normal characteristic of most young people during adolescence, some individuals do not develop that kind of interest until later in life. Slow physical development in certain individuals may even result in their developing a negative attitude toward members of the other sex. As a result, these young people may refrain from taking part in games where boy-girl associations are a part of the normal activities. Individuals of this type usually prefer to remain alone or, if they do mingle with others, they congregate with members of their own sex away from the center of activity.

It is the teacher's responsibility to direct social affairs so that there will be normal social relationships between boys and girls. Teachers who direct mixed functions successfully often arrange that members of both sexes participate informally in games and events. They may even bring members of the opposite sex together in couples, but in doing so try to emphasize the activity rather than the incidental "pairing" of the young people. Through the enjoyment of the game with a cheerful companion, the shy individual can often be helped to overcome the initial embarrassment of his being associated with a member of the opposite sex.

Affection and friction in child-parent relationships. The teacher can expect to find himself becoming involved in occasional problems of child-parent relationships. Such experiences are not necessarily always unpleasant. Every normal home has a certain amount of affection and friction which includes trivial as well as serious matters. But an incident that may seem trivial to an adult may have quite a different appearance to a maturing boy or girl. Parents sometimes forget that the adolescent is growing up and is, therefore, making many changes.

For example, considerable tension may develop whenever he is denied certain privileges. He may even carry these tensions into the classroom where

they provide cause for disagreements with his teachers. Whenever this happens the adolescent, no doubt, feels that the whole world is against him; therefore, he sees little reason for cooperating with anyone. At such times neither parent nor teacher may find it easy to gain his good will again.

An adolescent occasionally thrusts his affection upon a teacher; this is particularly the case if he feels that the door has been closed against him at home. In such a situation the teacher has to consider the many implications that are involved. If he favors the child too openly, he may create not only serious relationships within the family but also between the family and himself.

There are times when parents find it difficult to "let go" of their boy or girl; this is particularly the case whenever this young person reaches the age where he wishes to become independent. There is also the situation where parents seek to realize through the child certain emotional satisfactions or ambitions which they may never have been able to achieve or satisfy within themselves. When this happens, they may place undue pressure upon the young person by urging him to achieve distinction for the sake of the family. Teachers can help such parents by pointing out that their family problems are probably little different from those of other fathers and mothers. Schools recognize that viewpoints such as this are common in families; therefore, they are attempting to help parents with their difficulties by discussing family relationships in adult classes and in parent-teacher meetings. They are also providing trained counselors with whom the parents may consult.

Social approval as a motivating force. It is natural for a boy or girl to begin giving expression to a desire for group recognition quite early in life. Even as an adult he probably never loses this desire, but it is especially strong during the years of adolescence. Youth wants to be recognized both by peers and by adults. It is not unusual for an adolescent who finds it difficult to gain recognition from those of his own age, to seek for status in areas where he can obtain adult recognition.

The teacher has to recognize that social approval is a motivating force of inestimable power in the classroom. For example, continued failure in school work may cause the adolescent to seek for other means of gaining status. Sometimes such means are entirely unacceptable to society. The "problem child" is often an individual who is seeking understanding, sympathy, and some form of group approval. He feels that he wants to belong somewhere, to someone. On the other hand, group dis-

approval is dangerous in that it can lead to ridicule of the individual. Unfortunately, some teachers themselves participate in such a practice. The boy or girl who is the target of such an attack seldom forgets or forgives those who took part in it.

Every individual wants to be respected as an individual; this is true whether he is able to measure up to the ability levels of others in his group or not. To the extent that he can do so, in the classroom it is the teacher's responsibility to set up learning experiences in which every boy or girl has some possibility of achieving success. This step may sometimes require considerable effort on his part, but the result can very well make the effort worth while.

Adolescence Is a Period of Shifting Interests

Interests shift rapidly as the adolescent matures. The interests of the adolescent change along with his physical and emotional changes. Studies show that such changes of interest follow a rather definite pattern. Jersild [6] reports on a study of this problem made by M. C. Jones in California. This study shows that sixty-five per cent of a group of tenth-grade boys preferred a motion picture magazine to a "news weekly." Later at the twelfth-grade level their preference was equally divided. Similar shifts occurred between detective story magazines as against articles on government and world affairs. On the other hand, girls already showed a two-thirds majority interest in favor of the latter material at the twelfth-grade level. Thus, the study indicated that there is a general increase in interest from tenth to twelfth grade for "factual, realistic reading matter" over material dealing with "glamorous, fictional, or romantic characters." It is probably no surprise to find that girls are more interested in motion picture and radio characters, while boys show a preference for western and fictional detectives. This study indicates that rapid changes in the selection of reading material occur among both boys and girls over a period of even as little as two years of time. During the four years of high school the change can, therefore, be expected to be even greater.

During adolescence there are marked changes of interests in matters connected with recreation, hobbies, and social affairs. For example, as he grows older, the adolescent becomes more interested in parties of a for-

[6] By permission, Jersild, *op. cit.*, p. 214.

mal nature. By the time he is a junior or a senior, he is often looking forward to activities such as those connected with the junior-senior prom. This change in interest may suddenly make him more than willing to appear in public in formal dress. Such an experience can be one means of giving him the feeling that he has now outgrown his early adolescence and is approaching and even entering adulthood.

Group-centered recreation. The period of adolescence is marked especially by interest in group recreation. Mixed parties, dances, hayrack rides, and car rides are common to almost every high school group. Common interests are also shared at athletic events. Every community has at least one or more places where mixed groups of pupils gather after school or in the evening for various types of refreshments and social activities.

During these formative years, young people begin assuming increasing responsibility for handling the arrangements for their social affairs. They enjoy planning for parties or dances, and many of them will work industriously on committees to help make these affairs a success. In doing so, they often find it pleasurable to work in mixed groups to carry out necessary details. Thoughtful teachers delegate duties and responsibilities for such affairs to pupils to give them experience. Yet, teachers may find it necessary to offer guidance at times because not all boys and girls are able to understand and to meet all of the responsibilities that are involved in arranging for such events.

Social and economic security. Two phases of social and economic security are of special concern to the adolescent. Every young person discovers sooner or later that he needs a certain amount of money—sometimes a considerable amount—if he expects to maintain status with his social group. During adolescence custom usually requires that the boy provide the funds for both himself and his date. Sometimes such an outlay presents an acute problem for the boy, as well as for his parents. The boy who has some type of a job probably feels fairly secure on this matter, providing the amount that he earns is sufficient to meet his individual needs. But if he finds it necessary to ask his parents repeatedly for spending money, he may develop an attitude of hostility toward them and possibly even toward his associates. Sometimes instead of asking for money, he finds it easier to withdraw socially. In that way he escapes the humiliation of repeatedly having to ask others for financial aid. The situation is particularly crucial if the parents are not in sympathy with the

boy's need for it. Of course, the young person who receives a regular allowance sufficient to meet his needs is somewhat more fortunate.

Problems of this nature are not limited to boys alone. The teen-age girl also has need for a certain amount of spending money. Her outlay for needs, such as for clothes and trips to the beauty parlor, is no small item in itself. As these factors indicate, economic pressures can become major reasons for an adolescent dropping out of school and seeking employment for himself. In doing so, he no doubt believes that if he is to be a respected individual, he will have to have economic resources which will provide for his immediate social needs.

It is quite normal for the adolescent to have financial and social interests that extend into the future. Since it is during these years that he becomes conscious of entering adulthood, he begins to wonder just how he will best be able to earn a living later in life. It is natural for him to want to insure his future economic independence; therefore, because of lack of experience or foresight, he sometimes hastily accepts a position even at a sacrifice to his educational future. His major concern at the time is to make sure that he gets a job. He is especially disturbed about this situation during times of economic depressions when employment opportunities are few. To him, holding at least some type of a job is a means of insuring a limited amount of economic and social security for himself and his future family.

Growing awareness of political and economic environment. As the adolescent grows older he becomes increasingly aware of the political and economic factors that affect his everyday activities. Economic changes sometimes affect the environment of his entire family. For example, lack of employment may drive the group from one part of the country to another. World-wide forces, such as wars, may even break up the family temporarily or permanently.

As the adolescent experiences changes of the type described above, he begins to realize there are forces affecting his life beyond the control of his home and parents. During childhood he may have felt completely secure in the belief that his parents were capable of controlling the environment in which he moved. Now he begins to realize that this is no longer true. The family's financial and social security is often determined by forces beyond their control. Furthermore, as he grows older, he finds that he is being pushed out into the world at large where

he must face his own problems. This outlook can easily increase the confusion and fear with which he is already possessed and sometimes cause him to make hasty and unwise decisions.

The school should help the adolescent realize that he is not entirely a victim of world circumstances. There is much that he can do to determine and even to change the environment in which he finds himself. But there may also be times when he has to learn to adjust himself emotionally and physically to factors over which he has little or no control. For example, in times of war able-bodied youths find themselves facing military service. As a result, both they and the girls of their age level may have to reconstruct their ideas of a social and economic future upon patterns quite unlike those that exist in times of peace. Such conditions cannot help but affect attitudes and emotions; they can even leave young people confused and frustrated.

The impact of adult interests upon the interests of adolescence. Since adults plan most school programs, such programs naturally reflect the adult interests and attitudes of the people who draw them up. It is easy for adults to reason that their experience places them in a position to determine what goals are most desirable for youth. But with changes in social and political conditions taking place daily, youth is sometimes in a position to sense a need which adults did not experience when they were young. Therefore suggestions made by young people are often worthy of serious consideration by those who plan educational programs. It is always possible that some of their ideas can lead to changes of a constructive nature.

Education creates new and worth-while interests. As a pupil enters new areas of study, he may develop new interests. There may be situations in which these interests are so strong that the teacher has to supply little additional motivation to stimulate his progress. Interests of this type may be manifested in such activities as collecting items or gathering information. Furthermore, as the pupil matures his interest may, for example, turn from pride in total number of items collected to a study of the nature and characteristics of the items or factors in question. Thus life becomes richer for him as he comes to sense the meaning of intellectual growth as well as successful activity. Education should not only increase the variety of the pupil's interests at this age, but the depth of each as well.

Out-of-School Agencies Affect Attitude and Educational Development of the Adolescent

Shifting of training responsibilities from the home to the school. The complex pattern of our American social and economic life is gradually shifting more and more of the responsibility for the moral and social training of the child and adolescent from the home to the school. The change in pattern of the economic structure of our society probably accounts for much of this change. The day when the family was the center of economic production has passed, and today it is common for one or both parents to work away from home much of the time. This tends to lessen the moral and social influences which family unity once had upon the child. But if the school is to accept more and more of the responsibility for training boys and girls, it will have to provide a program which will meet the needs of the adolescent outside of the school day as well as within the school day.

Most present-day homes offer fewer opportunities for the assignment of regular responsibilities to children than was possible several decades ago. This leaves the young person to fill in his time and use up his energy as best he can. Under such conditions, the opportunity for drifting along with associates into undesirable experiences is ever present. Adolescents are adventurous and often seek thrills to break the routine of their daily lives. This is true in the small rural community with its limited entertainment facilities, as well as in the metropolitan center with its appealing bright lights. Some homes cooperate with the school in helping adolescents develop worth-while habits in use of leisure time, while others do not. Teachers can expect to have in their classes pupils from both types of homes.

Formation of attitudes by commercial agencies. Commercial agencies are active forces today in molding public opinion. They direct their appeal toward individuals of all ages. They urge everyone to eat certain foods because nationally recognized athletes are said to enjoy them. The subtlety of the appeal is obvious. They pressure the adolescent into wearing certain types of clothes because it is the smart thing to do. At other times they urge him to see certain movies because such movies appeal especially to his age group. The adult also comes under their attack. Sometimes their approach is subtle, sometimes it is openly brazen. Yet, regardless of the style being used, the bombardment goes on without let up. The radio, television, and the press are all organized to in-

fluence public opinion. Even our own national government uses these channels to create attitudes favorable to its purposes.

Young people, as well as adults, find it no easy task to sift through this oral and visual barrage of advertising in order to select values which will serve their well-being. Some of the statements that are made by these agencies are contradictory; others are exaggerated with the obvious intent of arousing emotions. All of them, without doubt, leave their impact upon the life of a large number of individuals. If the whole situation appears complex and confusing to an adult, to an adolescent it must appear even more so. It takes an unprejudiced, tactful teacher to unravel this material in such a way that boys and girls are able to view it in an intelligent, objective manner.

Society's responsibility for providing employment for the individual. Schools and homes are sometimes so intent upon convincing the adolescent of the economic and social value of an education that they create attitudes which are not always to the best interests of the individual. They sometimes lead him to believe that if he attends school for a number of years and does acceptable work, unlimited employment opportunities will be awaiting him upon graduation. It is possible for an adolescent to accept this viewpoint, apply himself industriously to his work, but neglect to develop certain aspects of his personality. As a result, he may fail to obtain the type of position for which he was striving. This may cause him to become bitter and disillusioned toward life.

Adolescents need to realize that employment is not necessarily a direct product of schooling. It is true that school training normally increases the individual's chances of finding gainful employment, but it does not guarantee that society will have to accept him as an employee. He should be helped to understand that before he can be employed there has to be a position which needs to be filled. Furthermore, he has to be qualified by background and ability to fill that position in a satisfactory manner. Of course, there is always the possibility that his talents may be such that a position may be created to fit his particular needs. Such situations do arise but they are not too common.

School Programs Should Meet the Needs of Youth

The school's program should help the individual in bridging the period of change during adolescence. As has already been pointed out, most adolescents experience more or less of an emotional shock while

adjusting themselves to the changes connected with the teen-age period of life. At this time the individual is in a position which can be described appropriately as being marginal. Under certain conditions he finds himself elevated to adulthood status. This can occur in either the home or in the school. Then again, if circumstances make it convenient to place him there, he is dropped back into the role of a child. Thus for a period of time he is probably never entirely secure as to his status among his associates; in fact, he may come to have the feeling of not belonging to any group. Such a situation may do one of two things for him: it may motivate him to struggle all the harder to gain status and thereby increase his chances of succeeding at a mature level, or it may leave him crushed and frustrated at the adolescent level.

The school has a problem in determining how it can best help the individual through this changing period of life. Alone it cannot push him forward, yet it can help to provide experiences that will tend to make the transitional process a fairly normal one. The human element adds to the complexity of the problem; for instance, the pupil who finds it difficult to make adjustments may, as a result of this difficulty, work hard and in the end achieve a higher level of success than the person who makes adjustments with a great deal of ease. Because of the factor of unpredictability in the individual, the school has to set up a program which will, as far as possible, consider the unique characteristics of each boy or girl who enrolls in it.

Convincing the pupil of the worth-whileness of learning experiences. A major objective of the secondary school should be to convince the adolescent that the work which he is doing is worth while. As soon as the pupil accepts this point of view, he is in a favorable position to put forth his best efforts to achieve the other objectives which will be a part of his course work.

Pupils have the right to assume that they will not be asked to do work which does not contribute to their own good or to the good of the school. They have a right to expect the teacher to evaluate the worth-whileness of all types of school work before he assigns it. They are usually quick to sense the situation when he asks them to do work which serves no definite purpose other than to kill time. It is natural for them to assume a negative attitude toward such busywork.

Teachers should keep in mind that some learning values are not always immediately discernible to their pupils. These young people are

still somewhat immature and inexperienced. However, they are usually ready to accept the teacher's affirmation that worth-while values are present if they have confidence in the honesty and competence of that teacher. Hence, there is probably no factor more stimulating to pupils and teacher alike than the conviction that the work in which they are engaged is characterized by values of a personal and worth-while nature.

The adolescent is normally an intelligent individual; therefore he expects to be regarded as such. He realizes that he has much to learn before he can assume adult responsibilities in a capable manner. He may even admit this fact to others, but he seldom appreciates having teachers emphasize it repeatedly in front of his classes. Instead of doing this, he would rather that they would direct their energy toward making his learning experiences as stimulating as possible.

DISCUSSION TOPICS AND QUESTIONS

1. Discuss several of the major problems that result from having a cross section of society represented in the secondary school.
2. What factors contribute to the poor attendance and dropping out of certain high school pupils? What may the school do to help hold these young people?
3. Describe the type of changes to which the adolescent must adjust himself during his high school years.
4. Describe some of the individual differences that you recognized in your high school classmates. To what extent were you aware of them then? What provision did the teacher make for meeting these differences?
5. What emotional experiences are common to high school pupils? What attitude is it advisable for the teacher to take regarding these experiences?
6. Describe how a high school pupil may discover new fields of interest in various kinds of courses.
7. How may youth be trained to evaluate the commercial and political materials that are put out by the press, the radio, the movies, and television?
8. On what basis is it possible for the secondary school to evaluate its own offerings to see whether these offerings are meeting the needs of youth? What was your attitude toward the offerings of the secondary school when you were an adolescent?

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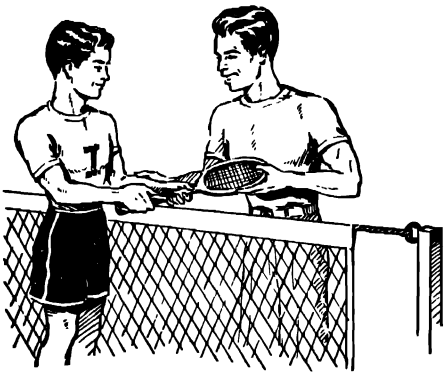
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STUDENT TEACHING AS A LEARNING EXPERIENCE

The Program Provides Realistic Teaching Experiences

The individual who is planning to become a successful teacher should concentrate on developing within himself the specialized skills and abilities which he will need in the teaching profession. It is for this reason that teacher-training institutions provide opportunity for him to work with pupils in learning situations before he assumes a full-time teaching position.

During his student teaching activity the prospective teacher goes through a training experience in which he works under the guidance of personnel who are experienced in the field. The individual with whom he works most directly is known variously either as the critic, the cooperating, or the supervising teacher. To avoid confusion, the term cooperating teacher will be used in all references to such a person in this text. Such a working relationship makes it possible for the cooperating teacher to point out satisfactory work as well as to correct the student's weaknesses in directing learning activities before they become habitual and lead to unsatisfactory consequences. There is also opportunity for the student to consult with other trained individuals in order to profit from their background and professional experience.

Most states require that the teaching candidate meet certain standards of preparation before they permit him to accept a regular teaching

position. The student should recognize that this requirement assures the public that those who enter the profession have at least limited preparation for the work which they are to do. In most instances this preparation includes, in addition to academic training, acceptable teaching experience of a laboratory nature for a period of from several weeks to several months.

Theory back of the plan. Student teaching is intended to help the prospective teacher determine whether he is able to develop the skills and abilities that he will need if he is to succeed in the profession. If he gives evidence of such growth and progress, then there is every reason for him to continue developing these skills and abilities to the fullest extent possible. On the other hand, if there is evidence that he will not develop into a capable teacher, then it is probably best that he consider entering some other field of work for which he is better suited.

The teaching field needs individuals who are able to teach well; those who show little promise will scarcely want to spend their lives in a type of work which may become distasteful to them, and in which there appears to be little opportunity for them to enjoy success. Since readjustments occur in all professions and vocations, it is not unreasonable to expect that there will be some in teaching. The student should realize that the teaching experience in which he participates is really a practical aptitude test, the results of which indicate rather accurately how well he can expect to succeed in this field of work.

The student will normally have had some professional courses in education before he enters upon his student teaching experience. Such courses are intended to provide a background for the integration of method and practice in the teaching experience. It is usually helpful for him if, in his early courses, he has had the opportunity of visiting classes and even of participating in certain types of school activities. Such experiences help to acquaint him with the various kinds of responsibilities which a teacher meets during an ordinary school day. For instance, he should see and understand how the teacher adjusts himself to the many demands which are made upon his time and his ability.

As he enters upon his teaching work, the student should realize that he is participating in an activity which has not been established for his benefit alone. Pupils are in classes and activities because society is attempting to provide them with various types of learning experiences.

The teachers assigned to these pupils are responsible for seeing to it that they obtain such experiences. Even though student teachers are there to obtain experience in directing learning activities, they must do this in a manner which will not interfere with the learning opportunities set up for the pupils in the school. The student teacher should recognize that it is a privilege for him to be permitted to work in such an environment. The continuance of this privilege for himself as well as for others depends upon how well he meets his responsibilities. A cooperating teacher can scarcely be expected to permit the continuance of work of a nature which will endanger the security of his own position.

As he is about to enter upon his first teaching experiences, the student may fear that he will not be accepted by the pupils in the classroom where he is to work. However, high school pupils are usually quite willing to have the student teacher become a part of their classroom group. In fact, they often welcome such a person for the additional opportunities for individual attention which dual leadership among their group has to offer. But the beginner must remember that such acceptance can be withdrawn quickly if he does not take a sincere and active interest in the pupils' welfare. Adolescents are quick to sense when a teacher's efforts are marked by indifference and insincerity.

The teacher-training experience provides opportunity for the student teacher to face the realities of teaching. He works in a real classroom with typical pupils. He participates in the regular program of the school. The responses which he is able to obtain from the members of his present classes will be very much like those which he can expect from other groups later. Furthermore, whenever he reaches the point where he can direct and guide learning activities with reasonable ability, he can expect the cooperating teacher to turn over to him more and more of those responsibilities. Thus he will obtain increased opportunity for professional growth.

The personnel involved. The prospective teacher can expect to make a number of professional acquaintanceships during his period of student teaching. If the school is small, he may come to know many or all of the staff members. By attending faculty meetings, by eating lunch with groups, or by participating in school activities, acquaintanceships can be made in a casual manner. The cooperating teacher or the administrator will usually take the responsibility of arranging for him to meet

those individuals with whom he is expected to have contact in his school work. In large schools such groups may not extend beyond departmental or subject matter areas.

The student teacher should not overlook the contacts which it is possible for him to make whenever he attends or participates in social activities of an all-school nature. Participation in such activities may often make possible a number of enriching experiences for him.

The student teacher's major professional contacts will be with the cooperating teacher to whom he is assigned, the superintendent or principal of the school, the training school supervisor, and possibly some of the individuals who, like the guidance director, have specialized duties in the school system. There are others, of course, like the janitor or school custodian, whom he should come to know. It may well be worth time and effort on his part to become acquainted with such persons. They are often in a position to help newcomers not only acquire helpful information about the school but also make needed adjustments. The student may well keep in mind that it is always a good investment for a teacher to be on friendly terms with the individuals who help to keep the school building attractive and clean. Their good will and cooperation can do much toward making the teacher's work successful as well as pleasant.

The student teacher should become familiar with the duties of the individuals who are immediately responsible for the success of his student teaching work. He can assume that the cooperating teacher and the supervisor are interested in his doing a good job of teaching. Their presence in the room while he is working is for the purpose of their analyzing what he is doing so that they may offer constructive criticism. Their backgrounds make it possible for them to point out what he is doing well, so that he may continue with these practices. At the same time, he should expect them to indicate ways and means for improving or changing procedures that are not bringing about desired results. He has a right to feel that as long as he is making sincere efforts to improve his work, he can expect their full cooperation. It may be well for him to keep in mind that it is to their credit, as well as to his own, that he succeed in his teaching efforts.

The training school supervisor will probably make one or more visits to the student teacher during the period of time that he is teaching. This individual is especially interested in seeing representative work

when he is there. The purpose of the visit can easily be defeated if unusual activities are planned for that occasion in place of regular classwork. The student should not feel badly if the usual type of classroom problems arise during such visits. From his own experience the supervisor understands that teaching has its good and bad days. He is there for the purpose of assisting the beginner with his problems. If they are not brought to his attention, there is little opportunity for him to be helpful.

The Student Teacher Should Build Up a General and Specific Background

The home, the school, and the community provide the teacher with most of his background experiences. Regardless of how varied these experiences may have been, they are the resources upon which he will have to draw when he is working with his pupils. They become a part of every phase of his teaching.

Cultural experiences a valuable resource. High school pupils expect their teachers to do more than just teach fundamentals of subject matter. They expect them to draw upon background experiences to enrich the work which they are directing. Many of the young people who are entering teaching today have had a wealth of travel experience, both at home and abroad. For them, it should be both opportune and worth while to draw upon these experiences for the enrichment of their classwork.

Teachers are expected to be familiar with the life and culture existing round about them. Pupils expect them to be able to interpret various aspects of contemporary social and political activity. Pupils listen to the radio, watch television, read the newspapers, and often travel extensively. It is imperative that teachers keep informed on the developments going on about them if they wish to retain the respect of the pupils in their classrooms. These young people often learn a great deal about teachers' backgrounds during the first weeks of contact in and about school. Mannerisms, speech habits, illustrations, and personal interests reflect vividly for the pupils what the teacher's cultural background has been and what his interests now are.

Personality and teaching success. Personality plays an important part in determining the teaching success of the individual. It is imperative

that a teacher possess certain favorable personal qualities if he expects to succeed in his chosen work. Yet individuals do not agree on the relative importance of such qualities. This was shown, for example, in the results of Hart's extensive study on the qualities which pupils desire in teachers. The study reveals that high school seniors are more concerned with the instructor's ability to teach well than they are with his personality traits.[1] The pupils polled in the survey rated high the teacher who was able to make clear explanations and who was helpful with school work. They liked the teacher who was "cheerful, happy, good-natured, and jolly." A sense of humor and the ability to take a joke were also considered highly desirable. Along with this, they wanted their teacher to be human, friendly, and companionable.

As the student teacher begins his laboratory assignment, he should keep in mind that pupils are conscious of neatness in personal appearance and dress. As is the case with the cooperating teacher, he is under observation day after day. As a result the pupils become aware of the manner in which he cares for his personal appearance. In addition to their interest in his being neat, it is only natural for them to appreciate an occasional change in his style of grooming or manner of dress. Yet some caution should be exercised in this respect, for extremes, such as can be exhibited in the use of cosmetics, can very easily distract the attention of an entire class so much that little learning will take place during study or class periods.

Teachers should not expect pupils to exhibit desirable personality traits for which they themselves do not set the pattern. Displays of tenseness, irritability, and impatience are especially undesirable because pupils may develop similar traits as defensive measures.

The student teacher who is entering upon his assignment will find it worth while to study carefully the accepted mores of dress and conduct in the community where he is working. These mores will usually be no different from those to which he is accustomed; but if they are different, simple adjustments in these matters will often aid in making his acceptance into the school and community life more pleasant and agreeable. Above all, he should avoid attempts at belittling or ridiculing such customs as may be different from those to which he is accustomed.

The school cannot function successfully unless all members of the

[1] By permission, from *Teachers and Teaching* by Frank W. Hart, copyright 1934, The Macmillan Company. pp. 132–33.

organization work together to achieve the educational goals which have been set up. The student teacher should become a contributing member to this organization. If he has personality problems that may interfere with such cooperation, he should modify them until they no longer cause interference. This does not mean, however, that he has to sacrifice his own individuality. He always has the right to discuss such matters in a professional manner with his cooperating teacher or supervisor, whose experience should be of assistance to him. He will find as he works with the school that it is possible for individuals to be different in many ways and yet be able to make worth-while contributions to the work of the school program as a whole.

Adequate subject matter preparation essential. The teacher should be well prepared in the subject matter which he is to teach. Teacher training curriculums are planned to provide such backgrounds. If the student teacher has done well in his course work, he should have little difficulty in meeting the needs of the classroom experiences that will arise. However, continued preparation is necessary if he expects to broaden his familiarity with the subjects that he is teaching.

Student teachers sometimes develop a feeling of inferiority when they recognize that their work is not as polished as that of their cooperating teacher. Yet such a difference is to be expected; the student should realize that he is only beginning his professional work; his improvement is still ahead of him. High school pupils are usually sympathetic and tolerant with the work of the beginning student teacher if the latter shows sincerity of effort. Probably all of them realize that he has limited preparation, but they seldom think less of him for that. His problem is to gain their respect. If he can do this, there is a good chance that they will put forth considerable effort to help him succeed in his teaching endeavors.

The Teacher Should Develop a Professional Attitude

The attitude of the individual toward his work is usually reflected in the manner in which he does that work. In teaching this is no exception. In addition to enjoying the experience of working with boys and girls, the teacher should also find satisfaction in doing his work in an effective manner. This means that he gains personal satisfaction from being able to stimulate his pupils to not only do good work but to obtain enjoyment from their learning experiences.

Professional interest. The student teacher who is interested in finding ways and means for helping pupils with their problems is gaining experience which should go far toward assuring him of becoming an effective, successful teacher. Through these activities he comes to learn that teaching is more than just directing class discussions. He learns what pupils want and need, and he is not satisfied until he has done his utmost to fill those wants and needs. His professional motivation continues to grow as he gains experience. To him, teaching is a job that is never completed.

Ethics of the profession. Some professions formulate codes which serve as guides to the ethical conduct of their members. Such codes usually emphasize moral obligations. Beginning teachers should find it helpful to examine a code such as the following which members of the profession have prepared as a guide for their membership.[2]

The code points out four types of responsibility which the profession expects the teacher to assume. Although some of the points included do not pertain directly to the work of the student teacher, he may find it worth while to examine the entire group. Only major topics appear in the outline below.

CODE OF ETHICS FOR THE TEACHERS OF ILLINOIS

Responsibility to the Child

Place the child first
Keep professional confidences

Responsibility to the Community

Respect community standards
Accept full citizenship
Uphold academic freedom in the classroom

Responsibility to Contract

Respect contract
Ask no undeserved favors
Respect one another's security
Reward professional growth
Refuse to exploit position

[2] The original was drawn up by D. M. Hanson, Paul Street, and Ruth Ann White and later amended by the Representative Assembly of the Illinois Education Association. By permission, from the copy published on the back cover of the March 1953 issue of *Illinois Education*.

Responsibility to the Profession

Believe in teaching
Make criticism responsible
Respect the responsibilities of others
Share professional responsibility
Maintain professional efficiency
Build a better profession
Join the "team"

Acceptance of experienced guidance. Both the cooperating teacher and the supervisor with whom the student teacher works are usually experienced individuals. They are familiar with the problems of secondary school instruction and understand the adjustments which a beginning teacher is expected to make. For that reason it becomes their responsibility, as far as it is possible to do so, to help the student develop into a teacher capable of fulfilling the responsibilities that go with an assignment to a regular teaching position. In a sense, they will have failed if the candidate does not measure up to this requirement. The public expects them to approve for entrance into teaching only such individuals as can become a credit to the profession. This responsibility requires that they evaluate the work of the student teacher most carefully. The criticisms which they have to offer him should always be of a constructive nature. They should be willing to clarify any comments which he does not understand. The relationship between the three should always be maintained on a professional basis. Such a relationship does not rule out the existence of a friendly spirit, but it does mean that attention should be focused on the purposes of teaching, and on the fact that the laboratory materials with which the three are working are human beings.

The student teacher who is adequately prepared should find his laboratory experience a pleasant one. It is assumed before he begins that he enjoys working with boys and girls. He should find it a thrilling experience to take full charge of a class and begin directing and guiding the learning experiences of the group. He should take advantage of every opportunity to observe experienced staff members at work in the classroom and of asking for information concerning such practices and procedures as are not clear to him. Only in this manner can he come to understand what is being done and why.

Recognition of limitations of the program. Regardless of how well a teacher training program is designed, it is bound to have some limitations. There is, for instance, the matter of the amount of time allotted for the student to teach. This is seldom sufficient to satisfy the needs that arise. As a result, there will be a number of activities, both inside and outside of the classroom, in which the student will have little if any opportunity to participate. Yet this situation is not as serious as it might at first appear to be. Even the experienced teacher is continually facing new experiences. He must learn again and again how to adjust himself to these experiences as best he can under whatever circumstances they occur. The student teacher will have to learn to do the same.

Most cooperating teachers have full-time assignments. As a result they often find it difficult to arrange for regular conference time with the student teacher. In addition, school problems arise which require their full attention. Whenever this occurs, the student teacher should be willing to forego any conference that had been arranged even though he must rely upon his own resources when planning for the work ahead. This is not necessarily an unfortunate experience; regular teachers must continually be prepared to make such readjustments in the order of their school day.

The student teacher may find that his own views on practices and procedures do not always agree with those of his cooperating teacher or with the policies which the school seems to follow. Such a situation calls for tact on his part. If he openly criticizes the teacher and the school, he usually places himself in an unfavorable light in the community. It is usually preferable that he study the practices that are being followed to see whether he cannot find some way by which he can participate effectively in them. Often the difficulty lies in the fact that he does not understand what is being attempted. A careful examination may reveal that the purposes and practices are not what he first thought them to be. Although he may not in all cases agree with what is being done, he should remember that the success or failure of the program rests more upon others than upon himself. The school expects those individuals to carry on after he is gone. Yet during his assignment he should place himself in a position where he is able to evaluate how well the various procedures being used succeed in achieving their objectives. If they are successful, he may wish to change his own views accordingly; if they are not, at

least he has had the opportunity of deciding for himself why he prefers not to initiate similar practices in his teaching at a future time.

The student teacher should understand that his training experiences in an assigned school may be limited by both time and inadequate facilities. The school program in which he is working is planned to meet the needs of the children of the community, and whatever efforts he exerts should contribute toward these objectives. At the same time, he has a right to expect that he will be provided with the opportunity of participating in such training experiences as will help him to prepare for the teaching profession. It is usually possible to achieve both of these objectives whenever there is cooperative action on the part of all those concerned.

Student Teaching Involves Specific Responsibilities

Before he begins his work, it is important that the student understand the responsibilities that go with student teaching. His experiences in this activity will be quite different from those of his previous academic classwork. Although the activity will involve unique experiences, there is no reason for him to be afraid of the step. In most cases it is but a gradual move into various aspects of the profession.

Range of specific responsibilities. Responsibilities in student teaching vary according to the program of the training school where the student is working, but, in most instances, the basic requirements are probably very much the same. The College of Education at the University of Illinois has drawn up a representative list of responsibilities which are intended to give the prospective student teacher an idea of what his work will cover. As can be seen, the responsibilities touch upon many types of activities.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE STUDENT TEACHER
College of Education, University of Illinois

1. To become acquainted with the appropriate supervisor of student teaching before the student teaching experience.
2. To apply for student teaching according to current University regulations.
3. To become familiar with the community in which he will do his

student teaching and secure suitable living quarters prior to his beginning student teaching.

4. To seek help from his supervisor, cooperating teacher, and school administrator in defining his responsibilities in the school.
5. To provide worth-while learning experiences for the pupils he teaches. This involves adequate advance planning and consultation with the cooperating teacher.
6. To become acquainted with his pupils early in his teaching experience.
7. To put in extra hours when the needs of the pupils indicate the advisability of his doing so.
8. To *be prepared* to take over the class at any time, even though his cooperating teacher would not expect him to take over the class without warning except in an emergency.
9. To meet promptly the responsibilities of his daily work.
10. To participate in necessary out-of-class activities, such as supervising lunchroom periods, supervising study halls, and meeting with extra-curricular groups.
11. To assist in managing physical conditions in the classroom.
12. To familiarize himself thoroughly with school routine, course offerings, and physical plant.
13. To take the initiative in seeking help from cooperating teachers whenever he needs it.
14. To evaluate his own work and study his progress objectively with the help of the cooperating teacher and the supervisor, yet not request evalution in terms of a letter grade.
15. To study the work of the cooperating teacher as a scientific observer, always trying to determine why he did what he did.
16. To understand the categories on the time report and plan worthwhile experiences for this report with the help of the cooperating teacher.
17. To demonstrate a professional attitude in all his contacts in the school and community.
18. To develop an understanding of the ethics of the profession. As an example, the student teacher must recognize the confidential nature of personal data and treat it as such.
19. To become acquainted with and adhere to the rules applicable to pupils and teachers in the school in which he is working.

20. To submit complete and accurate records and reports as requested by the cooperating school and the University.

Spread of time and attention. The student teacher may try to do too much in too many areas of activity as he first enters upon his teaching work. It is important that he develop the ability to choose carefully so that his time and efforts will be expended wisely. Such choices may require time for evaluation before final selections are made. During his weeks of training he can expect demands upon his time for such matters as helping individual pupils with their work on school projects, or he may be asked to attend certain school functions. Although all such demands may very well be legitimate and worth while, yet there will be occasions when conflicts in time will arise. Whenever this happens, it becomes his responsibility to select those which will not only contribute to the purposes of his training program, but will also contribute to the immediate purposes of the school. He has to realize that similar demands will be made upon him when he becomes a regular teacher. For that reason the pressures exerted upon him at this time can be looked upon as conditioners for those that lie ahead. If such conflicts should place him in an unfavorable situation, he is in a position where he can call upon his cooperating teacher or supervisor for guidance and counsel. Yet the decision which he makes should rest largely with himself. He has to learn to assume responsibility for his own judgments and actions.

Participation in class activities. The student teacher is usually inducted gradually into the duties of teaching. From simple duties he works toward taking over full responsibility for the class. During this transitional period he gains experience in adjusting himself to pupil reaction. He becomes acquainted with the members of the class group so that he can identify them by name.

The student teacher and the cooperating teacher should have a definite understanding between themselves as to the manner in which each will participate whenever the other is directing the activities of the class. In this way it should be possible for them to work together without conflict. Such an arrangement also makes it possible for the student to know what is expected of him at various stages throughout his work.

Some cooperating teachers like to have the student teacher work alongside the members of the class when they themselves are teaching.

In such an arrangement the student teacher participates in the class discussion and feels free to make specific contributions when it is obvious to him and the cooperating teacher that members of the class are unable to give appropriate answers or explanations. Such efforts not only improve his ability to clarify points to the group, but they also bring about a clearer understanding of the material which is in his own mind.

The presence of the student teacher in the classroom should make possible a more economical and effective handling of classroom routine The student should be able to assist with such duties as checking attendance, reporting absences, providing needed working materials, and helping adjust the lighting and heating equipment in the classroom. It is no small responsibility for him to learn how to carry out these duties in an effective manner and yet not to detract from the purposeful activity of the class period itself.

Both within and outside of the class period there are always several pupils who are in need of some type of assistance. One pupil may have been absent, another may not understand the material, another may have no interest in the work. Such situations usually require individual attention. The regular staff teacher seldom finds enough time to meet the needs of all these cases. The student teacher can gain valuable experience and, at the same time, help serve the needs of the class by assisting the staff teacher with such problems. If he shows sufficient ability to handle these situations in a capable manner, he can expect to be given additional opportunity to proceed with similar cases at his own discretion.

Evidence of effective workmanship. The teacher who can present specific evidence that he is doing a good job of teaching is in a favorable position to obtain the good will of the school administration. It is a credit to a school to have good teachers. Similarly, the supervisor and the cooperating teacher like to see improvement on the part of a class during the time when the student teacher is in charge. Since the latter's actual teaching time is often rather limited, it is important that he work hard to produce evidence of progress while the class is under his care. If he can achieve this, the supervisory personnel will be in a position to give him credit for the achievement which the pupils have made. This will help to place the final evaluation of his work on a rather objective basis.

The Assignment Involves Various Types of Contacts

Location of teaching assignments. The student teacher's training assignment will naturally have to be made either to a school in the community where he is attending college, or to a school in some other part of the state. In the first instance, he may continue to live at his college residence; in the latter, it may be necessary for him to live in the community where he is assigned. In either location, he should expect to find teaching conditions rather similar to those which he will encounter when he begins his full-time professional work.

If possible the student should plan to visit the school where he will work sometime before his assignment begins. Such a visit provides opportunity for him to become familiar with the conditions to which he will need to adapt himself later. In addition, it gives the cooperating teacher and the principal an opportunity to meet him before he actually plans to work with them. At such a meeting it may be desirable for the student to place in their hands a brief autobiography or personal data sheet, such as that shown in condensed form below. This will help them to become familiar with his background and training. With such information they will be better able to determine whether they are in a position to provide adequate training experiences for him. If they cannot do so, it will be much better to discover that at this time rather than after he has begun work on his assignment.

Contact with the whole school program. The student teacher can look forward to coming in contact with many school activities other than those in the classroom to which he is assigned. There will be activities such as assemblies, pep rallies, and faculty meetings. He should attend a variety of these activities so that he will become acquainted with the part the classroom teacher is expected to play in them. He can even gain valuable experience by assisting with them at times. He should understand that most activities such as clubs, parties, plays, and so forth, are sponsored by regular classroom teachers.

The student teacher should not overlook the opportunity of meeting and working with the administrative personnel of the school where he is assigned. It may be possible for him to assist with work on remedial problems, absences, or even disciplinary cases. Such experiences can help him gain an insight into some of the ways in which a school administration functions. Thus he will be better able to recognize the staff teacher's

STUDENT TEACHER INFORMATION RECORD

Student Teaching Subject _____
Supervisor _____
Name _____
University Address _____
Phone _____ Date _____
Home Address _____

Please paste a recent snapshot of yourself here.

Father's Occupation _____ Mother's Occupation _____
When did you first decide to teach? Date: _____
When did you enroll in a teacher training program? _____
When do you want to do your student teaching? _____

Note: We need to know you better to help you best during student teaching. The information below will be used by your supervisor and cooperating teacher to assist them in planning your teaching experience. Please fill out and return this form to 208 Gregory Hall when you return your application for student teaching.

1. Give a brief description of the community in which you have spent most of your life. (If in a large city, describe the neighborhood in which you have lived.)
2. List a brief description of the schools you have attended prior to entrance into the University.
3. Please give a short autobiographical sketch of your life. Indicate the factors which have influenced you to want to become a teacher. Describe the aspects of parental and home influence which will have a bearing on your teaching success.
4. Please state one or two things you would like most to learn from student teaching. (Be specific.)
5. Please describe any special abilities, skills, hobbies, or interesting experiences you have had which may be useful in teaching.
6. In your opinion, which of your personal traits should contribute most to your teaching success?
7. In your opinion, which of your weakest traits may affect your teaching success?
8. What topics do you think should be studied in your methods course? Please put check (√) by those topics which you feel must be studied during the six weeks prior to student teaching.
9. Please state briefly what you hope to achieve in the teaching profession.
10. Which college courses have you enjoyed most? Why have you liked these courses?
11. Which courses have been most helpful to you in preparing you to teach? Tell what made each course so valuable.

relationship to this part of the school's organization. Some administrators make a point of holding regular conferences with the student teachers working in their schools. Such conferences usually add much to the value of the student teaching experience.

Contact with the social life of the community. The scope of the student's participation in the life of the community is naturally limited by the shortness of the time that he spends there. In most cases, his social contacts will probably be those that grow out of his relationships at school. But he may also receive invitations to participate in various phases of the community's social life. Some of these he may wish to accept. For example, he should not overlook the opportunity of meeting parents at PTA functions. It may surprise him to find that some of the parents have considerable information about him. Pupils often discuss their student teacher with as much zest at the dinner table as they do their regular teacher. For them the student teacher is a new individual who has suddenly come into their life at school. They are often as eager to make a good impression upon him as he is to make one upon them.

Whatever the degree of his participation in the community's social life may be, it is essential that the student teacher conform rather closely to the customs that have become established there. His conduct should be of such a nature as to command equal respect with that of the regular members of the teaching staff. It may even be well for him to be especially reserved in offering comments and opinions because of the unique nature of his relationship with the school and the community.

Observation Is an Introductory Step to the Teaching Experience

The prospective teacher has naturally observed various types of teaching practices during the years that he attended high school and college. But at that time his observations were being made from the viewpoint of a student and not of a teacher. Teaching methods and techniques concerned him only if they made the classwork interesting and worth while. Now, as a prospective teacher, he is interested in the procedures which the staff teacher uses to achieve his purposes in directing learning.

Observation should mean more to the student teacher than just

watching a class in action. It should be planned so that he will look for answers to specific questions. He should want to note such things as how the teacher checks attendance, how he makes assignments, and how he handles problems of maladjustment. He should want to discover the reasons back of the techniques and methods which the teacher is using. Observation becomes meaningful for him only when it supplies answers to questions of this nature.

Familiarity with the teaching situation. During the time that the student teacher is observing the cooperative teacher in his role as a director of learning activities, he, no doubt, begins imagining himself in a similar role. He begins to wonder how he can carry out the responsibilities which he will be assuming later. This should lead to his weighing the practices which the cooperating teacher is using. He will recognize that some are especially appropriate, others probably less so. This evaluating process can be a valuable training experience in itself.

The student teacher should become familiar with the physical arrangements of the school where he is working. He should find out what instructional materials are available and where they are kept. He should also note the manner and extent to which they are being used.

The student teacher should acquaint himself with the manner in which the regular teacher handles routine matters. This will include such things as checking the roll and making seating arrangements. He should note what arrangements are made to take care of pupils with physical defects. Every school has its own system for controlling the passing of pupils from one room to another. The manner in which this is handled should be clearly understood. In addition, it is important that the student teacher become aware of the many administrative responsibilities which the teacher must meet throughout the school day. All in all, there is much that the student teacher should want to learn about the handling of classroom procedures before he assumes responsibility for various class groups by himself.

Recognition of the personnel of the class. It is important that the student teacher learn the names of the pupils in his classes as soon as possible. He may obtain these names from the teacher's chart or classbook. He should study each individual carefully. He should look for the personal characteristics which identify each individual. As a teacher he will want to know such things as the following about a pupil:

1. Is his work generally good or poor?
2. Are his responses satisfactory? If not, what can be done to change them?
3. What relation is there between his behavior and his achievement?
4. How do his attitudes affect his work?
5. What are his social relationships with his classmates and his teachers?

The purpose of every observation should be the evaluation of the whole child as related to the learning situation. The student teacher should realize that there are many far-reaching influences that affect the child. All of these help to account for what he does when he responds in a particular manner to the learning situation in which he finds himself.

Recognition and understanding of classroom objectives and techniques. The student teacher will want to become familiar with the objectives set up for various classes and the methods used to achieve these objectives. He may approach this in two ways. He may find it helpful during the early observations to be informed as to what the objectives are. For example, in a biology class where pupils are studying conservation, objectives such as the following may appear in the teacher's lesson plans:

1. Develop pupil ability to explain what biological resources are and how man is dependent upon them.
2. Develop pupil ability to explain the meaning of conservation.
3. Develop pupil ability to formulate a conservation program involving the application of biological principles.

Later he may wish to determine by his own observation what he thinks others are and then discuss his views with the cooperating teacher. Such discussions frequently reveal to the cooperating teacher that the objectives and techniques which he is following are not always as obvious to others as he may have supposed they were. For this reason, the student and the teacher both stand to profit from discussions of such matters.

Additional examples and a more detailed discussion of learning objectives appear in Chapter Five and in the Appendix.

Planning Is a Part of the Teacher's Work

Unless he begins his teaching with the opening of the school term, the student teacher may overlook the fact that much of the course planning will have been completed before he begins his work. Even then, in most cases, the outlining and organizing will have been done before the opening day arrives. Since this is the case, it becomes necessary for him to fit his own instructional planning in with the general plan that has already been outlined. Of course, a cooperating teacher may modify his plans somewhat during the year, but such changes are usually of a minor nature. As the result of such an arrangement, the student teacher should scarcely expect to make radical planning innovations that will disorganize and interfere with the work for which the staff teacher is responsible.

Achievement of subject area objectives. The student teacher will want to understand what objectives he is to try to achieve as he begins his first teaching. These objectives should be of a specific nature so that the unit or daily work can be oriented accordingly. It is probably best that they be limited in scope; otherwise he may try to do more than will be possible in the time allotted. In most cases, he should be satisfied if he can achieve a few definite objectives each day.

Whenever learning involves such factors as the development of skills and habits and the formation of ideals and attitudes, the amount of progress that can be made in a short period of time may not be particularly striking. It is usually easier to recognize pupil progress whenever it deals with the acquisition of information or knowledge.

The student teacher will probably have little difficulty in recognizing in his observations that even the cooperating teacher is not always able to achieve completely all of the objectives set up for a lesson or unit. Allowance must be made continually for poor preparation, indifferent attitudes, or any one of the many factors that can interfere with attainment of desirable learning objectives. These interferences are sometimes so serious that an entirely new approach may be necessary before desired learning results can be obtained.

Preparation and organization of teaching materials. After the teaching objectives have been determined, it is necessary for the student teacher to select the content materials with care. This means locating and evaluating materials which relate to the subject. To be able to do

this in a satisfactory manner, he should become familiar with the content and organization of resource materials in the school where he is working. He should also consider ways by which he can make these materials available for use by members of his classes.

The teacher is responsible for setting the stage where learning is to take place. This means that he has to consider all of the factors that contribute to the learning situation. Pressey and Robinson summarize this point in a concise statement when they say, "It is important that the teacher understand the pupil and the dynamics of his learning as well as the details of subject matter." [3] For example, the teacher should plan his work around recognized principles of learning, such as the following:

1. To learn efficiently the pupil must participate actively in the learning activity.
2. All pupils should be able to achieve some degree of success in their learning efforts.
3. There is usually increased learning whenever the pupil has knowledge of his own status and progress.
4. The school work should bear relationship to the pupil's out-of-school experiences.

These principles are but a few of the many that successful teachers follow in their work.

Professional Adjustment Is a Part of the Teaching Experience

The prospective teacher should look forward with anticipation to the beginning of his teaching activity. By means of this experience he has an opportunity to test his ability to guide and direct the learning process in others. His experience may be likened to that of the young physician who, working on his first case, eagerly watches for evidences of success. When these appear, he suddenly senses a feeling of "having arrived." Whatever the future may hold, for either the teacher or the physician as far as professional development is concerned, few later successes will probably ever bring greater thrills than the first achievement which comes after years of preparation.

[3] By permission, from *Psychology and the New Education* by Sidney L. Pressey and Francis P. Robinson, copyright 1944, Harper and Brothers, p. 469.

Adjustment to the teaching situation. It has already been pointed out that the work of the student teacher and of the cooperating teacher should be integrated closely. This must be done so that pupils will not become confused regarding the purposes and objectives of the course. For this reason the student teacher may be asked to teach only short periods of time during the early days of his assignment. This gradual start gives him an opportunity to make desirable adjustments before he assumes full responsibility for the instruction of the class. He should realize that if his teaching methods differ too widely from those of his cooperating teacher, he can quickly undo the progress that has already been made toward achieving certain learning goals.

The student teacher should not be surprised if his pupils are somewhat unresponsive when he first takes over a class. He needs only to recall his own high school days to understand this situation. Since he is a new person to their group, they are naturally interested in watching to see how he reacts to the responsibilities which he is assuming. They are especially concerned with finding out just what he expects of them. It is at this point that he should be patient if they are somewhat hesitant in their first responses. However, if the activities of the class are well planned, and are not too different from those carried on previously by the cooperating teacher, most pupils will respond in their usual manner. In fact, they are sometimes extremely responsive if the student teacher has made a favorable impression upon them during previous meetings. Even the poor pupil may put forth renewed effort when the student teacher takes charge of the class. Such a pupil may feel that since this new individual is not familiar with his weaknesses, he is once more on an equal basis with his classmates. The student teacher should not overlook the opportunity of capitalizing on this interest and responsiveness.

High school pupils are sometimes skeptical of the student teacher who in his first few days of teaching attempts radical innovations in practice. If changes are to be made, it is probably better that he let the regular teacher make them. Most changes involve a certain amount of pupil conditioning. The staff teacher is naturally more experienced than the student teacher at doing this.

In almost every class there are a few pupils who take delight in "trying out the new teacher." Such individuals are often only too willing to include the student teacher in their attack. Whenever this happens, it is

important that he develop the ability to meet these situations in a firm and unemotional manner. At such times he may not always sense that pupils are watching his every move with interest. What he does and how he reacts to their attacks can do much to determine the kind of relationship that will develop between them and himself. He must not forget that he should try to obtain favorable long-term results as well as effective immediate results.

A more detailed discussion of pupil-teacher relationships is to be found in Chapter Eight.

Achievement of teaching aims. The activities of the class period should be of such a nature as to keep all pupils engaged in worth-while activities. Some pupils have an abundance of physical energy, and procedures should be developed to apply this energy advantageously. To do this, for example, the teacher may want to plan to make use of the blackboard, or have his pupils work with library, laboratory, or other resource materials when such activities contribute to the classroom work. If he arbitrarily attempts to suppress this pupil energy, it may only lead to misbehavior later. Of course, some types of classwork do not involve a great deal of physical activity, but a limited amount is nearly always possible. Yet the teacher must keep in mind that he must not only plan his work so that the energy of his pupils will be used, but that it will be used for worth-while purposes.

The student teacher should learn to do more than just make a general observation if he wishes to determine the amount of progress which a class is making. A bustling, even noisy group of youngsters may be progressing very well; while a quiet, orderly group may be doing very little of a constructive nature. He should learn to evaluate pupil progress on the basis of results achieved rather than on general appearances. The latter practice tends quite often toward subjectivity rather than objectivity. The cooperating teacher's background and experience should assist him in working out a program in which objective evaluation procedures can be applied.

A detailed discussion of evaluation practices is found in Chapter Eleven.

The student teacher sometimes achieves results in his work which he did not set out to obtain. On the other hand, he may miss some that he had hoped to achieve. This situation should not be too disturbing, especially if it is discovered before too much time has elapsed. Even ex-

perienced teachers occasionally discard plans for achieving certain objectives whenever they discover that either the objectives or the plans for achieving them are no longer appropriate. In fact, it is a capable and wise teacher who recognizes the needs of the moment and modifies his plans so as to meet those needs. Experience will, of course, aid in developing the teacher's ability to make such changes at appropriate times.

A situation like that described above may be found, for example, in a class in general mathematics where the teacher discovers that his pupils are not prepared to work problems involving steps in long division or multiplication. As a result, he sets aside the planned objectives for the day and instead attempts to develop pupil ability to understand and to apply these fundamental processes in simple forms. He realizes that such a step in the end means economy of time and effort for his pupils as well as for himself.

The Student Teaching Period Should Result in Professional Growth

Self-analysis basic to continued improvement. The beginning days of teaching should be particularly valuable for the prospective teacher. At this time he can already make a brief evaluation of his teaching ability. It may be helpful for him to make up two lists, on one of which he enumerates the practices and procedures which he has been able to use successfully. On the other he can list those which definitely need to be improved or, possibly, dropped altogether. Lists such as the following might then result:

SUCCESSFUL	UNSUCCESSFUL
1. Pupils understand me satisfactorily.	1. My humorous remarks "boomerang."
2. Interest aroused by relating material to personal experiences of pupils.	2. Nervous mannerisms apparently disturb pupils.
3. Interest in John's hobbies increases his responsiveness.	3. Am sending too many pupils to the blackboard.
4. Short, specific questions keep pupils alert.	4. Talk too much, lose control of class.
5. Pupils respond to use of drill procedures.	5. Want to do work for pupils rather than to help them.

SUCCESSFUL	UNSUCCESSFUL
6. Pupils enjoy games when specific rules are followed.	6. Pupils get me to talk about irrelevant things.
7. Acknowledgment of failure to make clear-cut assignment accepted by class.	7. Pupils cannot read my writing on the blackboard.
8. Am refraining from interrupting pupils as often as I did before.	8. Pupils lead me into arguments.
	9. Do not always complete assignment before bell rings.

It is possible that the student teacher does not have the type of personality needed to carry out certain of the practices which he has tried. If this is the case, it may be necessary for him to modify these practices before he can use them successfully. It is natural that some of his abilities will differ from those of his cooperating teacher. Under such circumstances, there may be times when he can employ techniques which the latter finds ineffective or even undesirable. Such a difference is, of course, inherent in any situation where two individuals are involved.

The student teacher frequently becomes discouraged when he compares his own effectiveness in directing learning activities with that of his cooperating teacher. If he feels frustrated at first, it may be well for him to realize that the staff teacher has experimented over the years until he has developed effective ways of carrying out his practices. Those which he has been unable to develop and use effectively he has probably dropped altogether. For example, a considerable amount of skill and tact is required to use humor appropriately and effectively in the classroom. Surveys such as the one conducted by Hart, and referred to earlier in the chapter, indicate that pupils appreciate having a teacher who has a sense of humor. But they want him to be skillful in using it; otherwise they will probably give evidence of their displeasure rather openly. Pupil reaction is of course a major means by which the teacher can evaluate his own aptitudes and abilities. Through it he can determine whether he is adept at using a particular teaching technique.

The student teacher and the cooperating teacher can frequently combine their various abilities and thereby obtain especially desirable results in their classroom work. For example, the staff teacher may solicit the assistance of the student teacher in directing an activity for which he feels he does not have the needed ability. He may ask for help in direct-

ing games or in conducting music and dramatic activities. In return, the cooperating teacher can assist the student teacher with the activities for which he has little aptitude. Of course, the latter arrangement should not deprive the student teacher of the opportunity to gain needed experience for developing his professional ability.

Self-analysis can be an important step in the continued improvement of instruction on the part of the student teacher. The individual who is sincerely interested in studying his own effectiveness or ineffectiveness with the purpose of making appropriate adjustments is in a favorable position to improve his work. There are, of course, some individuals who are willing to make a self-analysis, but are then unwilling to face the facts that they find. They rationalize the existence of unfavorable facts on the ground that they are the result of influences over which they have little or no control. Whenever a student teacher assumes this type of attitude, it is often very difficult for him to work with the individuals who are interested in his professional growth. He is so ready to blame the school, the pupils, or the cooperating personnel for his own shortcomings that he is unwilling to recognize where the difficulty may really lie. The student teacher should realize that an analysis of self can be profitable only when it involves a willingness on his part to face facts and also a willingness on his part to try to make such adjustments as will lead to improvement in teaching and in personal relationships.

Evaluation by associates. The student teacher should expect to receive counsel and advice for the improvement of his work. He should even solicit it, if there is reason to believe that he is being given insufficient guidance. The beginning teacher can profit most when he receives constructive criticism early in his teaching experience. This gives him time and opportunity to make adjustments during the weeks that follow. It is sometimes helpful if the supervising personnel write out their comments for him. Simple types such as the following may be used:

Miss Albrecht 4/24/53

1. Spread of questions excellent.
2. Appropriate recognition of pupil questions.
3. Tendency to lower voice at times. Speak directly to pupils.

Mr. Hinds 2/20/53

1. Good poise in the face of competition from neighboring room.
2. Use board for words which pupils do not readily understand.

Miss Albrecht 4/24/53

4. Blackboard explanations well chosen.
5. Work drags at times. Do not wait too long for pupil to answer. Evidence a bit more enthusiasm yourself.
6. Explanations do not always appear clear in your own mind.
7. Room became stuffy. Open windows when necessary.
8. Pupils try to lead you into arguments. Respect their views but do not argue.
9. Pupil corrections of blackboard material were not checked; may lead pupils to regard the work as unimportant.

Mr. Hinds 2/20/53

3. Related material appropriately to previous work.
4. Bill appreciated your comment on his improved reading.
5. Whenever possible refer questions back to class.
6. Do not repeat pupil answer except for special emphasis.
7. Assignments clear cut and definite—pupils knew what they were to do.
8. Voice beginning to carry more conviction.
9. Quick to sense pupil difficulty in understanding tense of verb.
10. Specific objectives achieved, as indicated by short quiz.

The student teacher can not only study such comments at his convenience, but he can also refer back to them at opportune times and check them alongside of future evaluations of his work.

Recognition of professional responsibility. Throughout his teaching assignment the student should keep in mind that he is participating in an experience in which he is expected to assume professional responsibility. What happens to the classes with which he works cannot be credited or charged to the cooperating teacher alone. He must share in this responsibility. Since parents are naturally concerned about the progress which their children make in school, they may question the student teacher's right to continue working with their boys and girls if there is evidence of unsatisfactory learning results or undesirable conditions for which they believe the student teacher is responsible. Although such occasions may not arise very often, they can result in a considerable amount of unpleasantness when they do occur.

The student should begin his teaching assignment with the idea that he can learn much from his laboratory experience. With such an attitude he is in a favorable position to make progress. He should continu-

ally keep before himself the fact that student teaching is an important professional responsibility and that no individual has the right to enter upon it without serious consideration of the extent of his influence upon the pupils with whom he has contact.

Evaluation Is a Part of Supervision

If the supervising personnel evaluate the student teacher's work frequently during the time that he is teaching, they are in a position to suggest changes for improvement while there is still time for him to put them into practice. This will not only help him to know how well he is doing, but it will also mean that they can include these factors in their final evaluation of his work. The final rating usually appears in the form of a grade, a score, a recommendation, or a compilation of anecdotal records. There may even be a combination of several of these. Yet regardless of the method used, it is practically impossible to avoid a certain amount of subjectivity. The nature of the work in which the student teacher engages makes objective evaluation difficult.

Whenever administrators examine the personal qualifications and recommendations of a candidate for a teaching position, they like to know what experiences the individual has had and how he has conducted himself during those experiences. They want to become acquainted with the specific things that he did and how well he did them. Recommendations covering such points are especially valuable.

The following list of questions has been prepared by the directors of student teaching in state-supported institutions of higher learning in Illinois. A cooperating teacher can use it as one means for evaluating the student teacher's work as well as a guide for writing letters of recommendation for him. For that reason, it may be profitable for the student to examine these questions and to become familiar with some of the points on which he may be rated in his work. The list follows:

GUIDING QUESTIONS FOR WRITING LETTERS OF RECOMMENDATION

I. ***The Student Teacher as a Person***

A. Personal Traits and Qualities

1. What was the nature of his general appearance?

2. What factors indicate a satisfactory speaking voice and effective control of the mechanics of speech?
3. What factors indicate good physical and mental health?
4. What did he do to demonstrate initiative and resourcefulness?
5. What did he do to demonstrate his dependability?
6. What did he do to make you think that he had poise?
7. What instances indicate that he has a sense of humor?
8. To what extent and how did he demonstrate enthusiasm in his teaching?
9. What evidence supports his ability or inability to use the English language?
10. What did he do that indicated that he had self-confidence?

B. Personal Relationships
1. What did he do to show that he is tactful?
2. What did he do to find out all he could about the pupils in his class?
3. What did he do to show that he has an honest liking and sincere regard for boys and girls?
4. What did he do to reflect a cheerful and friendly disposition?
5. What did he do which shows that he has respect for the individual personalities of youth?

II. *The Student Teacher as a Teacher*

A. In the Classroom
1. What major block of classroom work did he carry out during his teaching experience?
2. What additional teaching and extracurricular activities were engaged in by him?
3. Organization and Use of Instructional Materials
   a. What procedures did he use in organizing his instructional materials?
   b. How were these organized?
   c. What variety of instructional materials did he use?
   d. How, and with what degree of effectiveness, were these used?
4. The Guidance of Learning (Methods and Techniques)
   a. What procedures did he use in planning his work?
   b. What did he do to draw pupils into planning the work of the class?

c. What did he do to involve his pupils in class activities (whole group, small group, individual)?
d. What evidence specifically supports his understanding of the basic concepts and skills in:
   (1) Teaching methods
   (2) His teaching field
e. What did he do to make the subject matter functional?
f. What techniques of evaluation were employed by him?
g. What did he do to get pupils to participate actively in the learning experiences?
h. How effectively did he communicate his ideas (oral or written)?
i. How did he lead class discussions?
j. What did he do when conducting class recitation?
k. What evidence indicates that assignments were clear, definite, and workable?
l. How did he carry out the questioning technique?
m. What did he do when he was "put on the spot"?

5. Understanding of Pupils
   a. What did he do to establish and foster a basis for cooperation in the classroom?
   b. What did he do in the way of individual counseling?
   c. What evidence supports his understanding of human growth and development?
   d. How did he handle behavior problems?
   e. What kind of behavior problems were not noticed by him?
   f. In what ways did he show patience and sympathy with pupils?
   g. How did he go about giving pupils individual help?
   h. What did he do to help pupils improve their work habits?
   i. What did he do to introduce motivational factors in his teaching?
   j. How did the teaching materials he used meet his pupils' needs?
   k. What did he do in the way of home visits?
6. What did he do that indicated he was able to analyze his own teaching problems objectively?

B. In the Faculty Group
   1. What did he do in school outside of classroom activities?
   2. What did he do to familiarize himself with other members of the faculty and the administrative staff?
   3. What did he do to familiarize himself with the physical plant?
   4. What did he do to familiarize himself with the school's policies and regulations?

III. *The Student Teacher as a Member of the Profession*

A. Growth
   1. What evidence is there which indicates that he has grown professionally?
   2. How did he react to criticism?

B. Relationships
   1. How did his students accept him as a professional worker?
   2. How did the staff accept him as a professional worker?
   3. What did he do to "get along" with people?

C. Attitudes
   1. What did he do that showed that he was developing a good professional attitude?
   2. What is his concept of professional treatment of confidential information about his pupils?

IV. *The Student Teacher as a Citizen*

A. Community Participation
   1. What did he do to acquaint himself with community resources?
   2. How did he use community resources and problems in his teaching?
   3. What community affairs did he support or attend?

B. Democratic Attitudes

   What evidence indicates that he is developing good democratic attitudes?

DISCUSSION TOPICS AND QUESTIONS

1. What type of experiences do you wish to engage in during your training period?
2. What can you do to help the school? What can the school do for you?
3. What are the personal qualities by which you remember the strong and weak teachers who taught you in high school?

4. What profitable experiences can the student teacher engage in during his first week of training? What changes should the second week bring?
5. What criteria can be used by the student teacher to evaluate his adjustment to his teaching assignment?
6. How may observation be used to good advantage?
7. Outline a brief instructional plan in your major teaching field. What is its purpose? What should it include?

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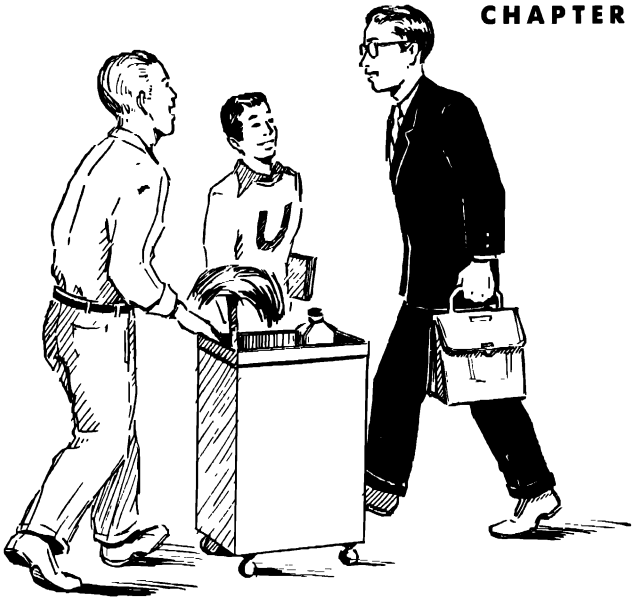
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CHAPTER FOUR



THE SCHOOL AS A FUNCTIONING ORGANIZATION

Numerous Individuals Participate in the Functioning Process of the School

The extent to which an organization such as the public school can function effectively depends upon the type of personnel that makes up the group. The school that has achieved recognition as a superior educational institution will, no doubt, have on its staff employees who have given well of their time and effort toward their work. It is natural for the prospective teacher to want not only to obtain his laboratory experience in an organization of this type but eventually to become a staff member of such an organization.

All employees participate in carrying out the objectives of the educational program. The American public school is a community institution. The community elects its representatives in the form of a board of education, and that body selects the administrative personnel of the school. In small schools the board may personally interview and select all of the individuals employed by it. In large schools this responsibility is

more often delegated to certain administrative officers. The people of a community are frequently extremely conscious of the fact that the board of education is the controlling force back of their educational system. They realize that by means of this association they are able to maintain contact with the school and with the work that it is trying to accomplish.

The superintendent of schools is generally responsible for the functioning of the entire educational organization of the community, while principals direct the work in various educational units. The beginning teacher should determine at some point early in his experience what the responsibilities and working relationships are between these positions, so that he can adjust himself accordingly. He can normally obtain this information from the administrator to whom he is immediately responsible. Most large schools have numerous administrative officers. Included among these are deans, department heads, and supervisors of instruction. Some office secretaries might even be added to this group, for they are frequently called upon to perform innumerable administrative tasks about the school.

To at least a limited extent the student teacher should become familiar with the duties of the people in these various positions. Their training and experience is usually extensive. As a result, they are in a favorable position to offer guidance and assistance to both staff members and pupils. The student teacher can normally obtain information from them directly; but if this is not possible, the cooperating teacher is usually well enough informed to describe the major aspects of their work.

The teaching staff naturally makes up the greater part of the school personnel. Today there are fewer small teaching staffs than formerly because of the tendency toward large unit districts. Some administrators attempt to have rather equal numbers of men and women on their staff, but in many schools women still outnumber the men.

Every school has a number of nonacademic employees, among whom are the secretaries, janitors, ground superintendents, nurses, cafeteria workers, and bus drivers. The student teacher should become familiar with the contributions that each of these individuals makes to the successful functioning of the school. Many of them are in positions where they have an over-all picture of what goes on day after day in the school and its surroundings. With this background they are frequently able to pass on worth-while suggestions to the people with whom they have contact. The newcomer may find such help particularly valuable.

Even the staff member of long years of service may have times when he needs their personal assistance with the work which he is directing.

Personnel relationships. Whenever the employees of an organization enjoy both the work which they are doing and the environment under which they are working, the morale of that group is generally thought of as being satisfactory. The public school is no exception to this. The student teacher should be able to discover almost immediately upon arriving at his assignment whether or not staff morale in the school is on a high level. The teachers will reveal their feelings in the classroom, in the corridor, on the playground, and, above all, in the faculty lounge. This will make it possible for him to sense whether or not there is a pleasant relationship between staff and administration. However, since his contact with the school is usually for only a limited period of time, it is probably best that he refrain from participating in any discussions concerning these relationships. This is especially the case if they should appear to be on anything but a pleasant basis.

The personnel of the school should make every effort to prevent misunderstandings among themselves. It is easy for even simple misunderstandings to develop into serious problems of relationship. For example, teachers who need to share the same room do not always agree at what points their responsibilities begin and end on even such simple matters as cleaning blackboards or replacing used equipment. It is possible for differences of this type to become so involved that the administration has to step in and make settlement. But even then, regardless of how the problem is settled, there are almost always ill feelings and prejudices that remain for a period of time. For this reason, some administrators try to avoid personal conflicts by defining individual responsibilities rather sharply. An arrangement of this nature can very well be helpful to experienced as well as to beginning teachers.

In his discussion of teacher-administrator relationships, Spalding [1] lists a number of factors which he believes should be considered before the teacher begins his work in the school. Among these he includes items dealing with hours of work, pay for extra duties, use of bulletin board, and procedures for handling grievances. "When items such as these are mutually agreed upon," he says, "the basis of much misunderstanding and consequent friction disappears."

[1] By permission, from "Organizing the Personnel of a Democratic School System" by Willard B. Spalding. Forty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, *Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration*, copyright 1946, University of Chicago Press, p. 70.

Pleasant working conditions for a stimulating and well-adjusted staff are, without doubt, some of the most desirable features connected with a teaching position. But it is possible to achieve such conditions only when each teacher on the staff is willing to accept and to carry out his share of the work that needs to be done. The student teacher should likewise assume his share of this responsibility when he begins work on his teaching assignment. There should be a definite understanding between him and his supervising personnel on all matters involving personal responsibility. For example, he may be expected to check pupil attendance or to help with make-up work when pupils have been absent. Yet even when responsibilities are defined, it is possible for conflicts between individuals to arise. Should the student teacher be involved in such a case, he should make every effort to resolve it before it becomes so serious that it interferes with the work which he is attempting to do. In order to accomplish this, it may be necessary for him to go to his supervising personnel and with them examine his problem frankly and objectively.

Acceptance of the student teacher into the functioning organization. In Chapter Three it was pointed out that during his period of laboratory training the student teacher should regard himself as an active member of the teaching staff. This means that he should establish and maintain personal contacts on a professional basis. Most teachers and administrators with whom he has contact will take a personal interest in him and his work. From a professional standpoint, they are interested in seeing capable, well-qualified individuals go out to find their places in the teaching profession.

If the student expects to be regarded as a teacher, he should learn how to act and live like one. He should develop the poise and bearing of a responsible adult. This step may require that he learn to control certain adolescent impulses. It becomes his responsibility during student teaching to learn how to conduct himself so that he can gain and hold the respect of his pupils as well as of his professional associates.

The School Reflects Certain Characteristics of the Local Community

Although high schools may differ in minor respects, their general characteristics are usually a great deal alike. The school to which the

student teacher is assigned will probably not be radically different from the one which he attended as a pupil. Yet he is now seeing it in a different light. For that reason it may be helpful for him to note briefly its general characteristics, some of which will, no doubt, influence adjustments which he will later be required to make in his work.

School size affects type of organization. The size of the school has much to do with determining the general nature of its organizational structure. A small school cannot offer as many different courses as can a large school. Yet this does not prevent it from structuring a program designed to meet the needs of the children of the community. For example, courses in agriculture are offered in many small schools in rural communities. On the other hand, these courses may not be offered in the large schools which lie in or near metropolitan areas.

In small schools there are naturally fewer teachers than in large schools. This may make it necessary for these individuals to teach courses in two or more subject fields. The principal or superintendent of a small school may even teach one or more classes himself. This arrangement is not necessarily undesirable. It provides him with the opportunity of being in direct contact with more of the immediate problems of his staff than would be the case in a large school. On the other hand, because of his teaching duties, he may have less time to meet and to discuss individual and school problems with his teachers. The teacher in the small school may find that he has to direct activities for which he has little preparation or training. This happens because the possibility of finding qualified individuals to fill all such positions is less in a school whose staff is limited in size than in one not so limited.

The small community usually takes a rather personal interest in the school and its affairs. The reason is fairly obvious; in many localities the school is the common center for holding the social gatherings of the community. The building itself may very well be the one and only structure for miles around that is large enough for such purposes. This may account for the fact that parents frequently evidence much pride and interest in the activities that take place there. There is little doubt but that they sense the part they have had in contributing to the school's existence.

Although the small community school may have its physical limitations, it can be a very pleasant place in which to work. Close personal contacts in a small school often make it possible for the teacher to re-

ceive more personal appreciation for his work than he would receive in a larger school. Most beginning teachers find their first job in a small school; the large school is usually in a better position to fill its vacancies with experienced personnel.

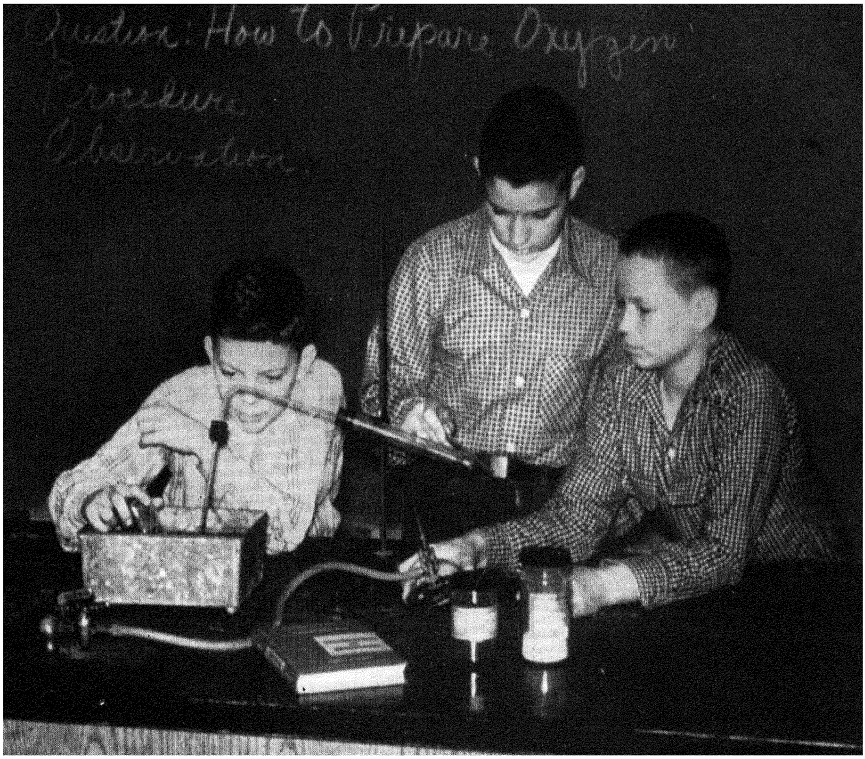
The large school, of course, has the advantage of being able to include a wide variety of courses in its curriculum. In addition, it can maintain a considerable degree of flexibility through multiple course sections. Physical facilities in the large school are often more elaborate and varied than in the small school. In addition, fewer teachers need to teach courses in areas other than those of their major preparation.

Physical plant and equipment generally structured to meet community needs. If it has been built for some time, the school building is probably located in the business or residential part of the town. In this location the grounds are probably small and there is frequently little opportunity for expanding the building facilities. This situation may limit the effectiveness of the teacher's work. If the school has been built recently, the chances are good that it is located at the edge of, or even beyond, the city limits. Here the opportunity for obtaining the necessary space for activities and for future expansion is comparatively greater.

Teachers of certain subjects, such as physical education, dramatics, music, and shop may need special physical facilities to carry on their work effectively. The ordinary classroom is not always designed to meet their needs. Yet the school may not be able to provide separate facilities in each instance. Combinations are sometimes planned as measures of economy. For example, gymnasiums are built with stages to serve needs other than of sports and games.

The student teacher should study carefully how staff members have to improvise to compensate for lack of facilities in their field. Here again the determination as well as the skill of the real teacher stands out above that of the average instructor. The superior teacher succeeds in spite of lack of facilities. He probably does not enjoy the limitations which he has to face, but he works continually to overcome them. The student may well keep in mind that few teachers have facilities that are completely adequate for their teaching needs.

There will be times when the student teacher will want to obtain and use supplies and equipment which are not immediately available. He should not only become familiar with the procedures for obtaining these but also for caring for them. Procedures differ widely among com-



The materials being used in the classroom should seem real and vital to pupils.



As the pupil plans and works with others he comes to recognize the problems associated with group action.



Most pupils enjoy working together in mixed groups.

munities in regard to such matters. In some schools supplies must be requisitioned ahead of time, and, unless there is careful planning on the part of the teacher, they may not be available when they are needed. In other schools they are carried in stock, and the teacher can obtain them on short notice.

It is quite possible for teachers to misuse supplies and equipment. Some administrators are very critical of individuals who are guilty of such practices. The student teacher should be especially careful when using equipment to avoid having it damaged. Above all he should practice economy in the use of supplies. To avoid misunderstandings on these matters, it may be best that he work closely with his cooperating teacher and obtain permission from a responsible individual before he draws supplies or equipment for his work. Experienced teachers know that school policies differ widely on the amount of supplies that a teacher is expected or permitted to use. Some adminstrators believe that the extensive use of supplies is necessary for good teaching; others emphasize extreme economy. If he wishes to avoid trouble, a teacher will want to cooperate fully with the school's established policy on such matters.

Range and scope of teaching assignments. The school administrator is responsible for providing staff personnel for the various courses and activities included in the curriculum. In order to do this satisfactorily, he may need to juggle some of the responsibilities around until he discovers individuals to whom he can assign them. In this process the teacher may be given the opportunity of indicating what courses and activities he feels best qualified to direct. Because of background qualifications the assignment of courses is usually rather simple, but for some of the activities, such as sponsoring the yearbook or being in charge of certain clubs, the qualifications are less specific. As a result, it is often the teacher with a rather light teaching load who is assigned to such a task. Someone, of course, has to take the job.

In order to gain experience, the student teacher should assist his cooperating teacher in whatever activities the latter is directing. In addition, there is also the possibility that he may help other teachers where assistance is needed. Such training can broaden his range of experience considerably and thereby increase the possibility of his obtaining a desirable teaching position later. Administrators do not hesitate to point out that beginning teachers often exhibit less ability at directing extracurricular activities than they do at directing course work. This is not al-

ways the student teacher's fault; he may not have had opportunity to gain experience in this type of work, especially since he may have been assigned to his cooperating school for only a few hours each day. The full-day program provides a greater opportunity for the student teacher to obtain a variety of desirable experiences both within as well as outside of the classroom.

The Curriculum Is an Integral Part of the School's Organization

The curriculum and its relationship to certain basic concepts of education. The school has to determine the objectives of secondary education which it wishes to achieve before it can organize a curriculum to fit the needs of adolescents. These objectives are not static. DeYoung [2] believes that they are gradually being modified as the needs of high school pupils are becoming more and more diverse. He summarizes this view in the following words:

> The objectives of secondary education, embracing all areas, are being adjusted to the functional needs of students and society, rather than being too heavily oriented to college preparation. The emphasis today is upon giving students opportunities to become and to be intelligent, happy, self-sustaining members of a democracy. These objectives are being implemented through a virile program of amalgamated curricular and cocurricular activities. . . .

Every community naturally wants its young people to be able to take their places in the work-a-day world about them. It wants them to become self-sufficient. In order to do this, they must be capable of making a living and of integrating themselves with the social life of which they are a part. The community expects the school's curriculum program to be shaped with this in mind. For that reason, it tries to employ individuals who are trained to provide a curriculum of the type desired.

The school is not only responsible for providing a curriculum that fits the needs of the community but it is also responsible for selling this program to the community members who may not be in sympathy with it. This is not the administrator's job alone but one in which every member of the teaching staff can and should participate. In order to do this effectively, it is necessary for the teacher to convince the pupil of the worth-whileness of the work being offered in the school. He should keep

[2] By permission, from *Introduction to American Public Education*, Second Edition, by Chris A. DeYoung, copyright 1950, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., p. 214.

in mind that the pupil has few equals as a salesman in the home, especially around the dinner table in the evening. His favorable or unfavorable comments often go a long way toward formulating the attitudes which his parents hold toward the school and its program of study.

Scope and sequence of the curriculum. A great many schools continue to offer conventional subjects such as English, mathematics, history, foreign languages, and the natural and social sciences. In addition to these subjects, some of them include courses that are rather general in nature; for example, health education, homemaking, and consumer education. Then there are communities in which vocational subjects are considered especially desirable. A small school may include courses of this type in even a very limited curriculum. The size of the school is not always a determining factor in regard to such selections.

Limitations in the structure of the school building or in the layout of the school grounds sometimes make it difficult to offer certain courses. However, even when these conditions exist, the school may find it desirable to offer the course on a modified basis. If the student teacher has contact with such a course, he should find it worth while to note what type of changes the teacher has to make in order to present an acceptable learning program. Of course, only limited modifications are possible if the school expects to maintain the standards necessary for accreditation as a recognized institution.

Course content has much to do with the manner in which the school determines its sequence of courses. It may set up a sequence pattern based upon increasing difficulty of content material. The foreign languages are adapted to this type of organization. In courses such as science, the school may organize the material around specific fields of study. In others, such as history, there is the possibility of following a chronological organization, or of directing attention first toward local problems of immediate concern from which the range of attention can later be widened to include national and even world affairs. But regardless of the bases upon which a school arranges its course sequences, the activities and materials within these courses should be so organized by the teacher that they retain their natural relationships. If this is not done, the pupils may never realize the full value of the courses.

In a recent text, Briggs, and Others stress the need for considering logic and order, as well as interest, when the secondary school is organizing its curriculum. Of this they say:

Fundamental concepts must be apprehended; basic facts must be known before complex situations involving these facts can be understood.

At the same time, the curriculum must offer learning experiences to youth in such an order that they are meaningful and important at the time they are studied; conversely, learning experiences which have bearing upon the needs of youth at a given state of their development must be offered *at that state* regardless of whether a scholar might consider them out of place in the logical development of his subject.[3]

Departmental organization common in large schools. All but the very small schools usually organize major subject areas on a departmental basis. This makes it easier to maintain uniform standards among the courses and sections of a particular subject field. It also provides the new teacher with a base upon which he can build his work. In addition, it facilitates adjustment when pupils need to change from one section of the subject to another. Lack of uniformity among sections of courses can be very disturbing to pupils who need to make program changes. If the differences are too great, these individuals may become frustrated and make little or no effort to apply themselves to the new work before them.

Some schools combine subject areas, such as history and English, into broad-field programs. Others go even further and provide a common body of educative experiences for all pupils on a core basis before they permit them to specialize in selected subject fields. Although such innovations are not uncommon, many schools still construct their curricula around conventional courses. As far as possible, the student teacher should prepare himself so that he can fit his work into whatever type of program the school follows. He should become acquainted with the departmental organization where he is working. Conferences with his own cooperating teacher and attendance at departmental meetings are two means by which he can do this.

Extracurricular activities as a part of the whole-school program. It has been only during recent years that extracurricular activities have come to have a recognized place in the all-school program. As pupils and teachers began to organize these activities in such a manner that they could be conducted with some degree of uniformity, it was not long before their educational value became apparent. As a result, the school has included more and more of them in various phases of its all-school

[3] By permission, from *Secondary Education*, Revised Edition, by Thomas H. Briggs, and Others, copyright 1950, The Macmillan Company, p. 239.

program. In some cases, teachers have incorporated selected features of these activities into the framework of their regular classroom courses. They have done this usually because they believed that such features would enrich their offerings.

Pupils themselves may have supplied much of the initiative for having extracurricular activities recognized and made a part of the all-school program. Their interest in these activities has helped to prove that they were worth while for their age group. Through them pupils gained additional opportunity to learn how to accept various kinds of responsibility and how to cooperate with others.

As the student teacher becomes familiar with the extracurricular program in the school where he is working, he should not only know what activities there are, but he should understand what provisions are made by the school for holding them. Some schools deal with selected activities only outside of regular school hours; others set aside one period or several periods during the day for such purposes. There are others which expect their teachers to incorporate as many of the worth-while aspects of the activities in regularly scheduled classes as they can.

The classroom teacher has a right to be concerned about the amount of time that each pupil devotes to out-of-class activities. Some means of controlling participation for the pupil who wants to be in everything is sometimes necessary. On the other hand, there is also the problem of the pupil who does his classwork conscientiously, but takes no interest in any form of outside activity. Forceful participation is scarcely the answer in this situation, for such a practice may defeat one of the major purposes of the program. A pupil should regard participation in an activity as a privilege; he should seldom, if ever, look upon it as a requirement. As is the case in classroom activities, the success of the extracurricular activity program depends largely upon the type of democratic leadership which the sponsor or teacher exhibits. Desirable learning experiences in this program seldom just happen by themselves; they result most often from the cooperative effort of both teacher and pupils.

The Distribution of Responsibilities among Teachers Is a Major Administrative Task

When the teacher accepts a new position, he is naturally concerned about the type and amount of work which the adminstration expects

him to assume. It is not often that he finds it possible to carry out all of his responsibilities on the basis of a forty or forty-eight hour week, yet he has the right to expect that his duties will not be unreasonable. Of course he must realize that there are times when the work of any teacher becomes quite heavy, but there are also periods when it is less so. It is no easy task for the adminstration to distribute loads equally among teachers. There will be times, no doubt, when distributions will appear unequal. When this condition exists, it can easily result in the lowering of morale on the part of the teacher who, justly or otherwise, believes himself overloaded. Even though he may accept his load with no apparent objection, he can seldom function to the best of his ability under such circumstances.

Variation of duties within a subject area or department. The academic teacher in the high school can usually expect one of three major types of assignments. He may teach several different courses within one subject area, with the remainder of his load made up from a second or third teaching field; he may have a full load made up of various courses all within one subject area; or he may teach one particular course a number of times in different sections.

The number of sections which the individual teaches is not always an accurate indication of the amount of daily preparation which he has to make. If the sections or classes deal with different subject material, it is necessary for him to make a separate preparation for each class. This may take more time and effort than if he has several sections of the same course. The matter of preparation is especially important to the beginning teacher. During his first year it will probably be necessary for him to spend considerable time collecting and organizing source material for each class. Even for the experienced teacher, this is no small task. Few teachers ever have as much time for carrying out this phase of their work as they feel they need.

The amount of time which a teacher is able to give to a particular course is determined largely by the nature of that course. If there is a great deal of written work, as in a composition class, it may require considerable time to check and correct all the material. Yet under some conditions there are types of written material which the pupils can correct in class as a worth-while learning experience. Such a practice can help to lessen the teacher load somewhat. There are, of course, other ways in which the teacher can economize on his practices and yet keep

them profitable for his pupils. He should remember that he is responsible for teaching in an effective manner the courses assigned to him. But in order to do this, he must conserve time and effort so that he can maintain good physical and mental health. A worn-out teacher adds very little to the effectiveness of a school system.

Homeroom and advisory groups facilitate the administrative organization of the school. In order to facilitate guidance functions, most schools divide pupils into class and homeroom groups. They select class groups on the basis of the number of years the pupils have been in attendance or on the basis of the achievement level which they have attained. Small homeroom groups are derived from breaking down names into alphabetical listings or using ability measures or other means of classification for obtaining groups of a somewhat homogeneous nature. They are usually small enough so that the teacher can deal with all the members of his own group conveniently.

The group sponsor or homeroom teacher is directly responsible for the pupils assigned to him. The administration may appoint him to this position or he may be selected by the pupils. His duties will normally deal with the orientation and guidance of the group members and the directing of their social activities. Individual problems may deal with such matters as course planning or the development of improved working habits. The administration often uses the homeroom as a medium for distributing information concerning its functions and policies.

Some schools keep homeroom groups together for more than one year so that the teacher can profit from his knowledge of each pupil's personal characteristics and background. Under such conditions the pupils come to function as a group, looking to the teacher for personal guidance and counsel.

The homeroom may or may not have an organized program. If it simply serves as a place where the teacher checks attendance and makes announcements, it can easily become a place where disorder prevails. In such an environment, there is usually little motivation for the pupils to do constructive work. In many schools the student council uses the homeroom as a means for implementing its activities. Such a relationship generally serves to strengthen both organizations. The student teacher should look for opportunities to assist with group organizations of this type. Training and experience in these areas may be of considerable value to him later.

Teacher participation in all-school activity program. Since members of the teaching staff usually direct the activity program of the school, it is to their mutual advantage to help one another with the various responsibilities connected with this program. For example, at athletic events there is often a need for ticket takers, while at assemblies there may be a need for various types of assistants. The teacher who cooperates with other staff members when his help is needed at such functions, is usually in a favorable position to obtain assistance for his own activities later on.

Pupils quickly sense the spirit with which teachers participate in directing or assisting with school activities. A reluctant attitude on the part of a teacher may lead pupils to assume that the activity is unimportant. In addition, they may even come to regard the teacher as an uncooperative, self-centered individual.

Schools sometimes permit pupils to select the sponsors for their group activities. Although the practice may have some disadvantages, it does help to reveal the type of individuals that pupils look to for leadership. They do not always select the most popular, vivacious teacher; instead they frequently prefer a leader who is sincere, dependable, and cooperative. They want someone who will have their interests at heart.

As the student teacher participates in the activity program of the school, he should endeavor to demonstrate qualities of leadership which will gain and hold the confidence of both pupils and staff members. In this way it becomes possible for him to assume more and more responsibility for the development of many of these activities.

Staff members' relationship to professional organizations. The teacher's professional responsibility extends beyond the community or the local school unit. There are organizations of a professional nature to which he will want to belong. The school may or may not require membership in certain of these organizations; more often it places such membership on an optional basis. In some states divisional or county officials plan institutes which teachers are expected to attend. If conditions permit, the student teacher should find it a worth-while professional experience to attend such a meeting. However, he should not be surprised if he finds that there are teachers who do not regard such gatherings as professionally stimulating. They may feel that the programs which are presented there do not meet their personal needs or interests. Yet the truly professional teacher can usually find at least something of value at such

a meeting. It certainly is an excellent place at which to make professional contacts.

Teachers should exert stimulating leadership to keep their own organizations alert to the needs of their profession. The prospective teacher should regard this as a part of his future responsibility. But before he is in a position to do this, he must first see his way clear to becoming an active member in such organizations. He may not always find it easy to do this. He may not always have the financial resources or the time to join and be active in a large number. It is usually professionally stimulating for him, however, to support at least some, especially those in his own teaching field.

Time Is an Important Factor in the Organization of the School

The element of time normally enters into any contract in which labor is involved. This is true in teaching. The teacher's contract defines the length of the school term during which he is to provide his services to the community. But the arrangement for the working hours during each school day is usually established by local adminstrative policy and is not necessarily specified in the teacher's contract itself.

Length of the school day. In most instances, the local school system determines the length of its school day. It usually schedules initial classes during the eight o'clock hour, and the last during, or near the end of, the three o'clock hour. Sometimes, of course, it is necessary for the period to be extended to take care of crowded conditions. Whenever such extensions have to be made, the school may have to function on a shift basis with the student body divided so that not all pupils or teachers are present during the entire day.

In small schools it is rather common to have no classes meeting during the lunch period. In large schools, or in schools with small cafeterias, this period is often staggered so that eating facilities can be used to full advantage. Under such an arrangement some classes continue to meet during lunch periods.

Schools differ widely on the principle of requiring teachers to be available during periods of the day when they are not teaching. Most of them, however, expect the teacher to be in his room at least a short time before school opens in the morning and to remain after school for such needs as make-up work, conferences, and extracurricular activities.

Some schools require the teacher to remain until a designated hour, regardless of the time during which he has assigned duties. In schools where the day is especially long, some teachers may be scheduled to begin work late in the morning and then go on through to late afternoon or even into the evening. The athletic coach is frequently on such a schedule. On the other hand, those teachers who begin work quite early in the morning are not always expected to remain until closing hours in the afternoon. Policies in regard to this practice differ rather widely. Therefore, in order to avoid confusion, it is important that the teacher obtain a definite understanding of the basis on which he is to work.

The teacher must work out his own solution to the problem of how he spends his time outside of assigned school hours. If he is conscientious, he will of course always have plenty to do. Yet as a normal human being, he will also want to find time for recreation and social life. For his own good, he should meet such responsibilities as adequately as he does those of his professional work.

The student teacher's schedule will probably follow rather closely that of his cooperating teacher. He should make it a practice to be on time so that he will be able to see what the regular teacher does before school begins. His presence at that time makes it possible for him to assist in carrying out such duties as may arise. Of course, he should always be ready to help the cooperating teacher with whatever has to be done at other times during the school day, as well as after school. Such assistance may involve partial help or complete responsibility for some activity.

Length of the class period. Class periods in secondary schools today vary in length from approximately forty-five to sixty minutes. The longer period makes it easier for the teacher to divide the time so that part of it can be devoted to supervised study. But when the school lengthens the period, it must of necessity reduce the number of periods available in the school day. This reduces the flexibility of the school program as a whole. The alternative, of course, is to extend the length of the school day. This is not always a desirable practice for it creates or intensifies other problems, such as those connected with pupil transportation.

The short, forty-five minute period has been very popular in many schools. This arrangement makes possible a school day of at least seven or eight periods. Under such conditions, and with a normal teaching load of five classes and possibly a study hall or two, the teacher usually

has one or possibly two open periods during the day. Of course, he has to have time for lunch; so two open periods are usually more than he should expect.

The teacher may not have any free time other than a lunch period under the sixty-minute arrangement. However, even with these restrictions, some teachers like the long period with its opportunity for supervised study. They believe this arrangement makes it possible for them to direct the study of their pupils more efficiently. It provides added opportunity for helping pupils improve their study habits in particular subject areas. However, in areas such as science, where there are laboratory activities, it sometimes creates certain disadvantages. These subjects may have to be reduced from two periods to one under such a plan. The long period eliminates the need for a large number of general study halls. Many teachers do not object to this, for they usually prefer teaching or supervising the study of their own pupils to being in charge of general study halls. Few teachers have preparation in more than two or three subject fields. Yet in general study halls, they usually have pupils from numerous subject fields. It is practically impossible for them to help all of these pupils in an adequate manner.

It is possible that the school where the student teacher is working has a program involving both general study halls and supervised study in the classroom. If this is the case, he should not miss the opportunity of becoming acquainted with the duties connected with both types of work. They are really quite different. These duties are discussed in more detail later.

Utilization of teacher and pupil time. Teachers are responsible for conserving their own time as well as that of their pupils. It is easy to waste time if the work is not so planned as to utilize every minute of the class period to advantage. Any repeated wastage can soon amount to a considerable item if it involves an entire class. It can even be great enough to affect the level of achievement which the class might have been able to attain.

The successful teacher keeps his class active and makes every minute contribute to the objectives of the course. Such a practice tends to reduce his disciplinary problems to a minimum; his pupils are too busy with their work to find time to get into mischief. But to be able to do this, he must have at hand the needed materials for making pupil activity a desirable learning experience. Such a practice not only benefits the

pupil and the teacher, but it also has a wholesome effect upon the functioning of the entire school system.

Student teaching and economy of time in the classroom. The assignment of the student teacher to a school should make it possible for the cooperating teacher to achieve additional objectives in his classes. Since two instructors are present, it should be possible for them to give considerable individual attention to pupils, both within the class hour, as well as during other available periods. The two can also share such duties as are a part of the regular classroom routine. For example, while one of them is directing the major class activity, the other can be readying material for use later in the period. This preparation may include such activities as the writing of an outline on the blackboard or the setting up of equipment for showing moving pictures. The arrangement also makes it possible for both teachers to deal more effectively with the problem of aiding individual pupils with their work. A teacher working alone is not always able to give immediate attention to the numerous pupil requests for aid that arise during supervised study. Delayed assistance at such a time may not only lead to loss of pupil interest in classwork, but may even result in unacceptable conduct on the part of the pupil himself. With the student teacher present, it is usually possible to take care of such pupil needs in a rather adequate manner. In order to improve his experience as well as to be of service, the student teacher should train himself to sense the needs of the individuals in the class. In addition, he should develop the ability to give assistance in such a manner as not to disturb the other pupils in the group.

A Growing School Is a Changing School

Every school has to function with a rather high degree of efficiency if it is to maintain its status as a worth-while educational organization. It can seldom do this without an injection of new life and new activity at various intervals of time. It is easy for the members of a school staff to become complacent and to resent changes that tend to push individuals out of their established routines. For example, on a teaching staff new members are certain to bring in new ideas and new opinions. Older members may not always be ready to accept these new ideas immediately, yet the fact that they have contact with these ideas may have a stimulating effect upon them later. On the other hand, beginning teachers should not overlook the opportunity which is theirs to work

with staff members who have had professional experience and are in a position to make worth-while suggestions to them. Thus contact between old and new staff members should provide desirable and stimulating experiences for both.

Constructive changes within a school system do not just occur by themselves. They have to be implemented by staff planning and cooperation. Spalding speaks of the need for such action as follows:

> It is only as the personnel in a school system acquire new ways of doing things, or modify old ways of doing things, that the system itself changes. That means everybody in the employ of the system and not just its administrators. No plan to improve the schools will be successful if it omits provisions for facilitating learning by the persons who work with children. No plan for getting the best out of the personnel in a school system will be successful if it fails to include plans and programs which will encourage them to learn to do their work in better ways.[4]

Student teachers become acquainted with various methods and techniques of instruction in their education courses. It is natural for them to want to try out these techniques during their period of student teaching. It is sometimes difficult for them to understand that their classes have not been conditioned for the use of some of these practices. The cooperating teacher is usually well aware of this; therefore he may not give his approval for the use of certain practices unless he feels that through their use fairly satisfactory results can be obtained. After all, he does not want to endanger the gains which he has made thus far through his own efforts. For this reason, the student teacher should not attempt to institute radical changes in practice until after he has discussed them with his cooperating teacher.

Some schools are naturally more receptive to making constructive changes in method and practice than are others. It is fortunate for the student teacher if he can be working in a school of this type. In such an environment there is usually an imaginative, vigorous spirit among members of the staff. There is also usually a feeling of unity which stimulates cooperation and progress.

The teacher is only human in that he likes to have his efforts recognized by the individuals with whom he works. The same is true of the student teacher. For that reason, dissatisfaction with working conditions or inability to meet expected demands adequately can be cause for an individual to develop feelings of inadequacy or even of frustration.

[4] By permission, Spalding, *op. cit.*, p. 57.

Whenever such conditions persist over an extended period of time, the individual may become desperate and, in an effort to find a solution, resort to practices which are not only unethical but can well be detrimental to himself as well as to the school. Even experienced teachers sometimes react in this manner when they find themselves out of step with the changes which the school is promoting.

The student teacher should expect to find in his cooperating teacher an individual who not only adjusts himself to changes but also participates in carrying them out. The latter has, no doubt, acquired status and recognition for himself and his work through the improvement of his skills, abilities, and understandings. He is interested in his work. He enjoys working with young people. He seeks improved ways of doing his work. Yet he recognizes that in trying out new practices, the results are not always satisfactory. In the last analysis, he succeeds with a practice because he has confidence in his ability to direct pupils' learning experiences successfully.

During the time that he is on his assignment, the student teacher has the opportunity of evaluating the contributions which various members of the school system make to the success of the organization. He should study these carefully. He should determine his own relationship to them, from the standpoint of student teaching as well as of later full-time teaching. Above all, he should assume his share of responsibilities in the organization so that he will be a credit to it as well as to himself.

DISCUSSION TOPICS AND QUESTIONS

1. What kind of relationships among school personnel make for an effective organization? What are some of the problems that arise? How can these best be met?
2. Describe the physical plant facilities of the schools with which you are familiar. What common needs do you recognize?
3. What factors can be used as a basis for determining the organization of the curriculum in a particular community?
4. By what process can the teacher determine the extent of his school responsibilities? How will these vary according to departments?
5. Describe the differences in the time factor in schools with which you are familiar. How may the teacher economize in routine procedures in the classroom?
6. What responsibilities does the classroom teacher have to improve school organization and instruction?

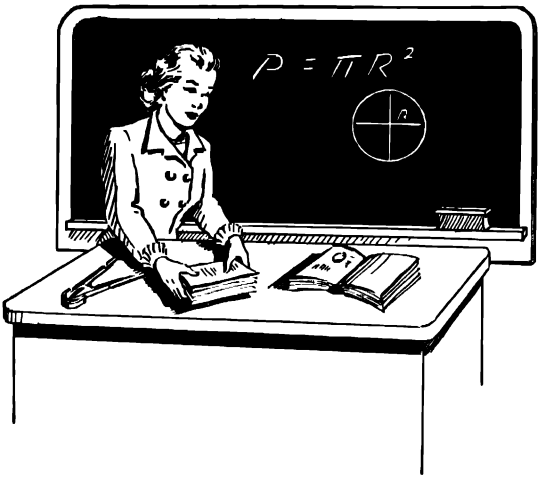
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Introduction to American Public Education, Second Edition, Units XI, XII, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1950. These two units describe the type of personnel involved in the effective functioning of the school and the various duties that each member performs. Also indicate the type of relationship that exists among the individuals as well as the groups. Unit XI gives special attention to the teacher's place in the organization.

Spalding, Willard B.

"Organizing the Personnel of a Democratic School System," *Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration*, pp. 53–85, Forty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1946. This article points out the need for a cooperative approach toward establishing a healthy working relationship between the teacher and the administration. Points out possible trouble spots and suggests practices whereby these can be avoided. Emphasizes especially the need for a mutual understanding between the two.



GETTING READY TO TEACH

The prospective teacher has a right to look forward with anticipation to the time when he will be directing his first teaching activities. It is this experience which marks his entrance into the profession in a realistic manner. For him it will probably be a never-to-be-forgotten experience to stand before a class of twenty or thirty pupils and realize that he is responsible for directing the learning activities that are to take place there. Even after years of work in school, the experienced teacher sometimes feels unequal to the task of meeting this responsibility in an adequate manner. At such times he no doubt realizes all the more how necessary it is for an instructor to prepare his work regularly before he meets his classes day by day. In other words, he should be ready to teach before he begins to teach.

The teacher does not necessarily have to do all of his planning before he begins his instruction. He can make planning a part of instruction itself. But preparation of some type is usually necessary even when the teacher intends to use the period for planning purposes. Without specific preparation by the teacher there is always the chance that the class hour will develop into a period of confusion from which the pupils derive few learning benefits.

Planning Is Essential to Successful Teaching

Pupils are usually able to sense whether the teacher has organized and prepared his work before the class period begins. When he has not done so, he will probably find himself in a position where he has to make improvisations during the period. Such a practice rarely deceives pupils. No doubt, every former high school student can recall instances when a teacher at some time or other resorted to such a practice. The pattern of procedure was very likely about as follows: There was first a period of some uncertainty as the class began. This was marked by a certain amount of fumbling or stalling on the part of the teacher while he was looking in the text for material to which he could direct the pupils' attention. This material may or may not have been the same as that which he had assigned the previous day. During this fumbling process, the teacher might shift back and forth between related and unrelated material. Eventually, he would probably get the work under way, but only after considerable confusion. Practices of this type have caused many a pupil to lose interest in the work at hand. In addition, they have also resulted in a loss of respect for the teacher.

An example of the procedure described above was recalled by an adult years after he had suffered under such a practice. He described how the teacher apparently tried to conduct his class day after day without making any type of preparation. The teacher would begin every class period in about the same manner. First he would consume considerable time checking the roll, then he would instruct the class to take out pencil and paper and outline several pages of the assignment from the text. He would allow the pupils thirty or forty minutes of time to prepare such outlines. Then he would collect the papers and continue with a brief discussion of content material. The class was fully aware that the teacher used the first part of the period to scan the material that they were outlining. This also gave him time to prepare a few quesions for the discussion which followed. The assignment was always just an additional eight or ten pages from the text. The teacher seldom returned the outlines which the pupils prepared. There was little doubt in their minds as to what he did with them.

Teachers frequently underestimate the ability of pupils to recognize ineffective teaching methods.

Additional details from the above incident support such a view. In this instance, several of the pupils decided to break the monotony of the routine

by outlining material unrelated to the assignment. They even handed these papers in along with the others. It was never known whether the teacher detected these irregularities or not. If he did, he never made a comment to that effect. Probably if he did, it did not matter too much, for the individual relating the above incident had this to say of the whole experience, "I could have learned more from that course had I stayed home a few days and just read the text. It was a terrific waste of time."

It is to be hoped that such teaching practices no longer exist. But even when only a few incidents of this kind take place, they make it difficult for the teaching profession to gain and maintain professional respectability in the community where they occur.

The author does not wish to direct attention only to those teachers who make inadequate preparation in their work. The majority of teachers prepare their work well. Yet every profession or vocation has its misfits. It happens that such individuals are often the last persons to recognize their own inefficiency. Furthermore, at some time or other their work has to be evaluated on the basis of what it actually does and not what it is intended to do.

Careful planning in teaching fixes both the teacher's and the pupil's attention on the objectives ahead. It works toward eliminating waste of time on irrelevant material; it makes sequence organization possible; and it gives the teacher a feeling of confidence in being able to meet in an adequate manner the teaching situations ahead. Of course, whatever planning the teacher does, has to be carried out within the limits of time at his disposal. He is a busy individual, therefore it is necessary that he use his resources to full advantage if he wishes to make planning an economical procedure. Otherwise, the activity can very easily defeat its most immediate purpose.

Teacher adjustment to existing organizational and instructional policies in a new position. Whenever the individual begins his work in a new teaching position, he has to become acquainted with the organizational and instructional policies that exist there. To a limited extent, he has to integrate his own ideas and plans with those that are already functioning. Hence, it is seldom desirable to instigate changes which diverge too widely from policies and plans already being followed.

In most cases schools try to plan their programs of instruction so that they will fit the needs of the children in the community. The new teacher will do well to recognize and respect the efforts that have been

made in that direction. If he does this, it is usually possible for him to place himself in a position where he can work cooperatively with the other members of the staff. Such a step usually makes it easier for him to obtain administrative and staff approval for such changes as he may later wish to make.

The individual who enters a new teaching situation sometimes finds his pupils unfamiliar with the methods of instruction which he plans to use. All successful teachers do not emphasize the same objectives, nor do they all employ the same techniques. The teacher should be patient when pupils do not immediately respond to procedures with which they are unfamiliar. Most often they do not know exactly what is expected of them. For instance, in a subject involving a skill, such as a modern foreign language, pupils need time to readjust themselves to new requirements. One teacher may emphasize translation while another may emphasize conversation. Whenever the new teacher plans a change in emphasis, it is well that he first gain the confidence of his pupils by respecting the skills which they have already developed. If at all possible, he should also plan to make the desired changes gradually. Such action usually gives pupils time to adjust themselves. As a result, there is usually less emotional disturbance.

There may be occasions when the new teacher is tempted to ridicule the work which his predecessor has done. This is especially the case if it has been done poorly. Such a practice is questionable at any time, for a teacher will seldom retain the respect of his pupils by making an attack of this type. He may have his opinion of the work, but it is probably best that he keep this opinion to himself. There is always the danger that he will lose more status than he will gain by expressing this opinion openly.

It is highly important that the new teacher have his work well organized before school begins. If he is teaching courses that are part of a sequence, he should consider the work that has been done previous to his coming. This background is the basis on which he has to build. If he plans without such consideration, he can create classroom situations so disturbing that they will block much of what he hopes to accomplish.

Relationships between courses within and outside of subject areas affect an instructional program. There is considerable relationship between some of the academic courses in the high school curriculum. If the teacher keeps this in mind as he organizes his material, he can help the

pupils understand and appreciate the fact that the work in one course often extends over into other subject fields as well. Teachers sometimes hesitate to point out these relationships for fear that pupils will lose interest in the field in which they themselves work and will become more interested in some other area of study. Of course this possibility always exists, but the truly professional teacher will regard such broadening of interests as a mark of unselfish service for the benefit of the pupil.

Whenever the teacher attempts to develop pupil experiences beyond those for which his particular course is structured, he will find it helpful to have at least some familiarity with the work being done in related subject areas. Such a background makes it easier for him to point out the values that are to be found there. Probably most important of all, it is necessary that his personal relationships with the staff members in those areas be such that he can cooperate with them in working toward broad and worth-while objectives.

There are numerous classroom situations in which learning experiences extend into related subject fields. For instance, the art class studying the well-known statues and paintings of Michelangelo can scarcely obtain a comprehensive understanding of this versatile man without knowing something about his work in poetry. Likewise, a study of Leonardo da Vinci would not be complete without considering his contributions in the fields of music and engineering as well as those of art. Very often the content material in one field, such as science, art, music, or government, is so closely related to that of another field that the two can be presented together more profitably than they can be presented separately.

It may be helpful for the beginning teacher to realize that there are few places where the adolescent meets learning in package form more often than he does in the average classroom. Of course, in any form of systematized instruction, it is necessary that the teacher organize his material within certain limits; yet, within reason, he should feel free to move that material across subject boundary lines if such boundaries interfere with the soundness of the learning experiences which he is attempting to develop.

Basic needs and desirable growth patterns of youth as related to course planning. Chapter Two has already described the adolescent and pointed out some of his many problems. The relative importance of these problems can best be understood when they are viewed in relation-

ship to the adolescent's immediate and future needs. Among other things, the teacher should consider how his plan will contribute to the health and physical well-being of the pupil. It should provide conditions where pupils can work in relative comfort with adequate light and proper ventilation. It should be planned to provide an atmosphere where pupils will learn to respect the rights and privileges of one another. Of course, objectives of this type are applicable to all subject fields. Yet the nature of the work which the teacher is planning will generally determine the extent to which he can incorporate such objectives into his plans. For example, he has to consider the type of drill exercises to be used, the reading material to be assigned, and the types of motivation which will bring about desired results. If skills and habits are to be developed, the pupils should apply themselves in such a manner that they will not only acquire these habits and skills but also retain them for future use. If this is not possible or feasible, the time and effort spent in working with them had probably better be put to some other use. All in all, the teacher's planning should make it possible for each pupil to realize that he is applying his efforts to learning situations where worth-while results can be expected.

Burton [1] has summarized the importance of this phase of teacher planning as follows:

> Choice of approach and organization and method of planning is affected by a number of factors. The important factor is the degree to which the organization used can be based on socially desirable pupil purposes and can combine subject matter and experience in a way valuable to the learner. Continuously integrating behavior on the part of the learner is a major aim.

The place of general and specific educational objectives in course planning. As the teacher is getting ready to teach, he will be concerned largely with two types of objectives. First, there are long-range objectives which it is possible for him and his pupils to achieve only with continued and extended effort. In a French or Spanish class such an aim might be represented by the development of the pupil's ability to speak the foreign tongue. In an American history class it might be found in the attempt to get pupils to understand the influence of democratic principles upon the growth and development of national institutions

[1] By permission, from "Implications for Organization of Instruction and Instructional Adjuncts" by William H. Burton. Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, *Learning and Instruction*, copyright 1950, University of Chicago Press, p. 219.

such as public schools and civil courts. Certain long-range objectives are sometimes of such a general nature that the teacher finds it difficult to set up specific activities that will lead to their attainment. An example of such a general objective would be the development of favorable pupil attitudes toward a little-known foreign people. It is not always easy for pupils and teachers alike to keep their attention fixed on objectives of this type, especially over an extended period of time. This may be explained partly by the fact that the achievement of such goals is generally possible only on a relative basis. The individuals involved are probably never quite certain just how far they have progressed toward achieving them.

Immediate or short-range objectives, on the other hand, can often be made more specific and therefore somewhat more tangible than long-range objectives. This adds to the ease with which the teacher and pupils can set up specific evaluative criteria in dealing with them. Because of this, teachers sometimes assume that they are the more realistic of the two. An example of a short-range objective might be the development of the pupil's ability to order a simple meal in French or in Spanish. In the social studies class it might be to develop the pupils' ability to recognize the responsibilities of a jury in a civil trial.

Both long- and short-range objectives have a place in the teacher's plans; both serve definite, although different, purposes. It is not at all unusual for the beginning teacher to become confused and attempt to achieve a long-range objective in a short period of time. The result of such an attempt is usually frustration and discouragement. Such a situation may arise, for example, when pupils are being trained to speak a foreign language. It is seldom possible for the teacher to achieve a goal of this type except over an extended period of time. During this period he will probably have to develop numerous units of work. Yet each separate unit can and should be of such a nature that it will provide him with means for determining the amount of progress being made toward achieving a major goal. The teacher can easily lose perspective in planning if he does not keep such relationships in mind. He is, of course, justified in planning a long-range program to achieve a long-range goal; yet he will probably have to use short-range steps to arrive there. Because of this, it becomes his responsibility to arrange these steps in a pattern so organized that they will eventually lead to broader and more general goals.

A further discussion of lesson plans and units is to be found in the latter part of this chapter. Examples of units are included in the first sections of the Appendix.

Curriculum Organization Influences Instructional Planning

Burton believes that the type of curriculum organization existing in a school is probably, next to the ability and personality of the teacher, "the most potent factor in determining how teaching and learning proceed." [2] If he wishes to integrate his work with that of his associates, the teacher must keep himself informed about the type of curriculum existing in the school where he is teaching.

It is obvious that the teacher has to organize his teaching materials within the limitations of the curriculum of the school. The policy of one school may limit the teacher to the use of prescribed subject matter, with little opportunity for individual development or flexibility. On the other hand, another school may set up a general plan within which the teacher is free to move and adapt his material. In the latter arrangement the teacher has considerable opportunity to vary procedure and material to fit the needs of the occasion. Many schools take a position somewhere in between these two extremes. The student teacher will probably be able to determine, as soon as he begins working on his assignment, the type of program which his school is following. It will then be his responsibility to keep his work at least somewhat in line with that type of program.

Subject-centered approach has long been traditional. It has been customary in the past for schools to organize the curriculum around subject areas. This arrangement usually provides a minimum of four years of English, two or possibly three years of science, two years of mathematics, two years of history or social studies, two years of a foreign language, and from two to four years of work in such fields as home economics, industrial arts, agriculture, and physical education. Commercial courses are sometimes also included. Many colleges have made the conventional subjects in this group the basis of their requirements for admission. This situation has had considerable influence in structuring the secondary school's program of studies. Today, however, a number of colleges have begun to liberalize their entrance requirements.

[2] By permission, Burton, *op. cit.*, p. 224.

They are accepting preparation of a general nature in place of a group of specified subjects. This move has tended to make the high school program somewhat more flexible than formerly.

In the subject-centered curriculum it has been customary to require pupils to register within certain "curricula" set up to prepare them for entrance to college, to business, or to certain specialized vocations. As a result, the better pupils are often encouraged to follow the college preparatory program, while those with lesser academic ability are directed toward training of a general or vocational nature. Although such a practice may, to some extent, consider the general ability level of the pupil, it may also have a tendency to disregard his interests and special aptitudes.

Child-centered approach and the "core" program. During recent years, some schools have experimented with the idea of including in their program courses which would meet certain common needs of adolescent boys and girls. Such courses are usually listed under the heading of "core" or "common learnings" activities. Whenever a school introduces such a course into its program of studies, it usually attempts to identify certain common competencies that the adolescent is expected to acquire so that he can live effectively in a democratic society. These competencies are to be found in such experience areas as citizenship, family living, health, economic processes in relation to the production and consumption of goods, use of the English language with an appreciation of literature and the arts, and certain aspects of the various sciences.[3] Although teachers of such courses may not agree that they should give equal consideration to all these competencies, there is little doubt but that they usually devote some time to several of them in their class as well as their out-of-class work.

In the common-learnings program the teacher draws content material from many sources in order to satisfy the pupil needs which the unit or lesson under study creates. This program is child-centered to the extent that the work is designed to meet the needs of the pupils of a particular class. It is usual for the teacher and the pupils in this case to consider these needs as they relate to such general competencies as those mentioned above in the report of the Educational Policies Commission.

Another variation of the child-centered approach is to be found in

[3] By permission, from *Education for All American Youth, a Further Look*, by Educational Policies Commission, N.E.A., Washington, D.C., 1952, pp. 243–44.

the broad-fields program. This plan resembles the traditional subject-matter type in certain respects. The school sets up broad fields in areas such as the language arts. Then it places emphasis upon these fields, irrespective of the subject-matter areas with which the material is normally found. A major characteristic of this plan appears in the reshuffling of subject content and boundaries. This program seldom replaces more than a few of the traditional courses in the curriculum. Usually the two programs function alongside each other.

The experience curriculum emphasizes problem situations. Douglass [4] characterizes this program as one that "implies that the pupil has freedom in selecting learning activities for the realization of his educational goals, and that present activities and interests are basic in the formulation of further growth patterns." Such a procedure tends to reduce the need for detailed planning previous to beginning the work of the course; at the same time, it emphasizes interest as a major motivating force. The pupil's own experience furnishes the basis for its organization and development.

The beginning teacher probably need not be too concerned about the label attached to the curriculum program with which he is working. Regardless of what it is called, it is the result which he obtains that is important. It is quite possible that in the school where he is working, the teacher will recognize aspects of several of these curricula. For example, as mentioned above, the school may be conducting common-learnings courses alongside of conventional subject courses. It may also be using other combinations. The teacher should assume responsibility for determining what the school regards as its major purposes. Then he should plan his work so that it will become an integral part of the program set up to achieve those purposes.

The Nature and Scope of Planning

Selection of general objectives and general procedure. As the teacher plans his course, he should keep in mind that the mental and physical characteristics of the individuals in the class are never the same from day to day. For this reason he should make planning a continuous process. This situation, however, creates a somewhat perplexing situa-

[4] By permission, from *The High School Curriculum* by Harl R. Douglass, copyright 1947, The Ronald Press, p. 209.

tion. As a first step in planning, it is necessary that he select early objectives. He may do this alone or by working cooperatively with the learners. Pupil participation in the activity provides opportunity of gaining experience in a democratic process. For that reason, the procedure appears as a desirable and valuable learning experience for both the teacher and the pupils.

The teacher should allow for flexibility in developing the plan even after he has taken the initial steps in its formation. It is practically impossible at this early stage of the plan to determine the exact scope and range within which the learning experiences are to take place.

The teacher has to give consideration to a number of basic learning factors as he begins his plan. Among these are the principles involved in developing meaningful learning. Mursell [5] believes these should include sequence, context, focalization, and evaluation.

Every individual learning experience is but a part of other broader and more inclusive experiences. For this reason, the teacher should help the pupil organize his experiences so that they will form a related and connected pattern. In this respect, long-term planning offers an advantage over short-term planning in that it provides added perspective to the work and thus sometimes makes possible a more integrated and more logical approach than might be the case with shorter plans.

The individual who wants to become an effective teacher must continually expand the background and resource material upon which he draws for instructional purposes. As Mursell [6] says, "A teacher is not ready to handle any lesson with maximum effectiveness unless he approaches it with a vastly richer context at his command than he will be able to use, and yet with a pretty definite idea of what context he actually intends to use." Thus selection becomes a major phase of the planning process. But before the teacher can make selections, he must have a fund of resources from which to select. For that reason both teacher and pupils should expand their resources as fully as possible when they begin working together on a plan.

Planning should include material that is vital to the learner; that is, it should fall into the learner's realm of experience so that it will have meaning for him. This aspect of the work, however, can only be devel-

[5] By permission, from *Successful Teaching* by James L. Mursell, copyright 1946, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., pp. 328–32.
[6] By permission, *ibid.*, p. 329.

oped as the learner's backgrounds and needs are revealed. It is impossible to do this fully at an early stage in the planning process, for only as the work progresses does the pupil begin to reveal some of his interests and abilities.

The teacher should plan to evaluate the various steps in the learning process as they occur. If he does this consistently, it should become easier for him to make such changes as will lead to improved pupil learning. He can, for example, make allowance for such factors as differences in background, ability, and interest. As far as possible, the pupil should also be taught how to evaluate his own work as he progresses. If he learns how to do this satisfactorily, he is in a position not only to determine his own status in the class but also to look for ways of improving upon it. It is the teacher's responsibility to help him determine the extent to which he is doing satisfactory work. But this is not always possible unless there are means provided for measuring the progress that is taking place. It is the teacher's responsibility to include these means as he organizes his lesson plans.

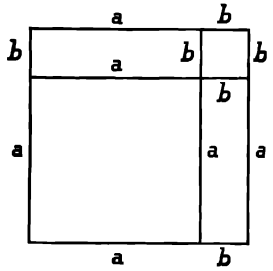
A more detailed discussion of the measurement and evaluation of pupil progress appears in Chapter Eleven.

Mursell [7] sees planning as a process which "should not be something hacked out the night before, and then ruthlessly followed through. It should be a crystallization of wide and long reflection, brought to a head just before the event, liberating the teacher rather than tying him down, and giving him a confident freedom with his resources for the shaping up of the situation to effective ends, no matter what may come."

Retention of pupil confidence of utmost importance. It is important that the teacher have clearly in mind the nature of the ultimate objectives which he is trying to achieve in the course. Only when he is able to identify and justify them for both himself and his pupils is he in a position to structure the course so as to arrive at these ends. He should always be able to give a satisfactory answer to the pupil who asks why he is being asked to spend time in preparing certain routine materials. The pupil may want to know why he should learn certain idioms assigned for French, or what value there is in being able to factor $a^2 + 2ab + b^2$. There may be occasions when the teacher believes it is desirable to take class time to answer such questions. For example, with the equation given above, he may try to point out how such equa-

[7] By permission, *ibid.*, p 332.

tions are used to indicate relationships. To help the pupil understand this more readily, he may use a simple illustration such as the following:



The value of $a^2 + 2ab + b^2$ is the same as $(a + b)^2$. The area of the square formed by sides a is the product of a times a, or a^2. The total area of the rectangle formed by sides a and b is the product of a times b, or ab. Since there are two such rectangles, their total area is $2ab$. The area of the small square bounded by sides b is b^2. The area of the entire figure is the product of the quantity $(a + b)$ and the quantity $(a + b)$, or $(a + b)^2$. By this method the factoring of an abstract expression can be made more concrete for the pupil.

Although the teacher should be able to give reasonable answers to such questions as those described above, it may not always be advisable for him to take class time to do so. Pupils should understand the general nature of their classwork. But there are also times when they should have sufficient confidence in the judgment of their teacher, that they will accept on his judgment the worth-whileness of the work which he asks them to do. However, after he has established such a trust, the teacher should exercise care that he does not betray it for his own convenience. Its loss can easily interfere with the further success of his work. Even though he does not do so in words, the teacher should always be prepared to defend on a logical basis each activity which he assigns throughout the school year. This reason should be more than just to say, "you should do this because it is a part of the course."

Detailed work at times appears tiresome and purposeless to the pupil. But he will often accept even uninspiring exercises and drills if he has confidence that they will "pay off" eventually. In this respect, the teacher should recognize that the pupil is frequently in a position where he can offer worth-while suggestions on how the course work can be made more valuable. Whenever the teacher gives serious consideration to worth-while suggestions of this kind, he places himself in a favorable position to retain the active interest of the pupil making them.

Exploration and recognition of student interests, aptitudes, and capacities. Planning should make it possible for the pupil to explore fields in which he has not only shown special interest but also for which he

may have special aptitudes. Even within a particular subject area there are always avenues open to special development. If the pupil should be attracted to any one of these, the general arrangement of the course should make it possible for him to at least investigate the new area of interest. The amount of time needed for this will depend, of course, on the nature of the interest evidenced by the pupil as he proceeds with his exploration. He should not be permitted to carry the work beyond a point where it no longer produces worth-while results.

Planning should, of course, be of such a nature as to direct learning experiences toward definite goals. But it should also be exploratory to the extent that it opens new areas of activity for pupil investigation and study. The teacher should always consider subject content in the light of what it has done and will continue to do to meet the immediate needs of the pupil as well as to develop his future interests.

Recognition of relationships in field of learning. The individual normally directs his interest toward those areas in which he recognizes meaningful relationships. Participation usually helps to develop such recognition but does not insure that it will take place.

For example, a child may memorize Biblical and literary passages and recite them glibly before his elders. Yet he may understand little of what he is repeating. He may have learned the verses mainly to obtain adult approval. In his case, interest is directed toward a pleasant and satisfying experience, yet one which does not necessarily convey a meaning of the type which the adult had intended.

Similar situations arise in the school. Teachers sometimes require pupils to learn material which has little or no meaning for them.

For instance, legends dealing with the court life of King Arthur will probably have little meaning for some pupils until such a time as they have gained an insight into the life of a medieval court. Terms such as "page" or "court fool" will certainly require considerable explanation before these pupils will understand the type of activities in which these individuals engaged.

Even though such material may have considerable general value, it has no value for the pupil as long as he is unable to comprehend and understand it. This situation is likely to arise whenever the teacher is careless or indifferent in planning his work. He may not have sufficient time to select materials and to organize his work, or he may be just too lazy to put forth the effort needed to achieve efficient results. In either case,

it is inexcusable for him to require his pupils to spend their time on material which has not been selected with sufficient care to provide worth-while learning experiences.

Planning should provide opportunity for pupils to study sequence whenever this factor assumes significance in the subject matter.

Certain historical events, for example, take on entirely new aspects when viewed in relationship to other events that preceded or followed them. The assassination of President Lincoln in 1865 was a tragic event at the time. Yet the pupil can recognize the full significance of this act only when he becomes aware of the lack of effective leadership that followed during the period of reconstruction.

The planning in the classroom should make it possible for him to organize and assimilate facts and data so that he will be able to appreciate their relative values. Only then is he in a position to recognize and understand how certain principles function in the physical and social structures of society.

The extent to which the teacher is able to develop such relationships naturally depends upon his own previous background as well as upon those of the pupils involved. He must, for example, consider differences such as those of background vocabularies. This difference is frequently of such a nature as to cause lack of understanding between the teacher and his pupils, even though they supposedly speak the same language. Whenever this happens, the teacher may find it necessary to try out numerous explanations until he comes upon one that is appropriate. As he gains experience in planning, he should gain proficiency in selecting the right type of explanations for his classes. Unless he is able to do so, he may lose not only valuable time but, possibly, also pupil interest as the course progresses.

Some years ago the writer observed such an experience in a foreign language class. In a reading passage a pupil met the word "whipsocket." When he was asked to describe this object, he looked around helplessly at his classmates. They were unable to assist him. The teacher's verbal description was also rather ineffective until he compared the object to the receptacle of a radio aerial on an automobile. This explanation brought some enlightenment to the faces before him. Here was something with which the pupils were familiar; it was a part of their everyday experience.

Personality and ability of teacher, factors in planning. The teacher should at all times plan to make full use of the personality traits which he possesses. He cannot succeed without them, and yet he can also misuse them so badly that he never capitalizes upon their full potentialities. As he organizes his work, he should plan to make use of those traits which have made him successful in his previous relationships with young people. He may, for example, have the ability to use humor effectively. If that is the case, there is good reason that he use it in the classroom at appropriate times. On the other hand, if he is lacking in this quality, he will probably only make himself appear ridiculous whenever he tries to employ it. Under such conditions it is best that he refrain from its use and instead try to capitalize upon some other trait. He may be the type of individual adept at organizing informal discussion groups or guiding pupils in the development of worth-while projects. It becomes his responsibility to discover what potentialities he possesses and then to use these in such a manner that they will help to assure him of success in his teaching activities.

Student teachers sometimes overlook the need for individualizing their own teaching. If the cooperating teacher uses a technique successfully, this does not mean that the student teacher has equal ability to do so.

The writer recalls the case of a student teacher who tried repeatedly to use games for drill purposes in a Latin class. The cooperating teacher was very skillful at organizing and directing games, and the pupils never appeared to get unruly during the activity. The student teacher was unable to employ this device equally well and as a result became somewhat discouraged. This individual failed to recognize that she would have to draw upon her own abilities in planning her work, rather than upon those of her cooperating teacher. Later she discovered techniques suited to her own personality. She was considerably surprised to find, as she gained experience, that the pupils in the class did not particularly miss games as a learning activity. They appeared quite willing to accept other means of learning, as long as these were conducted in an appropriate and effective manner.

Even teachers with similar abilities have to learn to adapt these abilities to their own personality and background experiences. A look at successful public speakers indicates at once how much these people create a style that fits their own personality. But even they are some-

times unsuccessful when they try to imitate some other individual in their profession.

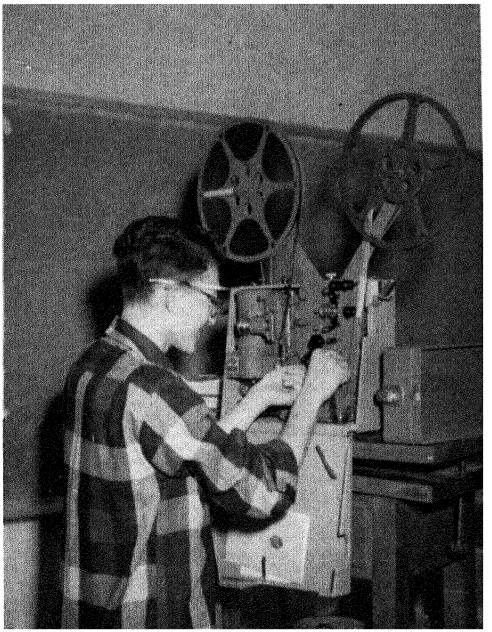
Organization of material into units of instruction. The teaching plan for any subject area should recognize the unique characteristics of that subject. The type of plan that fits certain material on one occasion may be quite inappropriate or inadequate on another.

Planning is a normal prerequisite to constructive action. This is certainly true in teaching. The groundwork for any course must be laid before instruction begins. The teacher may do this individually or he may work cooperatively with a group of teachers. He may even use the opening days of school and set up a program of pupil-teacher planning for the course. The number of individuals in the activity is important only as it affects the learning experience of those involved. Under any arrangement, someone will have to assume responsibility for directing the process. This is normally the job of the teacher of the course.

Many teachers prefer to organize material on the basis of units. They believe this permits increased flexibility in the development of material. Yet the extent to which this occurs depends largely upon the nature of the subject matter itself. It is possible to organize certain courses, such as science and history, around rather clearly defined units. In subjects such as the languages, however, this is somewhat more difficult.

As to length, units vary considerably. Some are so long that they require extended time for completion; others are so limited that they require no more than a few periods of time. These differences are generally unimportant except as they apply to the course as a whole. The teacher should keep in mind that the units or divisions of work which he expects to cover have to be organized on some general pattern. They constitute the course content for the school year. For that reason he should include in these units all material which he regards as desirable for consideration during that time.

Some teachers find it convenient to develop resource units. Such units provide a reservoir from which materials, information, ideas, and practices may be drawn as the individuals involved in the planning activities organize specific teaching units. Resource units are not necessarily prepared for any one particular class or grade level. The teaching unit, in contrast, is planned to meet the immediate needs of a particular group. It may be planned by the teacher alone or in cooperation with the pupils in the class. The resource unit is intended to give the teacher



There are times when the teacher can delegate to members of the class the responsibility for setting up or preparing equipment for the showing of pictures.



Group activities can help the adolescent gain social poise.



Many extracurricular groups such as this art club meet outside the regular school day.

a comprehensive working knowledge of the area being studied. It may include suggestions for activities which the teacher and class may be desirous of developing later.

The organization of the course into units should aid in the selection of goals of an immediate and specific nature. It should also facilitate the organization of the material on a daily basis. By using the unit the teacher should find it possible to organize learning material around problems related to the interest and background of the pupils in various class groups. In some courses, such as geometry or beginning French, certain logical sequences will very probably influence the type of units selected for the course. It is definitely the teacher's responsibility to determine the basis upon which he plans to build this organization. He must consider the central theme or idea in each unit as well as the relationship among the themes in all the units.

Correlation of material between subject areas. Teachers frequently plan to correlate subject materials extending beyond the boundaries of a particular area of study. In order to do this effectively, however, they may have to utilize the backgrounds and experiences of other staff members. This limitation should not stand as a barrier to the use of the plan. For example, there is no reason why the history teacher may not be better prepared to present the historical aspect of a unit in English than is the English teacher himself. On the other hand, it may be just as desirable to reverse the situation with equally beneficial results.

The author has seen a number of such exchanges which have been quite successful.

A music teacher, who as a boy had experienced the German inflation of 1923, described to a foreign language class the details of that economic disaster upon his home and community life. On another occasion, an English teacher whose class was studying Marlowe's *Faust* had the German teacher explain the characteristics of Goethe's great work on Faust. Then he had the music teacher follow with a discussion of the theme as presented in the opera by Gounod.

Although this plan of interchange is admirable in many respects, it does present some difficulties. It is not always convenient for a particular teacher to leave his own classes during such an exchange to meet with another group of pupils. Some teachers take care of this problem by combining their classes during such presentations. They, no doubt, be-

lieve that both groups can benefit from the discussions. Under such an arrangement, since there is no need for outside assistance, other members of the staff are not inconvenienced.

The amount of interclass correlation possible will vary according to the nature of the subject material, as well as to the background of the teachers concerned. It is especially desirable that they cooperate in making plans before they attempt to carry out their work. A slipshod approach is almost certain to lead to unsatisfactory results. There may even be times when teachers become overly enthusiastic about correlating their work and forget to consider the needs and interests of the pupils involved. Correlation should enrich and expand the learning experiences of the pupils. Its use may be questioned if it does not do this in an effective manner.

Organization of Instructional Material

The teacher can either select his course material from a single major source such as a textbook, or he can draw it from numerous sources. The nature of the material and the nature of the source are both determining factors in the selection. There has been a tendency at times to condemn the teacher who methodically follows a textbook. This procedure may appear somewhat unimaginative, yet there is little reason why the teacher should be hesitant to follow such a practice if he finds that a particular text meets his specific needs. But in following the practice, he should observe certain cautions. It is easy for the teacher who is lacking in initiative to follow a textbook day by day without considering whether or not some other type of organization might not be more appropriate for his classwork. A text can easily become a professional crutch for the lazy or inefficient teacher.

The use of several sources requires considerable organizational detail on the part of the teacher. It takes time and effort if he is to examine numerous sources such as textbooks, workbooks, supplementary reading materials, and audio-visual aids in order to determine whether appropriate materials are available for his class unit. It is questionable if he should attempt to develop a unit if the resources are overly limited, for, under such circumstances, pupils may easily become discouraged and lose interest in their work. However, the practice of selecting material from

numerous sources permits flexibility in planning. It also provides the teacher with a good opportunity to adapt material to the needs of individuals and classes. Yet, as pointed out above, it requires time to organize material on such a basis. This is especially the case whenever there is cooperative pupil-teacher planning. Hasty improvisations at any time during the process are seldom satisfactory or successful.

There are teachers who find it desirable to use a basic textbook for their work along with supplementary materials for enriching and strengthening course content. This practice also permits flexibility in adapting classwork to pupil needs and interests. In fact, it includes some of the most desirable aspects of both practices and, for that reason, has been rather widely adopted by teachers.

Relationship of unit to needs and interest of the learner. Although teachers are using the unit plan of instruction rather widely today, there are differences of opinion as to the nature of a typical unit. These differences are generally centered around the question as to whether the unifying factor resides within the subject matter, within the individual, or within the learning product. It will probably never be possible to arrive at an answer to this question which will be satisfactory to every teacher or educator. In most instances, the teacher will simply have to decide upon the type of unit which he believes fits the needs of his pupils and then proceed to develop it as best he can.

Earlier in the chapter, it was pointed out that the teacher is responsible for organizing his course into appropriate units. But he can do this only as he determines what each unit should contribute to the purposes and objectives of the course as a whole. For example, the science teacher may want to include units on health or on conservation in his science class. The foreign language teacher may want to include units on the cultural aspects of a foreign-speaking people, in addition to those dealing with various phases of the language structure itself. Whatever units the teacher includes in the course, he should make sure that they give evidence of relationship to one another. Otherwise they will not present the material as a unified whole when the course has been completed.

The unit method often makes it possible for the teacher to consider the interests and needs of individual pupils on a group basis. This can contribute to a certain amount of economy in time and effort.

For example, pupils in different sections of the same subject course probably have different interests. In the field of civics, for instance, the teacher may find that one group wants to direct its major attention to topics dealing with justice, crime and punishment, or public welfare work. Another group may be interested in the conservation of property, municipal government, and the development of social attitudes. If the teacher can divide the pupils according to group interests, it may be possible to develop the various units with emphasis on a group's particular interests.

The flexibility of the units should make it possible for the teacher to increase the meaningfulness of the material for the learner. He should make certain that the material deals with the things that seem real and vital for every pupil in the class. Mursell emphasizes this point of view with the statement, "Learning is well organized when it is richly meaningful to the learner." [8]

The experienced teacher knows that he cannot anticipate all the problems that will arise when he is developing a unit. Therefore, he sets up his plans to permit a certain amount of flexibility. To the teacher such problems often represent a desirable aspect of the learning process. Pupils do not always reveal their real interests until after they have had the opportunity of examining and studying the material before them. For this reason, it is often preferable that initial teaching plans be somewhat tentative.

Changes in world developments are occurring with tremendous rapidity today. In some subject areas these changes affect the subject content to such an extent that teacher and pupils must make modifications continually in order to keep their work up to date. In fields such as science, social studies, and vocational areas these changes sometimes occur with dramatic suddenness. The alert teacher keeps himself abreast of these changes and incorporates those that are pertinent into the appropriate unit. He can not avoid doing this, for pupils continually hear about new inventions or feel the impact of political and economic changes upon their daily living. They are naturally curious about these matters, but may not always be too accurately informed as to details. The teacher who can combine the pupils' natural curiosity for everyday events with the aspects of the unit being studied, will usually have little difficulty in getting his class to participate actively in the work at hand.

[8] By permission, Mursell, *op. cit.*, p. 46.

Basis of unit plan organization. It is possible for the teacher to organize the unit in a number of ways; however, Jones, and Others [9] indicate that three principles rather commonly underlie the selecting of activities in which pupils engage. In the first of these, the recurring habits, skills, attitudes, knowledges, and so forth, necessary to effective participation in an activity, are selected after careful analyzation. When viewed from a logical basis, these provide the minimum essentials or structure for the unit; for example, a unit on driver training would probably include instruction on several simple steps such as learning how to press on the brake pedal in order to stop the movement of the car within a given distance, or moving the steering wheel in such a way as to direct the motion of the car to a designated position. These skills along with others would, of course, have little value until such time as they could be coordinated to give the driver full control of the car. Yet each would involve certain specific points which the instructor would want to cover with the learner.

The second method directs special attention to the "inner natural growth of the individual," in the belief that growth will result from the natural activities in which he engages; for example, learning results from his play activities.

The third method considers life activities "as made up of situations, each involving varying complexes of elements, but each also having unity within itself." In this case, the individual receives training in meeting situations by fixing his attention upon the entire situation or unit rather than upon separate parts of it. In other words, the learner is given practice in meeting situations similar to the ones which he expects to meet later in life. However, this unit of experience usually loses its general identity if it is broken up into smaller parts.

In any of the three organizational approaches mentioned above, learning experiences are intended to develop the individual's ability to meet successfully both expected and unexpected situations in life. The teacher has little choice other than to organize subject matter on either a logical or a psychological basis. The logical organization recognizes that certain natural factors of relationship exist in subject matter, such as *time* in history, and *physical elements* in science. These factors make it possible to transfer such subject matter knowledge from one period

[9] By permission, from *Principles of Unit Construction* by Arthur J. Jones, and Others, copyright 1939, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., pp. 9–12.

of time to another. In contrast, the psychological organization of subject matter recognizes the learner's experience and environment along with the specific need for him to develop specific abilities to do specific things.

For example, he may learn how to throw a baseball accurately, yet this training does not necessarily make it possible for him to be able to throw a football with an equal degree of accuracy. In a like manner, he can develop the ability to read and speak French, but this training does not automatically make him able to read and to speak Spanish. Although in either case some transfer of learning takes place, without doubt, the specific training to which the learner devotes his time and attention should be the same as the objective toward which he is working. In other words, if he wants to learn Spanish, he should work on that language and not on French, with the hope that the latter will be of indirect benefit to him in learning Spanish.

Jones, and Others [10] have summarized this viewpoint as follows:

Each ability developed must fit into a pattern of life that is formed around some central life purpose or goal. This central life goal is a gradual development; it is a dynamic evolving pattern of life that determines, in the large, the way in which the individual meets various situations; to be really effective, it must be both individually satisfying and socially effective. The unit of adaptation indicates the methods by which such central life goals function in integration.

The above-mentioned writers [11] present the following unit outlines on developing pupil ability to write letters of recommendation as an example of the difference between a subject-matter unit and a unit of adaptation.

SUBJECT–MATTER UNIT

Analysis of many situations reveals certain habits, skills, attitudes, knowledges, many of which are necessary, not only to success in stenography, but also to success in many walks of life. These are, *e.g.*,

1. Neatness
2. Correct English

UNIT OF ADAPTATION

Analysis of life activities reveals certain situations that must be met, some of them immediately, many of them later in life. What must the pupil do, how must he behave, in order to produce a successful letter of application, for instance? His letter must be

[10] By permission, Jones, and Others, *op. cit.*, p. 31.
[11] By permission, *ibid.*, p. 23.

SUBJECT–MATTER UNIT

3. Pleasing personality, etc.

Hence: Select those that are most common and develop them so that the pupil can then use them in whatever place he needs them. Obviously, neatness, correct English, punctuation, knowledge of letter forms are necessary in many situations. Develop them in the quickest, most effective way.

Test of achievement: The writing of English, correct in different details, etc.

Note: In this theory attention is directed largely to the development of these habits, etc., as such, on the assumption that in some way they will then function in life situations.

Learning is directed toward the mastery of a division of subject matter.

Here school work is grouped into units of logically organized fields of knowledge.

UNIT OF ADAPTATION

1. Neat
2. Correct in English
3. Correct in punctuation
4. Correct in form, etc.

Hence: Have the child write a letter applying for some job. If he doesn't know how to head it, drill on that point, and then have him write another letter applying for the job. If he punctuates incorrectly, drill on punctuation, and then ask him to write still another letter.

Test of achievement: An acceptable letter applying for a job.

Note: In this theory attention is directed largely to meeting a situation, to solving a problem, to developing such a coordination of habits, skills, knowledges, attitudes, abilities, as will result in desirable and effective response to the situation.

Learning is directed toward the development of the ability to meet a situation.

Here school work is grouped into units of psychological experiences.

Without doubt, the teacher is responsible for seeing to it that the proper kind of integration takes place between experience and subject matter. Unless he takes precautions, one may interfere with the other. For instance, in the subject-matter unit he may include materials logically related to the structure of the subject, but beyond the pupils' realm of experience. On the other hand, in an experience unit he may include experiences which make little contribution to the major purposes for which the unit was intended.

The Morrisonian concept of unit organization. Although teachers have developed various types of units in the past, many of their units reveal certain common characteristics which are an outgrowth of Morrison's [12] work in this area of learning. Because of his extensive contributions to the development of the unit idea, it may be well to examine the five formal steps which he suggests that the teacher follow in developing the learning process. They are summarized as follows:

1. ***Exploration.*** The teacher ascertains through pretesting what knowledge each pupil has about the material included in the unit. This provides data for the teacher in determining future objectives and for eliminating the repetition of material already familiar to the pupils. Meanwhile, the class obtains an overview of the work which the unit covers. This is expected to stimulate the pupils' curiosity and interest.
2. ***Presentation.*** The teacher presents an overview of the unit, giving special attention to its purpose and significance. The presentation is intended to arouse further interest and to outline the approach that the pupils are expected to follow. A test follows the presentation to determine which of the pupils may need further assistance to obtain a general understanding of the plan.
3. ***Assimilation.*** The pupil gathers the pertinent data from sources readily available to the entire class. The teacher checks on the progress being made by means of tests and individual or group conferences.
4. ***Organization.*** The work is organized under selected headings for presentation to the group or to the teacher. It becomes the pupil's responsibility to work toward a solution of the problem.
5. ***Recitation.*** The pupil presents the result of his work to the class. Thus ideas are shared and understandings become more firmly fixed in the minds of all of the pupils. Billett [13] found some years ago that of Morrison's five steps teachers were using the introductory phase, the laboratory period, and the discussion period most often in their classwork.

The project method is a form of the unit plan. The project is one of a number of means used by teachers to motivate pupils. Although it has been defined in a number of ways, one of its major purposes is to extend the pupil's learning experience beyond the pages of the textbook. It is intended to deal with material things in a realistic setting. It is generally attractive to the learner because it provides him with a concrete goal.

[12] By permission from *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, Revised Edition, by Henry C. Morrison, copyright 1931, University of Chicago Press.
[13] Roy O. Billett, "Directed Learning and the Unit Assignment," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary School Principals*, No. 45, pp. 55–85.

Douglass and Mills [14] believe that the project is marked by the following characteristics:

1. The project is a learning unit. Its unity depends upon pupil purpose rather than upon the logical arrangement of subject matter.
2. The project is a self-imposed or willingly accepted task growing out of an awareness on the part of the pupil of its significance. Along with the acceptance of the challenge of the task goes the acceptance of responsibility for "following through" until its completion.
3. The project grows out of the pupil's experiential background, thus enabling him to discover clues for planning and organizing his own activities.
4. The project retains its identity only as long as the pupil has freedom to pursue his purpose unrestrained by the barriers of subject-matter boundaries or teacher domination.
5. The project invokes a wholehearted effort on the part of the pupil to achieve an attainable and desirable goal.
6. The project leads to goals which are recognizable by the pupil, thereby enabling him to evaluate his own progress in achieving his objectives.

As a problem the project has the added feature of dealing with concrete materials. Because of this the teacher and the pupil are usually able to evaluate the project during the time of its development as well as at its completion. It provides for individual differences at the same time that it offers opportunity for individual participation. It is true, it does have some limitations, but of these, possibly only two are of particular significance to the beginning teacher. It is sometimes limited in its application and, unless well organized, can result in wasted time and effort as far as providing desirable learning experiences are concerned. But it does have educational values whenever the teacher uses it to motivate the pupil and to enrich his experience. The second limitation lies in the fact that a lazy teacher may find it a convenient means for filling in time during poor or unplanned class periods. Its use can seldom if ever be justified on such a basis.

Daily lesson plans as a part of larger units of work. It is naturally easier for the teacher to adapt certain types of class materials to long-

[14] By permission, from *Teaching in High School* by Harl R. Douglass and Hubert H. Mills, copyright 1948, The Ronald Press, p. 209.

unit organization than it is to adapt others. There are also times when he finds that he has materials which do not fit into any major unit plan. Nevertheless, he must present them in some form or other if he is to include them in the course. Under certain conditions he may find it appropriate to use the daily lesson plan for such a purpose. Although the teacher cannot expect it to possess all of the characteristics of the larger unit, it often serves certain specific purposes quite adequately.

Some teachers drift into the habit of using the daily plan as an easy way to avoid the efforts required for more comprehensive unit planning. In certain courses it is easy for the teacher to tie his daily work around a few exercises from the textbook. If the text which he is using is well organized and clear in its explanations, such a practice may make it possible for him to be relatively successful in achieving certain goals. But even under such conditions, a teacher will usually find it worth while to give to daily plans the same kind of careful preparation that is required in the development of more involved unit plans.

Under most teaching conditions the daily plan is an integral part of a larger-unit plan. In fact, the teacher may find it difficult to develop some units without presenting parts of them on a daily lesson plan basis. Such a practice does not necessarily detract from the individualized characteristic of the longer-unit plan. The teacher does not use the daily lesson plan properly if he lets it become a disjointed, hit-and-miss tool for disorganized and ineffective teaching. He should see to it that it is used for the specific purposes for which it is designed. But he should not expect it to achieve more than a few limited objectives. If it does this, it has served its purpose.

The daily plan does not have to be particularly involved. However, it should possess a few simple characteristics, such as those to be found in the following plans prepared and used by student teachers.

ALGEBRA

1. Objectives
   a. To have the pupil develop the ability to remove a common monomial factor
   b. To have the pupil develop the ability to find products of the type $(x + a)\ (x + b)$
2. Procedure
   a. The special case of $ac + ad + bc + bd$ is presented. By factoring out the common factors a and b, it is found to be a form the pupils have used before.

b. The factors $(x + a)$ $(x + b)$ are first multiplied together by the old method. By inspection of several examples the general rule is worked out. The teacher works a few more examples on the board.

3. Assignment

Page 247—problems 41–50, page 248—problems 1–20

GERMAN

Immediate aims:

a. To improve the pupil's ability to use comparative forms of the adjective
b. To develop the pupil's ability to understand and use selected colloquial expressions

Time allotment:

Grammar, 10 minutes; story, 25 minutes; study, 25 minutes

MATERIAL	PUPIL ACTIVITY	TEACHER ACTIVITY
Exercise II, III p. 12 in *High Points*	Read orally, Ex. II. Read sentences 1–6, Ex. III, from prepared papers. Explain comparative forms used.	Direct reading. Correct sentences. Drill on comparative forms.
Pages 62, line 28 – 65, line 5, in *Drei Männer im Schnee*	Read orally the marked passages. Translate selected passages and expressions. Answer questions using colloquial expressions. Discuss story in German.	Recast German expressions into questions for oral drill. (Prepare list if necessary.) Direct discussion.
Assignment Pages 65, line 6 – 67, line 5, in story	Underline and learn checked words and expressions. Prepare to retell in your own words assigned part from story.	Check special words and expressions. Assign half page to each pupil for retelling in German.

Factors Involved in Planning the Individual Unit [15]

Selection of unit follows recognition of purpose. As he begins organizing a unit, the teacher has to decide upon his purposes. In addition to a mastery of subject matter, he has to have in mind what type of per-

[15] See examples of units in the Appendix of this text.

sonal attitudes he wants his pupils to develop. He can achieve such purposes only if he selects and develops the appropriate type of procedures. Thus selection is one of the first steps in getting ready to teach. Examples may help to make this point somewhat clearer.

It may be that the science teacher believes it is desirable for his pupils to learn more about the various kinds of woods and minerals that are vital to the life of our nation. At the same time he believes that the pupils should develop an understanding of the need for cooperative action to protect and conserve the natural resources that produce these necessary materials. Therefore, his unit has to be broad enough in scope to make all of these objectives possible. It may be a valuable experience for the pupils to help in planning the unit so that it will include these or other desirable goals. Even the evaluation and selection of objectives may be of considerable help to the teacher in developing desirable attitudes on the part of pupils.

After he has selected his objectives, the teacher is ready to direct his attention to the development of details. But even during this step he should not forget, as Mursell [16] says, that "planning is thinking." The teacher should weigh carefully all the parts that he thinks might be included. He may not be able to determine fully the scope of the plan until he has worked most of his way through it. There is always the possibility that unforeseen developments will arise. For example, in the science unit referred to above, the teacher may find it desirable to include additional aspects of conservation even after he has presented part of the unit to the class. Or he may see the need for giving attention to certain lesser known minerals and woods because of extended pupil interest.

The developmental possibilities of the unit may be illustrated by referring further to the unit on conservation.

For example, a farm boy in the class may be especially interested in the use and construction of waterways as a means of preventing soil erosion. The teacher's original plans may have included only passing mention of such devices in the unit. But the farm boy may find this aspect of study so interesting that he wants to follow through and find out more about the problem of constructing such waterways. The teacher should make it possible to include this departure in his plan. As the boy becomes familiar with the surveying, the terracing, and the contour plowing needed to prepare such a waterway, he will be in a better position to recognize that conservation is part of a real-

[16] By permission, Mursell, *op. cit.*, p. 322.

life situation, and not just an abstract classroom problem. His learning experiences have then become more meaningful to him.

The teacher's planning is not particularly unlike that of the football coach.

The coach is familiar with the resources upon which he has to draw. He outlines his attack on the basis of what he anticipates for the day of the game. He coaches the quarterback on the strategy to be used. But his planning must always be open to sudden revision. Unexpected weather conditions arise, key players are injured in scrimmage, or the opponents present an unorthodox type of defense. What does the coach do with his arranged plans? He modifies them to try to capitalize on the situation confronting him at the moment. In other words, he has planned ahead, but he plays the game as of the present moment. He cannot call off the game just because such changes occur. Because he knows that they may arise he makes provision for meeting them when they do occur.

The teacher is in a similar position. It is his duty to provide in his planning for the unexpected, as well as the expected. He should be ready to take advantage of everything that the immediate learning situation has to offer in the way of furthering pupil progress.

As has been pointed out, the teacher may follow two major steps in preparing his unit of instruction. He should first consider and develop the general structure of the unit by thinking it through over a period of time. During this time he should consider the nature of the objectives which he expects to achieve. Furthermore, he should have some idea of the scope which the initial development will cover. These are all activities which involve thought and study. The second step occurs just before he begins teaching the unit. At this point he should give the plan a quick recheck. He should make such changes as are desirable in the light of the work previously covered and of his present knowledge of the needs and abilities of the pupils in the class. He should make certain that resource and supplementary materials are available. He should be in a position where he can outline the work clearly and specifically, regardless of whether he has planned it alone or in cooperation with others. The pupils in the class will have to understand what they are to do and how they are to do it. If they have helped with the planning, this step may be less important, for they will probably already have the necessary information to proceed with the work.

Selection and use of resource material. The selection of appropriate resource or context material is definitely an important part of the planning activity. Since the teacher is not always able to select and obtain desired material on an overnight arrangement, he should continually be on the lookout for resource material which he can use in various learning units. Even the prospective teacher can begin collecting limited types of subject material before he begins his first teaching assignment. He can be on the lookout for selected material and file it away or make a notation of where he can find it later.

Almost every teacher has need for illustrative material in his classwork at some time or other. For that reason he should make a file of his own and develop a system of classification that will make it possible for him to find needed materials without delay. Magazines, newspapers, textbooks, travel folders, and posters provide sources for such material. The writer himself has built up a file of this nature for his foreign language classes. He collected much of this material previous to World War II. Today it is invaluable because much of it cannot be replaced. There is, for instance, material to illustrate regions, cities, customs, and vocations. He has also included folders for famous historical and literary figures. Much of this material has been mounted on colored coverboard to facilitate posting and to give it a more striking background. Incidentally, mounting also helps to preserve it.

Some types of material, such as films and reference texts which the teacher cannot stock personally, can be classified and listed in a personal reference file. It is usually necessary to arrange for the use of such material a considerable time before the unit is to be taught. This is especially true of films. For that reason the teacher must sometimes book them with the proper library or service agency months in advance if they are to be available when he wishes to use them. This situation illustrates again the need for general planning before a particular unit or daily plan is actually placed into use. Any "hand to mouth" approach in teaching is little more than a stopgap measure. It seldom carries the effectiveness which long-term planning makes possible.

Every beginning teacher should build up a library of textual and reference material for classroom use. But such material has little value unless it is available when it is needed. Furthermore, to add to its usefulness, it is necessary that the teacher acquaint himself with the contents

and then set up a system which will help him find what he wants when he wants it. Practically every form of written material which deals with the teacher's subject field will have some features which are appropriate for use in certain units. The teacher of French, for example, can build up a Christmas unit from several sources. One text may contain a fine description of festive customs, another the historical backgrounds of the holidays, a third may have significant illustrations. But they achieve their full value only when the teacher brings the parts together and they supplement one another.

The teacher should note special features in texts and reference works and make a record of where they occur. In this manner he not only extends the resources upon which he can draw, but he economizes on his own time in locating them when they are needed later. Over a period of years such a practice makes it possible for him to supply the needs of many of his learning situations in short order. Such a system does not limit the flexibility of planning; in fact, it enhances it. It places the teacher in a better position to meet pupil needs and interests. There are many times when the teacher finds it desirable to rely upon such material to clarify or strengthen some point arising during a class discussion. It is convenient for him to be able to locate such material without delay. No doubt, this ability also has a tendency to increase the respect of the pupils for his efficiency as a teacher.

Designation of teacher and pupil activity. The teacher is responsible for setting up learning situations in which the pupils can participate actively. This is necessary because they can acquire certain skills only by engaging in them; in fact, they even have to engage in limited activity in order to acquire simple types of information. For that reason it appears advisable that the teacher spend some time discussing with the class the objectives, the procedures, and the standards of the course. This should prepare them somewhat for assuming a share of the responsibility for the success of the learning situation. This step may not be necessary if the work is the result of cooperative planning by both of them.

The teacher should state his teaching objectives in terms of the pupil ability which he hopes to develop. Such a practice usually makes it easier for him to realize the need for active pupil participation in the learning experiences of the classroom. An example may help to clarify this point.

The teacher may, for instance, want to teach his pupils how to determine the area of a triangle, or to develop their ability to determine the area of a triangle. In the first instance, the activity is entirely teacher centered. In fact, the teacher could meet his objective and, at the same time, have his entire class inattentive during the process. As far as the teacher is concerned, the pupils may be largely inactive. In the second instance, there must be positive pupil activity and growth to achieve the stated purpose. In this case, the teacher is planning to have something happen to the pupils. He can not consider his teaching procedure a success until the pupils give concrete evidence that they are able to determine the area of a triangle. Hence, pupil growth and progress become major factors in determining teaching success.

The beginning teacher may find it helpful to indicate in his plan just what the teacher is to do and just what the pupils are to do. Thus by defining the responsibilities of each party, he is also identifying the specific learning activities in which the pupils are to engage. As soon as he realizes what these experiences are to be, he is in a position where he can try to provide the materials for carrying them out.

In the instance dealing with the measurement of triangles, the teacher will, no doubt, want to have pupils work with triangular designs of one type or another. These may be in the form of drawings; they may be objects; or they may be pictures. Whatever they are, they should be available when the learning experiences are to take place.

It may be possible by means of a simple demonstration in geometry to point out how planning can affect the pupil's motivation and also his participation in a learning experience. In this case, the teacher's objective is to help the pupil develop his ability to recognize the principle that the bisectors of the angles of a triangle intersect at a common point. He could, of course, demonstrate this fact by placing drawings on the blackboard or on paper. However, in this instance, the teacher might prefer to have each pupil make a triangle from a sheet of paper. This may be done before class or during class. Furthermore, the shape of the triangle is not important; in fact, it may be helpful if the pupils' triangles are not all alike.

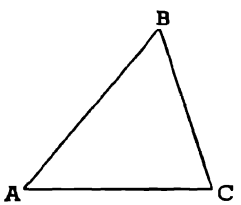


Fig. 1

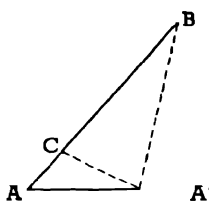


Fig. 2

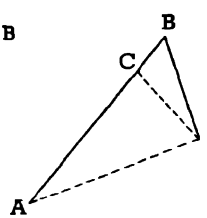


Fig. 3

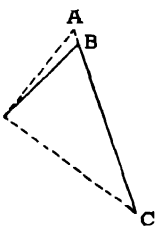


Fig. 4

As work begins on the problem, the teacher has each pupil fold his triangle, such as *ABC* in Figure 1, on the bisectors of the angles *A*, *B*, and *C*, as indicated in Figures 2, 3, and 4. The results can well be an interesting learning experience for the entire class.

After each pupil has completed the necessary folding, he should compare his paper with several other papers in order to discover what common result has been obtained. If the pupils have done their work accurately, the folds will all have a common point of intersection at *D*, as shown in Figure 5. Even the less able pupils in the class can not only participate in such an activity but are usually able to comprehend what the group is trying to accomplish. Individual participation and the challenge to discover the principle involved can, therefore, often serve to stimulate pupil interest more than if the teacher demonstrates the problem on the blackboard. But if he wishes to carry out such a practice successfully, it is necessary that the teacher do at least a limited amount of planning beforehand. He must see to it that the material is at hand. He must also have plans made for carrying out in an appropiate manner the various steps involved in the process.

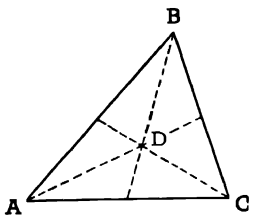


Fig. 5

Planning sometimes also makes it possible for the teacher to use the material which he has at hand for more than one kind of learning experience.

In the above case, the teacher can have his pupils fold their papers, as shown below in Figure 2, to demonstrate another theorem, namely, that the area of a triangle is the product of the base times one-half the altitude, or the altitude times one-half the base. The pupil demonstrates this principle by

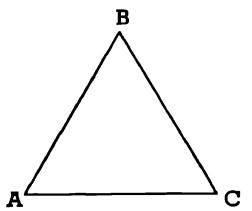


Fig. 1

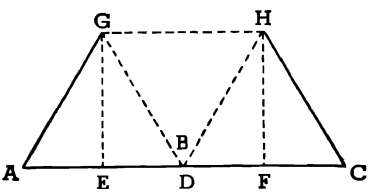


Fig. 2

folding the paper so that point *B* of triangle *ABC* rests on point *D*, thus reducing the altitude by one-half. Then he folds the paper to bring point *A* to rest on point *D* and point C to rest on point *D*. This step reduces the base by one-half and also produces rectangle *EGHF* whose area equals *EF* times *FH*. At the same time it is obvious that the total area of three triangles folded over

equals the area of the rectangle, because they cover it completely. Therefore, the total area of the triangle equals twice that of the rectangle. At this point it is usually possible for the pupil to recognize the relationships that exist and which show that the area of triangle *ABC* is the product of one-half the base *AC* times the altitude *BD* or the product of one-half the altitude *BD* times the base *AC*.

Of course the teacher is not always able to develop learning activities that are as simple as those described here. Nor will the materials always be this simple. But when planning his work, he should not overlook the means whereby he can help the pupil comprehend as fully as possible the learning experiences in which he is to participate. The more the pupil can develop them himself, the greater is the probability that he will come to understand them.

Selection of appropriate motivation techniques. Motivation is the force that induces an individual toward the accomplishment of tasks. The teacher should not only recognize this force but should capitalize upon it in the learning process. However, where a wide range in individual differences exists, he may find it difficult to provide appropriate motivation at all times for every member of a large class or group.

After examining recent research on motivation, Hilgard and Russell [17] are convinced that there is no known formula or infallible set of procedures by which the teacher can motivate his pupils to an equal degree at any one time. They conclude that extraneous incentives, such as grades and honor rolls, "are of doubtful value or even of definite harm" to the pupils. It would seem, therefore, that the teacher should apply forms of motivation which are by nature a natural and integral part of the learning experience in which the pupils are engaged.

The teacher should recognize that motivation bears a direct relationship to the personality of the pupil. He can seldom impose it upon him unless the pupil is willing. For example, the punishment the teacher holds over the pupil in order to get him to memorize assigned material may be so severe that he will memorize in order to escape the punishment. Thus his reward comes in the form of escape from punishment, rather than from a desire to achieve the learning objective. Even though

[17] By permission, from "Motivation in School Learning" by Ernest R. Hilgard and David H. Russell. Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, *Learning and Instruction*, copyright 1950, University of Chicago Press, Chapter II.

an incentive may be effective, it is not always one that is necessarily desirable. Therefore it becomes the teacher's responsibility to select those forms of pupil motivation that will achieve their purpose and will, at the same time, not have an unwholesome effect upon the pupil.

Success experience generally has a motivating effect upon the individual. With this in mind, the teacher can often set up minor goals along the way toward the achievement of a major goal. The former may be but a part of the work involving the completion of daily assignments, yet through them the pupil can often obtain the satisfaction of success experience. It is usually desirable that these goals be of such a nature that it is possible for a majority of the class or even its entire membership to attain them.

As the teacher attempts to develop desirable and effective motivation techniques, he must consider the needs of the pupil and the environment in which he is living. Both of these factors change as the child grows older. It is for this reason that the teacher must consider the actual maturity of the individuals in his classes, even though they may all be of the same age level. Age and learning maturity are not always equivalent. It has been said that "motivation for learning is not something magically produced by the teacher at the beginning of a lesson in reading or social studies, but a process involving a complex of conditions within the individual and the total school environment." [18]

Many pupils respond more readily to praise and social approval than they do to reproof and punishment. This may be the case when they are in a group situation as well as when they are alone. Group goals then, such as are present in competitive sports, for example, can often stimulate individuals to a high degree of individual effort.

Selection of appropriate evaluation techniques. Evaluation should be a continuing process throughout the time that the unit is being developed. It is the indicator which governs the speed and the direction of work, as well as the selection of content material. It is fruitless for the teacher to wait until he has completed the unit before he makes an evaluation of the work which the pupils are doing. It is too late then for him to use the results for corrective instruction. Then they only confirm what he and each pupil should have known earlier. For the able pupil this may not be serious, but for the poor pupil it confirms what he has probably been fearing for some time. It is as Mursell says, "When learn-

[18] By permisson, *ibid.*, p. 54.

ing is well organized, the learners are constantly aware of how well they are doing and why." [19]

Whenever the teacher establishes means for keeping the pupil informed as to his progress, it is usually easier for both of them to agree as to changes in procedure, if such changes should be made. In addition, the pupil is usually in a favorable position to evaluate himself. This step can do much to eliminate wasted effort for himself as well as for the teacher. In some instances it can also serve to economize on the use of material.

For example, the boy who is building a desk or table in the woodshop may make a serious error in his construction. If he is not aware of his mistake, he will continue cutting and fitting material. Eventually, of course, he will discover his error, either through his own efforts or those of the teacher. But by that time he may have to discard material which it will not be possible to use again. Hence, it would have been better for him to have had at hand some means of evaluating his own progress before he lost so much time and ruined so much material.

The teacher should have provided these means; he could have checked the work at various intervals himself or provided a plan whereby the pupil could have done it for himself. It is obvious in this instance that the teacher and the pupil would have profited more from progressive evaluation than they would have from a single evaluation at the conclusion of the project.

The type of evaluation required will vary according to the nature of the subject matter being taught. The evaluating techniques have to be adapted to the steps set up to achieve the purposes and objectives of the unit or lesson. Both teacher and pupil have to understand how they are to use them and for what purpose.

Various steps in evaluating pupil progress are discussed in more detail in Chapter Eleven.

Characteristics of an Effective Instructional Plan

Statement of clearly formulated objectives. The objective is one of the most important factors in an instructional plan. It should be stated in such a manner that both teacher and pupil can comprehend it readily. It should be thought of in terms of what will happen to the learner

[19] By permission, Mursell, *op cit.*, p. 330.

during the learning experience. In this respect it can serve as a guide to the teacher in directing both his own activity as well as that of the pupils. After all, he is responsible for making the aims in the plan so clear and concise that the pupils will find them meaningful as well as attainable.

Application of accepted principles of learning. The teacher should organize his instructional plan around proven principles of learning. This plan should indicate the problem or problems clearly and make possible their intelligible solution by the pupil. Wherever possible the pupil should arrive at the solution through understanding and reflective thinking rather than by rote process. If he is able to see his material as a meaningful whole, he is usually in a position to understand it with less effort than if he does not comprehend its significance or its worth.

The teacher should plan to relate the material to the interests of the pupil. But he may not always be able to do this until the learning experience is under way. Therefore, the plan should have flexibility to provide for such adjustments.

The plan should also provide for adjustments to meet individual differences. All members of the group should find it possible to experience some degree of success. This may be in forms such as personal achievement or social approval from adults or peers. But before the teacher is able to provide avenues for success, it will be necessary for him to be familiar with the backgrounds and ability levels of the members of the class. These are foundations upon which he builds. He has to modify the objectives in the light of these factors.

Development of desirable problem-solving experiences. Wherever possible the teacher should try to incorporate problem solving into his teaching plans. But if such problems are to involve meaningful experiences for the pupil, they have to have some bearing on his previous realm of experience.

The teacher is responsible for seeing to it that the working materials which are needed to bring the problem to a satisfactory solution are available. He should also allow sufficient time for the pupil to complete the required work. Problems need not necessarily be of an involved or extensive nature. The teacher can usually make them a part of a short, daily plan, as well as of a longer-unit plan.

Whenever the problem involves experimental processes, the teacher should be prepared for unexpected as well as anticipated results. In ei-

ther case, it becomes his responsibility to help the pupils plan to make correct analyses and not necessarily to arrive at predetermined conclusions. Planning should, therefore, provide for an evaluation of the pertinent factors connected with the problem.

This point may be illustrated by relating the experience of a young, inexperienced, yet well-intentioned biology teacher. It seems this teacher was disturbed by the fact that some of his pupils were consuming more candy bars than he thought were good for their health. As a result, he suggested that by experimentation the class try to determine the value of candy as a food. After some discussion the pupils decided to use two white rats for their purposes. They made plans to feed the one a normal diet and the other nothing but candy bars. Then they would observe the results. The teacher agreed to the plan and felt certain the results would support his point of view.

All went well for some time; then one morning, somewhat to the teacher's chagrin, one of the pupils discovered that the rat eating the normal diet had died overnight while the other was still healthy and strong. Although neither teacher nor pupils had anticipated such a result, both agreed that the death of this particular rat was scarcely conclusive evidence that such a diet would normally bring about fatal results to rats. The teacher asked the pupils to discover the weaknesses in the experiment. They discovered several, but one seemed to impress them particularly: they recognized that the number of cases involved in the experiment were insufficient to provide them with results of a conclusive nature. On this point, their planning had been inadequate.

A more detailed discussion of problem solving appears in Chapter Six.

Provision for meeting individual differences. Instructional planning should provide opportunity for each individual to develop his abilities to the fullest extent possible. Yet the teacher cannot always determine during the planning stage exactly what direction this development will take. For that reason he will have to be ready to make adjustments as the work progresses. He will probably find it easier to meet the needs, interests, and abilities of his pupils if he is working with a long unit than if he is working with one of a limited type. But even in short plans, he should work toward achieving such ends.

An example may make the above discussion somewhat clearer. Cal's work in his farm shop class was generally unsatisfactory. He was evidencing little interest in the work which the class was doing until the day that the teacher introduced a unit on farm power machines. The teacher suggested that if

any of the boys could bring in an old, discarded engine of low horsepower to the shop, they might be able to use such a machine for laboratory purposes. Cal followed this remark with particular interest. He had been experimenting with just such an engine at home. During the weeks that this unit was being studied, Cal's interest and progress surpassed anything which he had evidenced previously.

In Cal's case the long-range plan made it possible for the teacher to incorporate into the classwork some of the experiments which the boy had attempted to carry on at home by himself. Furthermore, the boy was quick to realize that the chances of his succeeding with these experiments were much greater under the direction and guidance of an experienced and trained machinist such as the teacher was than if he were working by himself.

It is obvious that the short unit does not permit as much progress in development as the long unit. Yet even in a daily plan, pupils can do certain things such as providing materials, setting up experiments, or doing limited research in areas indicated by their interests.

If possible, the teacher's plan should provide means for discovering the interests and the abilities of pupils with which he has not previously become familiar. There may be times when he believes it is desirable to include tests designed to provide such information. More often it will probably be an outgrowth of the work itself. In either case, the results should be used for no other purpose than to benefit the pupils. If tests are being used, it may be desirable for the pupils to understand what the teacher is attempting to do. Such a realization may very well lead to improved cooperation on their part.

Provision for incidental and concomitant learning. In every learning situation the teacher achieves some outcomes for which he has not planned. This does not necessarily minimize their educational significance. It is possible for him to overlook such developments, because by nature they are often a part of the interests, attitudes, understandings, tastes, and ideas of the individual. Therefore they become the basis for the formation of definite habits. There is, for example, the case of the teacher who is impartial in his treatment of pupils of various colors and races. Such action on his part may have a wholesome influence upon the boy or girl who has developed a prejudice toward a particular nationality or race.

On the other hand, there is the case where a pupil has developed a

dislike for a particular subject because the teacher evidences a resentful attitude toward him or possibly engages in certain irritating mannerisms.

In this respect, the author remembers quite well how he gradually developed a dislike for a teacher who made it a habit of looking out of the window rather casually whenever he gave explanations connected with the classwork. Not only was this practice annoying to many of the pupils; it generally left them with the feeling that what was being said was of little importance. As a result, many of them were not interested in enrolling in this teacher's advanced course the following year.

Influences such as these may never come to the foreground enough for the teacher to understand why a pupil reacts as he does. Thus what sometimes appears to be pupil inability to master learning material may really be the result of certain types of incompatibility between teacher and pupil.

Learning is an involved process. It can never be fully controlled as an objective procedure because the personality of both the teacher and the learner enter into every learning situation. The teacher may not always be able to create a desire to learn on the part of the pupil, but he can be alert to individual reactions and he can plan to use every means at his disposal to set up a learning situation in which the pupil will want to participate actively.

DISCUSSION TOPICS AND QUESTIONS

1. What factors should the teacher consider as he plans his instruction? How can he determine what these factors are?
2. What types of problems will the teacher face in his planning when he begins to consider pupil interest, aptitude, and capacity to learn?
3. What determines the extent to which pupil-teacher planning should be practiced? What are its advantages and its disadvantages?
4. What are the characteristic differences between the long unit and the short daily plan? Under what conditions can each be used to good advantage?
5. Discuss the reasons for the breaking down of boundaries between certain subject fields. What has led to this move?
6. What values does the instructional plan have to offer the teacher before, during, and after its use?
7. Select a problem in your teaching field and summarize the steps by which you will prepare your instructional plan.
8. How may the teacher evaluate the effectiveness of her instructional planning? What factors determine the time for doing this?

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DIRECTING THE LEARNING ACTIVITIES OF THE PUPIL

The pupil is learning whenever he adds to his background of experience. At the same time, there are changes in his behavior, changes which may be favorable or unfavorable to his future development. In the classroom it is the teacher's responsibility to direct these changes so that they become beneficial to him.

Chapter Six describes numerous procedures and methods by which the secondary school teacher can direct classroom learning activities in an effective manner. The degree of success which he achieves in this process will depend in part upon his ability to select appropriate techniques for the particular occasion. In order to do this effectively, he should have an understanding of the nature of learning as well as of the manner in which the adolescent adjusts himself to learning situations. Some teachers have difficulty in directing the learning process because they forget that they are dealing with individuals who are still somewhat immature. Too often they proceed as though these learners were adults with mature habits. As a result, their teaching efforts are not always as fruitful as they would like them to be.

Learning Is a Complex Process

An individualized activity. As the pupil learns, he acquires new habits along with new information. As was pointed out before, this process

can bring him results that are beneficial as well as some that are less so; in fact, he may obtain good and bad results concurrently. This can happen in any class. For instance, while the pupil is developing certain desirable skills, he may also be developing poor habits of study. Thus the end results may be of questionable value for him. Because of this duality, the teacher should at all times be alert to eliminate any factors that may interfere with his best growth and development. Moreover, the teacher should be especially careful not to create learning situations of the wrong type himself. For example, it is quite possible for him to place so much pressure on the pupil to learn, that the latter feels it necessary to resort to unethical practices in order to relieve the discomfort of the situation. Whenever this happens, the pupil's loss can easily outweigh the desirable gain which he hopes to make.

The pupil learns by adding to his fund of experiences. His gains, therefore, involve emotional as well as intellectual and physical changes. Because these changes are complex, the teacher may not always be aware of the effect which they are having upon the individual learner. Yet he can follow one practice with considerable assurance that he is setting up a desirable learning experience: he can help the pupil relate his new experiences to the old in such a way that they become meaningful for him. It may be difficult for the teacher to carry out this step, especially if the gap between the old and the new experiences is rather wide.

Such a situation is common, for example, whenever a sick pupil is forced to remain out of school for an extended period of time. Upon his return to class, he may find that the experiences in which he is to engage bear little relationship to those which he had when he was in class last. As a result, he has difficulty in moving forward with the rest of his class unless the teacher makes it possible for him to bridge this gap. Repeated gaps of this type may even cause him to become so discouraged that he finds it easier to drop out of class than to try to catch up with the work he has missed. At such a time he may very well come to feel that he has lost the ability to comprehend further relationships in this subject area.

It may not necessarily be the teacher's fault when the pupil comes to have such a feeling. The teacher is often so busy trying to spread his available time among the many pupils needing help that it is almost impossible for him to meet all their needs adequately. He, of course, has to give some of his attention to the strong pupils as well as to those who have serious problems.

The success of the pupil's learning experience depends in a large measure upon how well the teacher has planned for the activity. In this step he has to give consideration to numerous factors among which pupil ability and course objectives are especially important. The teacher should consider both of these factors in the light of the activity in which the pupil is to engage. It should provide opportunity for the pupil to develop as an individual as well as a member of a group. If the pupil is to achieve these goals, the teacher has to involve in the activity the mental, the physical, and the emotional make-up of that pupil.

All learning should occur in terms of the individual child, yet most school instruction is set up to provide it in a group situation. Even the teacher is thinking in terms of the group when he states that the work of the class is satisfactory or that it is unsatisfactory. What he is attempting to point out by such a statement is, of course, obvious: a majority of the group are doing work of the type indicated; yet the total body of classwork is made up of the activity of various individuals. Therefore, the class record reflects only indirectly the work of a particular pupil. It may even be that a few pupils may be failing, while the class average indicates a generally acceptable quality of work.

In so far as procedures involving the individual are concerned, teaching has a great deal in common with the medical profession. In medicine, the doctor must continually be alert to the reaction of his patient. His prescription is given in the light of what that individual needs. The teacher must do likewise. When it appears that John is unable to develop the ability to establish certain proofs in geometry, the teacher must study his case and try to find the causes for this condition. Not until he takes appropriate measures to adapt the learning situation to the needs of this particular boy can he expect improvement in the pupil's work. Any general or haphazard approach toward a solution can very readily lead to unsatisfactory results.

Learning takes place only in an environment. Learning is partly an adjustment process. As the individual faces a learning situation he finds himself with a need and, therefore, tries to make the necessary adjustments in order to meet this need in a manner satisfactory to himself. However, before he can make an adjustment of this type, he must first recognize the nature of the need and then must seek out means by which he can achieve his objectives.

Teachers do not always find it easy to set up environments in which

the pupil is able to recognize desirable procedures for meeting classroom needs. An instance such as the following is not at all uncommon.

Bill has been absent for a week because of a cold. The day he returns the teacher reminds the class that on the following day he expects each pupil to be prepared to give a previously assigned oral report. He had made this assignment on the last day before Bill left school. The boy has not been able to prepare his report because of illness. He has not even had time to look for material. When he hears that the report is due the next day, he accepts the fact that it will be impossible for him to be ready by that time. He feels the need for making preparation, but sees no possible way in which he can do it in a manner satisfying to the teacher's requirements. The next morning Bill develops a severe headache. He convinces his mother that it is probably a carry-over from his cold caused by his going back to school too soon after having been ill. Whatever the reasons are, he remains at home. In this instance Bill learns—at least temporarily—how to adjust himself satisfactorily to his classroom environment. He just removes himself from it. On this day neither Bill nor the teacher are particularly inconvenienced or unhappy. But the solution is obviously one which is not of definite advantage to either. Sooner or later the boy will have to return to school and by that time the situation will probably be even more disturbing to him.

It is the teacher's responsibility to set up an environment in which desirable learning can take place. It is also his responsibility to make that environment so stimulating that the pupil will want to remain under its motivating influence. Any circumstances which tend to keep him away from this environment, of course, lessen the chances of his participating in the planned learning experiences.

Favorable attitude a positive factor in learning. The learner's attitude toward the learning activities in which he is engaged determines to a considerable extent the results of the learning process itself. If his attitude is favorable, the chances are good that he will make progress. If, on the other hand, he does not find the task pleasant, he may expend very little effort toward improving his work.

Interest usually helps to improve the pupil's attitude toward his work. Therefore, it becomes the teacher's responsibility to help him extend any present interests which he may have and also, if possible, arouse new ones. If the teacher is incompetent and reveals an indifferent attitude toward his work, there is danger, of course, that he may destroy rather than develop the various interests which the pupil already

has. Initial interests alone are not always enough to keep the pupil working up to his full ability level.

The teacher can help the pupil retain a favorable attitude toward the learning experience by keeping the assigned material within the latter's range of achievement. Whenever the pupil experiences success in his work, he gains a certain amount of personal satisfaction from it. This may come in the form of approval from his peers, his teacher, or his parents. Such satisfaction frequently stimulates him to increase his efforts to learn.

The teacher's personality also affects the pupil's attitude toward the learning activity. He usually enjoys working with the teacher who is not only agreeable and pleasant, but also fair in his relationships with others. As a result, he comes to associate his learning experiences with the individual directing these activities. Thus the teacher's personality often determines whether the pupil develops a favorable or an unfavorable attitude toward the subject being taught. This impression is frequently so strong that the pupil carries it over into other courses of the same subject field.

Pupils sometimes develop a special interest or liking for certain subjects or areas of study because of previous experiences with activities in those fields. Even such a factor as the manner in which the teacher makes his initial presentation of the subject material to the class often does much to stimulate further interest or to destroy it. Whenever the material interests the learner, it is natural and easy for him to give attention to it. This condition then facilitates learning. But when this condition does not exist, the teacher has to seek out various means of motivation with the hope that some of these will eventually arouse pleasurable responses within the pupil.

Successful participation in a learning experience is, of course, highly desirable, yet early attempts at participating in a learning experience do not always provide as much satisfaction as do those that come later. Whenever this condition exists, the teacher may have to make perseverance somewhat of its own reward. However, this seldom keeps the pupil active for more than a short period of time. Therefore, the teacher dare not delay too long having the pupil attain success in certain steps of the activity. He usually does well that which he enjoys because of the satisfaction that goes with achievement.

Interest a positive factor in learning. Interests are basic drives to human action. But since individual interests differ, it is to be expected that teacher interests and pupil interests will not necessarily be the same; in fact, they may have very little in common. Yet both individuals will have to center their attention on common purposes if the work of the course is to become successful. There may be occasions when the teacher assumes that his interests are more important than those of his pupils. Such an attitude, however, usually does little to convince them of the fact. They reserve their own right to judge.

The pupil seldom exhibits an interest in anything new until he has acquired a certain amount of basic knowledge about that something or feels an immediate need for it.

The teacher of history, for instance, can scarcely expect all of his pupils to become interested in the work of the early Continental Congress until such a time as they come to understand what this body was and what it did. On the other hand, they may quickly evidence interest in something that gives promise of satisfying their immediate needs. If they are hungry, they will not hesitate to go out and search for food. If they are interested in winning a game, they may even make a detailed study of the game and practice regularly so as to increase their chances of being victorious.

One interest sometimes leads to another. For this reason, the teacher should first appeal to an interest which the pupil already possesses. From such a beginning then, unlimited growth can take place. But it is not always a simple task for the teacher to discover the pupil's special interests, especially interests related to the subject matter in such a manner that he can develop other interests around them. Because of this he should always be alert to sense whenever the pupil gives a lead which he can follow. But leads can sometimes be confusing.

There is the case of the boy who avidly reads mystery stories as a part of his English work. He has not necessarily become a great student of English literature overnight. The mystery angle may be appealing to him only at the moment. Yet with care the teacher may induce him to try other types of reading material. To some of these he may respond.

But in order to build upon such leads, it is usually well for the teacher to respect the earlier interests of the pupil.

There is the music teacher, for example, who wants to develop pupil interest in classical productions. He may find it profitable at first to discuss in a respectful manner the type of music with which the pupil is already familiar. From this beginning he may then be able to broaden the limited interests of the learner.

It is the teacher's responsibility to reveal to the pupil where he can discover new and worth-while interests. He may be able to do this by means of general reading material, through selected visual and auditory material, or through personal contacts. In an informal conversation he can sometimes discover the likes and dislikes of the pupil. On another occasion the manner in which the pupil uses his leisure time may reveal something about his interests. After the teacher discovers what interests exist, he should help the pupil expand those that are worthy of development. The extent to which he can connect this development with the work of the course will naturally enough depend upon the nature of the course.

Numerous Factors Determine the Selection of the Experience Activity

Differences in age affect learning. The adolescent makes changes in his attitudes and ideals as he matures. Since these changes take place continually, they exert considerable influence upon his learning habits. The maturing adolescent is constantly facing a new world in which there are new values, new associates, and new ways of doing things. Such a situation cannot help at times but be puzzling and perplexing to him. He comes to admire certain persons and regard them as his ideal. He even comes to model his learning experiences upon their accomplishments. As a young child it is probable that he admired someone, such as a parent, a relative, or even a teacher, with whom he had pleasant personal contacts. As an adolescent it is more likely that he idealizes someone who has achieved notoriety or distinction in a professional or vocational field. This can be someone such as an actor or an athlete. It can sometimes even be a person of questionable character. The adolescent years are also a time during which the individual sometimes builds up prejudices. It is quite possible for some of these to become so serious that they interfere with his efforts to apply himself to his learning activities. The teacher should look for the appearance of such signs and

work toward eliminating them as quickly as possible. Efforts in this direction usually require considerable tact if they are to succeed.

Although the rapidity with which the individual learns varies somewhat according to his age level, the spread during adolescence is usually not so wide as to present a serious problem for the secondary school teacher. The actual rate of learning ability frequently varies more among individuals of the same age than among those in the first or fourth year of high school. Ragsdale [1] points out that children of eight to twelve years of age are especially adept at certain types of skill learning. But after about sixteen years the individual proceeds to learn according to adult standards in all areas. For this reason, it seems, the secondary school teacher can usually devote more attention to readiness to learn than to maturation according to age.

The effect of age upon the difference in learning ability between high school freshmen and seniors is probably not very great, although it is probably true that some difference does exist. Buswell [2] found that there was no notable difference after two years of study between students who began the study of French in high school and those who began at the college level. However, those who began in the elementary school fell very much below the level of maturity of the high school and college students at the end of two years. It is not unusual for a high school teacher to have both freshmen and seniors in the same class. Although this may be undesirable, it does not present a problem which the teacher cannot solve. Pupils sometimes have greater differences in their fields of interest than in their abilities to learn.

It was pointed out in Chapter Two that during early adolescence girls usually mature more rapidly than boys. This development naturally results in differences of interest between the sexes, even when the individuals are of the same age level. There are also differences resulting from the normal interests that each has in the activities of his own sex. But most of these differences probably do not affect normal classroom learning experiences to any great extent other than in cases involving activities of a social or physical nature. Even the differences between

[1] By permission, from "How Children Learn the Motor Types of Activities" by C. E. Ragsdale, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, *Learning and Instruction*, copyright 1950, University of Chicago Press, p. 88.

[2] By permission, from *A Laboratory Study of the Reading of Modern Foreign Languages* by G. T. Buswell, copyright 1927, The American Council on Education, p. 30.

boys and girls in ability to learn different types of subject material are not particularly great. Therefore it appears that the high school teacher probably has little reason to give more than passing attention in his classroom teaching to problems concerned with the inherent ability of each sex to learn. It is more important for him to consider each pupil on an individual basis and plan to provide for that person's needs regardless of his sex.

Social backgrounds vary. The child normally reflects the influence of the social environment of which he is a part. Under certain conditions, this influence may be powerful enough to have an adverse effect upon him. For instance, lack of economic security, humiliation resulting from an unfortunate family background, or lack of social training can sometimes kill the incentive to learn with which the individual is normally endowed. Any one of the above can also cause him to withdraw socially in an attempt to cover a possible feeling of insecurity. Such withdrawal is frequently a deterrent to effective learning. It is normal for an adolescent to want to be accepted socially by his peers. He often places this objective well above others of a more academic nature. It becomes a part of the teacher's responsibility to help him meet this want in a satisfactory manner.

Conditions beyond the adolescent's immediate environment can often have an adverse effect upon his learning. The young man who knows, for example, that he is to enter military service soon may find it difficult to give major attention to his school work. He may even come to regard immediate learning experiences as of secondary importance to involvement in activities in which life and death are the stakes. At such times the teacher may have to employ an understanding and sympathetic approach to gain and retain his cooperation and confidence. The teacher can at least try to help the boy understand that a "do-nothing" attitude toward school work at such a time will do little to prepare him for the responsibility which society is thrusting upon him. The teacher who can obtain a frank recognition of the situation without too much play on the emotions is usually in a favorable position to help the pupil develop a balanced outlook on life. But this is no easy assignment. The teacher has to use his ingenuity to the fullest extent to make his work appealing and interesting to the pupil. Furthermore, there is also the possibility, then, that if the pupil reaches the point where he is really enjoying his school work, he may tend to relax from the tensions brought

on by these outside forces. This can make his learning activity a pleasant learning experience. Since pleasant and satisfying social relationships are some of the strongest factors that make for effective learning conditions at any time, the teacher should always include such goals in his course plans. In situations like those described above, they can do much to help the learner prepare himself emotionally for his learning experiences.

Interaction of teacher-pupil personalities. Most teaching situations involve at least two individuals both of whom contribute to the success of the learning process. Whenever the relationship between the two is pleasant and agreeable, there is good reason to assume that the learning situation is favorable. But the learning situation in most classrooms is not always that simple; it usually involves as many as thirty or more individuals working toward a common purpose. In such a heterogeneous group, it is quite possible for some unfavorable reactions to exist between the teacher and one or more of his pupils.

Although it appears almost impossible for an individual to be compatible with all those with whom he has to associate, yet if he is a teacher, he must make continued effort to avoid personal conflicts with his pupils or fellow staff members. Unpleasant personal relationships can readily interfere with his establishing a desirable learning situation for his pupils. Furthermore, when conflicts do occur, they often result in undesirable emotional behavior. For this reason, both teacher and pupils should make concerted efforts to keep conflicts from arising both within as well as outside of the classroom.

The teacher who has frequent clashes with his pupils can scarcely expect to obtain the best results from them. Under such conditions there is usually little incentive for them to learn. In fact, they may find it more satisfying not to learn, if for no other reason than just to spite the teacher. If such situations are common, the teacher should make a careful inventory of his own personality. He may discover weaknesses in his disposition, his leadership, his self-control, and his sincerity of interest in the well-being of his pupils. To be effective the teacher has to develop favorable personality qualities. Although his needs may vary in kind and in degree, his success usually depends upon his ability to make such necessary adjustments as a particular occasion demands.

Physical and mental health of the learner. The pupil can seldom function to the full level of his capacity if his physical and mental health

are poor. The teacher should not only help him maintain good health but should also help him adjust to such physical defects as may place a physical and mental burden upon him. For example, he may have poor eyesight or hearing difficulties. The teacher, of course, cannot correct such defects, but he can help to place the pupil in a position where they will interfere as little as possible with his learning. Under such conditions the pupil may find it helpful to have a seat near the front of the room or near a window. This should not only make it easier for him to participate in the classwork but should attract less attention to his physical handicaps.

There may be times when parents are unaware of the physical handicap from which their boy or girl is suffering. If the teacher suspects that a difficulty of this type exists, he should have some qualified person, such as a school nurse, check on the possibilities. If the situation warrants medical attention, the parents should be informed of this fact through appropriate administrative channels. It is usually best for the teacher not to assume this responsibility. He may not be familiar with the reasons why no one has detected these handicaps previously. It is essential in such matters that the teacher exercise tact and good judgment if he wishes to avoid creating misunderstandings between himself and the pupil's family.

Poor health is often the cause of repeated or extended absence from school. Such absences can cause the pupil to lose interest in his work. Therefore, the sooner the pupil can make up missed work, the greater are the chances that he will retain interest in the course as a whole.

The learner's mental health definitely affects the quality of work which he is able to complete. Disturbing emotional problems often interfere with his ability to concentrate; they can even be the cause of his withdrawal from social activities entirely. When he is in this condition he often spends his time brooding and worrying. Such a condition can cause him to develop poor work habits. Eventually, it can even lead to emotional instability. It is rather common for the individual who reacts in this manner to have had previous unpleasant social experiences in the home or in the school. Therefore the teacher should seek out the causes and attempt to correct them before he accuses the child of being lazy or indifferent in his academic and social relationships and achievements.

The individual can seldom apply himself wholeheartedly to a learn-

ing situation when he is in a state of emotional tension. Such a condition is not infrequent in the classroom. Even a small amount of ill feeling between pupils or between pupils and teacher can do a great deal of damage to morale. For that reason the teacher should make every effort to channel his own emotional impulses, as well as those of his pupils, into activities that are worth while as well as satisfying to everyone concerned.

Readiness to learn affects results. The pupil has to be ready to participate in the planned learning activity, if his participation is to be stimulating and gainful for him. Therefore, the material with which he works should be related to his interests and needs. It should also be of such a nature as to be within his level of learning. The pupil will seldom profit from a learning situation if he does not have the intelligence necessary to deal with the problems that are a part of that situation.

The secondary school teacher may have to deal with the problem of readiness in a number of ways. There is the pupil who is deficient in the use of the fundamental concepts and skills necessary for reading, writing, and number work. Such a person is scarcely ready for high school work, yet he is often permitted to enroll in high school classes. Then when he appears in class, the teacher has to help him correct these weaknesses before he can deal with the content of that subject field. In some instances, the school may have facilities for assisting such problem cases. But it is generally unwise for the teacher to force a pupil into a situation in which he is almost certain to fail. Such a condition may cause him to develop a defeatist attitude toward school work in general.

The teacher should always consider the pupil's preparation for the work of the course at hand. Inadequate background preparation in that area can cause a great deal of difficulty for him. Poor preparation may be the result of poor teaching, or it may be the result of an emphasis different from that which the present teacher is using. In the latter case, the pupil is not always at fault. He has learned to apply a particular technique in the preparation of the material. When this technique is no longer appropriate, he finds himself confused. Situations of this type are common in all subject fields. They occur on even such simple matters as the folding of homework papers. The writer recalls his own experience in this respect.

One teacher required that the pupils fold their papers lengthwise and write the title and their name in a designated position. However, when the pupils used this form in another class, the teacher deducted a certain amount of credit from their grades for doing so. He insisted that they use a different form in his class.

The teacher should train himself to recognize such problems and then help the pupil adjust himself to the transitions that cause the difficulties. These problems are often so simple that it is easy to overlook them.

As was pointed out in the previous chapter, Morrison proposes that the teacher use the exploratory test as a first step in the teaching of the unit. By this means he is able to discover how well each pupil is prepared to proceed with the work of that particular unit. This type of test is intended to reveal the extent to which various pupils in the class have already achieved the objectives of the course. With this information at hand the teacher then plans his work so that it is possible for each pupil to spend his time and effort on profitable work. Usually any attempt on the part of the teacher to force him back through work with which he is already familiar is an open invitation for trouble. Even well-disciplined adolescents sometimes become behavior problems when the teacher forces them into this type of situation. The teacher can scarcely justify the holding of either the over-prepared or the under-prepared pupil in a class to which he is unable to adjust himself to advantage. He should be placed in a situation where it is possible for him to make at least some degree of progress.

Practical significance of the learning experience. There are some pupils who have little difficulty in perceiving meanings from words; then there are others who do not comprehend reading materials readily. The latter usually find it difficult to relate new verbal concepts with their own past experiences. Whenever this happens, the teacher may find it necessary to employ visual and auditory aids to clarify and strengthen mental relationships. There may even be times when he finds it advantageous to use several means for making the material meaningful to a class group.

The learning experience in which the pupil engages should not only be meaningful to him but it should also have practical value. If he recognizes that it fills these needs, the chances are favorable that he will cooperate to carry it to a successful conclusion. But it is not always

easy for the pupil to recognize the values which a certain subject has to offer. Therefore, the teacher has to draw upon his background and experience to help acquaint him with these values. An explanation of such a type should make it easier for the pupil to understand what he can expect from the course. But the teacher should be careful not to assign overly idealistic or imaginative values to his subject field. If the pupil later comes to realize that he can not achieve the designated goals, he may develop an unfavorable attitude toward both the teacher and the subject field.

The teacher is responsible for finding ways and means for vitalizing subject material for the pupil. It is usually not difficult to do this in subjects of a strictly vocational nature, but in those that are more general, such as English, history, and science, the problem is not so simple. Yet even in these areas the teacher should try to get the pupil to feel the everyday application of the material. Modern means of communication have brought the world into practically every home; this means that the teacher has numerous opportunities for tying his material in with the daily life of the pupils in his classes.

Developmental aspect of the learning experience. Whenever an individual becomes a member of a group, he has to accept at least to some extent the mores of that group. Hence, during adolescence as the young person enters into new associations, he is continually confronted with the problem of conforming to the established mores of the occasion. He expects his school experiences to be satisfying. He also expects to achieve an acceptable position in his social environment. In addition, he is experiencing rather extreme social and physical changes at this time of life. These changes cannot help but affect the attitude with which he approaches his school work. He wants to find favor with his peers. If his learning experiences are of such a nature as to interfere with the achievement of this objective, he may become a disciplinary problem in the classroom. The teacher may find that even the shy child has to be prepared to participate in learning experiences. This type of young person may be particularly sensitive if he finds himself in a position which is socially unfavorable. The manner in which the teacher handles such a situation may have much to do with determining whether the pupil develops socially or, instead, withdraws completely from participation in socializing activities. An example may help to clarify this problem.

Bill was a shy high school boy enrolled in a history class. He was present one day when the teacher announced that each member of the class was to prepare to give a ten-minute oral report on a selected topic. The boy became quite disturbed as he heard this announcement. He believed that he could not present such a report in a satisfactory manner. In desperation he approached the teacher after school and told her of his problem. No doubt the boy hoped to be excused from the assignment. But the teacher cleverly avoided discussing this point and simply asked Bill what magazines he had been reading lately. He named several of a popular-science type. Further discussion revealed that he had been especially interested in reading about modern methods of transportation in the Army. The teacher asked him if he was familiar with the methods which Hannibal had used many centuries ago to transport his troops. The boy replied that he had never heard of them. The teacher suggested to him that he might be interested in finding out whether Hannibal had used elephants for such a purpose. At no time did the teacher make particular mention of the report.

A week passed, and then one evening after school the boy reappeared in the teacher's room. He wanted to talk about his findings. His excitement increased as he told about Hannibal's use of elephants for crossing the Alps. As he finished his story, the teacher remarked casually, "Bill, that was most interesting. Tomorrow I am going to give you ten minutes of the history period to tell the class just what you told me. I know they will enjoy hearing it." Bill did not object. The following day the teacher explained to the class that Bill had found some interesting material on Army transportation which he had agreed to share with them. Bill knew, of course, that this was his "report," but the teacher did not use the word during her entire discussion with him. The boy found that ten minutes was not enough time for his needs; he took twenty. As he sat down, the teacher could see an expression of pride and of satisfaction on his face. Later she complimented him on how well he had described the historic feat. Although tempted to do so, she did not add, "See, I told you you could do it." After her compliment the boy's only response was, "Gee! that was some way to move an army."

Learning experiences should help the pupil to develop as many of his potentialities as possible. Among these should be confidence to meet new situations in a satisfactory manner. For the pupil, fear of the untried is often fear of the unknown. For Bill the word "report" carried such a connotation. It meant speaking before a group, an experience unfamiliar to him. But when he had something interesting to relate, he found that it was a normal activity. Hence, his fear of giving a report

became secondary to the satisfaction which he gained at being able to relate an exciting incident to interested listeners.

Learning and the learner's social environment. Numerous attempts are being made today to make the pupil's learning situation in school as much like a real life situation as possible. Although the idea is feasible only to a limited extent, it does provide certain advantages for the pupil. It helps to give him the "feel" of the situation. Schools are working toward this end even in such a simple matter as classroom arrangement. They are removing rows of immovable desks and replacing them with chairs or tables which the teacher and pupils arrange in such a manner as to meet their group needs more adequately. Arranged in circular order the pupils are in a position in which it is natural for them to carry on socialized discussions as well as routine drills. Such flexibility also facilitates committee work; pupils can meet in small groups more readily.

Pupils sometimes have to leave the classroom if they wish to see how certain aspects of social life function. For example, they may observe community organizations in action in their normal environment. The pupils themselves may even want to participate in projects which are realistic and lifelike. 4-H Club activities are of this nature. In them the adolescent learns to assume certain types of adult responsibility and to work cooperatively with others. The patrol boy who helps his classmates across the street is facing problems similar to those of adult traffic officers. In the school or on the playground such learning experiences provide the young person with an opportunity of becoming a responsible member of society. Although he is not an adult, yet even among his peers he can learn how to conduct many of his affairs with the same degree of responsibility that characterizes the work of many an adult. But such development should be the result of directed growth rather than of forced conformity.

Certain subject fields lend themselves more readily to socialized development than do others. Yet in almost every field of work, there are opportunities for boys and girls to learn to work and play together, to learn to respect one another, and to learn that in that particular field there are possibilities for social and intellectual development. Stilted and unnatural learning situations usually permit the learner to achieve only limited social objectives. Certainly no teacher will want to restrict

himself to achieving these alone. He should provide opportunity for the adolescent to gain experience in group adjustment as well as in academic achievement.

The Learning Experience Involves Changes in the Learner's Behavior

Objectives indicate changes desired. Teaching is effective when it brings about a desirable change in the behavior of the learner. The objectives of the course serve the teacher as guides for directing these changes. Thelen and Tyler[3] have the following to say about this arrangement:

> If the objectives are wisely chosen, they represent changes which the school seeks to bring about in the behavior of its students, so that they will acquire behaviors that are important to society and that contribute to their individual happiness. The purpose of instruction is to facilitate learning in these directions. The content of instruction is the set of problems whose processes of solution result in the desired learning.

Chapter Five has already pointed out that the teacher cannot orient the work of his class unless he has objectives toward which to proceed. But this is only one part of his task. As the class progresses, he has to incorporate changes in plans in line with the interests and needs that the pupils reveal. This makes it possible for him to modify their behavior in such a manner that it will be of direct benefit to them.

Establishing an appropriate learning environment. Learning, of course, takes place in an environment. But learning situations differ; therefore, environments have to differ if they are to promote learning. The teacher has to determine each case by the nature of the learning experience itself. For example, pupils who are learning to speak a foreign language may profit most by being placed in an environment where they can carry on informal group conversations. On the other hand, pupils who are preparing compositions may work to best advantage in a rather quiet atmosphere. The laboratory environment in which a science class does effective work, for instance, may not be at all appropriate for classwork in Latin. Each subject field has its own

[3] By permission, from "Implications for Improving Instruction in the High School" by Herbert A. Thelen and Ralph W. Tyler, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, *Learning and Instruction*, copyright 1950, University of Chicago Press, p. 310.

unique environmental needs. Therefore, it is the teacher's responsibility first to know what type of environment will further the pupils' progress toward the goals of a particular course. Secondly, it is his responsibility to make such adjustments in physical arrangements and procedure as to produce the appropriate type of learning conditions. This step requires that in his planning he consider carefully both his objectives and the procedures by which he expects to achieve them.

Whenever the teacher makes changes in his purposes or objectives, he may have to change the learning environment accordingly. When properly conditioned, pupils can easily learn to adjust themselves to changes of this type. The teacher may find it desirable to make several such changes even within a single class period. There is, for instance, the situation in science where the teacher shifts from a laboratory experiment or teacher demonstration to a general discussion in a moment or two. Or there is the situation in English where pupils present individual reports after having moved about freely in a classroom or library to collect their needed data. In either case, the needs for a particular type of activity are not only specific but quite different. Such changes in activity and setting are sometimes confusing and even disturbing to an observer who does not know what the class is attempting to achieve. Visitors sometimes leave classrooms with wrong impressions because they do not understand the purposes connected with such changes. To them the whole process appears to be marked by disorder. The teacher may find it worth while to brief his visitors, if he has reason to believe that they do not comprehend what the class is attempting to do.

The ease with which the class makes adjustments of this type indicates the degree of conditioning which it has had. If the change proceeds rapidly as well as smoothly, it indicates first that the pupils know what they are to do, and secondly, that they accept it as a worth-while learning experience.

The teacher must ever be alert to the influence of the class or group upon the individual learner. The pupil who is unable to adjust himself to the general learning environment in a satisfactory manner must be dealt with individually. It may be that he is lacking in ability to master the material. In such a case he may be very much out of place trying to learn alongside the pupils who are able. He may need remedial help; hence, the teacher has to provide for him an entirely different environment.

The school's guidance program should assist with the problem of helping the pupil find the place where he can experience success. Frequent failure may not only cause him to lose interest in his work but may eventually cause him to become highly frustrated. Severe punishment seldom corrects a condition of this type. In fact, it sometimes makes the condition even worse. Pressey and Robinson [4] point out that in Tuckman's experiments punishment did not decrease the number of wrong responses which the pupil made in drill material. Instead, it tended to increase them. Evidently, whenever the teacher associated punishment with the wrong response, he gave it emphasis and thereby opened the way for its repetition. Only when he associated the successful performance of the desired act with the correction was there general improvement in the work of the pupil.

Poor physical arrangements in the schoolroom make it difficult for some pupils to adjust themselves in a satisfactory manner to their learning environment. Improperly adjusted seats and blackboard glare are but two of many such physical factors that can affect pupil learning. Every classroom probably has some undesirable characteristics. The teacher can remedy some of these, while he cannot remedy others. It is easy for the busy teacher to overlook even those undesirable conditions which he can change. There is the common situation where he fails to adjust his shades not only to shut out the glare of the sun when that is necessary, but at other times, to make available for his pupils as much daylight as possible.

Procedures for building desirable morale. Individuals gain confidence in themselves as they experience success. Improvement in morale usually accompanies this development. As the individual learns to solve his own problems, he comes to enjoy the experience. This causes him to look forward to more opportunities to engage in the activity. It is this type of situation which the teacher wants to foster in the classroom. If the pupils derive satisfactory achievement from the learning processes, they usually enjoy their participation in them. They feel that their efforts are worth while. They are learning because they are ready to learn and, therefore, want to learn.

Teachers realize that morale is an important factor in building up efficiency in their classes. Because of this they may sometimes employ

[4] By permission, from *Psychology and the New Education* by Sidney L. Pressey and Francis P. Robinson, copyright 1944, Harper and Brothers, pp. 448–49.

extrinsic measures, such as offering bribes, establishing special privileges, or promising easier exercises in order to gain the good will of their pupils. By employing such measures they may gain temporary objectives but eventually the practices may only lead to pupil demands for further concessions of a similar nature. When pupils reach this point there will probably be general dissatisfaction on the part of teacher and pupils alike. The satisfaction that goes with good workmanship should be its own reward. There are few, if any, substitutes that can equal its stimulating effect upon the individual.

The teacher who directs his energies toward using good instructional methods is following the most direct path toward building up good class morale. Pupils usually recognize good teaching and tend to respect it; this is the case even though they may protest outwardly that they are being worked too hard, or that the work is too difficult. Such reaction is not necessarily a sign of poor morale. Sullen opposition is a much more positive evidence of unhealthy pupil-teacher relationship.

The teacher should always evaluate pupil attitudes carefully. Only by doing so can he plan his work so as to derive the utmost gains from pupil effort. Good morale is a result of effective teaching; it usually develops out of, rather than precedes, work of that type. The teacher cannot create it apart from the work being done; it has to be a definite part of the work.

Directing pupil learning efforts. Since so many factors enter into the learning process, the teacher may find it difficult to consider, much less to analyze, all of them. He has to deal with individual difference on matters such as changes of interest and learning plateaus. Pupils differ as to the type and amount of progress that they can make. Some begin slowly and improve rapidly as the work progresses. Others begin rapidly but make very little progress later. Those of the second group sometimes have a brief background upon which they can draw for a short time. When this resource is exhausted, they are suddenly confronted by a new type of difficulty. They may not have learned how to apply themselves fully to the work; that is, they have not developed an effective method of attack. Neither are they in a position to recognize the full scope of the work before them. Therefore, unless they can make ready adjustments, they may eventually be in greater difficulty with their work than are those who begin more slowly. Teachers should try to

single out such cases as soon as possible in order to help these pupils recognize the type of learning problem which they are facing.

The foreign language teacher is often familiar with a situation of the type described below.

The beginning pupil understands a few expressions in the foreign language because his parents were foreign born. He may even be able to converse in a broken manner. During the first few days of classwork he senses that he has a definite advantage over his classmates. This may lead him to believe that his background will make the course easy for him. Therefore he sees little need for immediate study and, as a result, does not develop a sound method for learning the new vocabulary day by day. He may get along quite well until the teacher begins correcting some of his faulty expressions. This disturbs him. He has probably learned these expressions from his parents. It appears preposterous to him that the forms which they used so commonly are unacceptable to the teacher. He may even seek parental support in defense of his manner of speech. Such a situation can give the teacher considerable trouble unless he uses tact in resolving the confusion that exists. He will certainly not want to antagonize either pupil or parents in the process. But he has to recognize and correct the error or the work of the class will lose some of its effectiveness. It may be possible for the teacher to retain the cooperation of the family by pointing out that such situations arise in English as well as in a foreign language. Above all, he should always maintain a respectful attitude toward the usage to which the family is accustomed. This is particularly the case if he wants the pupil to develop a wholesome attitude toward the work in the classroom.

The teacher should keep in mind that plateaus of learning appear at various times in the work experience of the pupil. During these periods an individual or even an entire class may appear to be making little or no progress. If the result indicates that the situation applies to the entire class, it may be well for the teacher to determine whether his teaching methods are inadequate or ineffective. But if the result points to only one or two pupils, the difficulty is probably of an individual nature. It may, for example, be the result of poor study habits or of difficulty with subject material. It may even be that the pupil is unable to organize his habits into larger units of activity. There is the case of the arithmetic pupil who does well in memorizing his multiplication tables, but who has difficulty relating the skill involved in this fundamental process to the solution of thought problems. Similarly, there may appear to be a block in the learning process whenever the pupil attempts to deal with more difficult material than that to which he is accustomed. In such a

case the teacher may find it necessary to break the transition down into a number of simple steps before his pupils are able to find their way through the more difficult material.

The teacher can always expect certain brief lulls in the pupil's improvement curve. Outside activities frequently attract his attention and thereby prevent him from carrying out his usual class preparation. If these activities are school sponsored, the teacher may wish to make allowances in the assigned work. It is scarcely just of him to expect his pupils to prepare a large amount of homework on those days when the school expects them to attend a function which it sponsors. This is especially the case if these functions occur in the evening.

Certain skill subjects, such as typing or physical education, involve physical activities of a nature not to be found in academic subjects. In such situations it is not always possible for the individual to make economical progress beyond a certain point because of limitations in his muscular coordination. It is also true that progress beyond certain points in academic fields may not be desirable, even though the individual is capable of making further improvement. He may have no need for such development. Whatever improvement the pupil makes, should always be of a worth-while nature for him as an individual. The teacher should help him direct and apply his time and effort mainly on experiences in those areas where his abilities indicate good possibilities of success.

Developing pupil ability to reason and solve problems. Many teachers place the development of the pupil's ability to do reflective thinking and problem solving high on their list of objectives. There is little doubt but that these are worthy objectives. Yet the teacher need not assume that the child is unfamiliar with the thinking process. He just may not have recognized it in its educational garb. The daily life of the child as well as of the adult is filled with conflicts and problems which the individual has to resolve for himself. His very existence and well-being sometimes depend on how well he is able to find an appropriate solution. The objective has educational value only if it can help him do this in an efficient manner.

Problem solving has a number of identifiable steps. In the first place, a problem exists only as it concerns a particular individual. It becomes a problem when the individual feels a need for its solution. The teacher who is trying to interest an indifferent pupil in the work of the class period has a problem to solve. He plans his moves carefully with the hope of succeeding. On the other hand, the pupil may also have a prob-

lem. He does not want to do the work so he plans with just as much effort how he can avoid doing what the teacher wants him to do. He is equally anxious to solve a practical problem for himself. Each individual, in this case, believes that his problem is of immediate importance. Yet one is counter to the other. The same solution can not apply to both.

Every teacher has to decide for himself how he is to teach problem solving. At first it may be helpful for him to become familiar with the types of problems which the average individual faces at some time or other. Thorndike [5] recognizes two such types. One is the practical and the other the intellectual. In the first type, the individual "is motivated by a need to act," in the second "by a need to understand." In the practical problem, such as the boy faced in wanting to avoid classwork, the individual is faced with the necessity of specific, practical action. On the other hand, many of the problems which the teacher presents to the class will probably be of the type requiring understanding. This is a common yet very important type for the individual. In his case he sometimes cannot understand certain material until he is familiar with certain facts. In the chemistry class, for example, he wants to know how to combine certain chemicals so that he can obtain a desired reaction or product.

Thorndike believes that the intellectual problem "is central to any process of education." However, "an educational program should take balanced account of these two types of needs in the child—his needs to solve practical problems of action and his needs to know and understand." The child is certain to face problems of both types. Thorndike believes that "the school needs so to present the problems to the child that they serve a need for action or a need for understanding which he accepts as his own."

Most teachers are familiar with the commonly accepted steps which Dewey [6] proposes for the analysis and solution of a problem. Briefly they are as follows:

1. Recognizing the problem
2. Clarifying the problem

[5] By permission, from "How Children Learn the Principles and Techniques of Problem-Solving" by Robert L. Thorndike, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, *Learning and Instruction*, copyright 1950, University of Chicago Press, p. 195.

[6] By permission, from *How We Think* by John Dewey, copyright 1933, D. C. Heath and Company, pp. 106–115.

3. Suggesting a possible solution of the problem
4. Collecting the data
5. Drawing conclusions by testing possible solutions or hypotheses against experience

Although teacher and pupil may be aware of these steps, the latter does not always try to solve a problem by following the steps in the order given. He may very well jump back and forth among them or even omit some in his haste to arrive at a conclusion. However, if he is aware of these steps, it should be possible for him to work toward a solution of a problem with a greater degree of accuracy. He should also find the approach helpful when he is a member of a group dealing with a problem. In that case each person may work individually toward a solution or the members may work as a unit. In both of the above situations the procedure is much the same.

The individual normally seeks for ideas for the solving of problems from his own background of experience. Therefore, the farther that he can extend this background, the greater are the chances that he can think of appropriate as well as possible solutions. This condition is a strong motivation for him to try to extend his field of knowledge and experience. Yet, in this connection, as Thorndike [7] points out, knowledge in a particular area does not necessarily indicate ability to suggest hypotheses or to solve problems directly in that field or by transfer to any other field. Other factors also enter into the process. On this point, he [8] makes the following observation:

> Greater persistence and transferability from learning that involves understanding rather than memorization, improved transfer when attention is given to underlying techniques and skills, more available knowledge when generalizations are arrived at by the learner, broader generalizations when application is made in a variety of contexts point to the conditions which should be fruitful in yielding hypotheses. It is not merely how much is learned, but how it is learned.

It is obvious that the teaching of problem solving is no simple process. The teacher should develop it as a part of the regular course work in which regular subject material is used. Any attempt to isolate it from its normal context will usually turn it into only a meaningless abstraction for the pupil.

[7] By permission, Thorndike, *op. cit.*, p. 201.
[8] By permission, *ibid.*, p. 202.

Factors influencing the acquisition and development of habits and skills. In every subject field there is a need for the pupil to develop desirable habits and skills. A habit may be thought of as an inclination toward the repetition of a behavior pattern under a fixed condition. The ease of performance usually increases as the learner repeats the pattern. On the other hand, a skill is an acquired ability. The two are not necessarily synonymous, although they have several factors in common. Repetition under the same environment will probably develop a habit but it will not necessarily develop a skill. For the learner to develop a skill, it is necessary for him to make corrections continually so that there is improvement.

Since repetition is a basic process in the acquisition of either a skill or a habit, it is to the advantage of both teacher and pupil to agree as to the type of habits and skills which they expect to develop in the course work. The reason is rather obvious; the pupil's readiness to work usually increases when he understands what needs to be done and what he can gain by achieving those ends. Even repetition may then become purposeful for him.

The teacher naturally wants his pupils to develop habits that are effective in studying as well as in other activities. He can help them do this by being consistent in his requirements of the manner in which they prepare their work day by day. This permits them to direct their attention to the material rather than to the routine processes surrounding it. For example, he can follow simple steps, like those in which he requires each pupil to check to see whether his name is on the paper which he is handing in. A similar situation exists where the teacher trains them so that they supply themselves with work materials without a waste of time. There are many such practices which help to establish simple, yet economical, habits for pupils. In fact, pupils sometimes develop such habits to the point where they complete the process without being aware that they are doing so. It is, of course, possible for the individual to lose a habit through lack of usage. Therefore, he must repeat the process at various intervals if he wishes to make certain that he retain it.

The acquisition of a skill is a rather complex process. It involves two types of objectives. In one the individual develops his proficiency until he has reached a point where his needs are met. The child who has developed his handwriting until it is readily legible has little, if any, need for further development of that skill. On the other hand, the child who

is learning to play a musical instrument may strive throughout his lifetime to perfect his playing. In the second instance, the goal is one which is never static; it is always somewhat beyond the level of achievement which the individual has attained at a particular time. The teacher not only has to help the pupil recognize the difference between these two types of objectives, he also has to help him determine the levels at which it is unwise for him to expend further time and effort toward futile improvement.

The learner loses skills involving complex development more readily than he does those of a simpler type. There is evidence of this condition in the case of the pupil who has learned to read and speak a foreign language. Of the two skills, he will lose the ability to speak the language sooner than he will lose the ability to read it; that is, if he discontinues practice completely in both cases. For that reason, if the learner is to retain such a complex skill, the teacher should plan for activities which will aid not only in its development but also in its retention. It was with this in mind that the author [9] suggested means by which teachers could help pupils retain acquired skills in the use of a foreign language beyond the years when it was being studied. Often there is no immediate opportunity for pupils to converse in the foreign tongue after they have completed course work in the language. However, they can retain some of their speaking skill if they will carry on an occasional imaginary conversation with themselves. The subject for such a conversation is not necessarily important. It can be the weather if no more stimulating topic is available at the moment. Such conversation naturally requires thinking in the foreign language. With some ingenuity the learner can almost always find a means to retain and even develop an acquired skill if he really wishes to do so. Unfavorable conditions for doing so may require only that he be willing to combine ambition with a little hard work and ingenuity.

Practices increasing the effectiveness of the learning activity. The successful teacher understands the techniques whereby the pupil can achieve learning goals effectively and economically in a school environment. In general, short but frequent periods of practice are usually more economical for acquiring motor skills than are long infrequent periods. There is often a loss of interest after an extended period of drill. Pos-

[9] Gilbert C. Kettelkamp, "Emphasis and Retention as Objectives in Foreign Language Teaching," *Modern Language Journal*, December, 1951.

sibly the teacher should continue few classroom drills beyond fifteen minutes unless there is some change in procedure. However, there are times when he can find ways in which it is possible to change procedures so that, if necessary, he can use the full class period for drill purposes alone. But, under no conditions, should he let the drill become monotonous or exhausting to the pupils. Also, variety between class periods is just as important as variety within the period. The teacher should select drill procedures under which his classes learn well. But classes differ the same as individuals differ, so procedures have to differ.

Teachers sometimes become confused as to whether they should emphasize speed, accuracy, or form in practice activities. The answer to this problem is not entirely clear, as Ragsdale [10] points out. It appears that practice for achieving accuracy in slow motion does not necessarily develop form or accuracy where fast motion is desired. This appears to be the case in mental as well as in physical processes. The teacher of reading or of speech may, therefore, have to decide at what point he is willing to sacrifice speed for accuracy, or accuracy for speed. Possibly in most cases there is a point at which both can be achieved with considerable assurance of success.

Teachers also have to decide if it is better for the pupil to learn by parts or by wholes. Here again there is no conclusive answer except that learning should at all times involve complete meaningful units. If these units are small at first, the learner may later wish to combine them into larger wholes.

There is, for example, the boy who is learning to play basketball. He devotes hours of practice to such activities as shooting baskets, dribbling, and passing. Yet he does not become a skillful player until he has acquired the ability of coordinating these individual skills into a functioning whole. He can acquire the latter only by playing under actual game conditions. Many coaches believe that he should develop this step concurrently with the development of some of the simpler fundamentals. Otherwise he may fail to achieve the major purpose toward which he is working.

The pupil who is attempting to memorize a poem or story faces a similar problem. Should he memorize the material as a whole or by parts? It is probably desirable for him to learn by large units, if at all possible. If in doing this he can cover the entire assignment, the situation is relatively simple. In contrast, some pupils learn more readily when working with small

[10] By permission, Ragsdale, *op. cit.*, p. 86.

units. The teacher and pupil should be in agreement on the procedure which the pupil is to follow. Then there will be no chance for misunderstanding as the latter begins his work.

Throughout the drill activity the teacher should keep the pupil informed of his progress. He should have the encouragement of knowing that he is improving in his work and that it appears possible for him to reach the goal ahead. In this way he comes to develop confidence in himself. He also comes to enjoy the satisfaction that goes with success. In order for him to improve, it is necessary that he recognize his own errors and make appropriate corrections or adjustments. To do this, it is sometimes helpful if he can observe materials and actions which reflect a high degree of development or skill. This occurs, for example, when the teacher of foreign languages assumes a position where his pupils can observe his lip and facial movements as he speaks. Such a position makes it easier for them to imitate him and thereby to improve their own speech. The teacher should bring into use all of the factors that can aid in making learning effective. This process is, as Ragsdale [11] says, "based upon proper relationship between the demands of the activity and the characteristics of the child."

Instruction Should Be Adapted to the Needs of the Individual Student

The secondary school teacher has few greater problems than that of meeting individual differences. In most classes the range of ability to participate in various learning activities is considerable. The pupil may, for instance, be able to read well, but may be deficient in ability to deal with the fundamental processes in arithmetic. Such a situation may not be so much a variation in inherent ability as it is a variation in background training. Nevertheless, it is a type of problem with which the teacher is constantly confronted. The pupil's weakness or strength may or may not affect a particular type of learning; yet if it involves a fundamental process, such as reading, it projects itself into almost every type of learning situation. It affects the pupil's interests as well as his needs and, as has been stated many times before, the teacher has the responsibility of discovering pupil needs and of providing for them as best he

[11] By permission, *ibid.*, p. 91.

can. This is no small assignment when he may be dealing with one hundred and fifty or more pupils each school day. Although under such circumstances he can do no more than is humanly possible, he at least can keep in mind that the individualization of instruction is directed at obtaining the maximum growth within each pupil.

The teacher and the school must work together if they expect to develop a satisfactory program of instruction capable of meeting pupil needs. Such a program must definitely extend beyond the walls of a single classroom; it has to be a part of the all-school organization. It should provide opportunity for each pupil to progress at his maximum learning capacity.

There are numerous ways by which the school and the teacher can adapt instruction to the individual. Billett [12] made a study of the devices and procedures being used for this purpose in several thousand secondary schools. Among those being used most widely were the following:

1. Variation in number of subjects a pupil may carry
2. Special coaching of slow pupils
3. Problem method
4. Differentiated assignments
5. Advisory program for pupil guidance
6. Out-of-school projects or studies
7. Homogeneous or ability grouping
8. Special classes for pupils who have failed
9. Laboratory plan of instruction
10. Long-unit assignment
11. Project curriculum
12. Contract plan
13. Individual instruction

Many of these plans involve the dividing of pupils into ability groups. The teacher cannot carry out such a division without the aid and cooperation of the administration. Even in one subject field, such an arrangement may involve several teachers. Although the individual teacher may not have the responsibility for initiating the program, he does have the responsibility of carrying out its various details. He helps supply data,

[12] By permission, from *Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion* by R. O. Billett, National Survey of Secondary Education, U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 17, Monograph 13, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1932, p. 9.

he advises, and, in general, contributes the final effort which makes the program a success. Although homogeneous or ability grouping facilitates the handling of individualized instruction in the classroom itself, its use still leaves one problem unsolved: within any selected group of pupils there is still a need for the teacher to make provision for the differences that exist among the various members of that group.

Provisions for adapting instruction to pupil background and ability. It is usually not too difficult for the teacher to determine the range in age and maturity of his pupils. Similarly, he can usually distinguish among differences in mental ability. There are also marked differences between those pupils who have had certain cultural advantages and those whose opportunities of that nature have been rather few. In the latter group may be individuals whose families have experienced economic difficulties. Then again there are those whose families have seldom wanted for anything. Environments can also exert their influence upon the physical as well as the mental health of each pupil. Some pupils are alert and ambitious, others are lethargic and indifferent as to their future. One fact is quickly apparent from this: young people have needs which are widely divergent. It is also apparent that the average teacher is seldom in a position where he can provide adequately for all of these needs. Furthermore, regardless of how hard he tries, he may never be able to discover what some of the most urgent needs really are. Sometimes the need that is most urgent is only remotely related to the work of the course. In such a situation the teacher may have to place his subject material in a secondary position, especially if it concerns the mental and physical health of the pupil. Only after these handicaps have been corrected, or at least modified, may the pupil be in a position where he can direct his attention to problems connected with academic growth.

Among the procedures named by Billett for meeting individual needs are several which the classroom teacher should find helpful. Probably the most pressing problem is that of setting up learning situations appropriate for the slow learner. Teachers often have little opportunity for doing this because of limitations in time. Therefore, they can deal with only the most serious cases. This leaves the better pupils to take care of their own needs as best they can.

Some teachers use differentiated assignments as a means for meeting individual differences. There are some textbooks which include material

and exercises especially adapted for such purposes. However, even where he is using such materials, the teacher has to plan his work carefully if he expects to make appropriate use of these resources. Selection in itself is an important factor in this process.

In his own classes the writer has frequently used adaptations of the variable assignment whenever they involved experiences of various types. Those in a foreign language, for example, might include one or more grammar principles. In such a case it was common for the text to have numerous exercises built around each principle covered. As the teacher assigned these, the pupils would be given the option of having to complete only as many of each type of exercise as would be necessary to demonstrate their understanding of the principle involved. Thus the better pupils might write only a few sentences of each kind. The teacher would then evaluate the work on the basis of the understanding displayed in the prepared material and not on the number of sentences completed. The more able pupils might even choose to write free compositions in which they would be given the opportunity of demonstrating the application of the various principles in their own words. This provided them with the opportunity of developing additional skills in the use of the language, and, at the same time, of gaining experience in the use of the selected principles being covered.

But the teacher has to realize that pupils have to be conditioned before they can share in such individualized activities. Even then, there will probably always be some individuals in a class who are unable to accept this responsibility in a satisfactory manner. For them the teacher will probably have to set up specific assignment requirements. Furthermore, if the teacher does not follow through on the details of the assignment, it will almost certainly lead to unsatisfactory learning results. It may even lead to the development of poor habits of application on the part of the pupil.

The long unit is by nature of its length suitable for adapting instruction to pupil needs. In the first place, the extended time provides opportunity for the teacher to determine interests and needs sufficiently early so that he can make suitable changes in the instructional material. It also provides opportunity for pupils to progress at rates of speed in line with their ability. The teacher may allow the pupils who complete their work ahead of time to consider new aspects of the unit in line with the interests which have been created or developed. Although the long unit provides for a flexibility of adjustment which can seldom be ob-

tained from the short daily lesson plan, there is some danger that the teacher will include additional material merely for the purpose of keeping the more capable pupils busy. Such a practice, of course, defeats the major purpose of individualized instruction. If the material does not contribute to the pupil's growth, it not only wastes his time, but it may also lead to the development of habits that are detrimental to his future progress.

The assignment is a key factor in the success of individualized instruction. The previous chapter emphasized the fact that the teacher should exercise extreme care in planning this activity. Whenever he plans to have it satisfy the needs of the pupil, he will be setting up experiences that will lead to that individual's growth. In the case of pupils of considerable ability, he usually has to do little more than provide general instructions to guide them in their work. They will work if only he provides them with the opportunity and the materials to do so. They are not only able to organize major learning experiences with little difficulty but usually find in the activity the motivation necessary for continued application. On the other hand, the weaker pupils usually require detailed and specific instructions on how to proceed. They are less able to sense what should be done. They find it difficult to recognize and understand relationships. Therefore, the teacher has to give his instruction in simple and familiar language. He may even have to plan his assignments to include a considerable amount of repetition and drill along with possible remedial work. Furthermore, he has to make certain that the work is within the achievement level of the individual for whom it is designed.

Techniques for teaching ability groups of various types. It is rather a common practice for large schools to section pupils in subject fields according to levels of ability. Small schools can follow this practice only in those fields where they have more than one section in a subject. Where there are divisions, they are sometimes made even on more than two levels of ability.

The school administration, of course, has to assume responsibility for setting up the machinery necessary for selecting ability groups. The division between the groups is seldom a sharp one. In some instances there may even be a flow back and forth between these groups as certain pupils demonstrate changes in their level of achievement. Ability grouping is intended to reduce the range of variation among members

of the various groups. However, in most instances, it reduces the range only in those factors which have been used as a basis for division. Other differences of a wide and varying nature often continue to exist in any one of such selected groups.

Some teachers find it desirable to divide the members of individual classes into small ability groups. They may have these groups work independently alongside of one another all the time or only part of the time. Regardless of the arrangement in such a case, the teacher directs all of the activities of each group. Such a plan can seldom succeed unless all of the pupils cooperate with the teacher in planning and developing the various aspects of the program. Such a division exists, for example, whenever foreign language teachers combine two grade levels, such as French III and French IV, into one class. These individuals are already classified according to achievement level as they enroll for their work. To handle such a situation, the teacher may have the two groups work independently of each other, sharing the class period on an alternating basis. He may also select representative work on which both groups can work together. From this he assigns additional material of a more difficult nature to the advanced group. It is obviously somewhat simpler to teach a class when the entire membership is made up of a selected ability group. However, even within such a group there exist differences of many types and kinds.

As the teacher begins directing the learning activities of slow pupils, he, of course, knows that these individuals do not have a high degree of mental ability. For that reason, he must expect to proceed at a slower rate of speed than he would with pupils of high mental ability. It is quite possible, too, that some slow pupils may have developed poor habits of application and concentration. Some may be irresponsible in their work and indifferent to many of the drives that stimulate the more capable pupils to increased effort. Hence, the teacher has to put forth special effort to discover and develop their fields of interest. It is quite probable that many of these will be connected more with physical than with mental activities. Slow pupils usually learn more readily when visual materials are used as a part of the instruction. Therefore, it is well for the teacher to include materials of this type if it is possible to do so.

Considerable repetition is necessary in order to fix skills and habits and to insure the retention of ideas. But such repetition should not ex-

clude variety. The teacher should give encouragement to all pupils, even though some make only slow progress. There is a need for patience, kindness, sympathy, and understanding on the part of both parents and teachers if they are to help slow pupils. Under no condition should they force a pupil to set a goal so far beyond his level of achievement that it will seem impossible of attainment. Most slow pupils are able to learn at least to a moderate degree. Because they work slowly, the material which they use may have to be of a less complex nature than is the material which the brighter pupils use.

Teaching pupils of high ability is not necessarily a simple matter. In fact, some teachers find it more strenuous than to teach pupils of lesser ability. Bright pupils are usually quick to sense implications and, as a result, are ready to challenge the teacher both in regard to content material and as to the teacher's instructional practices.

The pupil of high ability is usually marked by certain characteristics. He is capable of working independently, and is, therefore, in a favorable position to discover new interests, any one of which he may want to explore further. He becomes impatient if he is asked to spend a great amount of time on routine drills. If he is informed as to the techniques for doing so, he is usually willing to accept responsibility for acquiring special skills without a great amount of supervision. Problem solving appeals to him; therefore, the teacher should direct his efforts into channels where he can obtain this type of experience. If the teacher has disciplinary difficulties with the pupil of high ability, it is frequently the result of poor planning or poor teaching. The teacher has to keep such an individual occupied with worth-while activities or he will seek other outlets for his energy. He especially dislikes having to do busywork. He is usually proud of his ability to work independently and prefers being directed to being led. Above all, the teacher of such a pupil should plan his teaching so as to capitalize upon the potential resources of that individual. This is much more than a routine procedure; it requires extensive planning and organizing if it is to be effective.

Regardless of the level of ability of any selected class of pupils, the teacher should at all times keep in mind that he is teaching individuals and not groups. Even where there are certain common ability factors, the teacher has to consider each pupil in relation to the background from which he came and the interests which he exhibits at the moment. Abil-

ity grouping does not control the range of pupil ability; it only helps to deal with it within certain limits. Differences in backgrounds and interests are sometimes as varied in selected groups as in those that are not selected.

Study supervision as a means of meeting individual pupil needs. Schools that adopt class periods of approximately sixty minutes in length do so largely for the purpose of providing teachers with time for supervising pupil study. The actual amount of time which the teacher uses for this purpose varies, although in many instances it is about half of the period. Even a short period of forty-five minutes does not prevent the teacher from setting aside time for supervised study, but it does tend to decrease the general effectiveness of the program. If the time allotted for this activity is very short, pupils hesitate to apply themselves. They usually assume that it is not worth their time to begin working for such a limited period.

The teacher does not always have to use supervisory time in directing pupils in the preparation of new assignments. In some cases he may devote it to the development of learning experiences related to or growing out of work previously covered. Above all, he will certainly want to use it for helping pupils develop effective study habits. There are also times when he will want to intersperse it with brief discussions, explanations, or drills if the learning experiences require these activities. Whatever the teacher does, should be adapted to meet the needs of the occasion. This applies to aid for individual pupils as well as to aid for the entire group.

In supervised study the pupil is thought of as working under a teacher whose major interest is in the same subject field in which the pupil is applying himself at the time. Such a situation does not exist where a teacher has charge of a general study hall. In the latter instance, pupils may be studying material in practically every subject field in the curriculum. This means that the teacher in charge faces two distinct problems. In the first place, he is not familiar with the assigned material which each pupil is preparing. Neither does he feel competent to assist pupils with material in which he has had little or no preparation himself. In contrast to this, the supervised study program places the pupil with the individual most able to direct his learning experiences in a selected field. But even then, it is not enough just to place the pupil and the teacher together in a classroom and expect that the program will

succeed. There must be a coordinated effort on the part of both to work toward the solution of a recognized learning problem.

As was mentioned above, one of the responsibilities connected with the supervised study program is that of developing the pupils' ability to study. Here the teacher very definitely has to consider individual differences, yet a few general suggestions may apply in numerous instances. In the first place, he should work toward the establishment of an environment conducive to learning. He must see to it that the materials needed for the learning experience are available. The physical arrangement of the room should provide opportunity for appropriate experiences. In certain subjects, for example, pupils profit by working in pairs or groups. In subjects such as history, the pupil should have free access to reference materials. In all cases, the teacher should help the pupil define his problem and indicate steps by means of which he can arrive at its solution. In other words, the pupil should know what he is to do, and how he is to attempt to do it. The teacher can include such information in a guide sheet or place it in the usual oral or written assignment. It should always be specific, regardless of the form in which it appears. The pupil who does not understand clearly what he is to do usually quickly develops some other type of interest to occupy his time. If such a situation becomes general, it may lead to the breakdown of the whole planned learning situation in the classroom.

Supervised study provides opportunity for the teacher to detect pupil difficulties in learning. It offers opportunity for the teacher to make suggestions and corrections in time for the pupil to continue his progress in an economical manner. By doing so, it tends to eliminate a certain amount of frustration. The teacher can observe pupil weaknesses, such as reading difficulties, poor methods of attack, or inability to concentrate on the work at hand. Although he may not always be able to correct these during the study period, he can at least provide some constructive help at critical times.

While working with the pupil in a learning situation, the teacher should guard against doing the work for him. The pupil can develop proficiency as well as independence in his study habits only through experience. If the teacher does the work for the pupil, he not only destroys the direct gains of the experience but also fails to improve the habits which the learner is trying to develop. The pupil should learn to apply the study techniques which are especially suitable for the subject which

he is attempting to master. These techniques differ in numerous instances; those especially appropriate for history may not be particularly appropriate for art. The pupil should acquire the necessary techniques so well that they will help him to study effectively at home as well as in school. Unless supervised study increases the pupil's ability to do effective study away from supervision, it is failing in at least one of the purposes for which it is designed.

Development of fundamental learning skills. Ability to read is essential to effective classroom learning. Pupils who are unable to do satisfactory classwork are often poor readers. When he has such pupils in his classes, the teacher may have to seek to improve their reading skill before he can expect them to progress in the work of the course. The pupil who has poor reading ability often develops ineffective study habits. The odds are against him whenever he attempts to compete with those pupils who have developed this fundamental skill to a higher degree. The poor reader is often the type of pupil who feels motivated to withdraw from school rather than to continue struggling against a condition which appears hopeless to him. The fact that his parents and teachers often do not understand the real reason for his wanting to leave school may cause him to develop a negative attitude toward the school as a whole.

Since the progress in learning which the pupil is able to make is limited by the extent to which he is able to develop the skills required for learning, the teacher should establish learning situations in which these skills can be developed. As an example, Pressey and Robinson [13] describe an experiment in which efforts were made to train college students in methods of work and study. The purpose was to determine whether failing students who worked under direction would make greater gains than those who did not. The results indicated that during the probation quarter the control group gained seven per cent "in proportion of work which was average or above." The "how to study" group gained forty-five per cent. The results also provided evidence to show that a considerably larger proportion of the students in the experimental (or helped) group were "saved" academically; that is, they continued attending school longer. At the same time, there was improvement in the general mental health of the group. The study concluded with the observation that these individuals did improved work in their classes because they had

[13] By permission, Pressey and Robinson, *op. cit.*, pp. 613–18.

learned how to improve their study habits. In addition, they were healthier and happier individuals. There is every reason to assume that the secondary school teacher can obtain improvement among pupils of low ability if he is in a position where he can help them regularly.

Suggestions for establishing effective study habits are usually rather general in nature because the learner has to adapt them to his own needs. Yet even when pupils know how to study, they sometimes appear unable to do so effectively. At such times they usually need more than general suggestions: they require specific guidance in the application of these suggestions. This guidance can best be supplied by the teacher with whom they are working. He is usually familiar with the subject matter as well as the pupil's difficulty.

The following twelve suggestions for improving general study habits are but a few of many that could be made. Any experienced teacher could probably add others to the list, especially the type that would be particularly applicable to his subject field.

1. Establish a clear and definite purpose in the mind of the learner.
2. Establish an environment conducive to study. Remove distractions which tend to interfere with learning. Each individual has to determine the conditions under which he can work best. Adjust physical conditions, such as light and heat, so that they will not distract. Of course, too much comfort can also be distracting.
3. Follow a regular pattern of approach. If possible, set a regular time and place for study.
4. Have all necessary materials at hand. This includes books, paper, pencils, and other supplies.
5. Budget time needed to permit coverage of subjects or materials. Keep trying to improve effectiveness of study procedure. Economy of time is important.
6. Prepare the material regularly. Delayed preparation usually leads to learning complications later.
7. Learn to study alone as well as with others. It is an advantage to be able to do both.
8. Discover and develop techniques which aid in memorization and retention. Underlining important passages, outlining, and writing drill exercises are practices of this nature. Individuals differ widely as to the practices which are most helpful to them.

9. Seek out appropriate relationship between new and old material. Keep using acquired background to advantage. Develop appropriate organizational techniques.
10. Review and summarize the material at appropriate intervals to ascertain whether desired comprehension has been achieved.
11. Develop a high degree of concentration. Study with a purpose. Make learning the number one activity of the moment. Relax between long periods of concentration.
12. Adapt the methods and practices being used to the needs of the individual and the nature of the material.

Some pupils are not familiar with the need for acquiring various types of reading skills. They attempt to read and study all material in the same manner. They do not understand that occasional books in fields such as English and history may need to be read for rapid comprehension only. At such a time, the reader may want to gain only an over-all view or impression of the content. Rapid reading should not necessarily reduce the reader's understanding or comprehension. For many persons it results in increased comprehension. The teacher can sometimes help the slow reader increase his reading rate by having him train his eyes to scan the page rather than to cover each line laboriously word by word. Certain types of eye movements sometimes interfere with the individual's ability to read rapidly. If these handicaps are critical, it may be necessary for trained specialists to correct them before the pupil can make marked improvement in his reading rate.

There is increasing need today for the individual to be able to read rapidly. He seldom has time to cover all of the material that comes before him. Since rapid reading does not necessarily decrease comprehension, it is only just that the school help the pupil develop this skill as fully as possible.

On the other hand, there are certain types of reading matter which the reader must cover carefully in order to obtain detailed comprehension. But even when he is trying to do this, he may find comprehension best when he does not decrease his reading rate too greatly. In school, the pupil must determine the rate at which he understands best. If this rate is too slow for economy, he should work toward increasing it. Even if he has good speed, he may want to improve upon it. The teacher can help by having him exert himself to gradually extend his reading scope

during a fixed period of time. Oral reading does not necessarily develop silent reading ability; instead, it often tends to hinder it. For that reason the pupil should develop each ability separately—that is, if he has need for both.

Interest is a major factor in motivating the individual to read as well as to spell. The teacher should utilize this drive as fully as possible. Interest helps to make reading and study pleasurable. For that reason, the pupil normally spends the greater part of his time and effort working in the subject fields in which his chief interests lie. The teacher of these fields has excellent opportunity to help the pupil develop satisfactory reading and study habits. Yet the pupil has to learn to apply himself in other fields as well. It should become increasingly easy for him to do this as he improves his use of these essential skills, skills which open the way for his gaining the satisfaction that goes with worth-while achievement.

Certain Procedures Can Intensify Learning Experiences

Every teacher is aware of the need for a learner's intensifying his learning experiences if he is to retain his acquired skills and abilities. Otherwise their value to him will only be temporary. The techniques for achieving such results are many and varied. They involve both the nature of the learner as well as the material which he is to learn.

Underlearning is a common cause for classroom failures; it generally leads to poor retention. The pupil who wants to avoid failure for this reason must develop efficient habits of retention. He has to make learning more than a temporary activity. He has to develop not only the will to learn, but also an effective procedure for learning. He has to apply himself to his learning until he is certain that he has mastered the material; a hazy concept of the material is not enough.

Drill and practice in the learning process. Teachers in many subject areas use drill as a means for fixing learning experiences. This technique has many valuable uses, yet there may be times when the teacher finds it so convenient that he uses it to the disadvantage of his pupils. For example, he may use it as a filler in a poorly planned class period. He may also hold it as a threat over the heads of pupils who are slow in preparing assigned material according to pre-set standards. In such cases it often comes to mean endless repetition without regard for understanding or

interest. Under such conditions it is small wonder that the word comes to have unpleasant connotations for many pupils.

Butler [14] defines drill as "a conscientious effort to plan and regulate activities so that classroom work may contribute directly to more learning than can be or will be realized by pupils during individual study." It is a means for the "strengthening of learning." Drill is not intended to replace individual study. It should only be a part of it, or a supplement to it.

Interest should be a major factor in drill. If the activity is lively and stimulating, there is usually little need to worry about pupil interest. Nevertheless, the teacher should keep all members of the group participating if they are to profit from the experience. There is always a tendency on the part of a few pupils, usually the poorer ones, to drop out of such participation. These are the persons who usually need drill most and, therefore, are in a position to profit most from its use.

Someone has to decide when drill is to be used. In most instances the teacher makes this decision. However, today some schools are making it possible for pupils to practice and drill at their own discretion during periods when they do not have classes. Instruments—such as typewriters, phonographs, and tape recorders—are available in rooms where pupils have ready access to them. From previous instruction and experience, pupils know how to use such machines for correcting and improving various skills. Practice of this type usually supplements rather than replaces scheduled drill in the classroom.

There are times when the teacher plans to use drill as a regular learning experience in a course where specialized drills such as typewriting are involved. On the other hand, he may also use it at a time when learning is not progressing as it should. In either instance, the activity draws upon learning which has been initiated previously and which has not been fully or correctly mastered up to a desired level. In this practice, the teacher should make certain that the pupil has corrected major errors before he continues with the drill. This step requires pupil cooperation if it is to be successful.

Drill exercises vary according to the needs of the occasion. Unison and individual drill, for example, may each serve a different purpose. If the occasion warrants, the teacher may use them alternately not only to

[14] By permission, from *The Improvement of Teaching in Secondary Schools* by Frank A. Butler, copyright 1946, University of Chicago Press, p. 340.

obtain variety but also to meet individual pupil needs. The results which the teacher is able to achieve depend a great deal upon his ability to select the appropriate type of drill exercise for the learning experience.

In foreign languages, for instance, the teacher may point the drill toward developing and perfecting pronunciation and conversation. In mathematics, he may use it to aid the pupil in increasing his proficiency in the use of some of the fundamental processes. There are times when he may want to employ drill procedures for fixing in the pupil's mind certain necessary data; there are other times when he may want to employ such procedures to aid the pupil in developing necessary skills. The teacher may also employ drill to develop proficiency in the use of certain social practices, such, for example, as proper procedures for making introductions. It is even possible, under certain conditions, for the pupil to carry out drill practices by himself when away from the school. But he should not attempt this unless he understands clearly what he is to do and how he is to do it. Incorrect techniques or practices can easily lead to harmful results for the learner.

The teacher should make certain that drill and practice are conducted in a businesslike manner if the results are to be worth while. Annoying interruptions, indifferent attitudes, and irrelevant activities tend to decrease the effectiveness of the work. For this reason, it is important that the teacher have all necessary materials at hand when he initiates the practice. In addition, he should set a spirited tempo so that the pupil will enjoy participating in the activity as well as feel its importance as a learning experience. The pupil should always understand what he is attempting to achieve and why. Furthermore, he should be able to evaluate the amount of progress which he is making toward the goal ahead. And above all, he should have a desire to reach that goal.

The boy who wants to make the high school basketball team will work hour after hour at perfecting his passing and shooting ability. He has a purpose in mind. Because of this, he is usually receptive to corrections that will lead to improved performance.

Many teachers use drill as a bridging procedure. In mathematics, for instance, the teacher may wish to devote the first few minutes of the class period to drill on some of the fundamental processes of the subject. Such a procedure can serve a dual purpose. It can serve not only to review the major aspects of the work previously covered, but also to pre-

pare the pupil for material that is to follow. However, in this case, as in other cases, it should be emphasized that the teacher is responsible for selecting the type of drill which will best fit the learner's needs. There is usually some advantage to the learner if he can perfect these drills in situations as nearly as possible like those in which he will later use them.

Review as a learning activity. Review has often been thought of as a drill procedure. But it should do considerably more than just help to strengthen certain habits and skills. It should help the pupil to see and understand clearly the relationships that exist between various elements of subject matter. It should provide new learning experiences in addition to those already developed. Through its use the pupil should be able to gain new concepts and new insights into the major objectives of his work by a broadening of his perspective.

Since review is largely an organizational process, the teacher should implement it at such times as it will best serve its major purposes. The class has reached this point when two requirements have been met: first, it has covered the necessary phases of the unit to be included, and second, all of the class members are ready for the process of organization. This may be at the conclusion of the unit, or it may be during various stages of the work. A short review during an early stage may be helpful in bringing major material into such a focus that the pupil can follow it readily. This can lead to increased rapidity of learning since vague and incorrect concepts, which sometimes accompany the introduction of new or unfamiliar material, may be eliminated. The review which comes at the conclusion of a major unit is generally of an extensive nature. It may even include material from other units as well as from the one just completed. Such a practice is rather common in history. In this subject there is continual need for recognizing the many influences that play a part in an event of even short duration. Therefore, the pupil should have a broad background to view an event of this nature in its proper perspective.

Review can also serve a diagnostic purpose. By its use the teacher should be able to determine rather adequately whether the pupils are gaining the desired concepts of the course. It should reveal whether the work of the teacher has been weak and ineffective. It should also bring to light misunderstandings of which the teacher may not have been aware. For the pupil, there is additional opportunity to become familiar

with the aspects of the material which the teacher considers important. It is often quite possible that he may not have made these entirely clear during the early phases of the work.

The teacher should plan the review so that it will serve the purpose for which it is intended. If he simply throws material together in a haphazard manner he may do little more than confuse the pupils and waste their time. A good review should emphasize the essential points which the class has covered. It should also indicate where drill can be used to advantage. The teacher should make certain that the pupils obtain correct impressions throughout their entire learning experience. It is especially important that he do this during the review period when the pupils are forming and developing new as well as broader concepts. Butler [15] recognizes the scope of the activity when he says of it, "Diagnosis, evaluation, development, emphasis, and remedial teaching should be at their highest levels during a review in class." He also points out that the procedure should be recognized as a continuous process in learning. It should strengthen the habits and improve the skills which the pupils are developing.

Intensification of impressions by audio and visual aids. Pupils sometimes have difficulty in understanding new concepts accurately. Verbal descriptions are not necessarily satisfactory, because they convey meaning only within the scope of the learner's experience. Yet for the learner to continue gaining new concepts, he must find a way to relate new impressions with those which he already holds. It is not always possible or desirable for the teacher to place the pupil in a position where he gains understanding by means of participation in the immediate experience. As a result, he has to supply a vicarious experience for the pupil.

Verbal concepts that are too far removed from the experience of the learner can easily become vague and distorted to him.

The author is reminded of such a situation during the conversation between father and son in Schiller's play *Wilhelm Tell*. The father describes the extensive plains that lie beyond the mountains which encircle the two. The boy not only has no concept of what a plain is like, but he is not even aware that there is a world beyond the towering peaks which surround his home. It is difficult for him to comprehend that there is a place in which men and women move about without climbing up and down precipices. His world is the world of cliffs, avalanches, and of raging torrents. It is a world beset by

[15] By permission, Butler, *op. cit.*, p. 340.

physical dangers. Although he does not comprehend this new world too well, it appeals to him until the father describes it as a world in which there is no personal freedom. The boy's concept of freedom is clear and strong; he knows what it means for his father. As a result, his interest in going out into the unknown world is gone. He is willing to continue to live below dangerous avalanches if that means freedom for himself and his father. Freedom is a concept which he understands; it is a part of his experience.

The teacher of today has available numerous means for conveying accurate concepts to his pupils. He can use visual and audio aids to clarify meanings and supplement verbal descriptions. But he must select such aids with care. They can convey inaccurate as well as accurate impressions. A picture, for example, can sometimes give an impression which is anything but accurate. War propaganda views are often intended to serve just such a purpose. However, even such material may have educational value if used and interpreted in the light of what it really represents. At times when the teacher is trying to convey general impressions, he should select material broad and representative enough to convey the meanings which he has in mind. The material should have both accuracy and range of coverage. The teacher who chooses his material carefully should find in the use of visual and audio aids a helpful means for increasing the scope and the effectiveness of his classroom work.

Visual and audio aids have numerous uses. They can serve as specific tools of instruction themselves, or they can enrich and strengthen other major learning experiences. Teachers also use them for testing purposes. Often they serve to stimulate new interest in an activity that has lost its appeal for the pupils. In some cases they fall into the realm of entertainment. But it is doubtful if many teachers will want to use visual materials, such as films, in the classroom for entertainment purposes alone. On the entertainment level the classroom film is usually a poor second to the commercial picture at the community theater. Of course, pupils may not voice an open objection to their use; in fact they may appear interested when pictures are being shown, but this may be because they prefer this type of activity to carrying on with other kinds of classroom work.

Audio and visual aids are today regular instructional tools of the classroom teacher. They not only present new experiences for the pupil but serve to intensify those which he has already had.

Appreciation as an aid in learning. Success in learning depends a great deal upon the attitude of the learner. Whenever a pupil desires to learn, he usually exerts himself to do so. Whenever the work is enjoyable, the effort is usually all the greater. Pupils enjoy that experience which gives them a sense of satisfaction. This satisfaction may come from a number of sources. Success may serve as a source; so also may appreciation. In fact, the two are not entirely unrelated. The individual may not always know the reason why he enjoys his work in one class and not in another. He likes art, he likes music, but he doesn't like history. Because of his dislike for the latter, he spends more of his time on art and music. Thus he does well in one area and poorly in another.

The pupil who apparently does not enjoy what he is doing can soon become a classroom problem. If he does well, even with such an attitude, it may be largely because he wants to maintain a good scholastic standing, or because some outside pressure is being placed upon him. Such motivation may or may not be particularly desirable. Most teachers prefer having the pupil enjoy his experiences so that he will develop an appreciation for these experiences and the materials connected with them. Appreciation is closely tied up with the individual's emotions. Since the learner can seldom control either directly, the teacher should work to arouse as many favorable emotional responses to the learning experience as possible. Bossing[16] covers this point with the following words: "The teacher cannot drive the student to experience pleasurable reactions to situations. It is a matter of leadership that awakens these desirable responses."

The teacher should understand the pupil's emotions as well as the nature of the material with which he is working. He should evaluate how each pupil reacts toward the learning experiences of which he is a part. In so far as possible, he should try to set up situations in which the pupil experiences favorable emotional responses. Although there are no "tricks" by which he can accomplish this with complete assurance of success, there are some conditions under his control which may help to bring it about. In the first place there should be certain harmony or agreement between the learning environment and the mood of the individual. The class in literature, for example, may respond more readily to poems and stories about spring during that season than they will in

[16] By permission, from *Teaching in Secondary Schools*, Third Edition, by Nelson L. Bossing, copyright 1952, Houghton Mifflin Company, p. 220.

midwinter. School events can even affect the responsive mood of the pupil. On the day that athletes are nervously waiting for the approach of a big game they may find it difficult to appreciate the finer qualities of a lyric poem or a quiet symphonic recording. It may be that a rousing ballad or a stirring band selection will fit more fully into their emotional pattern at the time.

Familiarity or understanding of the nature of the subject material with which the learner is dealing is almost imperative before it is possible for him to appreciate its finer qualities.

Anyone who ever watched a game with which he was unfamiliar can easily understand this situation. He may have tried to enjoy the sport but probably found it difficult to become much more than pleasantly bored. However, as soon as he understood the skills involved, he was much more able to appreciate the grace and dexterity of the various participants.

Likewise, in the classroom the learner has to be familiar with certain aspects of the subject material if he is to develop an appreciation for it. These aspects should appeal especially to his aesthetic senses. The teacher who tears a poem into shreds in order to analyze it fully may destroy the very appreciation which he is attempting to build up. In such a situation it may be best for the class to look at only a few of the major details and then read and even reread the work in order to catch the rhythm and spirit of the movement. This can often bring about more true appreciation than a detailed analysis of the work word by word or even line by line.

Appreciation is closely related to the likes and dislikes of the individual. If he experiences success in an activity, he almost always comes to enjoy and appreciate it. It is for this reason that the teacher should plan his instruction so that every pupil can experience at least some degree of success in his work. Yet, in doing this he must work within the bounds of academic standards and of individual pupil needs. If these are so far apart that they cannot be bridged in a particular subject, then other provision should be made to take care of the individual concerned. It may not necessarily be the fault of the pupil or of the teacher if he does not have the ability to meet the demands of a course. However, someone will have to assume responsibility for a serious error if that pupil is kept in that course until he despises everything associated with it.

The teacher who wants his pupils to enjoy their work should provide sincere evidence that he is enjoying it himself. But it may be best that

he evidence this pleasure in sincerity of attitude rather than in words. Most individuals are proud of their ability to select activities that have aesthetic appeal. They regard this ability as a mark of personal achievement. The teacher who tells his class that he is sure they are going to enjoy the new story which he is introducing the next day may have already set the stage for a negative reaction on their part. The pupils are given no choice but to agree with him. On the other hand, it may be best that he say very little by way of introduction. If he just proceeds to develop the interesting aspects of the work, his chances of gaining pupil approval are generally favorable. Pupils seldom like an "I told you so" attitude on the part of the teacher. They enjoy being respected as individuals who possess individual tastes and judgments. They also like a surprise element in their work. If the story is exciting, they take pleasure in discovering that fact for themselves; the teacher does not have to call it to their attention.

The pupil may sometimes evidence an appreciation for factors which are largely beyond the control of the teacher. He may, for example, respond favorably to the things or people of which someone whom he respects or admires speaks highly. This does not have to be someone whom he knows personally. Advertisers use this condition for their own benefit by having well-known personages recommend the use of their product. A favorable or unfavorable remark by a respected member of the class can also influence the attitude of a number of the group. This is especially true of those individuals who seldom make decisions for themselves or who want their selection to be like that of the person whom they admire. If the teacher is tactful, he can sometimes capitalize upon this weakness and use it in such a manner as to benefit the individual. At the same time, he should also help that individual to develop the ability necessary for him to make intelligent decisions for himself.

Individuals do not all respond in a like manner to the same stimuli. Some persons come to appreciate one thing and some another. Even experts in the same field, such as art and literature, frequently disagree on the rating of selected works. Therefore, the teacher should not expect his pupils to appreciate and enjoy all types of material equally well. As a first step toward gaining the favorable attitude of the pupil, the teacher may well respect the pupil's own field of interest. He may raise questions about the pupil's hobbies, or his special skills and abilities. Pupils appreciate such attention and are often willing to work diligently

for the teacher who takes the time to discuss such matters with them. Some pupils come to assume that teachers are by nature critical of any reading material which they have not approved for classwork. Yet if the pupil discovers that his teacher also has other interests, he may conclude that he is somewhat human after all. Even a brief discussion about common subjects, such as the activities of a popular comic character, can sometimes develop mutual interests. Under no condition should the teacher ridicule the interests of a pupil in any manner which might reflect upon the judgment of the adolescent as a person. Even when it is necessary to point out errors of judgment, it can and should be done in a respectful manner.

Most pupils prefer to work with materials which they understand or are able to interpret. They also usually prefer participation to inactivity; that is, if the particular type of participation is within their range of ability. It is often quite possible for them to develop an appreciation for certain aspects of the activity as a result of their having participated in that activity.

In this respect, the writer has had pupils sketch their interpretations of incidents in stories which they were reading. He found that a crude sketch that portrayed an idea rather vividly often received more favorable comments from the class than one that, even though it was well drawn, had little or no story to tell. Yet pupils were not always eager to accept the idea of making such sketches. They probably feared that the purpose was to test their artistic ability. However, when they came to realize that the emphasis was not to be on such a skill, they were usually willing to give free range to their ideas. The results were often as hilarious as they were serious; almost always they were interesting. Furthermore, such an assignment seldom failed to arouse new interest among some of the passive members of the class. Even the weaker pupils appeared to enjoy the activity. The teacher seldom made an attempt to evaluate the results of such a project before the group. He felt that the time and effort were well spent if at least a number of the pupils studied and reread some of the dramatic parts of the story more than once. More often they reread some of the parts numerous times. This led to improved interpretations of selected incidents.

Interest is basic to appreciation. Furthermore, appreciation may lead to a renewal and extension of interest. In the classroom the result in either case is usually improved workmanship and achievement on the part of the pupil.

Motivation Is a Basic Factor in the Learning Experience

Within reason, the individual usually finds ways of doing the things which he wants to do. In other words, he acts because he is motivated to do so. Motivation is the urge within the individual to participate in an activity of some type.

Pupils should experience a felt need to learn. The individual becomes active when he wants to adjust himself to a felt need. But when he happens to be a pupil in a classroom, his felt need may not always be the same as the one which the teacher has planned for him. It is for this reason that teacher-pupil planning has certain advantages over the situation where the teacher does all his planning alone. When there is cooperative planning the pupil not only understands what objectives lie ahead but he has probably agreed to them before they were finally selected. Therefore, both teacher and pupil feel motivated to try to achieve them.

The teacher is responsible for stimulating within each pupil the desire to learn. But as an adolescent the pupil is at an age when interests other than teacher-directed learning may be uppermost in his mind. In fact, he may be particularly interested in breaking away from adult control and guidance at this time. Since he wants to be self-directive, it is usually desirable for the teacher to try to gain his cooperation by methods other than coercion or punishment. When the teacher uses coercive methods they often result in the development of unfavorable attitudes which only serve to interfere with future learning of a desirable nature.

The teacher should keep in mind that the desires to learn which motivate an adolescent are often quite different from those that appeal to an adult. Remote goals may not always interest boys and girls unless they see a way to achieve these goals through activities which also take care of their immediate wants. Therefore, as far as it is possible to do so, the teacher should build learning experiences in subject fields around activities that are of immediate concern to the pupil. These concerns often deal with the social aspects of the school and home life or aspects of his immediate or future economic security. The well-adjusted individual is usually in a more favorable position to want to participate in desirable learning activities than is the one who feels he has to direct his attention to problems dealing with his immediate social and economic security.

Pupil motivation as a teaching responsibility. The teacher cannot create learning potentiality within the pupil; he can only stimulate the development of that which is already there and then direct it into worth-while channels. Therefore, he must discover what the worth-while things are which the pupil can and should do, and then help him want to do them by creating a felt need. If he does this properly, the pupil should then not only be willing but desirous of applying his energies toward that end.

As a step in the direction pointed out above, the teacher should try to convince the pupil of the worth-whileness of the activity in which he engages. If he applies himself only to escape from teacher pressure, the result is seldom very satisfactory. Most pupils do not find a teacher statement implying "you will thank me some day for having made you learn this" a very powerful motivation for learning. They are convinced only when they feel an immediate need.

There is the typical case of the football player who has to get up at the annual award banquet to speak before his friends and relatives. Up until that time, he may have regarded training in self-expression as not only wasteful of time but even ridiculous. But before the banquet talk he may go to his English teacher and ask for assistance and training in expressing himself fluently. After all, he is reluctant to make himself appear foolish on such an occasion.

Enthusiastic teachers sometimes make exaggerated claims for the value of their subject fields. Sooner or later pupils recognize the weaknesses that lie behind such claims. Their respect for these teachers may then be lowered so much that they lose interest in their work. Therefore, it is usually more satisfactory for the teacher to have pupils work with him in determining the values that a particular subject has to offer than it is for him to determine them by himself. Such an effort can of itself arouse their interest in the field of study. Pupils may even be able to recognize in the work values of which the teacher is not aware or, if he is, may regard as of only minor importance. If the pupils appear to give considerable weight to these factors, the teacher should at least be willing to give them a minimum of attention until such time as there is common agreement between pupils and teacher that they do not warrant the expenditure of extensive time and effort.

The teacher who fails in his work is often a person who is unable to

draw favorable reactions or responses from his pupils. Because he cannot do this, he may accuse his pupils of being uncooperative. But few, if any, pupils are truly uncooperative or unresponsive. If they are this way, the teacher should check with himself to see if he may not be using a poor approach in his work or even a wrong one. The fault may sometimes be his own. Good teaching practices build up pupil confidence in the teacher. When this confidence is present, it is usually not too difficult to establish a successful learning environment.

The teacher can help the pupil develop a desire to learn by setting up situations in which there is an interest factor. This interest must, of course, be within the ability range of the pupil. Individuals can seldom determine beforehand whether they will have an active interest in subject material. A certain trial-and-error element is always present. If possible, the situation which the teacher establishes to create interest should not only appeal to the pupil but should also bear some relationship to his daily life. Mursell [17] calls attention to three factors that help to make learning activities appealing and vital. Of these he believes that the establishment of *concrete* situations are particularly important. Most children and adolescents like to participate in programs or activities in which they can play a functional role. They frequently lose interest when they do nothing more than observe.

Pupils also enjoy *variety* in their experiences. Even rather dull classroom material can sometimes attract a pupil's attention and interest if the teacher arranges to have it change pattern and form occasionally. He can, for example, enliven drill materials by placing the activity in a game setting. Above all, he should modify certain of the procedures with which the pupils have already become familiar. The change does not always have to be of an extensive nature. Any activity which is *purposeful* will almost always appeal to pupils. In other words, the learner wants to see in the activity an obvious goal which he finds both desirable and attainable.

Motivation by means of successful experience. Success is an experience which motivates most pupils to greater effort. Yet there are some individuals who quit trying after they have once achieved a taste of it. These persons apparently feel that they have reached their goal and therefore see no need of putting forth further effort. For some pupils

[17] By permission, from *Developmental Teaching* by James L. Mursell, copyright 1949, McGraw-Hill Book Company, p. 48.

this goal may be no higher than to do passing work. For them the teacher has to find other means of motivation. They just do not fall among that group of individuals to whom achievement is a motivation towards increased effort.

The pupil who has the assurance that he is succeeding in his learning experience knows, of course, that he is moving in the right direction. Normally this should encourage him to continue or even to increase his efforts. Therefore, it appears desirable for the teacher not only to keep him informed of his progress but also to encourage and praise him for what he is doing well. Even when he is failing, the teacher should try to help him reorganize his approach so that he can get under way again. Sometimes just sincere and helpful encouragement will go far toward renewing the failing pupil's confidence in himself. Continued failure in school usually leads the pupil to feel frustration and to want to escape from the unpleasant environment in which he finds himself. He can scarcely be blamed if he tries to escape from this environment even by means unacceptable to the teacher at times. Failure under any circumstances is seldom a pleasant experience. For a pupil, it all too often carries along with it a certain amount of social stigma.

But even continued success without some failure may not always be good for the emotional development of the learner. There are times when a limited amount of failure may motivate him to do improved work. An athletic team, for example, that has had a long winning streak may work doubly hard to improve its teamwork after it has lost a game. The teacher should help the pupil to recognize the value of constructive criticism as a means for improving his achievement. In fact, the pupil should seek for experienced guidance at all times so that he may be in a position to develop more of his learning potentialities. Few individuals are so capable that they can continue to grow without some experienced guidance. Yet even when the teacher is quite ready and willing to help his pupils, he must be careful about forcing help upon them. Such action may build up a resentful attitude on their part. He must also recognize that for some individuals success can be so invigorating that it will upset their emotional stability. It may be best that, as far as possible, the teacher place such individuals in situations where the motivation is not overly strong or exciting. A brief comment on good work may be better for them than excessive praise or public recognition of a demonstrative nature.

Consideration of the unique nature of the pupil. Even when he has planned his work carefully, the teacher can never be entirely certain how his pupils will react in specific situations. There are traits or characteristics which they seldom reveal except in these situations and he never knows just when these situations will arise. Thus he must make continued efforts to understand the unique characteristics of each pupil. Only by doing this will it be possible for him to appeal to the true nature of each person. Such a study requires that he keep alert to the individual's reaction under various circumstances. He must be able to recognize when the pupil gives evidence that his experience is meeting a felt need. Whenever this happens, he can expect to see evidence of satisfaction with the work in progress. When there is a disturbed attitude, it is well for him to seek out the cause. This cause may or may not be connected with the actual work in the classroom. Outside influences are often carried into the school. But however remote these causes may be, it is the teacher's responsibility to help the pupil try to make an adjustment in his learning environment that will be satisfactory to himself. Otherwise he may continue to do unsatisfactory work.

Emotional disturbances frequently interfere with the individual's own efforts to do effective work, as well as with those of other pupils. The unhappy pupil who is a behavior problem is often not satisfied until he has involved others in his activities. Therefore, the teacher should try as far as possible to apply this pupil's energy to worth-while activities. Suppression in his case may only lead to behavior outbursts later which may even be of a more violent nature than those that occurred earlier.

The teacher should not only understand the individual characteristics of each pupil in his class, but he should also recognize how the pupils react upon one another as a group. It is desirable that there be a wholesome relationship among them. This facilitates each member making progress in line with his own abilities. In addition, he is also motivated to do good work so that the group as a whole can experience success.

There is the situation of the boy who is striving to help his team win a tournament. He is often willing to sacrifice personal honors so that his group may win. He sees in group success a reflection of personal success. At the time he has two goals before him instead of one.

All members of a group do not always cooperate toward attaining a common goal. Among their membership may be individuals who have not learned how to cooperate readily with others. There are almost always a few individuals of this type in every classroom. It is quite possible that such persons may have had little opportunity previously to experience group success. Therefore, they continue to function as individuals, quite often to the disadvantage of the group of which they are a part. Under such circumstances, the teacher may have to organize a special type of group learning experience in which they can participate successfully. This may require that he first break down certain prejudices or mental barriers. Group success in the classroom may require that the teacher himself become a participating member of the group. When the pupils enjoy working with him, there is every reason to believe that they will also enjoy working for him as well as with one another. When he has gained their respect by sincerity of interest and effort in what they are doing, it is quite probable that he has also gained their will to work together cooperatively.

Pupil response to adult attitude. A great many individuals who decide to enter a particular field or profession do so because some adult indicated an interest in their immature efforts in that area at some time in the past. It is quite possible that the adolescent who has a hobby or interest for which he has shown some aptitude may be fearful of revealing this interest to an adult because of fear of that person's ridicule. He may very well believe that his concerns are of little interest to an older person. Yet whenever someone, possibly a parent or teacher, discovers his youthful interest and gives constructive encouragement to it, the results are often both surprising and satisfying. In such a situation the individual often gains confidence in himself and frequently redoubles his efforts to improve his work. Thus he gains in his emotional and physical well-being as well as in his intellectual background.

Teachers and parents can do something toward creating within the pupil a desire to learn. But in order to do this, they have to be honest in their recognition of the pupil's strengths and weaknesses. Encouragement to do the impossible is both ridiculous and unjust to the individual concerned. Furthermore, false encouragement can definitely damage the favorable attitude toward learning which the teacher hopes to foster. Compliments from adults whom the pupil respects may cause

him to increase his interests as well as his efforts to learn. On the other hand, there can be loss in these areas when an impatient teacher blames an entire class for the faults of a few individuals. Pupils who have made sincere efforts regard such censure as undeserved and unjust. As a result, they often quit trying to learn. Sarcasm and ridicule also have a negative effect upon some pupils. Rather than to motivate, such action may very well cause loss of pupil interest and effort. It may even lead to the development of an attitude of hatred toward the teacher. The generous and wise use of encouragement can go far toward building up a pleasant teacher-pupil relationship in the classroom. Most pupils enjoy working in an atmosphere where they feel that the teacher is sincerely interested in their welfare. This helps them to feel that their success also becomes his success.

The teacher can often use group praise as a motivating force to action and to success. In a group where censure is of questionable value, the use of praise may bring excellent results. Pupils, it seems, enjoy the distinction that goes with being associated with a group that succeeds. In this respect, they often enjoy the recognition of adults as much as they do that of their peers. There may even be times when the members of a group will try to stimulate an indifferent member to action so that the group as a whole can succeed and obtain desired recognition.

For example, a homeroom may seek to gain such recognition by carrying out a particular project. Of course, pressure should never place an indifferent member in an unfavorable light because of lack of ability or of social or economic status. Almost always the teacher who encourages worth-while group activity has done much to develop an appreciation of cooperative effort among its members. Pupils enjoy working together when they know that they have adult interest and approval. Adult encouragement during the early stages of their efforts can frequently go a long way toward inspiring them to continued activity in that particular field.

The teacher should work toward maintaining situations in which the social attitudes of pupils are favorable for learning. His own attitude toward the various members of the class may have considerable bearing upon the success of such efforts. It may, for example, be undesirable for him to call attention too often to the work of a particular individual in front of the group. Whenever he does this, there is always the possibility that the class will come to believe that the teacher is partial to-

ward that pupil. Even those whom he singles out for approval, may fear that they are in danger of losing rather than gaining status among their classmates. Many pupils prefer that the teacher respect the confidential nature of their work. In group projects, of course, the situation is somewhat different; there pupils are concerned that all members contribute toward making the project a success. It is highly probable that they enjoy working together as long as they respect one another. But if the teacher rather frequently singles out individuals for special attention, he sometimes destroys this working relationship.

Natural motivating forces. Pupils who respond satisfactorily to typical drives of adolescents, such as mastery, imitation, curiosity, or social approval, may need few other motivations to get them to apply themselves to learning. Normal responses to such factors as curiosity or the desire for new experiences are strong in most individuals. Others seek security within social groups. They may try to obtain this security by means of academic achievement. Since most such intrinsic drives are normal to the pupil, the teacher can use them to advantage in the classroom; that is, if he directs them so that they contribute to, rather than discourage, the development of the general abilities of the pupil.

There are times, however, when normal drives are not strong enough to motivate the pupil to desirable action. It is then that the teacher may be tempted to use extrinsic means to obtain results. Most adults probably have little difficulty recalling methods of this nature that were used when they were in school. Probably the best known of these involve the giving of awards. Society today still looks upon this practice as one of the most powerful forces which it can use to motivate the individual. It is common everywhere. Prizes, honors, awards, and medals are only a few of the many motivating means of this type with which everyone is familiar. In addition to this practice, there is also the one which extends special privileges to a favored individual. It may appear unjust to criticize the school for continuing to use a practice which society readily accepts; yet some teachers question the desirability of having an individual working toward one goal for the purpose of achieving another. They believe that the teacher should keep the pupil's major attention focused upon the learning activity itself. The reward that follows then will come in the form of the satisfaction that accompanies the doing of a high quality of work.

Too often the rewards for academic achievement bear little or no relationship to the learning experience itself. The parent or teacher who offers a material prize for superior school work is directing attention to the prize. At times this may have serious implications.

For example, the physically weak pupil who overworks himself to gain an award may achieve his goal but injure his health in doing so. On the other hand, he may recognize the impossibility of earning such an award and, as a result, put forth no effort at all. It seems that the teacher should evaluate carefully the use of awards as a means of motivation. If they work a hardship or an injustice upon any one member of a class, he can scarcely justify their use. Rewards also have another disadvantage. Since they are an end in themselves, it may be necessary for the teacher to renew them continually or their further motivating value may be lost. Thus their discontinuance may have a definitely negative effect upon the individuals concerned.

Punishment is another type of extrinsic motivation. The object of punishment generally is to place the individual in a position where he will be willing to choose the lesser of two unpleasant experiences. He doesn't like to study his English so he must remain after school for an hour as a punishment for not doing his work. Since it is assumed that he likes to be with his friends at that time, the teacher hopes that he will choose to do the required work rather than to be denied this privilege. Under such a circumstance he may do the work, but his liking for English may not increase as a result. In fact, he may come to detest the subject. On the other hand, the situation may also bring about certain desirable results. Should the pupil work diligently enough to gain additional proficiency in English, he may eventually come to enjoy the satisfaction that goes with this kind of achievement. As a result, he may continue working to increase this satisfaction. For him punishment may have served a desirable end.

The teacher should be especially aware of the complexities connected with the use of group punishment as a means of motivation. By its use the results for a few pupils may be satisfactory. For others, it may result in antagonism, insubordination, withdrawal, or one of many other undesirable traits. No teacher has a right to use punishment when he is angry or has lost his self-control. The teacher who is emotionally disturbed is seldom in a condition to judge wisely what types of motivation are appropriate for his pupils. Since he has a responsibility in helping them develop traits and habits with which they can take their places

as responsible citizens in society, any course of action which defeats this purpose can seldom be approved for use in the classroom.

Adult society itself has not yet fully solved the problems of motivation at its own age level. It has to make continued efforts to help the maladjusted individual find a place where he wants to do what he can do and should do. In school the teacher has to work this problem out with each individual pupil in the best manner possible. His procedure, therefore, should always be determined by the amount of benefit which the pupil, as well as his associates, will derive from the action.

Relation of progress to purpose. The teacher should keep in mind that there are certain limitations in the process of directing learning experiences. In the first place, he cannot change the potential ability with which the pupil is endowed; he can only direct it. Even when the pupil becomes a member of a class group, he still retains this same ability; only he may develop it somewhat differently than if he were alone. In the second place, the teacher has the responsibility of directing the mental growth of the learner into desirable channels. This step involves motivating the learner so that he will reach a level of achievement in line with his potential ability.

Mental and physical development depend in a large measure upon purpose. There should be a goal toward which the individual is working, and there should be a means for reaching that goal. It would be ideal if the teacher and the learner could always see each of these equally well; however, the learner's goal is not always clear to him; he does not always know just what he is trying to do. Sometimes the goal is so remote from his present experiences that he does not understand what it really is nor how he can ever reach it. For example, he wants to be a doctor. Yet he may not realize the years of laboratory work that have to go into the preparation for such a profession. The teacher should help him to see what his work in chemistry, in physics, in mathematics, and other subject areas will mean for him in this period of preparation.

The teacher should not only help the pupil recognize worth-while goals; he should also help him understand the steps whereby he can achieve such goals. The teacher is responsible for setting up learning experiences which will train him in the sequences required to arrive at these goals. The teacher has to motivate him to want to do the work necessary in following up this sequence. In other words, he has to direct

the pupil's activities so that growth and the desire to learn complement each other. Under such conditions, growth becomes a continuous and, at the same time, a satisfying process for the pupil.

DISCUSSION TOPICS AND QUESTIONS

1. What are some of the means by which the teacher can determine the kind of learning experiences that will be profitable for the pupil? What will he want to know about each pupil in his class?
2. To what extent is it possible for the teacher to influence the pupil's readiness to learn?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of having pupils of different age and ability levels in the same class? What factors should determine the placing of pupils into class groups?
4. Assume that a pupil has a major interest entirely remote from your teaching field. What procedures will you follow in working with this individual so as to help him meet his needs?
5. Describe how you may be able to incorporate reasoning and problem solving as objectives when you are teaching your major subject.
6. What type of evidence will indicate to the teacher that the pupil's learning experience is either satisfactory or unsatisfactory to him?
7. What conditions or factors helped you develop appreciation for some of your major interests? What is the relationship between understanding subject material and appreciating it? Give an example.
8. What effect did teacher praise and criticism have upon you as a pupil? How did the effect differ among teachers?
9. Point out how reasoning and problem solving may be applied to your major teaching field.
10. What are the relationships between drill and review? How may the teacher determine which to use at a particular time?
11. What procedures will often aid in developing a felt need for classroom learning?
12. To what extent is it possible for the teacher to create situations of interest in the classroom? What common drives must he consider?
13. What effect did classroom competition have upon you as a pupil? What types of rewards for learning did your teachers offer? What was your reaction to them?
14. Develop a unit in your major teaching field which will be flexible enough to meet the needs of a class in a high school similar to the one which you attended.

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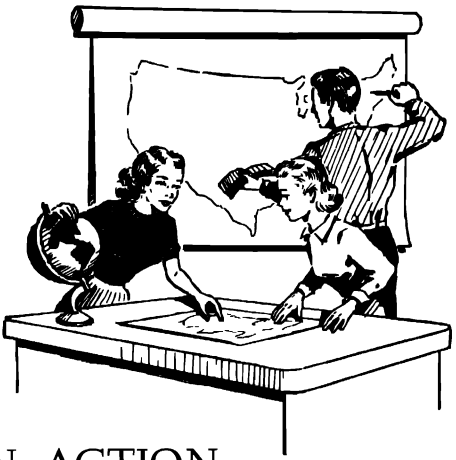
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THE CLASS IN ACTION

The previous chapter centered the teacher's attention upon ways and means for directing learning experiences in a satisfactory manner. Although the present chapter also touches upon these activities, it gives more consideration to the teacher's role in the management of general classroom problems.

The Teacher Plays a Key Role in Making Classroom Learning Effective

Opinions differ as to whether the teacher should try to direct the learning activities of his pupils according to the plans which he himself formulates, or whether the work should be guided by the teacher and pupils working cooperatively. There is, of course, a third possibility; namely, that aspects of both procedures be combined into a workable program. It is obvious that the teacher is the one who must assume final responsibility for the procedure which is to be used. He is, as Mursell [1] says, the organizer who "has a very special, responsible, and definite function—to enable the group to get things done. To accomplish this satisfactorily, he needs all the wisdom, maturity, judgment, sympathy, knowledge, and skill that he can get, and he will use these assets as well as his official position for just this end."

[1] By permission, from *Successful Teaching* by James L. Mursell, copyright 1946, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., p. 27.

The teacher is charged by the administration with the responsibility of managing his classroom in an orderly and effective manner. If he fails to do this satisfactorily, he seldom has anyone other than himself to blame. When the school administration employs him, it expects that he will be competent at setting up and maintaining procedures appropriate for achieving his goals. The teacher who gives evidence of inability to do this during his initial year of service may not be asked to return to his position the following year. Most school administrators look upon successful classroom management as an integral part of successful teaching.

Successful leadership in the classroom. The teacher has to decide what type of leadership he wishes to develop among his pupils. Whenever he is autocratic, he provides his pupils with little opportunity to develop leadership responsibility among themselves. As they submit themselves to the control of such a positive nature, they seldom feel the need for doing constructive planning of their own. They are interested rather in satisfying the personal demands of the teacher so that the emotional pressure under which they are working will become less intense. It is quite possible for the teacher who uses autocratic methods to obtain the respect of his pupils, but it is questionable whether this respect stimulates them to do a great amount of independent thinking. Under such conditions they are probably chiefly interested in conforming to the demands which the teacher places upon them.

In contrast, a teacher does not relinquish his position as a group leader when he keeps himself somewhat more in the background and permits his pupils to gain experience in organizing and working out some of their group problems. In such situations he can still be their consultant and guide. His experience and judgment can serve as a resource upon which they can draw. Pupils who work cooperatively with the teacher in this manner usually gain respect for the type of leadership which directs and guides rather than dictates. Furthermore, the teacher's leadership is also being used as a means for developing leadership ability among pupils. They will have need for such ability again and again both in school and in later life.

The teacher himself should exemplify the qualities of leadership which he wants his pupils to develop. If he wants them to be courteous and respectful toward him, he will have to treat them in a like manner.

They, of course, expect him to give sympathetic consideration to their needs and wants. Yet he should not build up within them hopes which he knows they can never realize. He should be considerate of the effect which his words have upon their emotional nature. The following example may serve to illustrate this point.

In a certain English class the teacher had asked each pupil to write a short story. Several of the pupils' efforts were read aloud before the group. The teacher gave special praise to one of the stories and remarked that with the pupil's permission, he planned to submit it for publication to a well-known magazine. The pupil who had written it was both amazed and delighted at the prospect of having his work recognized in such a manner. But in the days that followed, the teacher made no effort to send it in for publication nor to return it to the boy; he just kept it. After weeks of anxious waiting the pupil finally inquired as to its whereabouts. Without comment the teacher took it from his desk and casually handed it back to him. The boy waited a moment for an explanation but received none. As he turned away his eyes revealed his mixed emotions. It was obvious that he felt the teacher had let him down. That teacher's promises would probably carry little weight with this boy in the future.

The teacher should be willing to share the social and personal interests of his pupils. If they ask him to come to their parties, he should accept their invitations to be present. However, he should judge whether he should participate in their games by the nature of their invitations as well as by the nature of the activities. Participation can go a long way toward establishing pleasant relationships as well as broadening acquaintanceships. Yet the teacher should not overplay this role. He should not force his way into activities in which he is not welcome. Pupils tend to react negatively to the teacher who does this. They expect him to have the good judgment of knowing what is proper and desirable in such situations. There are times when they want him in their group, and there are times when they do not.

The student teacher's position in this respect is no different from that of the cooperating teacher. Pupils evaluate his personality in the same manner as they do that of a regular staff member. They are usually able to discover rather soon whether he has a sympathetic interest in their problems, or whether he is in the classroom simply to fulfill a teaching requirement. Since he is a strange individual to them, it is quite probable that they will regard him with a certain amount of shy-

ness at first. But this shyness usually disappears as soon as they become convinced that he is worthy of acceptance into their group. At times he may even find them directing their attention to him instead of to the cooperating teacher. Although he should not solicit such attention, he should continue to be helpful and try to understand their problems. He may even be surprised to discover the extent of his influence over the group. With this power at his command, it is highly desirable that he not lose his emotional stability but accept this status with the dignity that befits a teacher and leader. If he does otherwise, there is considerable chance that he may lose much of the advantage for exerting a wholesome influence over the group which he had previously gained.

The student teacher who is overly reserved in manner is definitely in danger of losing contact with his pupils. They may evidence respect as they first come to know him but later will probably go about their work and ignore or even forget him. Then when he attempts to work with them and direct their learning experiences, he may find them cold and unresponsive. Pupils also seldom react favorably to the teacher who changes from one extreme mood to another. Such action tends to decrease their feeling of security; it may even make them emotionally unstable.

Every student teacher will, of course, have had experience in making personal adjustments to single individuals and to individuals within groups. High school students are normally no different from other individuals in their reaction to personalities. The student teacher should not suddenly try to become a new and changed individual. To do so may make him appear ridiculous. He should try to use his own previous experiences as a guide in determining how to make necessary social adjustments. This requires, of course, that he understand and analyze his own personal qualities as well as those of others. From this point on, it becomes a matter of his being not only willing to accept himself as he is, but to work toward changing such personal factors as may interfere with the success of his work.

Assisting pupils in recognizing purposes. There are always a few adolescents attending high school who do not understand clearly why they are there. They may be attending because the state requires school attendance until they reach a certain age or because their friends are there and they enjoy their companionship. They may also be attending because of parental pressure. Whatever the reason may be, they are

there, and the school has the responsibility of making their stay in school a worth-while experience for them.

As a representative of the school, the teacher has the responsibility of helping each of his pupils recognize the values that regular school attendance has to offer. This may, in some cases, appear to be a rather hopeless proposition.

Not many years ago in an industrial community the author was observing a student teacher at work in a class where one boy appeared entirely indifferent to what was happening. He was quiet and orderly, but, obviously, very much bored. The student teacher made no attempt to call upon him. Later the cooperating teacher clarified this situation by explaining, "Jack is all right as long as we don't call on him. He is only counting the days until he will be sixteen so that he can drop out of school. That will be week after next." Two weeks later Jack was gone. Probably the teachers in that school had made a sincere effort to help the boy realize the values to be had in school experiences, but he could see no need for participating in them. In some way the school had failed to arouse his interest in the opportunities which it had to offer. The boy was in school for the same reason that he might have been in prison: he had no choice; he had to be there. To him, school attendance represented a sentence which expired the day he reached his sixteenth birthday.

Confidence in ability to deal with problems. The chances of a teacher's success depend in some degree upon the confidence with which he faces his classroom problems. A wavering or hesitant attitude indicates to his pupils that he is uncertain of himself. Such an attitude can well be an invitation to them to attempt to create disturbances or, at least, to raise problems of a confusing nature.

The teacher should have his procedures for action clearly defined in his own mind. His moves should always be definite and direct. Positive action is a strong factor in convincing pupils that the teacher is businesslike and thorough. Of course, such action should be based upon sound, acceptable principles of behavior which pupils can understand. Even when he may be somewhat uncertain of his next move, the teacher should at least give evidence of confidence in himself. Of course, there is a certain amount of risk associated with such an attempt; if unsuccessful, it can place the teacher in a rather insecure position as far as status with his class is concerned. Yet he can also lose face if he appears insecure or uncertain of himself.

The following story may serve to illustrate what can happen to a teacher who has not defined his future action clearly in his own mind.

An elderly professor told a class of prospective teachers about an experience that took place during his first year of teaching in a Midwestern country school. Several of the boys were as old and as large as the teacher himself. He found that it was not always easy to maintain a confident attitude in front of such a group. One day he asked a certain boy to perform a minor task in the classroom. The boy refused. Without hesitation the teacher took out his watch with the remark, "I will give you just a minute and a half to do it." The boy still refused to move while the teacher kept looking at his watch. When the minute had passed the teacher spoke with all the confidence he could muster, "You have just thirty seconds remaining," and then looked directly at the boy. There was still a moment of hesitation before the boy finally arose and completed the task. The teacher placed his watch back in his pocket and continued with his recitation.

As the professor finished the story he looked at his class of prospective teachers and asked, "What do you think of the procedure which I followed?" One young girl avoided the question but asked him a question in return. "Professor," she inquired, "what would you have done if the boy had not moved before the time was up?" The old gentleman's eyes twinkled as he looked at the girl. "Young lady," he replied, "you may be interested to know that even today I am still trying to find a satisfactory answer to that question."

The old professor was well aware that there are numerous opportunities for a teacher to make a hasty decision from which retreat is not only difficult, but virtually impossible. Therefore, although the teacher should have confidence in his ability to direct classes, this confidence should not lead to hasty and thoughtless action on his part.

Maintaining good mental health. The teacher is responsible for helping his pupils maintain sound mental health. But to be able to do this, he must first have good emotional stability himself. He should not only enjoy having young people around him, but should enjoy working with them. If their normal activities irritate him, he may find some other field of work more pleasant than teaching. Pupils soon become aware of the teacher's reactions to their impulses and movements. When there are evidences of irritation, they may be tempted to continue with their disturbing behavior so as to see what line of action he will take. The teacher who loses his self-control in such a situation can expect more disturbances in the future. There are always a few individuals in a class who look upon such displays as a form of entertainment and are willing to provide the motivation for obtaining it.

Teachers are human in wanting social as well as economic security. They especially want security from loss of status before their classes. As a result, they sometimes become tense and unnatural. However, their basic fear may well be loss of financial security through loss of position. They know that teachers do lose their positions through inability to control classroom situations satisfactorily. This knowledge may cause them to spend their time worrying about such a possibility, rather than to give their attention to doing constructive work with their classes. To be at ease before his pupils, the teacher should concentrate on the work which he is trying to do. He will find few better emotional tonics than the satisfaction that accompanies good teaching. As he obtains a feeling of confidence and security, his pupils begin feeling secure. Thus the entire classroom environment becomes increasingly adapted and conditioned to the carrying on of learning activities.

The teacher should have a healthy outlook on life. He should not take himself too seriously even when things go wrong. No one finds this an easy assignment, yet the teacher should never carry grudges and peeves into the classroom. It is an injustice to inflict them upon pupils who are in an unfavorable position to defend themselves. If they talk back, they find authority on the side of the teacher. Thus they have to accept a situation over which they have little direct control. However, whenever conditions become too intolerable, they still have one recourse, namely, open rebellion. It is then that the teacher finds himself confronted with a real disciplinary problem. On the other hand, the teacher who is really enjoying his work cannot help but reveal his satisfaction and pleasure to his pupils. In such an atmosphere they not only find it pleasant to work with him, but probably go farther, even to the point of seeking out his companionship outside of the school day. This provides him with a condition highly favorable for exerting a wholesome influence upon them.

A Well-organized Classroom Can Do Much to Help Establish a Good Learning Environment

Plan and purpose of the organization. The school organizes and teaches pupils in groups because it is an economical arrangement. This practice provides them with the opportunity of learning how to make various types of social adjustments as they grow up together. The manner in which the teacher has his classroom organized determines in

part the learning results which he obtains. It should make possible the achievement of the immediate purposes of the course, as well as the concomitant outcomes that are desirable in the development of the members of the group. Upon accepting his position, the teacher assumes the responsibility for structuring an organization suitable to this achievement.

The classroom should provide the teacher with adequate facilities for directing learning experiences. If he is fortunate, he may have a classroom assigned to himself alone. This makes it possible for him to adapt the room to his own needs without interfering with plans which others may have for its use. He can use the blackboard and bulletin board as he sees fit. He can arrange chairs to suit the needs of individual pupils. He can arrange the room so that it will reflect the nature of the course work being carried on there. He can enjoy its orderliness, its cleanliness, and its efficient arrangement. He can make it reflect the type of working conditions which he most desires. In other words, he can be his own housekeeper.

But there are many schools in which teachers have to move from room to room to conduct their classes. The handicaps of being an itinerant classroom teacher are many. This person has no "home base" from which to work. He must carry materials from place to place. As a result, he often tends to use as few materials as possible. He often has to carry on his work under makeshift conditions because a certain room is not adapted to his needs. Yet he may not change it too much for fear of disturbing the arrangement desired by the teacher who shares it with him. The latter may or may not cooperate in helping to keep it in general good order.

The teacher who has to begin a class period with room equipment scattered here and there in a disorganized manner can seldom do the type of work of which he is capable. For that reason, he should always take care of matters such as placing chairs in order, erasing the blackboard, and removing wastepaper from the floor before his own class leaves the room. These are matters of but a moment, and pupils can be trained to perform them as routine tasks. Whenever this is done, the classroom is ready for use by the teacher who is going to work there the next period. The latter seldom has time during the intermission to do more than to make ready for use the most essential instructional material. Even then he sometimes has to complete this duty after the

bell rings. Consideration in the use of instructional materials can also help improve working conditions in the classroom. For example, the teacher who covers the blackboards with colored chalk diagrams the first period in the morning will seldom be popular with those of his associates who have to mess through unpleasant chalk dust the rest of the day. Cooperation with others on such simple matters can do much to improve staff relationships.

A well-arranged and orderly classroom helps to make good teaching possible by keeping materials in a place where they are available to both pupils and teacher. Under such conditions, there is also less danger that they will be damaged or destroyed when they are not being used, than if they are left lying here and there in a careless manner. Moreover, a certain amount of orderliness in the classroom is conducive to aesthetic appreciation and good workmanship. Of course, the teacher should guard against making orderliness a fetish, for when he does so, the classroom is very likely to become an unpleasant place in which to work. Pupils are afraid to move for fear of disturbing the order on which the teacher places so much importance. As a result, they come to be satisfied with doing only the minimum amount of work which he requires. Fear of disturbing the decorum of the classroom may easily curb any desire on their part to investigate new interests. Such a situation is generally undesirable. The teacher should be able to recognize the differences between classroom disorder that results from the active use of learning materials and the disorder that results from poor "housekeeping." The first definitely serves a purpose, while the latter does not.

Efficient management as a factor in group control. Any classroom group that functions as a unit sooner or later requires some type of leadership. In the classroom such leadership normally becomes the responsibility of the teacher. However, if the teacher does not supply the type of leadership which the class desires, it usually looks to someone from among its own membership who will supply what it wants. Under such circumstances, there is the possibility that an undesirable leader can take the management of the class away from the teacher, leaving him in a rather ineffective position.

Efficient management is a strong factor in a teacher's maintaining classroom control. Pupils are usually willing to participate in activities that are within their ability range if the teacher presents the activities in an organized and efficient manner and without tiresome delays. For

example, the teacher who has to take time out to look for materials that should be on hand may find his class engaged in their own creative activities by the time he is ready to proceed. At that point it may require additional effort and time to get them to fix their attention on classwork again. If this happens repeatedly, it will probably become increasingly difficult for the teacher to hold their interest and attention. But whenever the teacher organizes the classwork so that pupils can move from one step to another without unnecessary delay, there is little time for them to turn to the type of side play which so frequently leads to serious behavior problems. Of course, some behavior hazards are always present during a class period. Even such simple routine procedures as checking the roll or passing out papers require that the teacher carry them out in a businesslike manner in order not to lose pupil attention.

Efficient teachers take care of routine matters with precision and dispatch.

The writer recalls one foreign language teacher who, when he began collecting or passing out papers, would start up a song which the pupils had learned. The spirit with which his classes entered into this singing, even for just a few moments, left little doubt but that they enjoyed the activity. This teacher always made a determined effort to keep his pupils participating in some learning experience during every minute of the time that they were in the classroom. As a result, he had few disciplinary problems. His pupils apparently enjoyed this spirited tempo, which, even though it was pressing, never appeared to be hurried or unnatural. Although his classes always appeared to be busy, the learning activities in which the pupils were engaged were usually enjoyable as well as instructive.

Efficient classroom management does not interfere with the development of pupil interests and needs; instead, it provides additional time for the development of such factors.

Enrollment and seating arrangements. In many schools it is customary for pupils to register previous to the opening of the school term. This makes it possible for teachers to have class lists available as they meet their pupils on the opening day of school. Such lists, of course, are not always complete; some pupils find it necessary to change classes; in addition, there are always a few who register late. Yet through the availability of such lists, it is possible for the teacher to move into his regular classwork without delay. The school usually provides him with a book in which to keep the class roll and pupil grades. Some teachers

prefer to keep this information on a separate sheet of paper until the end of the first or second week of school. By that time most of the class rolls have become fairly well established. It is possible then for the teacher to transfer names and grades into the grade book with little need for changes later. This arrangement makes it possible for him to have a neat book and, at the same time, one in which the names are in a selected order.

Some pupils are sensitive as to the correct pronunciation of their names. To avoid offending such individuals, the teacher may ask for corrections in pronunciation as he calls the roll for the first time. Then he should make every effort not only to learn pupil names as quickly as possible, but also to pronounce them correctly thereafter. Failure to do so can be both distracting and annoying to pupils. Furthermore, it indicates a certain degree of carelessness on the part of the teacher and will, most certainly, not increase the amount of respect which the pupils have for him.

Seating arrangements should be such that it is possible for all pupils to participate to advantage in the learning activities of the moment. Movable desks or chairs facilitate such arrangements, yet some teachers have to work in rooms where desks are fastened to the floor in rows. This is not necessarily a calamity. Many teachers have done and are still doing creditable work under such conditions. The successful teacher always finds ways of overcoming inconveniences of this type. The writer has seen excellent committee and group work being carried on in classrooms with immovable desks. The pupils moved about and adjusted themselves without appearing to be at a disadvantage because of such conditions. However, if one or two loose chairs can be kept available in these classrooms, they sometimes facilitate the grouping of pupils.

The teacher who has movable desks or chairs in his room can arrange them in a number of ways. He can form them into a circle, a semicircle, a square, or a number of other patterns. It is usually somewhat easier for him to direct discussion activities when pupils are seated so that they can see one another as well as the teacher. Under such conditions there is a certain equality of position which is not possible when they are seated in rows. However, if the teacher plans to modify the seating arrangement, he should not overlook the changes in lighting that will result when desks or chairs are moved about. Shadows and glares sometimes become very disturbing to those pupils who are work-

ing at certain locations in the room. Desk changes may also make it difficult for pupils to have access to blackboards and resource materials. Teacher and pupils should recognize that changes in seating arrangements can, under certain conditions, improve the learning environment; but aimless shoving about of such movable equipment may, under other conditions, lead to little more than disorder and confusion in the classroom. Furthermore, such change increases the normal amount of wear and tear on equipment and, if done carelessly, it can even lead to serious property damage.

The teacher should help the pupils develop a sense of pride in caring for school property. Ordinary wear is seldom serious. Destructiveness, on the other hand, is serious, even when it occurs among such simple materials as desks and chairs. Some schools evaluate the teacher's work in part by the appearance of the equipment, such as desks, in the room or rooms where his classes meet. The general order or condition of these rooms frequently reflects both the pupils' and the teacher's attitude toward the care of public property.

Teachers differ as to the type of arrangements for seating pupils which they consider most desirable. The size of the class frequently determines the plan which they follow. In a large class the teacher may prefer a system in which the pupils are seated alphabetically according to family names. This facilitates the checking of the roll, as well as the passing out and the collecting of class materials. The system also facilitates the teacher's locating pupils. This is especially the case during the opening days of school, when he may not yet be able to associate a pupil's face with his name.

On the other hand, such a plan may have a number of disadvantages. It does not always meet the needs of pupils who have physical handicaps, such as poor eyesight or impaired hearing. It also ignores the social relationships that exist between pupils by placing them in arbitrary positions alongside each other. This can lead to the aggravation of certain types of behavior problems. Where pupils are members of the same group, it also places each one in the same relative position to the others in all classes. Thus, there is no change in arrangement as the pupil moves from room to room.

The plan whereby the pupil selects his own seat also has certain disadvantages as well as advantages. It permits the pupil to place himself near his close friends, an arrangement which can sometimes lead to

behavior problems. But, as Rivlin [2] says, "Teachers may as well admit that adolescents will seek to communicate with their friends no matter where they sit. Putting them far apart, especially in senior high school classes, merely encourages the passing of notes, and the exchange of whispers across the room. By allowing them to sit near each other, the teacher enables them to satisfy their natural desire to communicate with each other occasionally, with much less disturbance to the group as a whole." Rivlin points out further that it is much more desirable for the teacher to emphasize the "quality and challenge of classroom activities" than to spend his time arranging a seating plan just to maintain order. Pupils must come to accept the responsibility that goes with working with others in a learning activity. They must come to respect one another as individuals and be able to do effective work under varying conditions.

The teacher has to decide how he intends to organize and maintain an efficient classroom. The seating arrangement is only one of many factors that are a part of this problem. He must consider the nature of the pupils, the physical environment, and his own personality as he works out the arrangement.

Routine in the classroom. A limited amount of routine in the classroom makes for economy of time and orderliness of procedure. Most pupils accept certain routine procedures as normal and, as a result, develop the habit of participating in them regularly. Many simple matters, such as placing identification data on homework papers, can be dealt with on one occasion so that pupils will carry out the necessary details on other occasions without further instructions. General uniformity in such details makes it possible for the teacher to increase his efficiency. At the same time it helps the pupils develop desirable habits of orderliness.

Many teachers decide at the time that they organize their classes which procedures they wish to routinize. The instructions to the pupils for doing this should not only be as simple and specific as possible, but should be of a nature to warrant the respect of the pupils. Ridiculous or unusual procedures in routine by their nature invite pupil violation. The teacher who shows little or no confidence in his pupils' ability to evaluate matters of procedure may have difficulty in gaining their co-

[2] By permission, from *Teaching Adolescents in Secondary Schools* by Harry N. Rivlin, copyright 1948, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., p. 328.

operation. Few individuals like to have all of their actions governed by fixed regulations. Teachers who overroutinize their classroom procedures may find themselves relegated to the role of policemen trying to enforce the practices which they have established.

Routinization can serve to inhibit as well as to promote efficiency in the classroom. Teachers differ in their opinion as to the type of habits which pupils should develop. For example, there is the question of having pupils rise from their seats when they recite or take part in a discussion. Some teachers regard such movements as unnatural and even a waste of energy and time; others believe that they place the pupil in a position where he can express himself more forcibly. Whenever teachers in the same system follow different practices on such matters, it is quite easy for pupils to become bewildered and confused. Routines which have become habits in one place must be broken by pupils if they are to avoid censorship in another.

One young boy described this dilemma rather pointedly. His teacher had sent him to the office because he was chewing gum in class. His explanation was simple: "I just forgot whose room I was in."

Whenever differences in procedures, such as the one described above, exist in the school, the teacher should at least be considerate of the pupil's attempt to adjust himself to these varying requirements. Even with the best of intentions, the pupil is almost certain to make mistakes occasionally.

Characteristics of the class group. During early contacts between teacher and pupils, it is natural for each to want to make a favorable impression upon the other. Some individuals go to great lengths to achieve this purpose and, as a result, assume an affected manner. Some teachers become suspicious of the intentions of pupils who go out of their way trying to please during the first days of school. Likewise, there is the teacher who exerts himself unduly to impress the class with the fact that he is a superior teacher. Such an attitude is often characterized by a tone of insincerity. The teacher should realize, however, that some pupils are quite sincere when they act this way; they are still inexperienced in carrying out acceptable practices for developing personal relationships. In almost all such cases neither teacher nor pupils fool each other very long. It is probably best, therefore, that both realize early in the year that they are going to be working together almost daily for

a long period of time. The true nature of an individual is almost certain to be revealed during such an extended period of contact, regardless of how he conducts himself at first. Most pupils display the characteristics of boys and girls of their age level. Yet dispositions will differ; some will be cheerful and gay, while others will be sullen and unresponsive. In almost every class there will be at least one or more pupils who will give the teacher an occasional anxious moment. Yet, if he is tactful, he will reserve condemnation of any particular pupil during those first days of contact even though it appears that that person is going to become a troublemaker. If the teacher condemns him, the pupil may feel it necessary to live up to the teacher's expectations. On the other hand, whenever the teacher places confidence in the pupil's ability to conduct himself properly, the result frequently justifies the chance which the teacher is taking.

Pupils expect the teacher to play the role of a teacher. They expect him to be active in setting up control factors if these are necessary. However, they would not be human if they were not occasionally tempted to try to find out how capable he is of doing this. They expect him to be able to demonstrate his ability to establish and maintain a good learning environment. The teacher's failure to do so can readily lower the respect which they have for him. The organizational periods at the opening of school should be the means of establishing pleasant working relationships between everyone connected with the learning activities of the classroom. The teacher should make extended effort to create mutual respect between himself and his pupils. There are few factors that will do more to set up effective learning conditions then as well as later.

Recognition of leadership ability in the classroom. In most classes there are always one or more pupils capable of assuming the leadership necessary for carrying on various types of group activities. The teacher should not overlook the assistance which such pupils are able to supply during the time that the classwork is being organized. They are often capable of taking over at least some of the preliminary organizational work. By means of their participation, these pupils are able to set a tempo which can serve to stimulate other class members to improved effort. Of course, this pace must allow for ability differences in individuals or it will discourage rather than motivate the slower boys and girls.

Every pupil should have the opportunity of developing his ability

to be a leader as well as a follower. For that reason, the teacher should make it possible for the less able to try out as leaders in some activities during the year. They may not be in a position to accept this responsibility immediately; it may first be necessary for them to gain confidence in themselves. But even if they can gain only a little such experience, here and there, they may soon be able to assume increased responsibilities of this nature. Under such conditions the natural leaders also gain experience at playing a supporting role, an experience which may be very worth while for them.

Some teachers are reluctant to accept pupil leadership in the classroom, for effort and time are required to supervise and direct it. There is also some possibility that the pupil's inexperience with leadership can bring about such unsatisfactory results that the teacher's own leadership status is endangered. Yet leadership training has to be made an essential phase of classroom activities if young people are to be trained to become capable leaders of the democratic group activities of later life. The teacher has to expect that such training will involve a certain amount of chance. However, much of his own leadership experience has probably been acquired by means of trial and error. Young people are generally quite willing to recognize the responsibility of leadership if the teacher helps them to understand the factors that are involved. Failure on their part is more often the result of ignorance than of intentional neglect.

Provision for group and individual work. The teacher should study carefully the physical layout of his classroom so that he can make appropriate provisions for individual and group work. He should, for example, avoid having too many members of his class pass to the blackboard for written drill when the space available for such work is inadequate. Crowding at the blackboard is sometimes the cause of confusion and disorder. Whenever pupils do not have space enough to work adequately, they may become more interested in jockeying for positions with their neighbors than in completing the exercises assigned to them.

Of course, it is not always possible for the teacher to change the physical arrangements of his classroom to any great extent, yet he should plan to use to advantage the facilities that are available. For example, if there is only limited blackboard space, he can arrange to have some of the pupils work at their desks while others are at the board. During

group work, he can place the groups so that there will not be too much interference among them.

There are times when the teacher gives assignments for which the pupils have occasion to use reference materials. Confusion and arguments are almost certain to result if all of the pupils try to use the same materials at the same time. This is especially the case if such materials are limited in amount. Here again the teacher should plan so that the number of pupils having occasion to use material at any one time is no greater than the amount of material available. If this is not done, there are always a few pupils who are quick to sense that in this confusion they can find a reasonable excuse for not doing their work at all. They delay their attempts to obtain material until others have already taken over all that is available. Then they are not only unable to complete their own work, but they feel that they have a legitimate reason for not even attempting to complete it.

The teacher should organize his classroom work so that it will function smoothly. To do this effectively, he must try to anticipate the type of problems that will result from carrying out group activities and then make arrangements to provide for their solutions. If he does not do this, he may suddenly discover that he has a considerable amount of confusion on his hands. Confusion not only distracts pupils, but also leads to general behavior problems that interfere with the work which is being attempted. The teacher should plan to use facilities such as blackboards, seats, and other types of equipment to advantage at all times. This is especially the case whenever they involve group activities of various types.

Integrating class activity with the organization of the school. The school can function smoothly only when each teacher assumes responsibility for his share of the daily schedule. For example, the teacher who repeatedly finds it necessary to make his assignments after the dismissal bell rings almost always disrupts the work of other classes. He places those pupils who are unable to be on time in their next classes in an unfavorable position. As a result, these pupils may develop resentment toward both the teacher who insists they be on time as well as toward the one who detains them. The situation also furthers the development of irresponsible habits, such as loitering between rooms. Delayed pupils know they will be late anyway, so they often feel little urge to hurry. Even a few small irregularities of this nature may be cause for strained

relationships between staff members. Neither the school nor the individual teacher can afford many of these.

The school is organized so that instruction proceeds in a systematic manner. Whenever teachers or administrators interrupt this arrangement, instruction naturally suffers. Yet this is done repeatedly in many schools. Staff members ask pupils to come to their offices or rooms, regardless of the type of class that they may be in at the moment. As a result, class activities often suffer because some key pupil is not present to participate in assigned group work. If this happens frequently, pupils may come to regard their classroom experiences as unimportant. Of course, some interruptions of this type are, no doubt, unavoidable, but teachers and administrators can often prevent many of them by being considerate and planning to avoid them. It is not courteous to remove a pupil from class just for a teacher's convenience. It should occur only if it is absolutely unavoidable.

The Opening Days of School Set the Pattern for Future Class Action

The opening days of school are, in some respects, the most critical of the entire school year. There is bound to be a certain amount of natural confusion during this period. It is also the time when first impressions are being made as teacher and pupils meet. The young people are naturally interested in renewing acquaintanceships and in discussing vacations and summer work. They are also looking over the "newcomers" to see whether they should be given special attention or not. All in all, the whole social setup on opening day is not unlike that of a small community fair. In addition to the regular performances, there are always a few new attractions which no one wishes to miss. At this time few of the people are as yet concerned about the responsibilities of school work. They know that such responsibilities will come later.

Planning for the first day. The new teacher should try to learn what he can about the community and school before the opening day brings on its rush of activities. Some schools find it desirable to hold a workshop or faculty conference to assist in this work of orientation. Through such experiences the new teacher obtains an insight into the general working procedures of which he is soon to be a part. He also becomes acquainted with members of the staff by working and planning with

them. Furthermore, as they discuss local problems, he gains information regarding community attitudes toward the school.

When preschool conferences are not held, the new teacher will have to find other means for gaining the information which he wants to have before beginning his work. Of course, if he is in the community ahead of opening day, he will have opportunity to meet other staff members who are also getting ready for their work. Most of them will be glad to answer such questions as he may wish to ask. Then there will be community activities which will be open to him as a newcomer. During this time he should also become acquainted with local resources from which he can obtain teaching materials. These resources will include places such as the public library and various types of public utilities.

Whether he is a new member of the staff or not, he should make arrangements for the opening days of classwork with considerable care. He should know whether classes are to be held for the full length of the class period or not. Some schools hold classes on an abbreviated schedule on opening day so that pupils are free to obtain materials. Although there is bound to be some disorder in getting the school schedule under way, the teacher should plan to utilize every minute of the period to advantage. Idleness at this time can very well convey an impression to the pupils that the teacher does not regard classwork as being particularly important. A businesslike approach is one on which the teacher will seldom go wrong. Pupils usually accept it as evidence of the tempo with which classwork is to be carried on later.

Adjusting to the confusion of opening organization. There is bound to be a certain amount of confusion with getting pupils organized on the opening day of school. The teacher should first make certain that those pupils who come to him are in their correct classes, otherwise they will miss the opening instructions that are so important at that time. It may also be helpful for him to identify his course at the opening of the period and then direct pupils to the correct rooms if they do not belong in his group. New pupils often have considerable difficulty in finding rooms in a building with which they are unfamiliar. Even a little assistance at this time can help them get their schedules organized so that they can proceed without too much confusion.

A pupil sometimes wishes to change courses after he has preregistered. The teacher should permit this change only after it has had the approval of the appropriate counselor or homeroom teacher. Otherwise,

complications may develop which will later interfere with the pupil's plans to graduate in a particular curriculum. The adviser cannot carry out his responsibility for directing the pupil's program of study unless he is kept informed of the courses in which the pupil is enrolled.

On opening day there are often administrative problems to which the teacher is expected to give his attention even though they may disrupt the classroom work which he had planned. He should accept these as a matter of course. Some of these may deal with pupils who have registered incorrectly or incompletely. Others may concern the organization of certain activity groups. In addition, family problems may arise. Parents may be trying to reach their children in order to help them obtain necessary school supplies. These are only a few of the many problems with which the counselor or principal's office has to deal. The teacher should cooperate with the administration in getting such problems cleared up as soon as possible. At times this may require that a pupil leave class just when work is getting under way. But if problems of this nature are not cleared up during the opening days of school, they frequently lead to serious complications later.

The teacher should become familiar not only with the administrative organization under which he is working, but also with the responsibilities which various individuals hold in the organization. For example, he can create confusion on opening day by directing problems to personnel who have no authority to deal with them. These are busy days for everyone. The teacher who sends all of his problems to the principal with the idea that he will get quick action on them there may be in for a surprise. Deans, department heads, and other administrative personnel have specific responsibilities. The principal expects them to take care of these responsibilities. He has his own work to do. Even though he is willing to reroute the teacher's problem to the appropriate individual, this takes time. Furthermore, it seldom increases the principal's respect for the teacher who makes it necessary. The teacher himself should take the responsibility for sending his communications through appropriate channels.

Familiarity with available equipment and supplies. The teacher should spend some time before school opens in getting acquainted with the equipment which he expects to use. In some subject fields, such as science, this may involve careful checking and require that new instruments or parts be ordered to replace those that are damaged or broken.

Materials which are used up, such as chemicals, must also be restocked so that they will be available later. The teacher of a subject in which extensive supplies are used should make a check on materials a considerable time before school opens. He should examine carefully the equipment that is on hand. There may be some with which he is not familiar. He should also make certain that he knows how to use that which is available. He may even find some instruments that have been disassembled and are not in usable condition. The experienced teacher knows how frustrating it is to attempt to set up equipment and then find that an essential part is missing.

Before he makes commitments for the purchase of supplies and equipment, the teacher should be familiar with the budgetary practices of the school. Usually subject area departments are given specific allotments of funds. He should check such matters carefully with the proper administrative officials so that there will be no misunderstandings. If the assigned budget will not cover all his needs, he can probably do little more than select those items which are most necessary for the present and place the others on a waiting list for the following year. The teacher who attempts to exceed his budget may find himself in a very unfavorable position with the administration. Of course, the administration will usually be glad to discuss with him problems of an emergency nature.

The new teacher should organize his equipment so that he can locate material readily. This requires that he establish an orderly arrangement. He should train his pupils to help maintain such a system in order that its usefulness will not be lost. There is always a need in the classroom for general supplies, such as chalk and pencils. Many teachers keep a collection of old pencils in their desks upon which pupils can draw when necessary. Such needs are often acute during the opening days of school. But the teacher should help pupils to develop the habit of providing for their own needs. If they do not do so, there is always unnecessary confusion and delay. Furthermore, they tend to become more rather than less irresponsible in taking care of their own needs.

Materials required for the opening day should be available for immediate use. Some teachers make extensive use of supplementary equipment during this period, since pupils do not always have texts the first day or two. Such materials not only aid in giving perspective to the course, but also in arousing pupil interest in the work ahead. The teacher

should not overlook the possibilities of using equipment such as display tables and bulletin boards at this time.

Definite plan of activity for the opening day. There are several advantages of having pupils engage in at least some learning experiences the first day of school. It is not necessary that these be of an extensive nature, yet they should be planned so as to appeal to the pupil's interest. After taking care of necessary routine procedures, the teacher should begin working directly with some interesting aspects of his subject. He should select this work for its fundamental as well as for its interest value.

When pupils come to class on opening day, they are interested in finding out about the content of the course. They also like to get the "feel" of the work so that they can gain confidence in their ability to master it.

In his own beginning German classes on opening day, the author tried to do two things. First, he drew down a large wall map indicating the German-speaking areas of Europe. In almost every class, there were pupils whose ancestors had come from one of these areas. These pupils were usually proud to point out where their forefathers had once lived. Those of English descent were frequently surprised to learn that some of their ancestors had probably migrated from the northern European mainland to Britain centuries ago. By placing a few English-German cognates on the board, it was not difficult to show how the two peoples had language as well as blood ties. Secondly, on the first day the teacher always attempted to do some work in the foreign language itself. He presented a few of the common expressions such as "Good morning" and "How are you?" Then he supplemented these with a few simple verbs and nouns which could be applied to classroom materials. By adding such words as "what" and "that" to the selection, it was possible to carry on a limited conversation using expressions like "What is that?" and "That is a book." These initial forms were then made the basis for the work of the second day. By having these words on the board or in mimeographed form, it was possible to supply every pupil with assignment materials, regardless of whether he had a text or not. Since the words were usually taken from the text itself, they formed the basis for the work that was to follow.

The teacher of any subject field should find it possible to begin his work in an equally or even more effective manner. By means of such a step pupils receive an immediate introduction to the subject field. They gain confidence in their ability to make progress because their first experiences are realistic as well as satisfying. Of course, the teacher should

not include all of the high lights of the year in his first day's work; there will be other days when his pupils will need some spirited stimulation. Furthermore, the use of such an approach does not prohibit the initiation of pupil-teacher planning practices. It may well be a major motivation leading directly into them. These can often be as invigorating as any which the teacher prepares by himself; of course, the procedure which he follows in organizing them will have to be somewhat different.

Beginning teachers sometimes open their course work with a résumé of certain lectures which they have had in their college classes. Although such content material may have background value, pupils are seldom prepared to receive it to advantage, much less to be interested in it at that time. The teacher should instead keep such material as a resource for appropriate occasions later in the year. It will then probably be more valuable for him. But even then he should seldom, if ever, make it the basis for a series of lectures. High school pupils are seldom conditioned to give their attention to such talks. Even one talk is sometimes too much for them.

The opening day should give pupils a rather concrete idea of what they can expect in the new course. The impressions which they receive should be clear cut as well as accurate. The teacher should definitely avoid misrepresentations at this time; too often they only lead to disappointments later. It is even possible that they may cause the pupils to develop a negative attitude toward both subject matter and teacher when they discover the deception.

Establishing a learning environment. The opening days of school should make it possible for the pupils to become acquainted with the learning environment which the teacher expects to establish. If he directs special attention to the disciplinary aspect of his work, the pupils will naturally come to think that he regards this as a factor of major importance in the class period. However, if he can get them to understand that he expects to use it only to set up a desirable learning environment, they are usually more able to view it as a means to an end rather than an end in itself.

In this respect, the writer recalls the incident of the substitute teacher who introduced herself to her class by seizing the wastebasket and marching up and down the aisles with the order, "Spit out your gum!" Later, one of the boys characterized the atmosphere which she had created in this classroom by this act when he said, "Boy, did we keep her busy the rest of the period."

Pupils are usually quick to recognize the type of activity to which the teacher directs his major attention. If he inaugurates his work with a lot of detailed rules and regulations, he immediately sets himself up as a policeman who has to enforce them. Furthermore, he will probably have a few pupils who will be happy to oblige by giving him plenty of business. But if he can get his pupils to assume most of the responsibility themselves for maintaining a good learning environment, he will seldom have to set up many rules to control them. In fact, pupils sometimes discipline their own classmates if they feel that the latter have stepped out of the bounds of propriety. Pupils have at their disposal a powerful weapon in social disapproval, and they are often quite willing to wield it with effective results.

The teacher should in most instances reveal to the pupils as soon as possible what he expects of them in the way of preparation and conduct. They want specific instructions on how to prepare their assignments. Therefore, it is important that the teacher make his instructions particularly specific and concise during the opening days of school. As soon as a pupil understands clearly what he is to do, he usually feels a certain responsibility for carrying out the instructions. Thus the first few days may be a good conditioning period during which the pattern of attack can be set for the rest of the year. During these days it is also important that the teacher hold the pupils responsible for the preparation of assignments. If there is a laxity in this respect, the pupils may develop an attitude either that the teacher does not care or that the work is not important. The beginning teacher should definitely give attention to this point. Any attempt on his part to gain popularity or pupil approval by being lenient during the opening days of school is almost certain to end in failure later. Pupils are usually able to adjust themselves to a particular type of procedural pattern without too much difficulty. But they resent having to make continual readjustments to conform to the teacher's change of mind. Also, any attempt on the part of the teacher to tighten up on requirements later is almost certain to call forth unpleasant reactions from them.

The student teacher as well as the beginning teacher should find it helpful to analyze carefully at the end of the first week the results of his first days of teaching. He can probably consider that he has made a good start if he has been able to attain most of the purposes which he set out to achieve. Yet he should not be too disturbed if he finds that it

has been necessary to make some changes. In fact, if he has made no changes at all in his initial plans, it is doubtful if he has given much consideration to the individual needs and characteristics of his pupils.

The teacher should also study the work of his first day in the light of his own personality. He may want to adjust some of his procedures so as to make them more effective. If his pupils have not responded well, it may be because they have not been able to interpret his instructions. He should not lose confidence in himself at this point. Even experienced teachers sometimes arrive at a point where they doubt their own effectiveness. However, confidence usually returns as they continue their work. Under no condition should the beginner apologize for his procedures at this time. If he does not believe them appropriate, he should not use them. Pupils expect the teacher to have evaluated such matters before they introduce them into the classroom.

The beginning teacher may do well not to call attention to the fact that he is inexperienced. Pupils usually discover that soon enough. Rather, he should try to impress them with the fact that he is capable and confident of himself, yet at the same time, willing to be considerate of their needs. Of course, there may be times when the young teacher feels that he is losing control of a classroom situation. If he admits this by begging for pupil cooperation, he is usually opening the door for trouble. Pupils tend to cooperate with the teacher whom they respect. The weak teacher only arouses their contempt when he goes so far as to beg for their attention and support.

Pupils are not above trying to take advantage of the new teacher during the opening days of school. It is at this time that he is not yet able to identify each of them as a specific individual. But if he is to succeed in gaining their respect, these are the days during which he must learn to be firm and yet human in his dealings with them.

Establishing appropriate attitudes toward the school situation. The impressions which the pupil receives during his first week of classes go far toward establishing the attitude with which he regards the entire school environment. If he finds that relationships with his teachers are pleasant, he probably looks forward with pleasure to the work ahead. This feeling can also motivate him to want to be regular in attendance. On the other hand, if the conditions are unfavorable, he will probably look for reasons to stay away from school. His teachers may also have difficulty in getting him to participate actively in the work of the course

if it is unpleasant to him. The teacher who takes a sincere interest in helping pupils make necessary personal adjustments during this critical period frequently obtains favorable returns on his investment later in the year. His pupils are often willing to go out of their way to cooperate with him on work both within as well as outside of the classroom. They are usually willing to do this, too, without any particular feeling of obligation; they do it because it involves a pleasant experience.

The opening week of school determines to a considerable extent the type of attitude with which the pupil regards his classwork. Even during such a short period of time he should be able to experience some of the satisfaction that accompanies achievement. He should also be able to determine how it will be possible for him to make progress and growth in the course. He should even begin developing habits by means of which he can master course requirements. The teacher can help him obtain a feeling of security in the classroom during this time by respecting him as an individual and by dealing with his problems in a confidential and understanding manner. Even though the pupil does not have a personal fear of the teacher, he should come to respect him. The pupil should have confidence in the teacher's willingness to assist him with any phase of the classwork which he does not understand. The teacher who finds at the end of the first week of school that his pupils are becoming well adjusted to the classwork as well as to one another and to the teacher, can probably assume that they are developing a rather wholesome attitude toward their learning environment.

Successful Learning Involves the Use of Appropriate Learning Materials

Guiding students in locating learning materials. Every pupil should develop effective techniques for obtaining information on subject matter. He should become familiar with the facilities which the school library provides. In addition to this library, there are also community, state, and national facilities from which he may obtain information. These include such organizations as bureaus of information. Many manufacturing concerns publish material of a descriptive nature which they make available to educational agencies. In almost every community there are groups whose business it is to disseminate printed matter

descriptive of resources within those areas. In addition to recorded information, there are speakers who are capable and willing to meet class groups to discuss subjects of special interest to them. Beginning teachers are not always aware that reliable oral sources can be as helpful in providing information as sources involving recorded materials. In general, most pupils have to have training in finding and selecting learning materials before they can use them to advantage.

The school library is one of the common sources for information to which the pupil has access. If it has a good selection of material, he can use it extensively in almost any subject field. But he must become familiar with its organization before he can develop skills in its use. Therefore, the teacher and the librarian should work together to provide him with the necessary experience for developing such skills. Between them it is often possible to develop a unit of instruction in one of his subject fields which requires specific training in library usage. Wherever this is done, it not only helps the pupil to recognize the educational values which the library has to offer, but it also offers practical experience in learning how to use the materials that are available there. In many schools the librarian teaches one or more classes in addition to carrying on library work. Under such circumstances, this individual is often in an ideal position to include in the regular classwork a unit dealing with the efficient use of the school library. However, the classroom teacher rather than the full-time librarian usually has more opportunity to become acquainted with the needs and interests of various pupils throughout the school.

Many classroom teachers believe that they can direct pupils in the use of library materials best whenever they bring the entire class into the library itself. This step, however, requires that the facilities of the library be made available without too much interference from other pupils. It also requires careful planning and cooperation between teachers so that one class will not be using the facilities at the expense of other groups or individuals. Under certain conditions it is sometimes desirable for the teacher to provide a limited amount of library resource material in the classroom itself. He may have selected such material from the general library or he may have built up a collection assigned directly to the room in which it is to be used.

Most teachers find it helpful to have at least a limited amount of

reference materials available for use in the classroom. Even with careful planning beforehand, it is not always possible to determine when there will be need for some of these materials. For that reason it is convenient to have them available so that the pupil can use them without delay while his interest is high. It happens frequently that if he has to wait until a free period is available, he loses his concern about the point in question and becomes interested in other matters.

The teacher is in a favorable position to guide and direct the pupil's selection of appropriate items when they are available in the classroom. For instance, a teacher of English or a foreign language may arrange to have extensive reading texts available in the classroom. Since he is familiar with pupil needs and interests in these areas, as well as with various types of material in his field, he is in a position to help the individual pupil select from the classroom reading material such items as appeal especially to his interests. In contrast to this, the librarian can seldom be a specialist in every subject area. The teacher who manages his own library material is also in a position to maintain a careful check on the type and amount of material with which each pupil is working. There are some disadvantages to such an arrangement of materials, of course. In the first place, the material has to be limited in amount. In addition, there is less opportunity for pupils outside of the class to have access to the material. The arrangement may prevent pupils from gaining experience in the use of the general school library unless special provision is made for such training.

As far as it is financially possible for them to do so, librarians make regular additions of new materials to their shelves. However, they are not always acquainted with all of the latest materials in each teaching field. For that reason, there is an advantage in the classroom teacher's coming to their assistance by supplying lists of materials which his classes need. Such lists should always be examined carefully, however, so as not to fill the library with books which have little educational value and which pupils will seldom use.

Every pupil in the school should know how to use indexes and catalogues to locate available library materials. Since many schools classify their books according to the Dewey Decimal System, the pupil should become familiar with this plan of organization. He should not find it necessary to ask the librarian for assistance every time he wishes to locate a book; if he has to do so, he is wasting not only his own time

but that of the librarian as well. He should definitely learn how to use library facilities without outside help.

The teacher should himself develop a considerable degree of skill in the use of library materials if he expects to make extensive use of such resources. Furthermore, he should exercise care in the preservation of all such materials. He should help train his pupils to do likewise. Teachers as well as pupils are occasionally guilty of marking up books or even of destroying valuable material through careless handling. No teacher can expect his pupils to develop habits of care in the use of such materials which he himself does not practice or respect.

Selecting learning materials for class use. In many schools the teacher selects his own instructional materials. However, in some instances, local administrators or even state officials assume this responsibility. Whenever the teacher makes the selection, it is usually necessary for him to obtain the approval of the administration before the selection becomes final.

In addition to choosing appropriate materials, the teacher is responsible for helping pupils develop the ability to use the selected materials in an appropriate manner. He may plan to have his class use one or two major texts, along with a certain amount of supplementary material. On the other hand, he may organize the work so that the pupils draw from a number of reference sources. He can use either procedure effectively if he trains his pupils accordingly. It is true that a pupil may get less training in using resource materials when all of the work is built around a single text. Yet the use of a single text does not necessarily deprive him of the opportunity of gaining a good background in his subject field. The nature of the subject material and the use to which the teacher and the pupil put it determine largely the effectiveness of the learning situation. In such fields as social studies there is probably greater need for the use of a wide selection of sources than in, for example, the field of mathematics. However, the teacher should consider the needs of the group as well as the general characteristics of the subject area when he has to make such a selection.

Learning material is of little value to the pupil until he has put it to effective use. It is the teacher's responsibility to help train and guide him in doing this. But the latter cannot give assistance unless he himself understands thoroughly the material with which he is working. Such a situation generally places a greater limitation upon the beginning

teacher than it does upon the experienced teacher. The former finds himself in a position where he has to begin using material with some of which he is probably unfamiliar. For that reason, he may prefer building his work around one good textbook until he has had time to gain a broader background in the material connected with his field. With such a background, it becomes increasingly easy for him to organize his course in such a manner as to provide improved learning opportunities for his pupils.

Developing pupil ability to use textbook material profitably. The writer of a textbook has to have a purpose as well as a plan of organization in mind if his material is to have unity and coherence. Teacher and pupils cannot make the best use of his book until such time as they understand what his purpose and plan are; in other words, they have to know what he is trying to achieve. They should also be familiar with his plans for their use of the text. This requires, above all, that they become acquainted with the manner in which he has organized it. In order to do this, they may find it profitable to spend some time at the opening of school examining the book. They should examine the table of contents, the bibliography, the index, and any supplementary material that may be included. Some texts include special tables or vocabularies. The pupils should become acquainted with the manner in which these are to be used.

It is important that teacher and pupils recognize the point of view which the author had in mind as he wrote his text. Sometimes this viewpoint is discussed in the preface or introduction. Such an understanding is especially important where the author has included material of a controversial nature. The pupils should learn how to read the textbook critically. If the author is expressing one point of view, it may be desirable for the class to include a source which presents an opposing point of view. Such a balance provides the pupil with the opportunity of evaluating ideas. On this point it is usually well that teacher and pupils avoid being so strongly impressed by the views of one writer that they are unwilling to examine those of another. The class which has access to only one text has, of course, little opportunity of becoming acquainted with more than one point of view.

Some teachers believe that the use of more than one text helps to stimulate pupils to carry on discussions. Furthermore, the practice

prevents the class from falling into a strict recitation pattern of procedure. Of course, in some areas of study the material may be of such a nature that pupils profit most when they are all working with the same text. Such a situation may pertain particularly to a foreign language, a chemistry, or a mathematics course.

The pupil should learn how to distinguish between an author's presentation of a statement of opinion and a statement of fact. He should also learn how to analyze the material in the body of the text itself so that he can use it for his own needs. In some instances, it may be desirable for him to gain an over-all view of the content by rapid reading before he attempts studying for details. Again, for example, where reference material is being covered, there may be no need at all to do detailed study. The teacher should help the pupil recognize the relationships that exist between one part of the book and another. For example, the pupil may fail to see that relationships exist between large units and chapters, as well as within these divisions themselves. Many texts include exercises. These are intended by the author to develop skills needed in such activities as drill, review, or problem solving. Here again it is important that the pupil understand the purpose of these exercises. Too often he regards them solely as a medium for introducing busywork into the class period or study hour.

The teacher should always be alert to ways in which he can use text materials with improved results. After he has completed a course, it should be possible for him to make effective changes in the use of text materials. He can, for example, clarify confusing exercises before pupils attempt to deal with them. He can also rearrange the sequence of materials to suit the needs of the course as he has organized it. Above all, he should be able to help pupils apply the material in a more effective manner than they would otherwise apply it. This will be possible because he has tested out group and individual reactions to it during the course of the year.

Learning Skills Contribute to Pupil Growth

Every classroom should be a learning laboratory in which the teacher is carrying on continued experimentation to determine how each individual pupil can become a more efficient learner. The results of this

experimentation help to determine the amount and type of progress which the pupil is able to make. Of course, the manner in which the teacher interprets the results has a definite effect upon the outcome.

Personal responsibility as related to learning. The teacher who can get his pupils to accept a major share of the responsibility for their own success in learning has achieved one of the major goals in teaching. If pupils do this, he can devote more of his efforts to guiding their learning activities into desirable channels than in promoting ways and means for getting them to want to learn.

Some teachers regard themselves as taskmasters whose responsibility it is to make their pupils learn whether they wish to or not. To them, it is of secondary importance whether the pupils enjoy the learning experience or not. In fact, they may regard it as good training for a pupil to have to experience a reasonable amount of unpleasantness in his learning activity. Although experiences of this type may have some conditioning values for a pupil, it is doubtful if the teacher should deliberately place him in this type of situation very often. His chances for successful learning will almost always be increased whenever he approaches his work with a desire to learn. Then, too, there is less danger of causing undesirable emotional reactions when the learning environment is somewhat pleasant than when it tends to be unpleasant. For these reasons, if for no other, the teacher should help the pupil recognize the value of his learning experiences and create within him the desire to carry them to a successful conclusion. This step requires that the pupil accept the purposes set up for the course.

Time is, of course, an important factor for the teacher as well as for the pupil. Often the teacher is so busy that he finds it difficult to complete all of the activities which require his attention. Therefore, he devotes his attention to those which at the moment appear to be of maximum importance. Among such responsibilities are two which Butler [3] describes as "the efficient direction of the learning process" and "the checking to see if learning occurred outside of class hours." Butler believes that the teacher is spending his class time more profitably by doing the former than by doing the latter. Since the teacher should be the person best qualified to direct the pupil's learning process, it appears reasonable to expect him to give a considerable amount of his

[3] By permission, from *The Improvement of Teaching in Secondary Schools* by Frank A. Butler, copyright 1946, University of Chicago Press, p. 222.

attention to this activity during the class hour. Directed learning in the classroom facilitates the pupil's recognition and application of the procedures by which he masters subject matter. If he does this properly, it should be possible for him to assume increased responsibility for progress in his course work.

A pupil is sometimes quite willing to let the teacher assume full responsibility for the success of his learning activities. He accepts the idea that so long as he does what he is asked to do, there is no need for him to become concerned about gaining additional learning experiences. Under such conditions, he can readily come to believe that failure on his part is the fault of the teacher rather than of himself. The teacher prefers, of course, that the pupil not develop an attitude of this type. He desires more in him than a passive willingness to complete assigned exercises. Whenever such a situation exists, it offers little that is challenging to either teacher or pupil. Furthermore, it seldom stimulates the pupil to do work of an exploratory nature. If he expects to make extensive progress in his work, the pupil has to accept personal responsibility for the success of his own learning experiences. The teacher may be able to guide and direct him during these activities, but he is seldom in a position where he wants to or even can force him to bring them to a successful completion. To do so may only serve to defeat the very purpose for which the learning experience is set up.

Independent work as a desirable form of self-activity. The amount of study in which the pupil engages may bear little relationship to the achievement level which he attains. Ability is, of course, a determining factor in all achievement, yet teachers sometimes assume that able pupils study more than poor pupils. On this point Frederick, and Others [4] direct attention to an unpublished study by Kingsley which showed that "in terms of theoretical ability, pupils of less than average intelligence were working up to 80 per cent of their capacity, whereas pupils in the upper ranges of intelligence were accomplishing in terms of subject mastery as measured by standard tests only to the extent of 40 per cent of expected capacity." If this condition is generally true, it appears that one of the teacher's major study problems is to develop such study habits among superior pupils as will prevent them from developing habits of careless and indifferent effort. Of course, the teacher also

[4] By permission, from *Directing Learning* by Robert W. Frederick, and Others, copyright 1938, Appleton-Century-Crofts, pp. 133–34.

has to devote some of his attention to the less able pupils, few of whom probably ever work up to 80 per cent of their learning capacity. Thus it appears that application to study becomes, like many other pupil problems, one in which the teacher has to deal with each individual according to his various needs and abilities.

The teacher should help the pupil develop the habit of analyzing learning material. Only by thinking about the content or by considering it from various viewpoints is it possible for him to develop habits of independent thinking. The pupil who experiences the satisfaction of drawing his own conclusions after he has studied various facts or evidence usually finds the experience stimulating. Furthermore, he comes to rely upon his own ability to make independent judgments. He also builds up confidence in his ability to meet new problems. The teacher can help the pupil gain experience in developing his ability to reason about this material by setting up learning activities involving the process of reasoning. But in doing this, he should always respect the pupil's judgments and opinions, even though there are times when they are not in agreement with his own.

Adults differ widely in their reaction to problem situations. Some spend their time waiting to be told what to do. Others quickly sense the needs that must be met and proceed to work out a solution. Adolescents are no different from this. Some carry out only the minimum instructions which the teacher gives them. Others are alert to the needs that are present and apply themselves accordingly. The boy or girl who can assume responsibility for appropriate action whenever the occasion demands has indeed acquired a valuable asset with which to enter adulthood. The teacher can help that person develop ability in such areas by making it possible for him to meet situations with confidence and self-assurance. In the first place, the pupil has to be given the opportunity to work out his own solutions. Secondly, he must know that the teacher has confidence in his ability to do the work. For example, the pupil who has never been a committee chairman may not believe that he has the ability to lead a group. Yet if the teacher can only get him started to work by pointing out possible ways of proceeding, he may do quite well. His problem may be largely one of discovering a way to begin his assignment. Adolescents are often very willing to accept responsibilities of even a difficult nature, if only at the start they are convinced that their efforts will be appreciated and respected.

The amount of progress which the pupil makes is definitely influenced by his study habits. As the teacher works with his classes, he should be conscious of the formation of these habits. He may, for example, find a pupil who has difficulty in concentrating on what he is doing. Furthermore, the amount of time which a pupil supposedly devotes to his work sometimes bears little relationship to the achievement which he makes.

The story is told of the mother who was discussing her two boys with one of their teachers at a PTA meeting. Because their work was generally unsatisfactory, the teacher inquired about the manner in which they did their homework. The mother assured him that they applied themselves regularly to their work each evening; in fact, she added, she saw to it that they did their studying. Still somewhat puzzled the teacher inquired as to her procedure for doing this. Without hesitation she replied, "I send them to their room at seven-thirty every evening and don't let them out until nine o'clock."

No doubt the mother believed that by following such a practice she was fulfilling her parental obligation and helping the boys develop satisfactory study habits. If they were unable to do satisfactory work after being closeted in their room for an hour and a half, she was quite confident that it was no fault of hers.

In schools where pupils receive home assignments, the teacher should not overlook the difficult conditions under which some of them have to work. Crowded homes and apartments, in some cases, provide little opportunity for a boy or girl to study without being disturbed. Therefore, the teacher should encourage such individuals to use school facilities to full advantage. Possibly they can not always complete all of their work in the class or during study periods at school, but they can often do a considerable part of it.

There are differences of opinion regarding the necessity for home study by pupils. Regardless of his viewpoint on this matter, the teacher cannot avoid the responsibility of dealing fairly with each of his pupils on the preparation of assigned material. Wherever the result of such preparation is unsatisfactory, the teacher should try to get at the cause immediately. If home conditions are to blame, it may be possible for the teacher and pupil to work out at school a solution that will lead to improved effort and improved results. The teacher's sympathetic attention to these problems will often go a long way toward bringing about a favorable solution.

Developing satisfactory ability in oral and written expression. The adolescent normally possesses reasonable proficiency in speaking and writing when he enters high school. However, there are pupils who are quite deficient in these skills. It is almost impossible for them to progress satisfactorily in certain subject areas if they are suffering from these handicaps.

The teacher should realize that a deficiency in self-expression probably affects the pupil's work in other areas as well as in the one he is teaching. For that reason, he should call such a case to the attention of the staff member who counsels or works with individuals of this type. Many high schools have a testing program which tries to discover these persons so that they can be given remedial work during the first year of attendance. Schools without such facilities usually expect the teacher to help the pupil as best he can. This is not a desirable arrangement. In the first place, the average teacher is seldom trained to do such work. In addition, he seldom has time for such remedial work. Yet he can, at least, be sympathetic to the adolescent's problem and offer him such suggestions as he is able to make. If these do nothing more, they may prevent the pupil from feeling that his case is completely hopeless. In extreme cases, there is considerable probability that such a boy or girl will feel motivated to withdraw from school. Such a move is sometimes unfortunate, for that pupil may be the very one who is much in need of the socializing experiences that can be obtained only in a school environment.

Since every individual has need for the ability to express himself well in an oral and written manner, it appears that there should be a coordinated effort on the part of all teachers to help the weak pupil improve his ability in the use of these skills up to at least a certain acceptable standard. But improvements of this type are usually slow. As a result, the teacher should exercise patience in helping him. He should make the pupil feel that the objective is both desirable and attainable. On the other hand, the teacher who permits a pupil to be careless with his forms of expression often undoes the work of other staff members who are working to help him improve these skills. The teacher should set standards of expression in the classroom but these should not be so high as to cause the pupil to feel frustrated because they appear unattainable to him. The teacher should recognize a pupil's improvement in expression even if it is of only a limited nature. Such action may encourage the pu-

pil toward even greater effort. Above all, if there is to be improvement, the pupil has to accept the social values that result from his ability to express himself well among his associates.

Developing ability to outline and organize material. Pupils sometimes find it impossible to do the quality of work expected of them because they have not acquired certain of the skills essential for the mastery of a particular type of subject matter. Among these skills are those that deal with the outlining and organizing of content material.

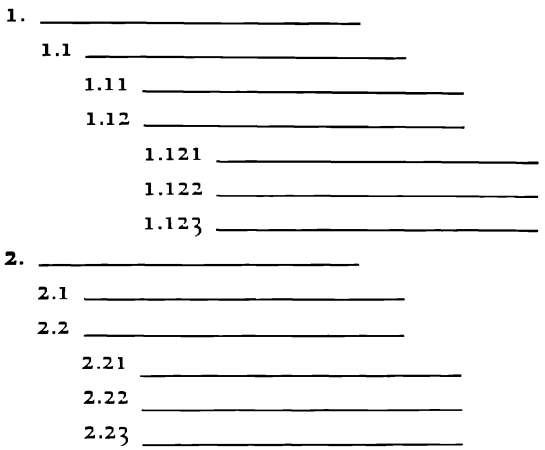
Whenever the pupil possesses the ability to outline, it is possible for him not only to select important points from oral or written material but to organize these points in a clear and specific manner. Thus they become available for future study and reference. The outlining of such material can in itself be a worth-while learning experience; it helps the pupil fix his attention on major points. It helps him recognize relationships which he might otherwise overlook. Furthermore, the process also tends to fix the content in the pupil's mind, thereby furthering retention.

The teacher should help the pupil develop effective outlining procedures. The forms which an outline takes will, in part, be determined by the purposes which it is to serve. The pupil can use topical outlines for a variety of situations. They are appropriate for outlining reading materials, as well as for covering essential points of a lecture or report.

As the pupil learns to develop an outline, he should, of course, be taught the use of the symbols that indicate desired relationships. These include the use of Roman and Arabic numerals along with the letters of the alphabet. One form commonly used is as follows:

I. _____
  A. _____
  B. _____
II. _____
  A. _____
    1. _____
    2. _____
  B. _____

Recently writers have tended to use a system involving only Arabic numerals and decimal points. It can be extended indefinitely as the following example indicates:



The use of a system of outlining provides the learner with a means for organizing his material. However, if he develops it improperly, he may establish false relationships in his mind. Therefore, it is very necessary that he use extreme care in setting it up. Unless it is accurate, it may interfere rather than aid in his learning.

The ability to outline reading material is of considerable value to pupils. Through its use they improve their ability to seek out leading ideas in topics and paragraphs. They also learn how to concentrate on content material. Along with this, they develop the ability to recast material into words which point out relationships. The activity should help them to understand more clearly what the author is attempting to present. However, like all good things, outlining can be overdone. It is time consuming and as an activity can become exhausting. Pupils sometimes come to dislike the practice if it is repeated too frequently. Unfortunately, some teachers have a tendency to use it as a crutch when they are not prepared to teach. At such a time they find it convenient to ask the class to outline the assigned material while they take time to scan through it quickly. Pupils are seldom fooled by such a practice and, as a result, sometimes develop a dislike for the teacher as well as the activity. Examples of outlining appear in the unit plans included in the appendix of this text.

Summarizing is a process closely related to outlining. If there is a difference, it is largely a matter of form. A summary may or may not be in outline form. Whenever pupils have occasion to give reports on arti-

cles or books, they will find it helpful to develop summaries in outline form. They can also use the device for taking classroom notes.

The teacher should always recognize the place of individual differences as they relate to the development of the pupil's ability to outline and summarize. Some pupils find it necessary to make detailed forms if outlines are to be of help to them. Others require only brief forms. The teacher should respect these differences and help each pupil develop the type which best suits his needs.

Pupil needs for handling material differ widely even within a single class. One pupil has to make detailed notes for further study, while another does not. One has a ready ability to recognize the background that goes with the material to be learned. This aids him in its recall. This pupil is probably also capable of understanding the material itself and, for that reason, actually has little occasion to memorize his notes. On the other hand, the less able pupil requires more time than does the more able pupil to analyze the content before he is able to comprehend it fully. Thus he has to prepare notes in detail so that he will have them available for later examination and study. The teacher can be of definite assistance to a pupil of this type by teaching him how to organize class materials in such a way that relationships are obvious. It will help if he gives special emphasis to significant points. Furthermore, he can take special pains to eliminate all irrelevant or unimportant material. The latter often serves to do little more than confuse the less able pupil. Above all, the teacher can avoid having his pupils work with materials which have little meaning for them.

Use of effective remedial procedures. Whenever the teacher discovers that his work is not as effective as it should be, he is confronted with the task of determining the causes and of remedying them. The causes may lie with the teacher, with the school, with the home, with the pupil, or with a combination of these or other factors.

It is quite common for the teacher to evaluate the pupil's work according to the responses which he makes. The pupil is usually enrolled in classes taught by more than one teacher. Therefore, whenever several or all of these teachers indicate that he is not making satisfactory progress in his work or in his social adjustments, they have reason to assume that the problem is a general one. In such cases, it is usually desirable for the staff members concerned to work together toward its solution. By doing so, they may not only avoid duplication of effort but may also in-

crease their chances of success. However, if the problem is localized in a single classroom, the fault probably lies with either the teacher, the pupil, or both.

The teacher is seldom in a position to analyze a pupil's learning difficulties adequately until he has been able to obtain certain background information about that pupil. In this information should be data concerning his general ability, his aptitudes, his interests, and his attitudes. In the situation where the problem is confined to only one classroom or teacher, there is always the possibility that the fault lies with the teacher. Some teachers always seem to have more problem cases than others. These cases frequently take the form of personality clashes. Whenever such clashes occur, they almost always destroy the effectiveness of the learning environment. The teacher who suffers from more than the normal number of such disturbances may do well to analyze his own personality to see whether the cause may not lie within himself. If it does, he should work toward making such changes as will lead to improvement in his personal relationships.

The chances of discovering and diagnosing a pupil's learning difficulty successfully are usually much greater if the pupil himself is desirous of eliminating the difficulty. With such an attitude, it is highly probable that he will cooperate with the teacher in the remedial efforts that the latter wishes to undertake. But whenever such an attitude does not exist, it may be necessary for the teacher to work slowly until he gains the pupil's confidence by discussing, for example, topics of special interest to him. With such a start, he may then be able to move into a discussion of the personal problems that require attention.

Even the inexperienced teacher sometimes has little difficulty in recognizing the causes that are back of a pupil's learning difficulties. He sees such traits as inattentiveness, lack of concentration, and emotional instability. Any one of these can be detrimental to learning. Yet before he makes judgment on a particular case, the teacher should first have evidence available to indicate whether the pupil is capable of doing the type of work expected in the course. If he is, then steps can be taken toward applying remedial measures with the assurance that it is at least possible that the pupil can succeed.

As was mentioned before, whenever the adolescent discovers that the teacher is sincerely interested in his welfare, he is often willing to reveal such causes of personal problems as are evident to himself. With such

information at hand, it is often possible for the teacher to work toward a satisfactory solution of the case. Pupil difficulties in subject areas are sometimes revealed by means of diagnostic tests. However, the pupil may be reluctant to take such tests until he understands that their purpose is to help him improve his work. It is possible also for such tests to reveal whether the instructional techniques which the teacher is using are of the appropriate type to help the pupil. As the teacher gains experience, he gradually comes to recognize the type of problems associated with his subject area. There are times when he can anticipate these difficulties and can make explanations in his assignments or discussions which will help to prevent them from arising.

Conditions that develop out of the pupil's home and his social environment sometimes have a considerable effect upon his work in the classroom. They may definitely condition his attitude toward his school environment. Because of their complexity, there is no simple formula by which the teacher can be assured of solving them. Yet he can at least try to broaden his own understanding of human nature to the point where he will be able to make an intelligent attempt to bring about a solution of the problems. Even the experienced teacher does not always have a background broad enough to meet all such situations adequately. Yet he does what he thinks is best and hopes that it will be successful. If it fails, he makes a further diagnosis and tries again.

Questioning Can Serve as an Aid to Learning

Every adult is familiar with the round of questions which a child can raise if the opportunity presents itself. Since the child is an eager learner, he soon discovers the value of questions as a means of acquiring information. Of course, he may also enjoy asking questions because of the attention which he receives during the process. But whatever his reasons may be, this activity represents an interesting phase in his early life. As he grows older, however, and comes into school, he gradually seems to outgrow the questioning stage. By the time he reaches college, he may do even less questioning than he did in high school. Yet in almost any learning situation, intelligent questioning can become a challenging and stimulating activity to teacher and pupil alike.

Purpose of questioning. The above paragraph describes two of the purposes for which questioning may be used. In the one instance, the

questioner is wanting to gain information; in the other, the questioner is determining whether the learner is in possession of certain information. Teachers have long used questioning as a means for testing pupil preparation; possibly less often they have used it as an instructional device. A third purpose of questioning deals with the development of the pupil's ability to do reflective thinking. The teacher can easily become so absorbed in using questioning for other purposes that he overlooks the development of this ability.

It is usually an indication that the pupil has acquired a favorable attitude for learning whenever he becomes interested and curious about the material with which he is working. In such a condition he is usually ready to ask questions. He may direct these questions toward the teacher, or he may direct them to himself. In the latter instance he, of course, supplies his own answers through study and research. In either case, he continues to grow intellectually, motivated largely by his own curiosity.

There are times when it is very necessary that the teacher determine whether the pupil possesses certain skills or background information. This is especially the case at the beginning of a course or at the introduction of a new unit. As soon as he has obtained this information, the teacher is in a position to make plans which will avoid gaps and repetitions in the work ahead. The teacher of science, for example, may want to introduce a unit on conservation. It is possible that pupils from rural areas are already familiar with much of the content which he plans to include in such a course. To determine this, he gives an exploratory test. At the same time the questions used in the test may arouse the curiosity of the pupils in the work ahead. Thus the teacher may be able to achieve a dual purpose by administering such a test.

Mention has already been made of the teacher's use of the question for checking to see whether the pupil has prepared his work. It is obvious that this is an evaluating device, but some teachers also regard it as a motivating device.

The manner in which the teacher uses questions to gain such information may, in some cases, be anything but a stimulating activity. The following example from a history assignment may serve to illustrate this:

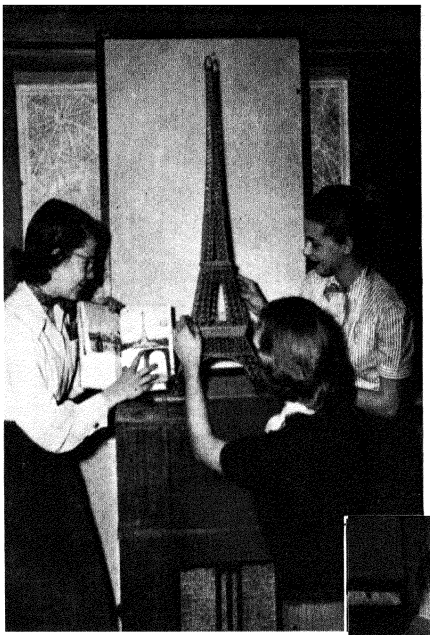
Teacher: Who discovered the New World?
Pupil: Columbus.
Teacher: What was he trying to find?



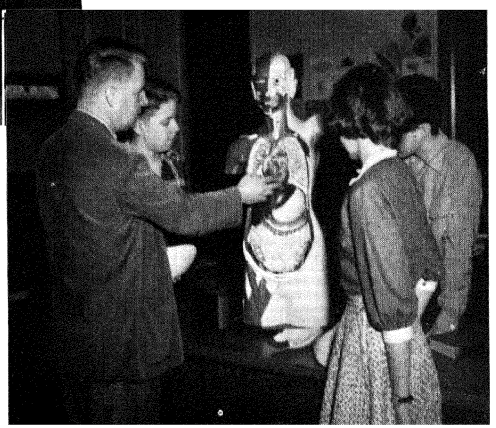
Before using them the student teacher should check his plans with the cooperating teacher as these two students are doing.



Pupils usually enjoy working on activities. These girls are making preparation for a Latin Club banquet.



Some pupils enjoy the development of manual skills in connection with class-work.



Visual aids make learning easier for most pupils but they are of special help to the slow learner.



Pupils should use study and laboratory periods to advantage. These pupils are working with French recordings.

Pupil: A new trade route to the East Indies.
Teacher: Why did he sail westward?
Pupil: He thought he could find a route which would be both safe and direct.
Teacher: From whom did he get financial aid for the trip?
Pupil: The King and Queen of Spain.
Teacher: Where did he make his first landing?
Pupil: On an island off the West Indies group.
Teacher: What name did he give to this island?
Pupil: San Salvador.
Teacher: How many trips did Columbus make to the New World?
Pupil: Three.

The teacher can extend such a series of questions until he has exhausted all possible angles of the work or until the class period is over. It is obvious that most questions of this type require factual or memory answers. The pupil supplies them by the simple process of recall. He either knows them or he does not. To a limited extent, the teacher can use questions of this type to help clear up doubtful points of information.

It is obvious that this type of question provides little challenge to the pupil other than to test his ability to recall factual information. Of course, to some extent it may help to clarify and strengthen the knowledge which he has previously acquired. In this respect, it meets the needs of certain pupils, especially those who have difficulty with retention.

But questioning should also contribute to the intellectual growth of the individual. Thought questions especially can help to establish understandings and relationships by requiring the pupil to do reflective thinking as he attempts to answer them. They should motivate him to seek for new knowledge and new information and, at the same time, develop his ability to form intelligent opinions and judgments. The teacher can sometimes make questions of this type the basis for discussions in socialized recitations.

The following examples may serve to point out how such questions differ from the simple recall type illustrated above:

TEACHER: 1. **What factors led Columbus to conclude that he could reach the East Indies by sailing westward? Concerning what points was his judgment incorrect?**

2. What arguments might Columbus have used to convince the King and Queen of Spain that his project was financially sound? (It might be a worth-while experience for the class to have various pupils assume the roles of the three individuals mentioned here and follow through with a conversation similar to that which they might have held at the Spanish court.)
3. What factors would a projected rocket trip to the moon today have in common with Columbus' plan to reach the East Indies by sailing westward? Compare the personal qualifications of the crew of such a rocket ship with that of the crew which accompanied Columbus on his initial voyage.

The use of thought questions in the classroom can be a fascinating activity for both the teacher and the pupil. There is almost no limit to its possibilities. However, its effective use requires careful planning or the class period may deteriorate into a general discussion period of little value to anyone. Thought questions should be pertinent to the subject under discussion and also of a type appropriate for the ability level of the pupil concerned. Both teacher and pupil should realize that although such activities involve good training experiences, upon the pupil still rests the responsibility for acquiring the information necessary for carrying them on in an effective manner. Therefore, he should learn to make intelligent use of resource facilities. By means of questions, the teacher can guide and direct him in the learning process, but the actual learning has to be done by the pupil himself.

Purpose determines type of question used. Effective questioning depends a great deal upon the teacher's ability to adapt questions to the needs of the pupils. If he wishes to keep his questions within the pupils' range of comprehension, he has to think not only of them, but also of the nature of the subject material. He has to maintain a definite balance between the two.

The teacher should always state the question so that its meaning is clear to the pupil. It should not contain words which are ambiguous or which are beyond the pupil's range of experience. The teacher should also make the question concise. If its scope is too great, the pupil usually finds himself confused and is unable to answer adequately. Such a question as, "In what way did Benjamin Franklin contribute to the success of the American Colonies' struggle for freedom?" is so all-inclusive that the pupil can scarcely answer it in a limited statement. However, if the teacher restricts the question to a certain phase of Franklin's life—

for example, his work at the French Court—the intent becomes more specific. This is all the more necessary if the question is being given orally. Of course, if the teacher presents it in written form, the pupil has more opportunity to organize his reply; in that case he at least does not have to try to remember a certain phase of the question while he is attempting to answer another.

The teacher should avoid the use of pointless questions. He may ask them when he has not thought the material through very clearly for himself. The pupil, for example, has little opportunity to give a satisfactory answer to such a question as "What about Franklin's relationship to the success of the American Colonies?" Along with this objectionable type of question, is the one in which the teacher asks a question that is so long and so wordy that the pupil cannot follow what the teacher has in mind. This type often indicates poor thinking or poor preparation on the part of the teacher. In order to answer it, the pupil may have to give several different responses. Such a question as the following is an example: "Why did Benjamin Franklin go to France, and how was he received at the French Court?" The two parts often tend to cause confusion in the mind of the pupil; he begins answering one part while, at the same time, he is attempting to remember the other. As a result, he may give an answer that is vague and unacceptable. However, if the teacher breaks the whole question into two parts, each part becomes a distinct question worthy of a definite and specific answer.

It is generally desirable for the teacher to word questions so that the pupil's answers contribute to the work of the class. For example, questions in which the answers are implied are seldom very constructive. There is little mental stimulation when the teacher asks "Didn't Franklin contribute to the success of the American Colonies?" It is also well for the teacher to avoid asking questions that permit or even encourage a secondary response. Such a question as "Wouldn't you like to tell the class about Franklin's effort to secure financial aid from France?" gives the pupil the option of answering "No," and of being absolutely honest and correct with his answer. Few teachers permit themselves to fall into such a trap more than once. Yet a similar possibility appears in such a question as "What do you know about Franklin's efforts to secure financial aid from France?"

The wording of the question can do much to stimulate thinking on the topic which the class is discussing. Whenever the teacher presents a question such as "What international relationships made it extremely

difficult for Franklin to obtain financial aid from the French Court?" he is challenging the class to examine certain aspects of the complexity of the social and political life of the Revolutionary period. This provides pupils with the opportunity of exchanging viewpoints as well as of supplying information. Many teachers prepare a series of lead or pivotal questions before they begin the class period. They plan to have their questions cover the major aspects of the work for the day. There may be times, of course, when the class itself will carry the discussion along until all topics have been covered. Whenever this happens, the teacher will naturally have little or no need to use his prepared questions. However, they still probably serve as a guide for him throughout the period. There are also times when such questions can serve as a core around which the teacher can build minor questions.

Techniques of effective questioning. As has been mentioned previously, the type of questions which the teacher asks should be determined largely by the type of individuals who are being questioned. The teacher should always feel free to employ a wide range of techniques in order to draw out desired responses from individual pupils. Of all techniques used for such purposes, probably none is more common than questioning. Yet the teacher should consider it as a means to an end rather than as an end in itself. Successful questioning is an art which cannot be governed entirely by an established set of rules. Yet there are certain practices which the teacher can follow with some assurance of success in the activity. It may be well to examine some of these.

It is usually best to direct the question to the entire class before the teacher calls upon an individual to respond. This action presumes that each pupil will try to frame an answer. Thus each has an opportunity to participate in a learning experience. However, there may be times when the teacher wants to gain the attention of a particular pupil before he asks the question. Under such conditions he may reverse the order and give the pupil's name first. Such a practice is often followed whenever the pupil appears to be inattentive. The teacher realizes that he is only wasting time when he calls upon a pupil who is not in a condition to supply the answer. Therefore, he hopes to get the pupil's attention first and then ask the question. However, if this is done repeatedly, it may encourage rather than discourage inattentiveness on the part of the pupil. The latter comes to depend upon the teacher to use this procedure and, as a result, becomes even less attentive.

It is sometimes difficult for the teacher to determine how long he should wait for a pupil to answer the question which has been given. Some pupils think slowly and need time to formulate answers. However, it is doubtful if the teacher should wait too long for an answer. If he does so, there is always danger that he will lose the attention of the remainder of the class.

The teacher should give each pupil an opportunity to answer some of the questions being asked. However, there may be good reasons for his giving some pupils more questions than he gives others. Here again the teacher has to recognize individual needs and abilities. Whenever the weak pupil is consistently unable to answer the questions directed to him, the progress of the entire class is slowed up considerably. Experienced teachers usually try to avoid this situation by adapting the difficulty of the question to the ability level of the pupil. Such a practice is also intended to make it possible for each member of the class to experience the satisfaction of giving an acceptable answer at least part of the time. However, teachers who do this should not overlook the fact that even slow pupils must be required to meet certain standards of achievement, if they are to be given credit for the course in which they are enrolled.

It is a rather common practice for pupils to indicate their desire to answer questions by raising their hands. However, the teacher should not let this affect him unduly, in his distribution of questions. He should feel free to call upon those who have not responded previously. He should teach pupils to respect his right to make such selections even though they themselves may have wanted to answer the particular question. Wild hand waving to attract the teacher's attention is usually undesirable. In most instances, it shows a lack of courtesy and respect toward other members of the class as well as toward the teacher. In addition, it is often distracting to certain members of the class.

Most teachers follow the practice of calling upon pupils without regard to seating arrangements. If the teacher follows an obvious plan, he may cause the pupil who is next in line to give his attention to the material which is still to be covered rather than to that which is under discussion. Such a practice may also cause a pupil to prepare only that part of the assignment which he believes will come to him.

Pupils sometimes request that the teacher repeat the questions being asked. It is usually undesirable to comply with this request unless

there has been a particular reason, other than inattentiveness, why the pupil did not hear the question. If the pupil has been inattentive, it will seldom help him to have the question repeated; instead, it may only result in making his inattentiveness habitual. Of course, the teacher should always give consideration to the pupil who may not be able to understand because of outside noises or because of a hearing defect. In the latter case, a change in seating may be helpful if the handicap is not too serious. Some teachers develop the habit of repeating answers. This, too, is usually a questionable practice. Only when there is need for special emphasis should the teacher repeat the pupil's reply. Otherwise, the class will be tempted not to listen to what the pupil has to say; they will find it more convenient to wait for the teacher's repetition.

The teacher is frequently confronted with an answer which is partly right and partly wrong. If at all possible, he should try to analyze the reply and give credit for the part that is acceptable. This practice not only encourages the pupil, but also provides him with opportunity for making desired corrections. A flat refusal to accept such an answer may cause the pupil to withhold further efforts. Of course, an offered answer should always provide evidence of real effort before the teacher accepts it. Here again the teacher has to understand what is best for the pupil. There are times when he should offer encouragement, and there are times when he should be firm in refusing to accept a pupil's indifferent effort.

The teacher can often determine the effectiveness of his questioning technique by observing how readily his pupils participate in the process of answering. Poor questions usually lead to poor and indifferent responses. The teacher almost always has to do some experimenting with a new group of pupils until he has found the techniques which are effective with that group. Then he has to adapt these so that they will help to achieve the purposes of the course.

Pupil questions. Learning experiences which are truly stimulating can arouse interest to the point where even the usually quiet pupil begins asking questions. The teacher should always give consideration to all appropriate questions which indicate a sincerity of purpose. However, lack of time may not always make it possible for him to deal fully with all of them. When such an occasion arises, he should make certain that the pupil does not leave class with the impression that the teacher is brushing aside his questions in a thoughtless or indifferent manner.

It is not always easy for the teacher to determine whether the pupil has a sincere purpose in asking a question. He sometimes resorts to the practice of asking questions as a means of pretending interest or of "killing time" so that he will not have to participate in an undesirable learning activity. A situation of this kind sometimes arises just before he is to take part in a quiz or a test. The teacher should meet such a situation firmly, yet pleasantly. Should his pupils gain a delay or postponement of the test by means of such tactics, they will probably be tempted to stage a repeat performance at a later date.

The teacher can sometimes refer a sincere, although irrelevant, question back to the pupil who asked it with a suggestion as to where he can find the answer. By so doing, he does not humiliate the questioner if the question has been asked in good faith. On the other hand, the teacher should definitely discourage pupils from asking ridiculous or unimportant questions. The pupil's attitude toward the teacher is often revealed by the type of questions which he asks. If he has respect for the teacher, he seldom resorts to asking inane questions; if he dislikes the teacher, there is no limit on how far he may go in trying to embarrass him by this practice.

The teacher may treat a pupil's questions in a number of ways. He may refer them back to other members of the class for answer or discussion purposes. Some teachers even encourage their pupils to ask each other questions directly. If they do this in a courteous manner, it can result in a socialized recitation where pupils contribute not only questions and answers, but also ideas and viewpoints.

There are times, of course, when the teacher believes that he should answer pupil questions himself. He may feel the need for clarifying certain points which the pupils have not understood clearly. Or he may believe that the question is not important enough to warrant an open discussion. There may be occasions, also, when he senses the desirability of referring pupils' questions to the entire class, along with suggestions as to where the desired information can be found. This practice has the advantage of helping the pupil to become self-reliant. Furthermore, he is less inclined to ask foolish questions if the teacher follows such a procedure occasionally. But regardless of the manner in which the question is answered, the pupil has a right to expect that it will receive the consideration which it deserves.

At some time or other every teacher will have the experience of be-

ing asked a question to which he does not know the answer. Even after he has had years of experience, he can still expect this to happen. Pupils generally do not lose respect for the teacher who admits frankly that he does not know how to reply to a particular question. In fact, such an admission, when given without unnecessary apology, sometimes brings pupils and teacher together on a basis of common understanding. Pupils recognize that the teacher is merely a human being who does not know everything. Bluffing, under such circumstances, is definitely inexcusable. It usually does little more than motivate the pupils to seek for new ways of placing the teacher on trial. One thing is certain; it seldom fools them very long.

The teacher should help his pupils recognize that there is practically no limit to the amount of information available in a subject field. Of course, the teacher himself should have adequate preparation to meet the general needs which arise in the classroom. But there are always unusual questions which pupils can ask and for which his inability to answer scarcely needs an apology. In such a situation some teachers suggest that the pupil try to find the information. Meanwhile they seek out the answer for themselves. But if this practice is repeated frequently, the pupils soon become suspicious of the delay in answering. Many successful teachers do not hesitate to meet such a situation by acknowledging that they do not know the answer. Then they proceed to work with the pupils in obtaining the desired information.

The writer recalls how such an incident was handled in a German class where food was the topic of discussion. On this occasion one boy raised his hand and asked eagerly, "What is the German word for peanut?" The teacher hesitated a moment before he replied, "I haven't the faintest idea." Then he asked, "Do you suppose the Germans eat peanuts? Possibly they have little need for the word." Immediately the questioner turned to one of the German dictionaries available in the classroom. It took but a moment for him to come up with the answer. There was such a word. The teacher made no apology as he commented, "Well, at least now I know how to ask for peanuts in German."

Every teacher should work diligently to extend his fund of knowledge in his own as well as in other subject areas. Pupils respect the teacher who has a background of general information from which to draw when the occasion demands. But they have no less respect for him when he gives evidence of modesty and humility in its use.

The Assignment Is a Guide for Pupil Action

The teacher can easily overlook the value of the assignment to the pupil's learning experience. Since it sometimes appears as an interruption to the work of the day, the teacher may be tempted to dispose of it in a short, perfunctory manner. Yet he can scarcely expect the class to give it the consideration which it deserves if he himself treats it lightly. He should realize that there are many interests which are continually competing for the adolescent's time and attention. Those that appear most important to him naturally gain most of his time and attention. The assignment should impress the pupil as something worth while, not something which he has to do to satisfy the demands of the teacher.

Purpose and functions of the assignment. The assignment provides the working plan whereby the pupil is guided into and through appropriate learning experiences. It is also the link that connects the pupil's previous classroom experiences with those that lie ahead. In general, the assignment should be the means of integrating material rather than of dividing it up into segments. It should provide opportunity for the recognition of relationships. Even though an assignment may appear to have many good features, the real test of its effectiveness lies in the results which it achieves. Through its use the teacher governs the movement of the class toward the objectives ahead. In it he indicates the type of material to be used and procedures by which pupil needs are to be met.

As the teacher makes a new assignment to his class, he has to consider the level of achievement which various members of the group have attained up to that time. For example, the geometry teacher plans to introduce a new theorem to his class on a particular day. However, he discovers that some of his pupils do not as yet have an understanding of the work previously covered. Therefore, he reorganizes the assignment in order to provide experiences which will bring about this understanding.

Beyond guiding the pupil to his goals, the assignment should develop within him the desire to reach those goals. This, of course, involves motivation. It is not often that all of the pupils in a class respond equally well to a particular motivating device. For this reason, the teacher may find it necessary, when making an assignment, to appeal to several of the drives which are found in human nature. Some of these drives do not

become active until such a time as new experiences have brought them into play. For example, poor students often find certain advanced classwork dull and uninteresting. The work bears little or no relationship to their past experience and thus has little meaning for them. But if the teacher individualizes the material, it is sometimes possible for these pupils to achieve a limited degree of success for the first time in the course. Such success can have a wholesome influence upon their attitude toward the work in which they are engaged as well as toward the teacher who is directing it. Furthermore, it can even help bring them somewhat nearer the level of achievement of which they are capable in the course.

Types of assignments. The type of assignment which the teacher plans to use is determined to a considerable extent by the material with which it deals. As pupils begin subjects such as French or chemistry, in which there are numerous unfamiliar factors, the teacher should make certain that these are understood fully as he presents the assignment. For example, the French teacher should use foreign words in his assignment only when his pupils are able to comprehend their meaning. Likewise, the chemistry teacher should make certain that the class understands the formulas which he includes in his assignment sufficiently well enough for them to proceed with the preparation. Understanding is a necessary prerequisite to the successful preparation of assigned materials in any subject field.

Assignments may be classified into types according to purpose. Among the ones which the teacher commonly uses are those built around either a chapter, topic, page or paragraph, problem, project, exercise, report, or unit. It is probably of little concern to the user that the differences between the types are not always clear and distinct. Yet this lack of demarcation seldom interferes with their functional purposes. Since it is the teacher's responsibility to present his assignment in an appropriate manner, it is necessary that he select with care the type of assignment which he intends to use. It is quite possible that he may want to use a combination of types in order to achieve a particular purpose. The assignment is, after all, only one of the means by which he hopes to achieve such a purpose.

Presenting the assignment. Pupils cannot, of course, begin their preparation of an assignment until after it has been presented by the teacher. This is a truism which most teachers would probably accept

without question; yet some of them proceed at times as though they were unaware of the fact. They wait until the bell rings to signal the close of the class period and then shout the assignment to their pupils as the latter are leaving the room. In some instances, they even try to keep the members of the class at their desks until they have taken time to brief them on what they are to do. In either case, the pupils are anxious to be on their way to their next classes. They have little patience to wait for such belated instructions. The indifferent preparation that usually follows such a practice indicates readily enough why it is undesirable. It is true, the successful teacher seldom has at his disposal as much class time as he would like to have; yet he knows that he can use part of this time to no better advantage than to make a clear-cut, definite assignment. Therefore, he makes definite provision for presenting it before the end of the class hour.

The long unit, or long-term assignment, usually makes it possible for the pupil to budget his study time fairly well. It reduces the heavy load that too often falls upon a particular day. Of course, where the class participates in a supervised study program, the teacher naturally has to spread the work rather evenly from day to day. This generally makes it possible for the pupils to meet most assignment requirements without undue difficulty.

The best time during the class period for the teacher to present the assignment has to be determined by the needs of the occasion. It may be when the pupils have completed their assigned work and are ready to begin working with new material. At such a time, it is usually easy for the teacher to link old experiences with new experiences. This practice also tends to eliminate interruptions. Furthermore, it comes at a time when new aspects of the classwork are attracting the pupil's attention. Thus the teacher can introduce new problems and present them as a challenge to the class. With careful planning it may be possible for him to incorporate into his immediate work such leads as will show the pupils the need for dealing with the assigned work. For example, in a foreign language, it may involve an expression or grammatical form needed to complete an idea. In science, it may be the aspects of an experiment used to demonstrate the application of a certain basic law or principle. Whatever it is, the pupil should be in a position to recognize its importance. With such an understanding, he may be quite willing to accept the assignment as part of a desirable learning activity.

There are times when the teacher may prefer giving the assignment at the beginning of the class period. This practice has certain advantages also. It avoids interruptions later in the period, and also assures both teacher and pupils that it will not be given after the closing bell rings.

The teacher has to determine the length of time needed for making the assignment by considering the nature of the assignment itself. It may be necessary for him to use most or all of the period if it involves the presentation of new materials or new skills. Above all, he should make certain that the pupils understand what they are to do before they leave the classroom. In addition, he may wish to provide them with the opportunity of working on the material itself. Such a step makes it possible for him to determine whether they understand what they are to do. Furthermore, it gives him a chance to examine the work of the weaker pupils in time to give them needed help. These are the individuals who usually have trouble with newly assigned material anyway. Therefore, the help which he can give at this time may go a long way toward making it possible for them to complete the entire assignment in a satisfactory manner.

Teachers do not always follow up on the assignments which they make. They become careless or forgetful and are sometimes unable to recall exactly what the assignment included. As a result, they may ask for material which the pupils did not prepare and ignore that which they had assigned. Such a situation can readily lead to pupil resentment toward the teacher and, if repeated frequently, may cause pupils to become irresponsible in carrying out much of their assigned work. They may even come to look upon their assignments as busywork rather than exercises designed to promote learning experiences.

Whenever the teacher introduces new material, it may be well for him to indicate the basis on which it is to be evaluated. By this means he can guide the pupil in his preparation of it. Under no condition should the teacher change this evaluation basis without informing the pupil. The latter usually regards the teacher's evaluation of prepared work as a serious responsibility. If the teacher makes light of it or treats it indifferently, the importance which it may have had for him may very easily be lost.

The time which the teacher spends in making clear and definite assignments is usually good economy. If he makes them too brief, he may find it necessary to spend considerable time making clarifications later.

Furthermore, the amount of time which he has to devote to correcting assigned material is often much greater when the assignment is lacking in clarity. Vague assignments may also lead to confused answers. It takes considerable effort and time to correct work of this type. For that reason, clear, concise assignments not only reduce the amount of time necessary for correcting work, but they also usually make it possible for the pupil to improve the caliber of work which he is doing.

Characteristics of a good assignment. Since the assignment is a major guide to the pupil's learning activity, it should indicate what he is to do and how he is to do it. If his previous experience has not made clear the reason for his doing the new work, then that reason should be incorporated as a part of the assignment. In a routine assignment the teacher may assume that his pupils are familiar with techniques to be used in preparing their work. However, there are almost always certain variations which may easily confuse them. They should be able to recognize the value of the work they are to do before they begin doing it. If possible, it should include new learning experiences of a challenging nature for each pupil in the class. If it does this, it will usually be serving a major educational purpose.

The pupil should be acquainted with the procedures by which he can complete the assignment. It is the teacher's responsibility to clarify these procedures to the extent that the pupil can put them to actual use. For example, terminology which the teacher uses should not include words whose meanings are ambiguous or confusing to the pupil. Since some of the terms associated with the subject have technical meanings, it is not always a simple matter for the teacher to explain these in a short period of time. On the other hand, in his attempts to clarify such points, the beginning teacher may find himself indulging in long, involved explanations. He may include irrelevant material which may serve more to confuse the pupil than to clarify the intended meaning for him.

The amount of detailed material that pupils can comprehend at any one time is seldom large. For that reason, the teacher should select for presentation in an assignment only such items as are absolutely essential for that lesson. By such a procedure he makes possible a gradual progression toward the major objectives of the lesson or unit without unnecessary confusion.

The teacher should use the assignment as a means of arousing in-

terest in the work which the class is to do. There are pupils who respond to the appeal that accompanies any delving into the unknown. They enjoy the challenge of working on unsolved problems. Other pupils find their work stimulating when they can associate it with manual skills. Such individuals derive benefits from constructing objects, such as models or relief maps.

The writer recalls an impressive, three-foot wooden model of the Eiffel Tower constructed by two girls who were enrolled in a French class. They built the model on a scale of the original. The workmanship was so good that after it had been painted steel gray, it gave the impression that it was made of metal. As a result of this activity, the entire class gained a better understanding of this famous landmark. The girls themselves gained an insight into the skills used by the designer and the builders in constructing it. The teacher was of the opinion that the girls devoted more attention to their study of the French language as a result of their interest in building the model.

The good assignment provides opportunity for each pupil to gain the satisfaction that goes with desirable achievement. Few motivating forces are stronger or more natural than this one. Whenever the pupil has had such an experience, the teacher can almost always build upon it and be assured that he is proceeding in the direction in which he can achieve his course objectives.

The teacher should train the pupil to accept responsibility for making the necessary record of the assignment. If the teacher presents it orally, he should speak slowly and distinctly so that the pupils can write it down. If he writes it on the blackboard, he should allow time for the pupils to copy it. Some teachers prefer giving pupils mimeographed guide sheets which include not only assignments but also accompanying instructions. Such sheets insure that each pupil has an accurate copy of what he is to do. However, since such sheets must usually be prepared some days ahead of time, they may have less flexibility than the conventional oral or written type. Furthermore, the cost involved in producing them day by day for numerous classes will be rather high.

Evaluation of the assignment. Obviously, pupil progress is a major objective in all educational instruction. If the amount of such progress is satisfactory, the teacher can generally assume that his teaching is satisfactory. This means that his instructional techniques, including his use

of the assignment, are serving the purposes for which they are intended. However, there must be some means for determining whether the pupil is making desirable progress before the teacher can be assured that all is well with his work. If he waits until late in the year to do this, he may have too little time left to correct the weaknesses which his testing reveals. On the other hand, if he employs daily tests, he may use up so much of his class time for this activity that he has little time left for developing other types of learning experiences. Probably most teachers follow a path somewhere between these extremes.

Every lesson plan, whether it be that of a long unit or of a short daily type, should provide some means for evaluating the work that is being done. It should provide the teacher with a means for determining whether his use of materials and procedures is bringing him nearer to his course objectives. In many respects, such factors form the basis for constructive teaching. If teaching results are unsatisfactory, the assignment itself may be at fault. At such times the teacher should at least examine it along with other possibilities for determining the cause of his difficulties.

The lesson plan should indicate means for evaluating classwork. In mathematics, for example, the teacher may ask his pupils to carry through any one of a number of activities with the work which they have prepared. He may ask them to turn in to him their papers so that he can grade them after class hours. He may ask them to write the problems on the board so that they can be corrected and studied in class. The pupils may exchange papers and correct one another's work. On the other hand, they may keep their own papers and grade the material as it is discussed in class. It is also possible for the teacher to turn to new work and do nothing about the problems which the pupils have prepared previously. Such a practice is usually unsatisfactory to pupils, however. To avoid confusion, it is probably best that the teacher select measuring and evaluating procedures when he is organizing his unit or daily plan. This gives him time to judge their appropriateness before he actually puts them into practice.

Many teachers believe that pupils do better work when they know on what basis their efforts are to be rated. As was mentioned above, if the teacher changes his plans for doing this, he should inform the pupil of this change.

A situation of this sort is to be found when an English teacher is having his pupils read a particular story for comprehension. This is not a new experience for them so they feel rather secure in preparing their work according to previous methods. However, one day without warning the class, the teacher gives the group a word test. The results are generally unsatisfactory for both teacher and pupils. The grades are low, and the pupils feel that the teacher has double-crossed them. After such an experience it is sometimes difficult for the teacher to regain their confidence. If they prepare their work for one purpose, they do not want to have it rated on another.

Time is an important factor for every teacher. It helps determine the means by which he measures the effectiveness of his assignments. For example, he wishes to check all papers personally, but he finds himself without time to do so. One solution may be for him to have his pupils help check the work in class. He can make such a practice a desirable learning experience for them if they understand its purpose. It can even serve a dual purpose for them. In the first place, it can indicate the amount of progress which they are making, and in the second place, it can serve as a guide for directing their future progress.

DISCUSSION TOPICS AND QUESTIONS

1. Describe a situation in which the teacher provided opportunity for pupils to develop leadership ability during the class period. What role did the teacher play in the activity?
2. What principles may the teacher follow in dealing with the numerous petty annoyances that sometimes arise during a class period? Give an example from your own experience to point up one of these principles.
3. What are some reasons for and against the view that an orderly classroom provides a desirable learning environment for pupils? What conditions make a classroom attractive to adolescents?
4. What type of planning is necessary to make the opening days of the school term a period of active learning? What procedure changes does the teacher have to be ready to make during those days?
5. What steps can the teacher take to help pupils develop the ability to find and use learning materials? What should pupils know about their textbook so that they can use it to full advantage?
6. What steps can a teacher take to get a pupil to assume responsibility for his own success in learning?
7. Present reasons for and against having pupils prepare assignments at home. How may the teacher assist the pupils who have difficulty preparing their homework?

8. Describe the steps which the teacher can take to help pupils develop their ability to do the following:
   a. Achieve proficiency in oral and written expression
   b. Achieve proficiency in outlining and organizing material
   c. Achieve proficiency in thinking independently
9. What various purposes does questioning serve in the classroom? What type of questions are most desirable for classroom use? What consideration should the teacher give pupil questions? List several of the principles that govern effective questioning in the classroom.
10. Discuss the assignment on each of the following points:
    a. Purpose
    b. Effectiveness
    c. Length
    d. Time
    e. Evaluation

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DISCIPLINE AND THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

As was pointed out in Chapter Two, the years of adolescence are years during which the individual makes a great many changes in his general behavior. In the first place, he is aware that adult society expects him to act differently than he acted as a child. But what he is to do and how he is to do it are often not clear to him. He finds that when he tries to make adjustments, the results are sometimes unsatisfactory both to himself and to his elders. At such times, it is very easy for emotional conflicts to arise which may hinder rather than help him in achieving the purposes which he has in mind.

Both the home and the school play major roles in the life of the adolescent. It is quite possible that through him each of these institutions may have a considerable influence upon the other. For example, it is not uncommon for unpleasant family conditions to disturb the emotional balance of the child and, as a result, make it difficult for him to carry out his responsibilities at school. Similarly, unfavorable school conditions can intensify the behavior problems which arise in the home.

Parents and teachers should recognize that many of the social problems with which the adolescent has to deal are normal and should be treated as such. Since the physical and mental changes that take place within him occur over an extended period of time, it is logical for parents and teachers to assume that he will make his social adjustments in a gradual manner. Hence, any attempt on the part of adults to force him

into a social pattern for which he is not mentally and emotionally prepared, may aggravate rather than correct the immediate problem with which he is confronted. For example, the young boy who does not know how to dance may be hesitant about going out onto the floor because he is certain that he will appear ridiculous before his classmates. Yet the teacher in charge believes that something should be done to get him to participate in the activity. If embarrassing situations arise from such outside pressures, there is danger that the boy may come to dislike both the teacher and the activity. He may even resort to undesirable behavior as a means of showing his resentment toward such pressures. On the other hand, it is often possible to prepare him to enjoy such experiences in a normal manner. The school may be able to provide instruction in social dancing for those pupils who do not know how to dance. Under such conditions, the boy can be placed with a group the members of which have a common problem. Here mistakes are part of the normal routine and carry little stigma. Then as learning takes place, confidence replaces fear and embarrassment, and the individual comes to look forward with pleasure to continued participation in the activity. Teachers, of course, want their pupils to participate in desirable social activities, but they often do little to prepare them for these activities. Instead, they create behavior problems among the very individuals whom they are trying to help.

Sympathy, understanding, and patience are qualities necessary to the development of agreeable relationships between adults and adolescents. The adult's efforts to apply these should always be characterized by a high degree of sincerity. The pupil is usually quick to sense the difference between personal and professional interest in his welfare. As an individual, his problems are often lost in the attention which the teacher directs toward a general group condition. For example, the teacher who recognizes the pupil as an individual may come to understand his immediate problems more quickly than the teacher who sees him only as one of the disturbers of the sixth-period study hall. In the latter instance, the teacher may be more interested in removing the general annoyances to the group than he is in helping the pupil make a wholesome change in attitude and behavior.

The teacher should help the pupil understand himself. Often he does not know why he acts as he does. This is as true of his actions that are socially acceptable as of those that are not.

There is, for example, the pupil who has experienced an hour or more of parental urging and nagging to hurry so that he will not be late to school. Since he is unhappy as a result, he proceeds to take out his resentment on a schoolmate who happens to be going in his direction. He may even become a behavior problem for the teacher with whom he is working the first period of the day. When he is in such a mood, little additional motivation is needed to turn him into a general disturber of the class. The situation can be even worse if, on that particular morning, the teacher also happens to be emotionally disturbed. The clash of personalities that can result from such a setting may be serious enough to disrupt most of the work that the teacher had planned for that particular class period. It is even possible that if conditions become truly bad, the teacher will believe himself justified in removing the pupil from the classroom for the good of everyone concerned. As a result, the pupil may find himself in the principal's office, trying to explain what happened. He knows what he did, but he may not be in a position to understand, much less to explain accurately, why he did it. Neither he, the teacher, nor the principal will ever be able to evaluate accurately all of the factors that led to this particular behavior problem.

For that reason, efforts should be made to prevent such problems rather than to correct them.

The teacher's major difficulty in determining the causes back of the individual's behavior lies in the fact that there are often numerous causes involved. Even when he is able to identify one cause, he may be missing others that are equally significant. Under such circumstances, it is very desirable that he work toward a solution of the problem with an open mind as well as with an attitude of sympathy and understanding for the pupil. These qualities alone will not necessarily assure him of success, but they will at least establish a condition favorable to the development of a solution.

The teacher should keep in mind that a certain type of behavior situation may never occur more than once; all of the influences leading up to it may never again be present at the same time. Yet even if they should be present, the results may be different. Pupil and teacher may acquire changes in attitude or increases in the amount of self-control which they possess. The teacher can often prevent situations requiring positive disciplinary action from arising if he is able to establish an environment in which emotional tensions have been eliminated to a considerable degree.

Disciplinary Concepts Differ Widely among Teachers

It is rather common for individuals to disagree on their concepts concerning discipline. Their viewpoints probably differ according to the training which each has experienced. Because the youth is in contact with only a few adults in the home, it is usually easier for him to learn to conform to adult behavior expectations there than in school. In the average home he has daily contact with his parents and, therefore, because of a somewhat uniform environment, soon becomes acquainted with the type of behavior which they expect of him. But in high school he is in contact with several individuals whose viewpoints on behavior sometimes differ widely. As a result, it is often necessary for him to readjust his behavior pattern several times within the course of a single day in order to meet their varied demands. If he is unable to do this in a satisfactory manner, it is highly probable that he will find himself in trouble.

It is possible for the teacher to give discipline a narrow or a broad interpretation. He can regard it as an orderly adjustment to established regulations, or he can think of it as involuntary subjection to established rules. In either case, as Sheviakov and Redl [1] point out, it is always connected with a goal which is beyond the immediate reach of the individual. To reach this goal, the individual must first organize his impulses according to a definite pattern. He can achieve such an organization either through self-discipline, through discipline by others, or through a combination of these two. The first of these procedures is probably the most desirable. It indicates not only that the individual considers the goal worth while but that he is willing to forego less desirable objectives in order to reach it.

Discipline may involve a single individual, or it may involve a group.

For example, the boy who chooses to observe training rules in order to have a better chance of making the basketball team is disciplining himself in order to reach a goal which he has selected for himself. Later, after he has become a member of the team, he may discipline himself further by foregoing the pleasure of taking a long shot at the basket in order to pass to a team-

[1] By permission, from *Discipline* by George V. Sheviakov and Fritz Redl, copyright 1944, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, N.E.A., Washington, D.C., p. 4.

mate who is in a better position to score. In this instance he is disciplining himself for the purpose of achieving a group objective. He has accepted the viewpoint that during the progress of the game the value of the group objective is more desirable than that set up for the individual. Such a viewpoint can very well make of him not only a better team player, but, possibly also, a more desirable member of our democratic society.

Purpose of discipline. In the schoolroom it is the teacher's responsibility to work toward establishing an environment conducive to learning. It is helpful if the pupils likewise recognize the desirability of such an environment and cooperate toward achieving it. But such a situation presupposes that the teacher and the pupils are in general agreement as to the type of environment most suitable for a particular occasion. An environment of this nature will, of course, vary from subject to subject and even within a particular subject itself. For example, the conditions that are most favorable for the class to do well when writing an examination may be quite different from those which may make it possible for that same class to engage in an effective socialized recitation. When pupils recognize such differences, it is often possible for them to cooperate with the teacher in setting up the type of environment most appropriate for the occasion. It may be said that pupils are well disciplined when they are not only able to adjust themselves satisfactorily to varying conditions without overt direction from others, but are also helpful in establishing the type of environment most desirable for a particular kind of learning activity.

Self-discipline is a necessity in any situation where individuals are in contact with one another. In fact, the continued existence of any form of society requires that its membership practice a certain amount of self-discipline. Individuals of all ages sooner or later have to recognize that the rights and privileges of any one person are limited by the rights of the persons with whom this individual comes in contact. Many of the social adjustments which the individual has to make come during the years of adolescence. Since some adolescents either do not sense what changes are expected during these years, or are slow in conforming to them, they can frequently benefit by following the pattern set by those who are more experienced. Assistance of this nature may come from individuals of the same age level as well as from adults. Because of the similarity of their interests, the former are sometimes able to exert a very effective and lasting influence upon their classmates. Of

course, such influence may be of an undesirable as well as of a constructive nature.

The teacher is responsible for establishing and maintaining desirable learning conditions for all members of the class group. Whenever pupil self-discipline is insufficient to provide such a condition, then the teacher must exert positive leadership in bringing it about. In doing this, he is fulfilling one of the obligations which the school has placed upon him. The teacher should help the pupils recognize the advantages of eliminating all conditions which may in any way interfere with effective learning. Without doubt he is failing to develop the social responsibility of his pupils adequately if he must repeatedly correct their antisocial behavior as they mingle with one another.

Discipline based on recognized values. In a truly democratic environment the learner participates in the selection of at least some of the criteria by which accepted social behavior is determined. But the teacher is seldom in a position to establish such an environment. Over the years certain values come to be accepted as basic to the continuation of the type of society existing in a particular community. The degree to which an individual is accepted socially in that community often depends upon the extent to which he learns to conform to the standards which have been established there. The situation in the classroom is but a part of this larger community pattern. The pupil who is rude or rebellious toward his associates may be reflecting the influence of certain economic or social pressures over which he has little control. The student teacher, or the teacher who is new to the community, is not always in a position to understand the deep-seated causes for many such behavior problems.

Pupils sometimes establish social goals for themselves which, according to adult standards, border on the ridiculous. Some adults may even regard the boys and girls who govern their behavior by these goals as maladjusted individuals. In some adolescent groups, for instance, it is highly unpopular for a pupil to try to achieve academic distinction. In such a group the young person maintains status with his peers only if he, like them, is guilty of a certain amount of nonconformity to conventional classroom procedures. In other words, he must work to achieve an objective directly opposed to that which adults generally regard as desirable. Such an attitude may in some instances represent the adolescent's effort to follow a line of action apart from adult guidance and control. Under normal conditions such an attitude gradually disappears

as the individual matures. But at times it can present serious problems for the teacher during the years that the adolescent is in attendance at high school.

Some teachers provide opportunity for their pupils to experience a considerable degree of self-discipline. They believe that when their pupils have participated in such experiences, they will choose to become self-reliant so that they can continue working under the freedom which is available to them. Of course, there is always some possibility that pupils will need additional guidance before they are able to assume such responsibility completely. But teachers who follow this practice believe that pupils can achieve the goal of self-discipline in enough instances to make it worth the effort and time which it requires.

An example may serve to point out a few of the practices which such teachers follow.

In every classroom there are numerous routines which are a necessary part of the learning activity. There are pencils that have to be sharpened, or reference materials that have to be examined. There are also occasions when pupils wish to consult with others during study periods. Much time can be saved if pupils recognize that they may carry out these activities without having to obtain the teacher's permission so long as they do not unnecessarily disturb other members of the group.

Thus their freedom becomes a privilege as well as a responsibility. Under such conditions the teacher is relieved of having to spend his time being a policeman whose duty it is to enforce the regulations which he has been forced to set up previously.

Yet in almost every class there are a few individuals who regard freedom as license. They find it impossible to assume responsibility for their own conduct. In so far as it is possible, the teacher should try to help these individuals develop a sound set of values. But until this can be done, it may be necessary to limit their freedom so as to protect the freedom of the other members of the group.

Some of the difficulty that arises from the inability of adults to motivate adolescents to develop acceptable behavior practices has to be blamed on adults themselves. Their own type of conduct sometimes has an unwholesome influence upon adolescents. They are occasionally themselves guilty of the very type of behavior for which they censor their pupils. If the teacher expects to maintain the respect that is due him, he must respect in his own behavior the set of values which he asks his

pupils to observe. The student teacher must do likewise. Pupils are quick to recognize a situation in which the teacher assumes privileges which they themselves are not free to enjoy. Although such privileges may be acceptable to adult society, they may have a tendency to weaken rather than strengthen the relationships which the teacher wishes to establish between himself and his pupils.

The following incident illustrates such a situation. A certain student teacher came to his supervisor one day and explained that he was embarrassed over an incident that had occurred the evening before. He had gone into a tavern, a place which the law did not permit minors to enter. As he was sitting at a table, two boys from one of his classes appeared and sat down near him. Although they did not speak, he was certain that they recognized him. Naturally he was afraid that they would mention the matter to their friends and possibly even to his cooperating teacher. The supervisor realized that of the individuals involved in the incident, the boys alone had been guilty of violating a civil law. He pointed this out to the young teacher and then added, "I doubt if the boys will dare mention the incident to anyone, yet there are other factors in this case which it may be well for you to evaluate carefully."

Under a social system which recognizes such duality in the conduct of its members, it is not at all strange that adolescents have difficulty in understanding and adjusting themselves to the complex standards which society has devised to control human behavior. For that reason there are few means more effective for impressing adolescents with the values inherent in desirable forms of human behavior than for adults themselves to exercise at least a limited amount of the type of self-discipline which they ask and expect adolescents to observe.

Correction of misbehavior a more desirable goal than punishment. Fear of punishment may deter an individual from repeating an act involving misconduct but it does not always bring about a favorable change in the individual's attitude. A successful teacher realizes that it is necessary for him to eliminate the motivation back of misconduct if the pupil is to become a socially well-adjusted individual. But it may take time to discover the causes leading to such behavior before he can bring about changes. In the meantime the teacher and his pupils must continue to operate as a social group. If at all possible, the teacher should maintain satisfactory working conditions for all pupils in the class. It is his responsibility to see to it that the misbehavior of a few individuals does not interfere with the rights of the remainder of the

group. In order to assure this, it may be necessary in extreme instances for him to adopt open action. But such action seldom does more than relieve a situation temporarily. The teacher still has to eliminate the basic causes of the behavior problem; that is, if he can discover them. Failure to do so makes it highly probable that problems similar to this one will arise in the future among the group.

There are always a number of pupils who do not disturb the decorum of the classroom, but neither do they contribute to the learning activities which the teacher is attempting to direct. They sit quietly at their desks without taking part in any of the classroom discussions. It seems that they are interested chiefly in making themselves so inconspicuous that the teacher will overlook their presence among the more active members of the class. Even though these individuals are not behavior problems, they are social problems. The teacher should try to determine as soon as possible the causes of such shyness. As a first step he may have to build up the pupil's confidence in himself. It is possible that the pupil may never have had the privilege of assuming major responsibilities in his home. If this has been the case, it may now be necessary for the teacher to help him become self-responsible. The teacher can assign to him such simple responsibilities as he will be capable of carrying out in a satisfactory manner. For example, he may give him a responsible position in group activities. Above all, he can treat him as a normal rather than as an exceptional individual. Undue solicitation or attention before his associates may only make the pupil more retiring and shy than before. Among his greatest fears is probably that of being embarrassed publicly by answering a question or by making a statement which his associates will ridicule. Therefore, the teacher should first assign him questions which are within his level of ability to answer. As the pupil gains confidence in himself, it should be possible for the teacher to increase the difficulty of these questions until he is participating in a relatively normal manner.

The beginning teacher may wonder if successful teachers have some means whereby they can be assured of success when dealing with personal problems of the type mentioned above. The answer is, of course, that the approach which the teacher uses has to be suited to the personality of the individual pupil. Many experienced teachers try first to work with a problem pupil on an informal basis. They prefer to meet him in a friendly atmosphere where there is little opportunity for emo-

tional disturbances. Such an occasion may arise when the two are talking casually about matters of common interest. It may be well at first that these interests have no connection with the activities of the schoolroom. Under such conditions the pupil may reveal aspects of his personal interests which he would not think of discussing with his teacher under a more formal conference set-up. At such a time, the teacher may find an opportune moment to inquire about the hobbies and activities to which the pupil devotes his leisure time. There are pupils who are hesitant about discussing such matters even with their friends or parents. They sometimes have the feeling that others will laugh at them, especially if the activities in which they are interested are not of a particularly popular nature. Yet when they discover an adult who is really concerned about such matters, they are often willing to cooperate with the efforts which he is making to help them with their problems. The teacher should be cautioned, however, against letting the pupil reveal personal matters of such a nature as might be embarrassing to him later.

The beginning teacher should understand that even the experienced teacher does not always succeed in gaining the desired confidences of the problem pupil. Not every teacher has the kind of personality to which an adolescent will respond. For that reason, the teacher who tries to force such an individual to confide in him may only be erecting an even greater barrier between the two. The teacher does not gain confidences of this nature by means of the authority of office or of position; he has to earn them by the respect which he is able to develop within the boy or girl. Furthermore, he should not solicit confidences unless their revelation will serve a constructive purpose for the adolescent.

As has been mentioned before, there may be behavior cases in his classes which the teacher will want to refer to the guidance specialist, if there is such a person on the staff. The beginning teacher, especially, should find it advisable to work closely with such a trained individual. By so doing, he becomes familiar with the guidance facilities which the school has to offer. He also gains experience in determining which of his own problems it is best to refer to an individual with this background and training. The guidance specialist generally has considerable information about boys and girls who are problem cases. For that reason he can frequently be of help to the teacher who is having trouble with a particular pupil.

Additional aspects of guidance problems are discussed in more detail in Chapter Nine.

Discipline and the inherent dignity of the human being. The attempt by educators and social workers during recent years to correct the causes of an individual's social maladjustment reflects some changes in attitude toward the individual. History portrays only too vividly the tragedies that resulted from the use of the debtor's prison in pioneer days. The individual who did not conform to certain standards of the day was removed from society, placed in prison, and often conveniently forgotten. A practice not too unlike this was followed in the schools of the time. The offender was removed from the classroom and either confined to a room by himself or expelled from the school altogether. Little, if any, thought was given to rehabilitating him for the type of society from which he was being excluded.

Today many people are changing their attitude toward the purpose of discipline. There is, as Sheviakov and Redl [2] point out, an increased acceptance of the belief that every human is possessed with a certain amount of inherent dignity. In school as well as in general society, there is a movement away from attempting to humiliate the individual before his fellow beings. In years past it was common practice for the teacher to place a pointed cap upon the head of the wayward child, and to seat him as a dunce before his classmates. The purpose of this act was readily apparent. Today some teachers may have a similar purpose in mind as they indulge in sarcastic remarks toward their pupils. It is quite probable that such action seldom does more than create pupils' loss of respect for the teacher, thereby making it even more difficult to bring about improvement in pupil behavior.

After a pupil discovers that his teacher no longer respects him as an individual, there is little motivation for him to continue their relationship on a respectable basis. It is even possible under such conditions that he gains personal satisfaction from irritating the teacher. At such a time the pupil senses that he has little to gain by improving his ways, for, regardless of what he does, he has little more to lose after respect is gone. Since it is normal for him to seek the approval and respect of his associates, both he and the teacher stand to profit if they keep their relationship on a level where they continue to respect one another.

Freedom involves a positive form of self-discipline. Intelligent self-discipline does not of itself inhibit the development of the individual;

[2] By permission, Sheviakov and Redl, *op. cit.*, p. 9.

instead, it increases the possibilities of his growth in a direction favorable to himself. As the adolescent matures, he soon comes to learn that it is necessary for him to make choices. However, these choices become profitable only to the extent to which they further his future personal development.

Teachers should help a pupil understand that the making of choices involves a certain amount of self-discipline. A pupil should learn that he has to make choices between values that are worth while, as well as between those that are either desirable or undesirable.

Some choices involve complex situations. For example, the church which the pupil's family attends may be holding a function or service on the same evening that the teacher has made a heavy home assignment. The parents believe that the religious service is a desirable experience in the life of their boy or girl. On the other hand, they are sympathetic with the idea that the young person should prepare his school work adequately. In this situation, the pupil may force his parents to decide the issue by stating that it is impossible for him to do both. Thus he protects himself in either case; but, on the other hand, he gains little, if any, experience in making evaluations to which he has to adjust his working habits. If the teacher objects to the choice that has been made, the pupil can casually blame his parents. Thus he feels himself entirely free from responsibility, regardless of what happens.

In such a situation as that described above, the parents and teacher should work toward helping the adolescent do more than just make of the situation an "either–or" proposition. It may be possible to achieve both of the worth-while objectives which, at the moment, appear to be in conflict. But in order to do this, the pupil may have to sacrifice other less important objectives, personal objectives which he has found it a pleasure to pursue.

Teachers and pupils are usually familiar with the lives of individuals such as Thomas Edison and Henry Ford, who elected to spend their efforts in achieving certain fixed purposes in life. Yet pupils are not always aware of the manner in which these individuals were able to achieve their successes in spite of the many outside demands that were continually being made upon their time. It is obvious that in order to have achieved this degree of success, it was necessary that they decline many of the demands which did not contribute to their major purposes in life.

For instance, the boy who was facing the school assignment and church attendance problem described above, may have been accustomed to using

part of his after-school time listening to radio or television programs. He may not have thought of giving these up so as to be able to complete the work which had been assigned to him. Possibly, the problem confronting him was that of establishing a new set of time values.

As the individual matures, he often needs guidance that will help him develop the ability to discipline himself and thereby become capable of selecting the type of activities to which he should give his attention at a particular time. The attitude and behavior of the individual definitely affect his selection of responsibilities. Self-discipline should mean more for him than just an attempt to please others, especially adults. It should become a constructive force in life. There may be times when the pupil refuses to conform to the demands of the teacher. He may regard the latter's demands as unreasonable, or he may have set up a standard of values different from those which the teacher wishes to achieve. In either instance, he is striving for gains which he considers more important than immediate adult approval. Possibly the approval which he seeks is that of his peers. Inability to obtain this recognition in his normal activities may cause him to resort to a form of conduct disrupting to classroom procedures. In order to prevent such behavior problems from arising, it is of course necessary for the teacher to provide situations in which the pupil can gain recognition for his efforts as he applies them to acceptable learning experiences. This provision makes it possible for the pupil to satisfy his desire for status in a manner acceptable to the teacher as well as to the group.

Teacher attitude toward discipline is conditioned by his social background. Whenever the teacher's social background differs widely from that of his pupils, he may find it difficult to understand some of the motives back of their behavior. He may also have difficulty in helping them to accept the social standards which he is attempting to establish. For that reason, it may be necessary that he gain at least some familiarity with the type of life which they have experienced before he can expect them to appreciate the ideals which he sets before them.

An example is the case of the boy whose family is urgently in need of funds. Because of this situation, the boy works every night at a nearby filling station. Only when the teacher becomes familiar with all the aspects of this situation, is he in a position to understand why this adolescent may be so resentful of the assignment that requires extensive preparation at home. Similarly, there may be the pupil who comes from a broken home where he has rarely ex-

perienced adult affection or sympathy. This young person's sullen attitude may be the result of long years during which he has had little opportunity to enjoy social or domestic security. In his case, punishment does little more than create an unfavorable attitude toward adults.

As the teacher enters a new community, he should try to become acquainted with the social forces that are at work there conditioning the attitudes of its young people as well as its adults. The acquisition of such knowledge should increase his ability to understand and to interpret the significance of an individual's personal characteristics and the problems which he faces.

Inter-personal aspects of discipline. It is natural for inter-personal relationships to give rise to many of the teacher's disciplinary problems in the classroom. Therefore, he will have to consider group factors as well as individual factors as he begins dealing with these problems.

Muntyan [3] believes that "discipline is necessarily a group problem in so far as that to which the individual is to become disciplined is subject to human control." The individual has to become disciplined in terms of personal relationships between people as well as relationships between "the person and social institutions." There are also the relationships between "the person and the hard facts of the physical world." In other words, the individual needs to learn that the physical world puts limitations on him as an individual and, at the same time, it requires that he get along with other people as human beings.

As the child leaves his home and begins to mingle with new social groups, he comes face to face with the need for making adjustments in his school life. Even during adolescence he has to continue with this process if he wishes to keep pace with the demands that society places upon him. He must learn to adjust himself to such matters as differences in age, sex, class status, physical limitations, and family and school relationships. Inability to do this in a satisfactory manner may give rise to emotional disturbances, which, in turn, may lead to disciplinary situations of various types.

Muntyan [4] sees a need in the school for disciplinary training which prepares the child for his social, economic, aesthetic, political, and moral relationships. In the "personal-institutional" relationships, discipline ex-

[3] By permission, from "Discipline: Child-centered, Teacher-centered, or Group-centered?" by Milosh Muntyan, copyright 1949, *Progressive Education*, 26:169.
[4] By permission, *ibid.*, p. 170.

presses itself in terms of community authority. He believes the young person should come to accept the fact that the community delegates to the teacher the authority to help him "intelligently recognize, accept, and act upon the modes of behavior deemed best by the group." The teacher helps set up rules to make pleasant working relationships possible. This is evidenced as pupils learn to conform to class schedules and other modes of conduct in and about school, all of which make for a smooth-functioning institution. Pupils also learn to accept "expert authority" as a means of guidance and direction. The school expects the teacher to have a background of knowledge in his subject field sufficient to gain and hold the respect of the pupil with whom he is working. Furthermore, the pupil should feel that the teacher is a resource upon whom he is free to draw in furthering his intellectual growth.

Muntyan [5] believes, furthermore, that most philosophies concerning discipline fall into one of three categories. They are either teacher-centered, child-centered, or group-centered. In the first of these, the teacher through the school helps the child adjust himself to the social group which is already functioning well without him. Unless he can adjust himself appropriately to this group, he is subject to being rejected from its membership. In the child-centered arrangement the child is privileged to help structure the group according to certain of his own ideas and wishes. Therefore, as an independent individual, he may seek means of achieving his social objectives other than by joining directly with the activities in which the group is engaged. In this plan the teacher tries to help the pupil achieve "such group membership as he becomes willing to accept."

In group-centered discipline the pupil is always regarded as being a member of the group; therefore, his problem is chiefly one of learning how to adjust himself to its accepted practices. In other words, it is his problem to become familiar with the "rules of the game" and then to learn to "play" with the other individuals in the group. If he is not able to do this in a satisfactory manner, he is subject to being excluded socially from the group. There is an alternative, however, for if he finds within the group activity certain conditions distasteful to him, he can try to help the group improve these conditions. This gives him the opportunity of organizing other procedures. But unless these are accepted and put into practice by the group, he has to accept and abide by those

[5] By permission, Muntyan, *op. cit.*, pp. 170–71.



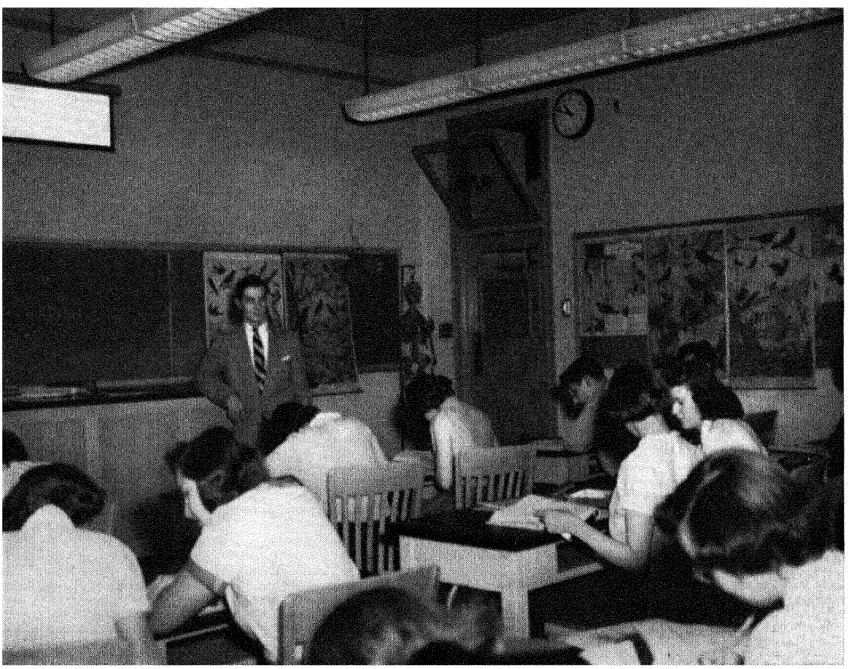
Posters are often among the most effective types of graphic aids which the teacher can use.



Pupils can learn how to assume responsibilities outside school as well as in the classroom. These boys are in charge of the sound equipment at a football game.



Pupils should learn how to use the card catalogues in the library.



Pupils who are busy and interested in their classwork usually have little incentive for causing disturbances.

practices already in existence, or he has to subject himself to the possibility of losing the influence of his acquired position.

The individual and the group are generally interdependent. Society requires that the individual conform to accepted practice, or show sufficient strength in group support to make a change possible. In other words, if he wants to improve or change the *status quo*, he has to have enough influence to affect the group attitude as it is constituted at the time.

Beginning teachers are often confused as to the types of acceptable procedures which they can apply to disciplinary situations. They may have attended a school where the teacher-centered approach was widely used. Later they may have heard about the desirability of using other methods, possibly in some of which the pupils help to determine control measures. But regardless of the steps that he takes, if he believes that they are ineffective, he may feel himself compelled to turn back to the teacher-centered practices with which he is probably more familiar. As a result, he sometimes introduces a certain amount of uncertainty and insecurity in his classroom procedures. Such a practice may tend to encourage rather than to discourage undesirable behavior practices on the part of pupils.

It is highly desirable that pupils and teacher have a rather common understanding of the manner in which appropriate classroom behavior can be established. Effective results often depend upon the manner in which the two work out these procedures together. Such a step requires that they be willing not only to recognize the purposes which they intend to achieve, but also to agree upon them and to work toward their attainment. Discipline applied to such a situation serves a constructive as well as a controlling purpose.

Discipline Varies in Nature

Discipline does not exist apart from environment. The individual's behavior is the result of his reaction to outside stimuli, and this behavior is either acceptable or unacceptable to the society of which at a particular moment he is a part. As the young child comes to recognize the many complex forces that affect his conduct, he soon discovers that even with the same group of associates he must learn to consider time and place as he regulates his behavior. In the classroom he is expected

to be quiet and orderly, yet with the same classmates he is free to run and shout when on the playground or in the gymnasium.

Individuals come to associate a certain type of behavior with a certain type of environment. For example, in church they learn to conduct themselves differently than they do in the home or in the school. After a certain type of behavior has become associated with a particular environment, it is sometimes difficult to bring about a change in the individual's behavior pattern. For example, in some schools administrators dislike having to use their gymnasiums for assembly purposes. They know that pupils come to associate this room with a certain freedom of action. In fact, at designated times, they encourage their pupils to cheer and shout there in order to indicate support for the local athletic teams. After such conditioning, the boys and girls may find it difficult to sit in a quiet and attentive manner while program assemblies are being presented in the same room. Of course, some pupils are not averse to having it appear that this change is more difficult to make than it really is. Nevertheless, there is some evidence to indicate that the adjustment is not always made in a manner satisfactory to the school staff.

The atmosphere of the classroom can affect the pupils' reaction toward it. There is evidence to indicate that factors such as color, temperature, and cleanliness definitely affect the behavior of pupils. Many of the brightly lighted and colored rooms of today are in sharp contrast to the dingy, drab rooms which were common a generation or more ago. As a result of these changes, there should be a decrease in behavior problems resulting from influences such as these, but this may not always be the case.

As was pointed out previously, teachers are limited as to the type and amount of change that they can make in the physical arrangement of their classroom. Yet their use of materials, such as pictures, can often change the environment of the classroom enough to increase the interest and appreciation of some of the pupils for the cultural and aesthetic values which exist in the world about them. Such interests sometimes have a wholesome influence upon the behavior of at least some of the pupils, if not upon the behavior of all of them.

The school-age children of every generation create for themselves such types of diversions as their environment permits. Today a few pupils may still use jackknives to carve initials on their desks. But this practice is certainly less commonplace than it was when desks were rough

hewn and every boy carried a knife in his pocket. In those days, even as today, many pupils found themselves bored by unrelated and uninteresting lesson materials. However, the pioneer teacher was not entirely to blame for such conditions. Far too often he was provided with very limited resource materials for his classwork; in fact, he may have had to provide most of them himself. Partly because of this lack of materials, and partly for other reasons, his pupils sometimes turned to interests other than classwork to occupy their time. The ever-present jackknife served as a ready tool for carving purposes, while the wooden desk was a convenient place on which to work.

Today initials still make their appearance on desks. But instead of carrying a jackknife, the present-day pupil is expected to have with him a sharpened pencil. When he becomes bored with the classwork, he begins tracing the grooves in the desk in front of him. Thus it is easy for initials and other designs to make their appearances. The result is not too unlike that obtained by the use of the jackknife; the difference lies mainly in the fact that the pencil takes a longer time than the jackknife to achieve the same effect. Of course, the introduction today of plastic desks with their hard, polished surfaces has brought about a change in this type of diversion. The grain of the wood is no longer there to invite the first marks. Yet the teacher who does not keep his classes busy can rest assured that pupils are as capable today of finding ways of entertaining themselves as they were years ago, and these ways may not always be acceptable to him. Certainly the present-day teacher should have fewer behavior problems than his predecessor of pioneer days had. The resources which a teacher of today has for achieving interesting and worth-while goals in the classroom are certainly much greater than were the resources which the teachers of years ago had. Therefore, there should really be less cause for undesirable pupil behavior today than there was then. Yet there are new pupil distractions today with which every teacher is only too familiar. Among these are mechanical pencils, paper clips, and rubber bands.

Human behavior conditioned by emotional responses. Emotional factors determine to a considerable extent the behavior pattern of the individual. Sometimes, when he experiences an emotional disturbance, he reacts in a manner unacceptable to the social group of which he is a member. Although he may regret his behavior later, at the moment he may appear incapable of controlling his own actions. If such an indi-

vidual is a pupil, the teacher has to work gradually toward helping him gain self-control. The pupil has to reach the point where he recognizes the undesirability of his actions. Only then does he put forth effort toward making a change. The teacher can usually do little for such a pupil unless the latter is willing to work toward correcting his shortcomings.

Emotional disturbances that bring about undesirable behavior are frequently the result of apparently trivial incidents. For example, failure that follows upon a long period of success may result in such responses for some individuals.

The author recalls an incident that occurred during the noon hour of an elementary school many years ago. He discovered a lower-grade school girl sobbing violently. She was not only refusing to eat her lunch, but was also being rude and bitter toward her perplexed companions. When he determined the cause, it appeared almost incredible. The girl had missed a spelling word in her class that morning. Of itself this seemed unimportant, but to the girl it was a tragedy. It was the first spelling word that she had ever missed during her entire three and one-half years of school attendance. It was small wonder that her companions, to whom a missed spelling word was no novelty, could not understand why this incident had such an adverse effect upon her.

In high school, pupils are sometimes members of athletic teams that have had long winning streaks to their credit. The emotional tension created during such periods of time is frequently reflected in the behavior of certain of these players. Their entire pattern of conduct may change so greatly that the teacher may find it difficult to work with them in a normal manner.

Here again, patience coupled with firmness may help such individuals acquire the balance and poise needed to face the problems which society has helped create for them.

Whenever the teacher discovers that a pupil of his is a behavior problem because of emotional disturbances, he may decide upon at least one of two procedures. It may be that he can find a way of eliminating the disturbing element which has affected the young person unfavorably. A situation of this type is represented in the weak pupil frustrated because of the apparent hopelessness of his academic efforts. In his case it may be necessary to provide activities in which he can experience success in at least some limited form. This may help to correct his behavior problem. In a situation where the teacher has difficulty in determining or eliminating the cause, the problem is somewhat different. A young boy may, for example, be handicapped physically to

such an extent that he cannot participate normally in the activities in which his classmates share. This may make him bitter and resentful toward them in the classroom as well as on the playground. Under such conditions the teacher may have to work toward helping the boy accept conditions which cannot be changed. But here, as in the other case mentioned, there is always the possibility of the individual's developing new interests which will enlighten his outlook on life and thereby bring about a change in attitude. Broken homes and economic hardships affect pupils in a similar manner. These conditions, too, can seldom be changed, so they will have to be faced with equal frankness by both teacher and pupils.

Attitude toward discipline conditioned by pupils' experiences. The pupil's attitude toward discipline is partly the result of the various disciplinary experiences in which he has had occasion to participate. His social background has naturally helped to determine the nature of these experiences. For example, he may see no need for conforming to social and ethical standards which he has never had occasion to respect. In fact, he may not want to recognize that such standards exist—this makes it easy for him to avoid conforming to them. Probably every high school teacher at some time or other has had a group of pupils who are especially noisy. They may even be discourteous toward one another in the process of being noisy. It is possible that such a group may have been together in the elementary school where they conducted themselves in a similar manner. Since there was no general disapproval of their behavior then, they have come to accept the idea that such conduct is acceptable in the classroom later. Even though the high school teacher disapproves of their actions, the attitude of the group for continuance of the practice may be strong enough to offset the teacher's reaction against it. However, when these individuals are scattered among other groups whose members conform to more generally accepted standards of conduct, there is considerable possibility that such individuals may follow the behavior pattern set by these groups.

Pupils with rather low ability levels are sometimes slow to conform to generally accepted school practices. They may choose to gain attention from their peers by being nonconformists. Since they know that they have little chance of being recognized for their academic achievements, they decide to gain status by being behavior problems. In many cases they do not find this a difficult task. Many of them have already

had experience in doing this during the years that they were in elementary school. The teacher who finds himself working with pupils of this type should make a strong effort to gain their confidence and good will. Even though their academic achievement is low, they may try to improve their work if they come to believe that the teacher is sincerely interested in their welfare and is really trying to help them. Of course, such efforts do not succeed in all instances. The teacher has to be philosophical enough to accept that fact.

Group discipline as related to individual discipline. A great many of the disciplinary situations that confront the teacher are the result of group behavior. That is, they are the result of the unconventional conduct of more than one individual. Sheviakov and Redl [6] point out that the teacher's responsibility in regard to discipline is his role as "a leader of groups." It is only rarely that he works for any length of time with a single individual. Groups tend to develop personality much the same as the individual does. Hence, the teacher has to learn to deal with the individual in a group environment. Possibly it is a truism to state that group action is the result of individual action, yet if the teacher works to influence group action, the approach must be made through the individuals in the group. Similarly, whenever the individual becomes a member of a group, he cannot escape being influenced by the action of that group. Mob action provides repeated evidence to prove this assertion. In a somewhat similar manner, the conduct of the pupil in the classroom or on the playground reflects not only his own attitude toward society, but that of his associates as well.

Sheviakov and Redl [7] believe that the problem of group discipline is centered largely around three "thought complexes," namely:

The individual or the group?
Managerial manipulation or attitude change?
How do we know whether "It works"?

The two authors are convinced that the teacher has to consider both the pupil and the group whenever he is trying to solve a disciplinary problem involving more than one individual. Both parties have rights which the teacher should respect. But the amount of consideration which each rightly should receive may best be determined by the nature

[6] By permission, Sheviakov and Redl, *op. cit.*, p. 18.
[7] By permission, *ibid.*, p. 23.

of the situation created by the problem. Yet the difficulty of giving equal consideration to both the group and the individual quickly becomes apparent. There is, for example, the situation in which the pupil tries to attract attention to himself by "showing off." If he becomes too disturbing to the class, the teacher can, in some instances, remove him from the group. But such a move does little to improve his social adjustment. Therefore, it appears more desirable for the teacher to work toward trying to help him make satisfactory adjustment within the environment of the classroom itself. If it is possible to do this, there is the further possibility that the results will work to the advantage of the offender. Yet it is scarcely fair for the teacher to let him remain in the classroom if his actions inflict undue hardship upon the rest of the class. The teacher will have to weigh both of these factors carefully before he decides upon a course of action in such a case.

There are times when the teacher has in his class a pupil who needs more than the usual amount of attention. His difficulties just seem to be more than those of the average pupil. However, the extra attention which the teacher decides to give to such a boy or girl can occasionally lead other members of the group to imagine that this individual is being given special favors. Their reaction to such a belief may cause them to initiate disturbances until such time as they understand that they are receiving less attention than this particular pupil because they actually have less need of it. In this case it may be wise for the teacher to give them assurance in some form or other that they are doing acceptable work. In other words, the solution of this problem rests upon the teacher's ability to get the pupils to recognize and understand all of the facts in the situation.

The teacher's responsibility of dealing justly with the rights and privileges of groups as well as of the individuals involved in disciplinary situations is one that should not be taken lightly. It is scarcely a desirable solution for him to sacrifice one in an attempt to save the other. In working toward a solution favorable to both, it may be best that the teacher first work toward eliminating misunderstandings and then direct his attention toward gaining the confidence and cooperation of the group as a whole. He should try by all means to direct this cooperative activity toward an acceptable classroom purpose. Such a move will help him eliminate any desire on his part to make a personal appeal to the pupils for their support. If he should weaken and appeal to their sym-

pathies, he may not only lose status in their eyes, but he may also lose his influence and control over them.

In a disciplinary problem involving "managerial manipulation or attitude change," the teacher may be faced with a situation in which there is little time for him to weigh factors before making decisions. A situation, for example, may be so critical that he does not have time to bring about a change in pupil attitude before serious damage or injury may be inflicted upon an individual or upon personal or public property. In such a situation it may be necessary for him to take preventive measures without delay.

The teacher occasionally finds himself confronted with problems of this nature at unexpected times and places. It is quite possible for some of these to occur outside of the classroom.

There is, for example, the occasion when a pupil considers it clever and entertaining to stand near the water fountain so that he can push the face of an unsuspecting drinker into the water. He may not consider the fact that the edges of the water pipe or guard are so placed that they can seriously injure the eyes or mouth of the drinker. The teacher who may be nearby when such byplay is taking place certainly has an obligation to see to it that the action does not continue until it leads to physical injury to someone. He also has an obligation to help the offender realize the seriousness of his action. If he can do this, it may help to prevent a recurrence of similar incidents later. If he does not achieve this objective, the gain may be of only a very temporary nature. But at the moment that the incident is taking place, the safety of the drinker should be of first importance to the teacher.

In their discussion of the "on-knowing-whether-it-worked" complex, Sheviakov and Redl [8] concern themselves with the practice by which individuals relate anecdotes as a means of indicating to others the type of techniques to be applied in disciplinary situations. The authors emphasize the fact that many such techniques "remain meaningless" as a solution to new disciplinary situations. They point out that the teacher should always examine subsequent incidents in the light of the individuals involved and the nature of the group making up the membership of the class. He should always do this before he takes any form of disciplinary action.

Beginning teachers especially should be cautious about hurriedly ac-

[8] By permission, Sheviakov and Redl, *op. cit.*, pp. 34–39.

cepting and applying techniques described in such anecdotes. It is natural for the beginning teacher to want to solve his disciplinary problems with dispatch. He is especially concerned with correcting them before the administration becomes aware that he is having trouble. As a result, he frequently goes to another teacher, or even to someone outside of school, and asks for advice. The result may be that he receives a dramatic story of how a certain individual met just such a situation and dealt with it in a very effective manner. But when the teacher attempts to carry out similar measures, the results are often quite different. He has probably failed to consider that the factors involved in his case are apparently quite different from those that were present when the previous incident occurred. As a result, instead of solving his problem, he may only find that conditions have become more involved than ever.

The following incident illustrates how easy it is for a teacher to draw false conclusions from a disciplinary situation—that is, unless he considers all aspects of the case carefully.

A certain class, made up entirely of boys, was giving the regular teacher considerable difficulty with its behavior. This teacher had to be absent one day, so another member of the department took his place. During blackboard drill, one of the boys did not like the manner in which the substitute teacher was correcting the work and, as a result, made a rather personal remark about him. The teacher was standing close by and in a flash whirled around and with the palm of his hand struck the boy a sharp blow on the jaw. The teacher realized at once that he was in error so he reported the incident to the superintendent immediately after class. After a discussion the two men decided it might be best to wait and see what developments the case would take.

The teacher knew that the boy was considerably upset by the incident, for, when the class period had ended, his parting remark indicated that he planned to tell his father about it. The latter would then come to school, the boy said, and "take care of" the teacher. The next morning the boy was back at school attending classes as usual. Noon came and the father had not appeared, nor had he got in touch with anyone at the school. Since the regular teacher was back in the classroom again, the affair seemed to have lost some of its tenseness. It was not until the class was again at the blackboard that afternoon that the regular teacher overheard another pupil asking the boy quietly, "Did you tell your father about what happened yesterday?" There was a somewhat sheepish grin as the youth, without apparent resentment, replied, "Yeah, and he said I got just what was a comin' to me."

That apparently closed the incident for the time, but there was at least one noteworthy after-effect. The regular teacher reported later that the class was much more orderly for the remainder of the school year than it had ever been before.

The chances are remote, however, that such an incident could end so pleasantly again for both teacher and superintendent. The fact that this father was accustomed to treating his boy in a rough manner at home may have had something to do with his unemotional acceptance of the treatment which the substitute teacher had applied in the classroom. But the latter realized only too well that this was not a practice which he would recommend for classroom use at any time. He also knew that chance had saved him this one time from what could have been a very unpleasant situation. The fact that in this instance the measure apparently helped the behavior problem in this class of boys was probably a coincidence. The results on another occasion could very well be quite different.

Punishment often carries with it undesirable concomitants. Before the teacher applies punishment in the classroom situation he should consider carefully the type of relationship which he has established between himself and the pupil. This relationship may determine to a considerable extent the type of results which he can expect from the measures which he applies. Symonds [9] recognizes this relationship as of utmost importance to the classroom environment. Of it he writes as follows: "Methods of control in the classroom as well as in the home exert an influence on the growing personality of the children, and democratic attitudes formed by them are determined in no small part by the kind of relations set up between teachers and pupils in the classroom." To this he adds, "The effect of punishment is to produce an inhibition of behavior, which is quite different from weakening the response or the tendency to make it." The pupil has a tendency at times to forget the unpleasant consequences which follow an act for which he has been punished. If he does recall them, they do not always serve to inhibit his similar action in the future. They may only cause him to begin planning ways by which he believes he can avoid detection in the future.

The teacher who finds it necessary to resort to punishment as a means of establishing what he considers a desirable learning environ-

[9] By permission, from "Classroom Discipline" by Percival M. Symonds, copyright 1949, *Teachers College Record*, 51:147.

ment, should not overlook the undesirable concomitants that may result from his action. The situation usually involves numerous factors; it is more complex than just the teacher's answering the question as to whether the pupil should or should not be punished. More often the teacher will want to consider whether the action which he feels it necessary to take is of a nature to bring about beneficial results. These results should not only outweigh the possible unfavorable results; they should also preclude results which might bring about unfavorable emotional disturbances, or similar harmful results, over an extended period of time. For example, punishment may set up a state of fear or anxiety in the pupil. This may make it difficult for him to apply himself effectively to the learning experiences which are to follow. Thus it is possible that the very purpose which the teacher is attempting to achieve may be defeated by inappropriate or extreme forms of discipline.

The effectiveness of disciplinary action in the classroom depends to some extent upon the attitude held by the teacher toward the pupil or the class group. If the teacher is angry, the punishment may not only lose its effectiveness, but it may actually bring about an attitude of resentment on the part of the pupil. This attitude may become so acute that the pupil feels motivated to challenge the authority of the teacher in the class periods that follow. From such a beginning the pupil may reach the point where he comes to hate the teacher, the school, and everything associated with it. This feeling may even be extended to include his classmates. Under such conditions it is doubtful if much worth-while learning can take place.

Punishment is also usually a poor means by which the teacher should try to increase the pupil's interest in subject matter. There may be some exceptions, of course. For example, he may use it to bring about increased application on the part of the pupil. If this action should result in a series of successful experiences for the pupil, the result might well arouse further interest in subject matter content. But the possibility of obtaining such a successful chain reaction is rather remote. A motivation which carries a pleasant connotation usually has a much greater chance of arousing the pupil's real interest than does a form which is unpleasant.

There are times when classroom punishment may cause the pupil to lose a considerable amount of self-esteem. It may cause him to feel that he has lost so much status among his peers that additional unacceptable

action on his part will do little to humiliate him further. Whenever the pupil has developed such an attitude, the teacher may well expect more trouble from him. But even if he should create no further trouble in the classroom, his mental attitude has probably become such that it will be difficult for him to apply himself to his classroom work.

The author is not trying to point out in these paragraphs that punishment does not have a place in the training program of the classroom. He is only asking that the teacher weigh carefully the results which he can expect whenever he applies it. Too often the angered teacher avenges himself upon the pupil first and then does his evaluating afterwards. When at a later hour he has again become rational and composed, it may be too late for him to repair the damage which punishment has made upon the relationship between himself and the pupil. By then the results of his hasty action may already be in evidence and such results are not always pleasant.

But the teacher should not necessarily regard an emotional outburst by the pupil as an undesirable symptom in the classroom. Such an outburst may be the means for revealing basic difficulties in personal relationships between the pupil and himself. It is also quite possible that the pupil may even acquire emotional composure more readily if he has had opportunity to work off some of his pent-up feelings. Some teachers encourage the wrought-up pupil to write down his objections to such conditions as may be especially disturbing to him. This not only provides him with an opportunity to "gripe," but it also helps him clarify in his own mind certain aspects of the difficulty. Many an adult has followed a similar practice with considerable success. Possibly he feels better after pouring out his grievances in a letter to the offender. But before sending his missive, he lays it aside for later reading. After such an interval there is a strong probability that he will not send it at all. Nevertheless, for him, it may have been worth the effort which it took to put it into words.

Teacher self-control basic to the establishment of effective discipline. The effectiveness of the teacher's corrective measures depends in part upon the degree to which he maintains a satisfactory emotional balance while administering them. Above all, he should convey to the pupil the feeling that his measures are intended to correct a disciplinary situation, rather than to avenge his own feelings which may have been somewhat roughed up at the moment.

Pupils quickly sense whenever their actions affect the emotional stability of the teacher. Since they may come to enjoy the reaction which they are thus able to arouse, they sometimes deliberately set up situations which will irritate him. The typical procedure for doing this is known to every experienced instructor. There is usually first a slight deviation from the accepted pattern of conduct. If this does not bring a response from the teacher, the activity is intensified until the latter often explodes with an emotional outburst that is both sudden and startling to everyone present except the instigator. Under such circumstances the teacher may lose control of himself and put on a show that is terrifying to certain sensitive members of the class but delightfully entertaining to others.

The teacher who lets himself be led into an unbecoming situation is seldom in a position to establish an effective learning environment. Pupils tend to lose respect not only for him but also for what he is trying to accomplish. They concern themselves more with provoking him into an emotional tirade than in cooperating with him in achieving the purposes of the course. For example, some teachers become irritated whenever pupils assume unusual positions, such as slouching in their seats; others dislike the scraping of shoes on the floor. There are always a few pupils in every class who, as soon as they discover how easy it is for them to upset the teacher's emotional equilibrium by such actions, find it difficult not to yield to the temptation.

The teacher who lets himself be upset emotionally in the classroom often develops a definite dislike for the pupil who instigates such irritating disturbances. It is sometimes difficult for him to conceal this feeling not only from that pupil but from other members of the class. As a result, a feeling of hostility develops which may make it difficult for him to conduct the class in a normal manner. Even when he is trying to be impartial, there is always the possibility that some of the pupils will be looking for evidences of hostility. This in itself can have a distracting effect upon the interest and attentiveness which they display toward their classwork.

It is obvious from the points mentioned above that the teacher has to develop a certain amount of self-discipline and self-control if he expects to become an effective classroom leader and guide. His own example in these matters should serve as an inspiration for his pupils to the end that they will want to develop similar characteristics.

Need for understanding the implications of unacceptable behavior. Criticism is a common means by which the teacher makes the pupil aware of undesirable behavior. But unless such criticism is constructive and directive, the pupil may never understand how it is possible for him to improve himself. He may not even understand why he should make improvement. All that he is aware of may be that whatever he does is unacceptable to the teacher. The latter may, of course, criticize too much as well as too little. It is easy for this procedure to develop into a nagging process, which, instead of exerting a positive force for character development in the life of the pupil, only serves to irritate him. To make his suggestions constructive, the teacher should first be reasonable in his requests and then he should make certain that they represent worth-while concepts or ideals which the pupil can accept. If the teacher expects his pupils to pattern their behavior according to his own whims or conveniences, he may meet with a considerable amount of resistance. It may be possible that he can bring his pupils to conform to his demands, but if such conformity is largely the result of external pressure, the acquiescence of the pupils probably takes place only while they are under the immediate eye of the teacher. Such results seldom serve a constructive force in their lives.

Hymes [10] points out that in the home, good discipline is often a compromise between what the child wants and what the parent wants. There is every reason to assume that a similar principle can apply in the school between the pupil and the teacher. Since young people like to make decisions on their own, it is only reasonable for adults to consider their interests and their concerns when differences of viewpoint and opinion arise. Some pupils learn academic material rather slowly. Adults, however, often become impatient with their slowness and nag them until they eventually make little attempt to learn such material at all. Punishment does not always improve this type of situation. Each party usually has to be willing to consider the interests of the other, before a possible solution can be presented which is acceptable to both. Of course, if either party makes unreasonable demands the results are almost certain to be unsatisfactory. With authority on his side, the teacher is in a position to try to enforce his demands while the pupil is not. However, the latter has other means at his disposal which he may be motivated to use to gain his purposes.

[10] By permission, from *Discipline* by James L. Hymes, Jr., copyright 1949, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, p. 8.

Pupils who come from different social backgrounds may be accustomed to different standards of behavior. It is quite possible that the conduct of a particular pupil may sometimes be irritating to both the teacher and the class, and yet the child may not sense that he is socially in error. His previous training may have been such that he was never censored for such practices. Hence, it may take time for him to readjust himself to standards of conduct with which he is for the first time making an acquaintance.

Such a situation is reminiscent of a story told of a young German boy at the close of the recent war in Europe. When he was informed that without further delay he was to discard his Nazi ideology and accept and practice democratic idealism, he replied after a moment of hesitation, "How can I believe in something with which I am not as yet familiar?"

Similarly, the pupil in the classroom regulates his actions according to the behavior standards with which he is familiar.

Ways for Achieving and Maintaining a Desirable Classroom Environment

Rivlin [11] points out that "the teacher has a two-fold interest in the way his students behave." In the first place, "he is interested in helping these young people to mature emotionally and socially." Secondly, "he is also interested in achieving the other goals of education." It is his responsibility to make certain that one of these objectives is not achieved at the expense of the other. To be a successful teacher, he must find a way to achieve both. Only as the pupil succeeds in adjusting himself emotionally and socially to his environment, is he in a position to apply his best efforts toward achieving success in his learning experiences. It is even possible for him to achieve academic success without making the social adjustments that normally accompany it. In fact, such a situation occurs frequently. But the home also has to assume some of the responsibility for helping the pupil achieve these dual goals. It should not expect that the teacher try to do this alone.

The student teacher is not without responsibility for helping to establish and maintain a good learning environment in the classroom. Even when the cooperating teacher is in charge, the student teacher can do much to help remove the causes of unfavorable behavior prac-

[11] By permission, Rivlin, *op. cit.*, p. 354.

tices. For example, he may offer a helpful suggestion to the pupil who has lost interest in his work because of lack of understanding. This may prevent the pupil from initiating disturbances. In fact, the presence of the student teacher in the classroom as a resource person should have a wholesome influence upon the learning environment. If it does not do this, the student teacher should certainly analyze the reasons why he is so ineffective. The extent to which he can direct and control the actions of the pupils near him is usually a rather good indication of how well he will be able to control the class as a group when he takes over as a teacher.

Effective teaching and behavior problems. If the teacher can keep the pupils' attention centered upon the learning activities of the group, there is a good possibility that he can keep disciplinary situations reduced to a minimum. Pupils who are busy and interested in their classwork usually have little time to devote to mischief. In fact, they are seldom interested in such activities if the regular classwork is of a nature to hold their interest and attention. Of course it would be presumptuous to assume that the teacher can always plan and execute his work so well that pupil interest can be maintained without interruption at a high pitch. For example, the foreign language teacher has occasion to work with grammar materials at various times during the year. Such material in itself may not be particularly enlivening. Yet whenever he uses it the teacher should try to include learning experiences that are challenging enough to give the pupil the feeling that he is achieving worth-while objectives. On the other hand, if there is loss of pupil interest and a tendency toward misbehavior, the teacher may do well to examine the teaching practices which he is using. If they are at fault, he will certainly want to initiate changes in technique. Above all, he should not become emotionally disturbed to the point of lecturing the pupils on the need for their being more interested in their work. Interest is the result of stimulation. Whenever this factor is not present, a command will seldom, if ever, serve to induce or to create it.

Effective teaching and thorough planning go hand in hand. They include the giving of specific and clearly understood assignments. Disciplinary situations frequently arise whenever pupils have not understood the kind of work they are to do or how they are to do it. Their lack of preparation may then irritate the teacher so much that it eventually leads to unpleasantness between him and his pupils. The teacher may

even accuse one or more pupils of being lazy or indifferent toward their work. Such accusations may cause resentment on the part of the pupils, especially if they have made earnest effort to prepare their work but have been unable to find their way through it. Feelings of this extreme nature sometimes become so strong that pupils decide that it is time to make the teacher "eat his words." Whenever this happens, trouble begins.

Behavior problems also have a tendency to arise in the classroom when the teacher does most of the work himself. A lecture, for example, may become tiring to inactive pupils, and they yield to the temptation to break the monotony by creating a few diversions of their own. The first of these may be of a minor nature. However, even such a simple move as a passed note may mark the beginning of a whole series of activities which indicate loss of interest in the work which the teacher is trying to carry on. Whenever the teacher believes it desirable to take time for a somewhat lengthy explanation, he should hold his pupils responsible for major points in his presentation. If he can supplement his talk with outlines on the blackboard, he may make it somewhat easier for his pupils to follow along with the material. He should, of course, hold them responsible for the points which he covers. If they are aware of this responsibility, there is definite motivation for them to focus their attention on what is being said. This attention helps to prevent them from turning to other interests to occupy their time.

The teacher should plan the classwork so that there are no unnecessary breaks in the general procedure. Disturbances frequently arise when the teacher and pupils have to halt their work in order to look for material that should have been at hand when the class period opened. Some pupils are quick to extend such delays purposely in order to waste additional class time. Disorganized teaching leads to indifferent and irresponsible attitudes on the part of pupils. Even a conscientious pupil sometimes becomes discouraged or dissatisfied with such conditions and makes less than his usual effort to do acceptable work. On the other hand, he may complete his work so rapidly that unless the teacher makes provision for him to use his time to advantage, he may become a leader in classroom disturbances.

Group characteristics as related to group control. Many classroom teachers work with from three to six different classes during an average school day. No two of these react alike even under similar circum-

stances. As a result, the beginning teacher sometimes finds himself able to control certain of his classes quite well but he has difficulty with others. This is not necessarily a reflection upon his teaching ability, but it does indicate the need for his considering carefully the composition of the groups with whom he is working. The author is well aware of the seriousness with which even superior teachers regard this situation. It is not uncommon for a good teacher to call attention to the fact that a particular class includes a number of troublesome individuals. Even with experience, he may have considerable difficulty in gaining from such a group the type of behavior responses which he desires.

The degree of success with which the teacher controls the behavior of each of his class groups may well depend upon the extent to which he understands the basic characteristics of those groups and then makes provision to meet their various needs. It is possible that an entire class may be infected by the unfavorable attitude and actions of a single individual.

The following situation may illustrate the confusing aspects of such a problem.

A foreign language teacher had three sections of a beginning course. Two of these groups met in the morning, and the third met the last period of the day. It was this last period class in which trouble seemed to arise repeatedly. The teacher's first assumption was that since it was the last period of the day, both teacher and pupils were probably tired and therefore touchy. He made determined efforts to be patient with the pupils, but the results were not very satisfactory. The trouble seemed to stem from the replies of an overgrown boy who sat in the back row. Whenever the teacher would ask this boy a question, the latter would twist the reply so that he would not be answering the specific question which the teacher had asked. Instead, it appeared as though he were trying to direct attention to a related point of information. His action seemed to motivate other members of the class to give replies of a similar type. As a result, the work which the teacher had planned rather carefully would sometimes become disrupted and disorganized.

The teacher tried various techniques to overcome the problem, but with little success. It was only after he had watched this boy in other classes during succeeding years that he finally discovered what he believed was the cause of the difficulty. Whenever the boy was in a class in which a number of other individuals of equal maturity were present, his behavior was usually satisfactory. He would answer questions intelligently and appropriately. But whenever he was the only large pupil in the group, his undesirable manner-

isms seemed to evidence themselves. At such times he appeared intent on influencing those around him in much the same manner as he had in the earlier class. Yet whenever a class ignored his provoking remarks, he seemed to have no difficulty changing his manner and conforming to the conventional behavior pattern of the group.

There might be several reasons for the boy's peculiar behavior. In the first place, it was obvious that when he was the only large person in a group, he appeared to be conscious of himself. It was also obvious that he enjoyed provoking smaller pupils into becoming behavior problems. This may have given him a certain feeling of superiority. Whether it did this or not, the teacher recognized that some class groups had a very effective means for curbing his undesirable impulses. Their social disapproval was a force apparently more effective than the general disapproval which the teacher himself had to offer. Yet even this action still left the teacher with the problem of trying to understand why one group responded to the boy's motivation and the other did not. He finally concluded, rightly or wrongly, that within the unresponsive group there were pupils whose leadership influence outweighed that of the boy. Under such circumstances, his attempts were generally ignored by the group as a whole.

The teacher has to study the composition of his class groups carefully in order to determine how he can direct and guide them effectively. Even when he has had previous acquaintance with the individuals who make up the group, he can seldom anticipate just how they will react when they begin functioning as a unit. Pupils react quite differently under different kinds of environments.

Group factors that affect the behavior of individuals. Sheviakov and Redl [12] have analyzed a number of the behavior problems growing out of group activity and have classified these into six categories. Briefly they are as follows:

Factor I: *Dissatisfactions in the Work Process.* The pupil may be unable to adjust himself satisfactorily to such problems as the following:

Subject matter too easy or too difficult
Assignments too heavy, too light, or poorly planned or explained
Type of work and presentation of material too advanced or too infantile
Work activities too much on a merely verbal level

[12] By permission, Sheviakov and Redl, *op. cit.*, pp. 44–57.

Factor II: *Emotional Unrest in Inter-Personal Relations.* The pupil may have conflicts arising from his personal relations. Among these may be such as the following:

Individual friendships and tensions
Disorganization in group roles
Pupil-teacher frictions

Factor III: *Disturbances in Group Climate.* Sheviakov and Redl define this as "the *basic feeling*" tone which underlies the life of a group. As examples they list the following:

The punitive climate. The teacher sets up the behavior code on which pupils are accepted or rejected.
The emotional blackmail climate. The teacher binds the pupil to himself by emotional pressures.
Hostile-competition climate. Here competition becomes a life-or-death proposition for the pupils.
The group pride climate. Group loyalty becomes a fetish.

Factor IV: *Mistakes in Organization and Group Leadership.* The teacher fails in the successful handling of groups. Such situations as the following may arise:

Too much autocratic pressure from without
Too little or too much organization
Standards for group behavior that are too high or too low
Group organization out of focus with age, developmental maturity, background, and specific needs of group
Personal mistakes such as lack of tact, inconsistency in promises and threats, and wrong use of punishment and reward

Factor V: *Emotional Strain and Sudden Change.* Group members may all fall under emotional tension when such situations as the following arise:

Tensions of examinations, contests, and events
Boredom resulting from lack of focus on basic needs of pupils
Sudden changes in behavior requirements, such as may result from change in leadership or instructional techniques

Factor VI: *The Composition of the Group.* Discipline problems may develop whenever there is something wrong with the composition of the group. The following are some of the criteria which the teacher may consider when grouping individuals:

Age and development
Socio-economic background, racial elements, and so forth

Intelligence and knowledge
Interest and work acceptance
Physical coordination
Organizational maturity

Characteristics of a unified working group. After having looked at some of the causes of group disciplinary situations, the prospective teacher may well examine briefly some of the factors which tend to weld a group into a smooth-working whole. It is obvious from past discussions that when personal friction exists within a class group, trouble is almost certain to arise. This trouble may develop either between pupils or between teacher and pupils.

The teacher who works toward obtaining harmony, cooperation, and shared responsibility among his pupils is usually able to prevent serious cases of personal conflict from arising in his classes. In this respect, the teacher's position is somewhat like that of the military strategist who believes that a good offense is preferable to a good defense. The building up of good relationships among individuals is, of course, vital to the success of any group. Therefore, the teacher should place it high among objectives toward which he works day by day.

Even within the working relationships of a cohesive group it is usually possible for individuals to achieve personal as well as group goals. Of course, there is always the possibility that the two may come into conflict with each other. If such a situation arises in the classroom, it is obvious that some type of choice has to be made. At such times the teacher who helps his pupils recognize that group goals are often but extensions of individual goals, may be able to get them to work together in such a manner as to avoid conflicts among themselves. The rapport in a working body, such as a class, is most essential to its success. It can usually be developed if the pupils are willing to respect the rights of one another as individuals.

Cooperation as a class characteristic has to be practiced if it is to become meaningful to the members of that group. Yet misdirected cooperation can often become a source of considerable concern to the teacher. Pupils sometimes cooperate toward undesirable ends as readily as they do toward those that are desirable. Most experienced teachers have little difficulty in recalling the many cooperative hands through which a note passed in traveling from one side of the classroom to the other.

Leadership responsibility which is appropriately shared can contribute much toward creating wholesome working relationships within the classroom. But a class cannot always develop qualities of this type without the guidance and direction of someone who has made them a part of his own experience. This is the role that the teacher should be willing to assume the moment that he steps into the classroom and becomes responsible for his first class group.

Evaluation of behavior as it relates to social goals. The pupil is not in a position to improve his behavior until he understands why it is unacceptable to the social order of which he is a part. Therefore, the teacher may have to help him evaluate what he has done, or what he is doing at a certain time, before he can come to such an understanding. This evaluation may be either a gradual or a rapid process. For example, if the pupil suddenly oversteps the bounds of accepted behavior, the teacher may have to inform him of this fact in a rather positive manner. Of course, punishment can serve as an unpleasant reminder to him that he is not to repeat the offense. But a teacher sometimes places so much emphasis upon the unpleasant aspects of punishment, that both he and the pupil overlook the actual type of behavior which the punishment is intended to inhibit. Whenever this happens, the pupil obtains little positive guidance toward improving the behavior pattern of which the teacher originally disapproved.

A pupil sometimes plans deliberately to violate the social mores and regulations under which he is living. At such times he probably fails to realize that the society of which he is a part and not the teacher personally, established the social order which he plans to violate. He seldom comprehends all of the implications of his planned action. He probably does not realize that the enjoyment which he expects to obtain from his action is only obtained at the expense and possible injury of other individuals.

For example, the boy who impulsively places a thumbtack on the chair seat across the aisle from his own knows that he should not do it. Yet the anticipation of seeing someone jump up with a shriek motivates him so strongly that he proceeds with the plan.

Possibly the teacher should punish such an individual for what he does; but even more important may be the need for a full evaluation of the implications connected with the act. The result which the teacher de-

sires is, of course, a change in the pupil's attitude. The teacher will have to decide whether he can achieve this objective best by combining punishment with evaluation or by using the latter alone.

Pupils are best able to adjust themselves to personal regulations if they understand the reasons for the establishment of those regulations. An illustration may help to clarify this point.

The student council of a certain high school became rather disturbed by the abuses of some of the privileges which its student body was supposed to enjoy. Conditions in this regard were probably no worse in this school than in many others, yet the council decided that improvement was desirable. After it had evaluated the situation, it presented a number of recommendations to the faculty of the school for approval. The following points were included in this report:

1. *Use of Telephones.* A pupil shall limit his telephone conversation to three minutes if another person is waiting to make a call. Calls shall be made for important home and school reasons only. If he damages the phone, he must pay for the damage. Violators are subject to having their telephone privileges suspended. Their parents may be notified of their violations.
2. *Treatment of School Property.* Pupils shall not mar, molest, or deface bulletin boards, desks, posters, or walls. If a pupil damages school property, he must repair, replace, or pay for the damaged item.
3. *Use of Library.* Pupils are not to cause disturbances in the library, nor are they to misuse materials allotted to them. A fine is to be imposed on overdue materials beginning the first day after receipt of the first overdue notice.
4. *Pupil Courtesy.* Pupils who exhibit discourteous conduct to outside speakers during classes or assemblies are to be denied the privilege of attending such events in the future.

The points which this student council included in its recommendations are not new, nor are they novel. Some readers may say that every high school expects its student body to follow such practices as a matter of course and that it is the faculty's duty to see to it that they are observed. This may be true. Yet the fact that the representatives of the student body in this school saw the need for emphasizing such points was an indication that they had evaluated the behavior of the group of which they were a part. They believed that changes for improvement were desirable, and so they proceeded to recommend them. By their ac-

tion they were placing a part of the responsibility for behavior improvement upon their own shoulders as well as upon the shoulders of other members of the student body. Yet it should be recognized that the action of the student council did not take away from the members of the faculty the professional responsibility which was already theirs; it only helped to strengthen this responsibility. At the same time, this action provided the pupils with experience in conducting and assuming personal responsibilities which they might otherwise not have had.

Continued evaluation of a pupil's social behavior is valuable for the pupil as well as for the social group of which he is a part. It directs attention to the conventions that govern social life both within as well as outside of the school. It also helps to make the pupil conscious of his relationship with these conventions. Both the staff and the student body of the school should help the individual gain the type of experience which he needs to be able to meet social standards in a satisfactory manner.

There are differences of opinion as to how much responsibility pupils should assume in the operational and governing program of the school. It is true that they are young and often inexperienced; yet they can scarcely gain experience in matters of control and leadership unless they are given some opportunity to try their hand at it. However, general safety and economy have to be considered whenever the school provides them with such experience opportunities. Hence it may be desirable for the pupil to obtain at least some of his experience under the guidance and direction of experienced personnel. Such responsibilities as those connected with social functions, attendance, library duties, assemblies, and athletic events are but a few of the many experience possibilities that are open in every school. As the pupil works with the individuals who sponsor and direct these activities, he is in a position to evaluate the type of leadership ability needed to guide these activities successfully. This places him in a position where he can work toward acquiring this type of ability himself. Yet there are, no doubt, times when he does not know how to conduct himself appropriately. It is at such times that the sponsor should guide and direct him rather than wait and censure him after he has made embarrassing or damaging mistakes. Most important of all, the teacher should try to help the pupil develop a sound set of social values which can serve as a guide to him in the present as well as in the future.

There may be times when the teacher believes it is desirable to modify prevailing regulations governing pupil conduct. Such changes may be designed to benefit the group and yet not endanger its security. To succeed, of course, such action requires that all pupils understand the responsibilities that are involved. To illustrate, some pupils may feel a need for more freedom to move between study halls and library. They are convinced that the time and effort required to obtain permission for such movements could be used to better advantage. It may be possible to grant this freedom if the pupils affected are willing to accept the responsibilities that are a natural part of this privilege. But before they receive the grant or accept the responsibilities, it may be well for them and the teacher to set up safeguards whereby such violations as may arise can be handled in an orderly and approved fashion. An arrangement of this type will serve to prevent violators from insisting later that the controls were not a part of the original agreements.

Pupils are human, and probably in most groups there are always a few who are not willing to accept responsibility for their own behavior. In so far as it is possible, the other pupils should not be made to suffer for the infractions of these individuals. It is scarcely just for the teacher to remove the privileges from an entire group just because one or two pupils violated their trust. The teacher should try to help these few recognize that by their actions they are endangering not only their own privileges but also the privileges of those whose behavior has not been at fault.

Improving pupil adjustment to the learning environment. It is obvious that when the pupil has adjusted himself well to his environment there is less incentive for him to become a disciplinary problem. For this reason, the teacher should try to discover those situations in the classroom to which the pupil does not react favorably. These can very well be the causes of a great many cases of undesirable conduct. Many of them are the result of conflicts or attitudes that have developed outside of the school. Yet, regardless of their source, their effect upon the pupil is often considerable. Hymes [13] probably has this point in mind when he states that "only occasionally do we know the pressures on children" that cause them to act as they do. It is not uncommon for pupils to carry into the schoolroom grudges between families or individuals. Whenever this happens, it is quite possible that some of these

[13] By permission, Hymes, *op. cit.*, p. 30.

grudges may flare up at unexpected as well as inconvenient times. Such occasions may develop out of rather commonplace activities.

For example, the teacher may ask two of his pupils to place material on the blackboard, but he is completely puzzled at what happens when they begin working side by side. The one attempts to use all of the board space or tries to monopolize articles such as erasers or chalk. To get even, the other erases some of this person's work. Unless stopped immediately, such feuding can be carried to rather unpleasant lengths. Of course, the members of the class who are "in the know" about the ill feeling between these two pupils are quite aware of what is happening. But at the moment the teacher may be completely baffled. He may have to make numerous inquiries and observations before he finally discovers the real cause back of this annoyance.

In the case of the two individuals described above, the teacher may find it difficult to change their attitudes toward each other, especially if the trouble extends back into their immediate families. But at least he should try to help them overcome their negative feelings. If they should by chance hold certain common interests, it may be possible for him to develop some of these. By this means they may discover the advantages, as well as the pleasure, of working together toward common purposes. The teacher may also try placing them in groups in which there is emphasis upon cooperative effort. Under such circumstances, they may begin sublimating their personal feelings toward each other to the attainment of group goals. He should certainly never place them in a position where there is emphasis upon personal rivalry. To do so may tend to intensify rather than to eliminate the ill feeling that exists between them.

Fear sometimes prevents the pupil from adjusting himself in a satisfactory manner to his classroom environment. It may arise from any one of a number of causes. A sensitive pupil, for example, may fear the new teacher who has gained the reputation of being a severe disciplinarian, or the pupil may be enrolled in a required course which, he has heard, is a difficult subject to master. These fears and others like them may cause him to react negatively to suggestions which the teacher makes. As a result, he is labeled in the teacher's mind as a stubborn, unresponsive individual. Although such situations are not necessarily of a serious disciplinary nature, they can develop into such. This is especially the case, should the teacher indicate an impatient or unsympathetic attitude toward him.

Before the teacher punishes a pupil who refuses to carry out suggestions or commands, he should study carefully the motives for this refusal. If the child has been orderly in his previous behavior, there may be a serious reason for his refusal at this time. He may be ill, or conditions may be such that the carrying out of the request will place him in an embarrassing position before his classmates. Therefore, rather than reveal this condition to the teacher, he simply refuses to carry out the order. Sometimes a situation of this type may have humorous as well as tragic aspects. The following incident appears to have had both of these factors.

In the upper grade of an elementary school a boy had torn the seat of his trousers rather badly. The accident had occurred during the noon hour, but rather than go home, the boy decided to meet conditions as best he could for the remainder of the school day. He knew that everyone but the teacher was aware of what had happened. All went well until the class came forward for the arithmetic recitation. Since he had always done good work, the teacher requested that he place one of the more difficult problems on the front blackboard. The request brought a ripple of laughter from the class, especially when the boy refused to leave his seat. The teacher may have thought that this group action indicated a sympathetic attitude toward the pupil's defiance. Whatever his thoughts may have been, he did not hesitate long before stepping forward to seize the boy. But before he could do so, the latter revealed his pathetic condition in no uncertain words. The class roared with laughter. The teacher could do little more than make an embarrassed retreat to his desk, exclaiming with considerable disgust as he went, "Why didn't you tell me at first what was wrong?" The pupil did not reply to the question; he knew only too well why he had refused to explain his misfortune to the teacher before the class hour. The members of the class also knew why. All of them respected this teacher as an individual, but his nature was such that they did not feel free to confide in him. Too often in the past they had received little sympathy or consideration when they had brought their personal problems to him.

Relationship of physical condition of classroom to pupil behavior. The physical conditions under which the pupil is working may affect his reaction to his environment. For instance, conditions which cause physical discomfort often bring about irritability. Furthermore, they have a tendency to detract from the work which the teacher is attempting to do.

Seats and desks which are uncomfortable may not only cause the

pupil to tire quickly but may also cause him to assume unnatural positions. Whenever he assumes these positions, other pupils are sometimes tempted to use pins or pointed pencils to irritate him. Naturally, such action almost always leads to a disturbance involving the entire class. Many of the older types of desks have sloping seats which are quite uncomfortable to the occupant. In order to keep himself from slipping forward, the pupil sometimes finds it convenient to brace his feet against the back part of the seat in front of him. Thus he may be more comfortable, but his feet are almost certain to cause discomfort to the pupil who sits in front of him. Such a situation can easily develop into a trouble spot in the classroom.

The pupil should have a desk where he can shelve material which he is not using during the class period. Whenever such material is piled up on the edge of his desk, he often does not have room to work comfortably. Sometimes it happens, too, that part of the material falls to the floor during the working period. This is not only disturbing to every member of the class, but it also sometimes serves as an incentive for other pupils to shove off material of their own. Their action is, of course, intended to add to the disturbance.

Articles such as loose screws and bolts, dangling shade cords, and squeaky desks and chairs readily become play tools in the hands of pupils. It is often difficult for the teacher to determine whether the pupil's movements which, for example, may cause the desk or chair to squeak, are intentional or not. For that reason, it is better for him to remove the disturbing factors, if possible, than it is for him to spend time and effort determining whether or not the pupil is deliberately planning to produce the noise. Dangling shade cords that are within easy reach of a pupil are often an open invitation for play. Of course, an ingenious pupil who has lost interest in the classwork can always find ways and means of entertaining himself in the classroom. This is the case even though such properties are not present. Yet it seems advisable for the teacher to remove at least such obvious distractions as do not contribute to the wholesome atmosphere of the classroom itself, and which, in the end, might serve to attract the pupil's attention away from his classwork.

The importance of proper lighting and heating to the establishment of a wholesome classroom atmosphere should not be overlooked. They definitely affect pupil attitude and behavior. Rooms that are too warm

frequently cause sluggishness or irritability on the part of both teacher and pupils. Similarly, cold rooms are not only uncomfortable but may cause pupils to become restless. Weak lights as well as glaring lights may cause a pupil to turn away from the work which he is supposed to be doing in order to seek for other, more comfortable, ways in which to spend his time. The teacher should at all times be ready to make classroom adjustments which will add to the effectiveness of the room as a place in which learning takes place. Individual items in themselves may not appear particularly important, yet when placed together, they sometimes affect the conduct and behavior of every person in the room.

Training for a wise and satisfactory use of time. The adolescent seldom has an accurate concept of time. On the other hand, teachers become more or less time conscious because of their participation in a daily schedule of classes. They have to plan their work to meet the limitations of the class hour or the grading period. Their concern for the need to accomplish a specific amount of work within a set time often presses heavily upon their minds. As a result, they begin prodding their classes to do more work. If such pressure becomes unreasonable, pupils often react negatively, and disciplinary problems are the result.

The teacher should consider the time factor not only as he is planning his work, but also as he is developing it. This is especially true of the long-term assignment.

For example, as the class begins working on such a unit one of the pupils may notice that a report or a paper is due in three weeks. To him that is a long time away. He sees no need for beginning on this aspect of the work as yet. Time goes by, and the day before the report is due the teacher reminds the class that all reports are to be in on the following day. A number of the pupils have completely forgotten about this phase of the assigned work. Suddenly they realize that the time remaining is too short for them to complete it satisfactorily. Their immediate reaction is one of resentment. They feel that the teacher should have warned them that the deadline was approaching. Now they feel that he has no right to expect them to have the work in on time. This feeling of injustice can easily lead to the development of unpleasant relationships between themselves and the teacher.

Teachers can help pupils plan their work so that they become conscious of the time factor. For instance, it may be possible in the long-unit arrangement to break the work down somewhat so that it can be spread over short, specific periods of time. Although it may at first

appear that such a step defeats one of the major purposes of the long unit, it may only be necessary to use it for a limited period of time with those pupils who cannot budget their time adequately. The shorter divisions of time may make it possible for such individuals to work efficiently because they have to meet an immediate objective rather than one that is more distant.

Throughout the unit the teacher may find it desirable to call attention rather frequently to the relationship between the amount of work that is to be done and the time allotted for it. Although he should emphasize this point until he is certain that the pupils are conscious of it, he should not continue it until they become irritated at his frequent reviews of the situation.

There may be occasions when both teacher and pupils should evaluate time as a factor in their school work. Such an occasion may arise when pupils protest that the amount of work which the teacher has assigned cannot be completed in the time available. Their rebellious attitude may indicate how deeply they are concerned about this problem. Moreover, arguments on such matters seldom lead to constructive results. Therefore, a frank examination of conditions may help both to recognize the factors that are complicating the situation. Such a study may also help to eliminate some of the personal antagonism that has developed because of attitudes toward this problem. In such an examination, the teacher should help the pupils understand the advantages of budgeting time for study purposes. The result of such a cooperative examination should bring about not only an improvement in teacher-pupil relationships within the classroom, but also an improvement in individual study habits.

Respecting sincere effort on part of the pupil. The teacher who respects the sincere effort of the pupil to do acceptable work has done much to gain that pupil's respect. But it is not always possible for the teacher to understand how hard the pupil has really worked. The results which he brings to class do not always indicate the actual amount of effort which he has put forth. In fact, his efforts may have been rather futile in producing evident results. Therefore, any attempt on the part of the teacher to ridicule his unsuccessful efforts may lead to behavior difficulties in the classroom later.

Whenever the pupil has failed, the teacher should solicit his cooperation in determining the real causes of the difficulty. This should be

done on a cooperative basis rather than on one in which the pupil plays the role of a confessor. Usually the pupil will not hesitate to reveal his difficulties if he is aware of them, providing that he has the assurance that the teacher is intending to help rather than to punish him.

Whenever the pupil senses that his efforts at learning are not acceptable to the teacher, he may try to cheat or to solicit assistance from other pupils in the work which he is attempting to do. It is not an uncommon experience for teachers to have a pupil turn in work which they are certain is not the product of his own efforts. Even a capable pupil is sometimes driven to such action by the teacher who does not, or is not willing to, recognize the difficulties under which he may be working. Most pupils probably have scruples against cheating. But when these scruples are weighed alongside of the pressures which a teacher sometimes exerts, they may decide that they prefer to disregard the scruples.

Teacher pressures may take one of several forms. The sarcastic remark is probably the most inhuman of all. It is a barb before which the pupil is generally defenseless. But even worse, along with it the teacher sometimes threatens failure to the pupil. Whenever this happens, the pupil may hear his doom sounded out about as follows: "I won't mention it again, John, but you either get that work in by Friday or take an E." The smugness with which a teacher issues the ultimatum is often enough to enrage even the boy or girl who has not tried to do his work. But what it does to the pupil who has tried and failed, can only be conjectured. Such a threat can well cause pupils of either type to initiate action which will give the teacher something to worry about in the days ahead.

The teacher should not be censored for establishing reasonable standards of achievement and then expecting pupils to meet them. It is his responsibility to do this. But the manner in which he shows his appreciation for the individual pupil's effort to try to achieve them usually has much to do with indicating how well that pupil will respond to him in the future. A pleasant word of encouragement is a powerful force for action. If the teacher uses it wisely and appropriately, it may motivate a pupil to undreamed-of efforts. The latter may not always expect praise for completing the daily assignment, but he does appreciate getting recognition for any sincere effort to do so which he may have put forth.

Respect honesty rather than pretension. Teachers who attempt to bluff in their classes create a situation ideal for the development of behavior problems. Every teacher has his weaknesses; that characteristic is no crime in itself. But the teacher who pretends to be other than what he really is, is seldom able to control a class group effectively for any extended period of time. Pupils quickly sense insecurity and pretense and most often respond to it in a negative manner. Yet they may not reveal their attitude in anything stronger than a display of disgust and impassive action. But even these attitudes can be deadly to the development of effective learning habits.

Bluffing or pretense can also lead to unpleasant relationships between pupil and teacher. Whenever the teacher indulges in either of these, the pupil may become more concerned with involving him in technical aspects of the classwork than in engaging in worth-while learning experiences. To him the discomfiture of the teacher may become a pleasing experience; this may cause him to cooperate most willingly with other pupils in achieving such an end. In such cases, it is not uncommon for the pupil to bring extraneous material into the classwork with the hope that it will be so foreign in nature as to confuse and befuddle the teacher. The tragedy of such a situation is that the pupil puts forth much effort to achieve an end which does not make a wholesome contribution to his own experience or that of the other members of the class. It would obviously be better for him to direct this energy into worth-while channels, but the bluffing teacher is not always in a position where he can guide this effort satisfactorily.

If pupils do not respect the teacher who is a pretender or bluffer, neither do they respect the chronic apologizer. Pupils usually accept a frank acknowledgment of failure or error without too much concern. However, the teacher should avoid the repetition of such incidents if he expects to retain the respect of his class. It is quite possible that the teacher may sometimes make an error in judgment and punish a pupil who has not been guilty of a misdemeanor. Failure to acknowledge such a mistake can make a lifelong enemy of that pupil. Such an incident is not easily forgotten even when amends are made afterwards. It is seldom ever forgotten if the teacher does not have the courage to acknowledge that he has been in error.

Punishment should be appropriate and impersonal. The beginning teacher may have heard that it is well for him to deal firmly with his

pupils by making a public example of the first individual who misbehaves. Such a practice does not always work to the teacher's advantage. Of course, there may be times when such action may have an inhibiting effect upon the group, but there are also times when the pupil who is used as the example in the case becomes a sacrifice to the principle. A rather firm approach to discipline is usually desirable, especially during the opening days of school. However, the approach should be such that the result will work to the advantage of all members of the class, and not just to a few of them.

If punishment is necessary, it should be of such a nature as not to humiliate the pupil in front of his classmates. It is true that in some cases humiliation may prevent him from repeating his offense, but it may also deaden his response to further leadership by that teacher. Furthermore, it may make him a martyr in front of his classmates, even though they may have generally disapproved of the things which he did. Under such conditions the teacher may jeopardize, rather than further, the offender's progress and growth.

The teacher can not, of course, condone pupil behavior which interferes with the work of the group. To do so would be unfair to the individuals who are a part of that working body. Yet he should attempt to correct the situation in such a manner as to aid the offender in retaining his self-respect as well as his social status. If such a classroom situation really becomes serious, it is not an uncommon practice for the teacher to remove the pupil from the group. If such action is really necessary, the teacher should do it in an impersonal manner so that the pupil will sense that it is being done for the benefit of the group and not because it appears that the personal feelings of the teacher have been hurt. A remark such as the following by the teacher may help to bring about a favorable understanding of the situation: "Jack, it seems that your actions are interfering with the work which we are trying to do. For this reason we shall have to ask you to leave the classroom." As soon as possible then, the teacher should discuss the whole problem with the pupil in a private conference. Here again he should emphasize the professional reasons why he had to take such steps; but whatever he does, he should not apologize for them. Of course, if the teacher removes the pupil from the room, he is responsible for providing a place to which he is to go so that he will not disturb other classes.

A rather common form of punishment is for the teacher to deny the

pupil a privilege which the pupil values rather highly. For example, he may detain him after school while his classmates are free to follow their various social inclinations. Or he may remove him from a committee or team on which he has been serving. But such a practice also has its undesirable aspects. Sometimes the loss through such action is greater than the gain.

As an example of such a situation, Rivlin [14] points out that it is usually unwise to bar a pupil who has misbehaved in class from going on a trip with the group or from attending a motion picture presented as part of the classwork. He believes the possibility is always present that the trip or picture may arouse the pupil's interest in the problem which the class is studying. Therefore, the teacher's action may defeat one of the major purposes of the course. Successful teachers usually try to find ways for dealing with disciplinary situations other than by removing the pupil from the class group. They realize that this step should be taken only as a last resort; it certainly should not be one of convenience for the teacher.

Establishing an atmosphere free from tensions. Teachers deal with misconduct in the classroom in various ways. They differ as to the types of techniques which they believe are most effective. Yet most of them, no doubt, agree that teachers who are able to keep the atmosphere of their classrooms free from tensions seldom have to deal with many of the irritations that lead to misbehavior among groups. Pupils who have to work under tense conditions are often unable to control their own reactions. They do and say things which are unreasonable and which often are not in keeping with their normal character. Such outbursts may be the result of tensions created by rigid working conditions in the classroom. The teacher himself may be affected by them; he becomes nervous and irritable. Thus, when any slight deviation from normal in pupil activity occurs it can readily take on the appearance of misconduct in his eyes. Disciplinary action is almost certain to follow such an impression.

It is important that the teacher try to keep himself in good mental and physical health. A run-down teacher is often one who is unable to control his class groups effectively. Pupils notice rather quickly whenever he is overly sensitive to small disturbances. Under normal condi-

[14] By permission, from *Teaching Adolescents in Secondary Schools*, by Harry N. Rivlin, copyright 1948, Appleton Century-Crofts, Inc., p. 372.

tions he overlooks many of these. His negative reaction to such disturbances is evidence that he is directing his attention toward becoming a disciplinarian and away from being an effective teacher. This move is frequently the beginning of an unhappy cycle. In addition, it usually serves little of a constructive nature to either pupil or teacher. Whenever it arises, the teacher feels that he must move to obtain direct control of the class. But his pupils do not always understand the purpose of his disciplinary action. They resent his moves and, therefore, become more disturbing than before. Such a cycle may reach a critical point before teacher and pupil make the adjustments necessary for working in a compatible manner again.

Emotional self-control is a desirable attribute under most circumstances, but for the teacher it is a necessity. He should meet his behavior problems in a firm yet relaxed manner. Such action often serves to disarm the pupil who has been the instigator of the trouble in his classroom.

The author is convinced that most pupils respond in a favorable manner to a sincere, pleasant approach by the teacher. In fact, they seek to enroll in classes where teachers meet them in such a manner. An example may serve to support this view.

Just recently a certain college student completed a course in literature in which he received a grade of C. He did not question whether the grade should have been higher or lower, but he did make the following remark: "How can a man teach such an interesting subject as literature and appear not to enjoy it? This teacher never smiled once during the entire course." The following semester the student enrolled in another course in literature. This time he had a different teacher. During the second semester he remarked frequently, "This teacher is human. He seems to enjoy his classwork with us." Possibly the teacher's pleasant manner did something else for the student, for the grade which he received at the close of the second semester was an A. But of further interest was the teacher's remark written alongside the grade. It had no great bearing on the classwork of this student, yet the latter reread it several times with evident pleasure and enjoyment. It simply said, "You did good work in class even though you did let the girls do most of the talking." The remark was probably unimportant, except as it may have reflected a bit of observation on the part of the teacher. Yet it did indicate something for that student; it indicated that the teacher not only enjoyed teaching, he also enjoyed working with young men and women. Of equal importance was the fact that they enjoyed working with him.

This teacher had found a way to eliminate the tensions which tend to make a sweatshop rather than a workshop out of a classroom.

Teachers do not always get complete favorable responses. Hymes [15] believes that "the discipline which is a good compromise is a constant making-of-allowances." Many teachers would probably agree with this point of view. Yet some might question whether the "making-of-allowances" is always a sound disciplinary policy; there may be times when it is not.

Whenever individuals work cooperatively, they continue to function in a democratic manner only as long as they make allowances for differences of viewpoint. In fact, the success of the greatest of all social projects—that is, marriage—succeeds when its members accept this principle and abide by it. It is even possible for individuals with differences of viewpoint to build up respect for each other during the time that an agreeable compromise is being reached. Respect is lost most often when one of the parties attempts to force his will or viewpoints upon the other. In the classroom it is usually the teacher who tries to do this, but a pupil may also be guilty of the practice. In connection with this, the teacher who graciously considers the pupil's point of view on a disciplinary problem often gains rather than loses status in the eyes of that individual.

Some teachers believe that it is advisable to adhere strictly to every principle of order which they have established. They feel that it is a sign of weakness to compromise on any matter. This may be true in some instances. Yet there are often extenuating circumstances which make the application of the principle not only difficult but even ridiculous.

A teacher sometimes faces a situation such as the following: Some of his pupils have been coming in late at the beginning of the class period. In an attempt to stop the practice, he announces that the next tardy person will be required to stay in for one-half hour after school. The very next day Mary comes in late. It happens that this is her first offense. Dejectedly she explains that the lock on her locker failed to open immediately. It happens that the same excuse has been given repeatedly by the chronic offenders who, on this particular day, all happen to be in class on time. The teacher is convinced that Mary's explanation of her tardiness is true. Yet he knows that if he excuses the girl from the new penalty for tardiness, the other pupils will feel that he is showing favoritism. This places the problem squarely upon his own

[15] By permission, Hymes, *op. cit.*, p. 27.

shoulders. A decision in either direction is going to result in a certain amount of unpleasantness for him. If he had not made the rule, he would not now have the problem of enforcing it under unfavorable circumstances.

Many an experienced teacher prefers not to establish specific rules for behavior in his classroom. This leaves him free to deal with each case in an individual manner. Hence, if he finds it desirable to reach some type of compromise or agreement with a particular pupil, there are no specific regulations which prevent him from doing this. Another advantage to this arrangement is that the teacher is not directing the pupil's attention to the threat of what will happen, should he disobey. One of the teacher's major objectives is to get the pupil to accept responsibility for his own actions. If he can get him to do this the teacher does not place himself in a position where he is required to enforce a rule just to save face before the offending pupil or the rest of the class.

The beginning teacher may do well to remember that few teachers are able to get completely favorable behavior responses from all of their pupils. Yet such an ideal is one toward which most of them work.

Discipline and the teacher's philosophy. The student teacher, as well as the beginning teacher, should define rather clearly for himself what his attitude toward discipline is. He should realize that his problem will be but little, if any, different from those which other teachers face.

Adolescents have an exceptional capacity to make the most of life. If in their activities they choose to include the teacher as a friend, the result is generally pleasant for both parties. If, on the other hand, the teacher is not able to adjust himself so that he fits into their circle of activities, he may find it difficult to work with them effectively.

The teacher has a major responsibility for selecting the type of environment needed to make the achievement of his instructional goals possible. He should evaluate his procedures as well as his results repeatedly in order to determine whether he is attaining such goals. This action provides him with a basis for modifying or changing the learning environment to improve pupil progress. If such modification involves pupil behavior, there is always a possibility that the teacher may become so discipline-conscious that he comes to regard it as an objective in itself. Such a view may make it difficult for him to evaluate the pupil's learning activity in an objective manner.

It is not always necessary that pupils do their learning in the same

type of environment to which the teacher himself is accustomed to work. He should be able to achieve objectives even though there is some variation in the conditions under which his pupils are working. For example, one class may appear quite noisy and yet be able to achieve the purposes of the course. In fact, their noisy communication may be the means by which these ends are being achieved. However, in another group such communication may become a very disturbing factor. The teacher is responsible for recognizing the type of environment under which each group can function to best advantage. Then, so far as it is possible for him to do so, he should try to establish that type of environment in the classroom.

Whenever the teacher is disturbed by the behavior of some of his pupils, he may do well to evaluate whether his procedures are suitable for his purposes. Such an evaluation should be based upon facts and not upon his own opinion or emotional reactions. It is always possible that the conduct of pupils may not be as inappropriate as it appears. Sometimes a teacher becomes overly sensitive to a particular type of behavior. As a result, he becomes interested in changing it if for no other reason than that it irritates him. But he should also give consideration to other factors. He should determine whether this conduct contributes to or interferes with the attainment of his teaching objectives. He should also evaluate whether the habits which the pupils are acquiring are of a beneficial or of a harmful nature. Above all, he should keep in mind that discipline exists only for the purpose of establishing an environment in which pupil learning can function to its fullest capacity.

The teacher should not take himself or his work too seriously. He should learn to accept the "breaks of the game" as they come. Some irritations are bound to arise in the classroom. For some of these, the pupils are definitely not responsible.

For example, the teacher may begin drawing down a shade to shut out the sun. Suddenly the cord tears and the shade flies up with a crash. It is natural for the class to take an interest in the incident. However, there is little occasion for the teacher to become angry and to vent his anger upon the class. After all, it is no fault of theirs. The teacher who accepts such "breaks" in a philosophical manner does two things for his class. He helps them recognize the place of self-control in daily living. He also helps them retain their respect by not making them the victims of wrought-up emotions for which they are not responsible.

Teacher self-control is all-important in the classroom. The teacher who can combine this quality with a sense of humor seldom finds himself too greatly disturbed by routines which may at times become a bit disorderly. Furthermore, by not taking himself too seriously, he is often able to break tensions which develop around various forms of misbehavior. A sense of humor may also help to keep him from thinking too much about his own troubles. Whenever he indulges in the latter practice, he begins pitying himself. Such a step makes it increasingly difficult for him to direct his attention to the needs of others.

The teacher should learn how to laugh at himself even when his doing so makes him appear ridiculous. Sheviakov and Redl [16] make the following observation on this point: "There is a difference between the laughter you start, and ridicule. Real, especially self-directed humor, is the most disarming thing in the work with children that you could find." It may be said that humor is to the class group, what spice is to food. Too much or too little of either spoils the product; the right amount makes it doubly palatable.

Self-discipline is a necessary adjunct to teaching. It becomes functional as it becomes a part of the life of the pupil as well as of the teacher. Through its application both are in a position to achieve the type of development which makes social progress possible. Above all, discipline of any kind should upgrade rather than degrade the dignity and worth of the individual toward whom it is directed.

DISCUSSION TOPICS AND QUESTIONS

1. What were your concepts of the purpose of discipline when you were a high school pupil? In what respects were your concepts of discipline similar to or different from those of your teachers?
2. From your own experience discuss the extent to which punishment served to inhibit misbehavior. What type of school experiences do you recall most readily, the pleasant or the unpleasant? What is your feeling now about the punishment which you received in school? What are your feelings toward the teachers who were involved in administering it?
3. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of establishing specific regulations for controlling routine matters in the classroom. What can the teacher do to help the pupil become self-responsible?
4. To what extent should the teacher consider the pupil's previous background and experiences when disciplinary measures are being applied?

[16] By permission, Sheviakov and Redl, *op. cit.*, pp. 63–64.

How can he bring the other members of the class to accept the idea that it may be desirable to make allowances for these influences?

5. What criteria can the teacher use to determine the point at which the classwork should be interrupted to take care of behavior disturbances?
6. Under what conditions do pupils enjoy creating disturbances just to annoy the teacher? How may the teacher correct such situations after they have been initiated?
7. Select two disciplinary situations with which you were acquainted during your high school experiences. Analyze each carefully as to the following points: (*a*) causes, (*b*) success of corrective measures used, (*c*) measures taken to prevent recurrences of misbehavior.
8. Suggest constructive approaches toward solving such problems as the following: (*a*) repeated tardiness to class, (*b*) excessive classroom noise, (*c*) indifference to assigned classwork, (*d*) sudden emotional outbursts on the part of certain pupils.
9. Discuss the type of disciplinary problems which may arise on a field trip, at a class party, or at an all-school assembly. What factors determine the extent of the teacher's responsibility with such problems?
10. Mary's text disappeared from her desk while she was working at the blackboard. What appropriate steps may the teacher take to solve such a problem?

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GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

As has been pointed out in previous chapters, the secondary school has a responsibility in helping the adolescent bridge the gap between childhood and adulthood in a relatively short period of time. The young person who fails to make this adjustment in a satisfactory manner frequently remains dependent upon other people throughout his lifetime. Therefore, all the agencies who are concerned with his development should combine their efforts in helping him not only to find a place in life for which he is suited, but also to help prepare him for it. Schorling [1] has summarized rather well the school's responsibility toward such ends. First, he asks that it provide a type of guidance program that will enable the individual to develop a realistic and creative attitude toward modern life. Secondly, he asks that it provide a type of mental-hygiene program that will enable the individual to live on a higher level of personal vitality and adjustment.

To be effective the secondary school guidance program has to be planned so that it can function to advantage within its natural environment. After all, pupil experiences within that environment provide the homeroom teacher and counselor with the materials with which they are to work.

[1] By permission, from *Student Teaching* by Raleigh Schorling, copyright 1949, McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., p. 66.

Guidance and Counseling Are Today a Definite Part of the School Program

Meaning and purpose of guidance. Chisholm [2] sees in guidance an attempt "to help the individual discover his own talents in comparison to the opportunities of the world and help him to prepare himself so that he can find or develop a place in which he can live a well-balanced life and contribute his part to the welfare of his fellow man." Since the needs of individuals differ, it follows that to be effective, guidance generally has to be applied on an individual basis. Yet this fact does not prevent the teacher from using his time economically when he is counseling on a group rather than on an individual basis. But before he does so, he should determine whether a majority of the group will profit from the experience. As has been pointed out in the previous chapter, there may be times when the conduct of the members of a group reflect the personality of the composite membership rather than of any one member of its body. Under such conditions, it will more than likely be desirable for the teacher to make a group approach to a guidance problem.

The teacher who intends to guide and direct his pupils successfully must have the ability not only to recognize their many problems but also to deal with these problems in a constructive manner. In these processes he must be able to evaluate his own ability to carry out guidance functions. If he feels that he is not qualified to counsel with the child on a particular problem, he should make other arrangements for bringing help to him. On almost every teaching staff there are some individuals who have specialized training in the field of guidance, even though it may be of a limited nature. These resources should be used to full advantage by the teacher. Yet they are not always available when they are needed. The element of time frequently makes it difficult to bring the right parties together at the right time. Some of the guidance problems which the classroom teacher faces may not be too unlike the following:

Bill comes from a poor family and his parents are placing considerable pressure upon him to quit school and go to work on a full-time basis. He has already worked some at a filling station near his home. In school he is doing rather poorly in his classwork. The teacher does not know whether he can

[2] By permission, from *Guiding Youth in the Secondary School* by Leslie L. Chisholm, copyright 1945, American Book Company, p. 3.

place further pressure on him to try to obtain improved work. Yet unless he improves, there is considerable probability that he will fail the course. The boy has passed the age for compulsory attendance and, regardless of what the teacher does, will probably quit school before long. The boy knows that the teacher is dissatisfied with his work; therefore, he avoids seeing him as much as possible. This makes it difficult for the teacher to gain his confidence.

After the teacher has studied the conditions of the case rather carefully, he decides to ask the boy's counselor for assistance. This appears desirable for a number of reasons. The pupil may have the feeling that the teacher is prejudiced against him because of his poor classwork. Thus he may not be willing to accept suggestions for help even though the teacher may be in a position to make them. In addition, the teacher may not have as much information on the out-of-school influences that have played a part in the boy's life as the counselor has. Therefore, there may be several reasons why the two should work together in seeking for a solution that will benefit the boy.

The reverse of the above situation is also possible. There may be occasions when the teacher has been able to create a good-will feeling between himself and the pupil. Hence, the adolescent is more willing to confide in him than in his homeroom counselor. The teacher who is in this favorable position should not pass up the opportunity to offer his assistance, providing he knows what steps it is best to take. But here the teacher must again recognize the extent of his own responsibilities. If he takes any action, he should keep the counselor informed of what he is doing. It is important that there be no misunderstanding between the two. After all, they are working for the pupil's good rather than their own. Misunderstandings at such times may not only be disturbing to those concerned but may even do considerable harm.

There are other types of guidance and counseling problems which are limited almost entirely to the teacher's immediate field of activity. The following case may illustrate one such type:

Mary has done well in Spanish during the early weeks of the course. However, during the latter part of the semester, she appears to have become indifferent in her attitude toward the subject. Her work has become increasingly poor. The teacher knows that Mary has the ability to do creditable work, for she has given evidence of this during the early part of the school year. After watching the girl at work, the teacher believes that there may be something about the way in which Mary studies the language that makes it difficult for her to master the material. Since he is familiar with the charac-

teristics of the language, he knows what she has to be able to do in order to make progress. He discusses these points with her and suggests procedures whereby she should be able to make improvement. At first the results are not too promising. But after a while the girl begins to improve. As she experiences increased success, she also shows increased improvement in her work. After some months she is once again well up with the average pupils in her class.

In this case, the guidance had to come from the teacher himself rather than from a selected counselor. The teacher was the one most familiar with Mary's difficulty and probably the only one who could give her constructive suggestions for learning Spanish. After he had determined what the difficulty was, he was able to draw upon his own experience as a teacher of Spanish to guide her in the development of desirable learning habits. In this type of case there was no occasion for him to ask for assistance from other members of the staff.

Chisholm [3] lists two aims in the field of guidance to which, he believes, the teacher should give major attention as he works with pupils. In the first of these it is the teacher's purpose to "help the individual pupil meet and solve his problem or problems." That is, the teacher helps the pupil to recognize his own needs. When he has done this, it becomes comparatively easy for him and the pupil to set up a program in which they can solve the problems that confront them. Progress results because their approach is purposeful and selective rather than a trial-and-error procedure.

The second aim is characterized by the term "self-guidance." This aim actually becomes the end of all guidance. In working toward it, the pupil develops his ability to become a self-reliant individual. However, he achieves this independence in most instances only after he has received guidance by experienced personnel. The teacher can best determine the effectiveness of such guidance by noting what the individual is able to do for himself when he has to depend upon his own judgment.

The high school teacher who helps in the guidance and counseling of pupils usually finds this aspect of his school activity especially challenging. He helps the pupil work toward the solution of his immediate problems, but he also helps him develop the type of self-guidance which makes it possible for him to meet his own future problems in an effective, satisfactory manner. As was pointed out earlier in the chap-

[3] By permission, Chisholm, *op. cit.*, pp. 7–8.

ter, individuals who do not develop the ability to direct themselves, frequently become dependent upon others. This opens the way for them to become the tools of individuals who seek to gain power for themselves. Such conditions are sometimes favorable to the development of dictatorships.

Interrelationship between teaching and guidance. The guidance specialist holds a unique position in the training program of the school. He meets with some pupils frequently; he sees others only rarely. In contrast, the classroom teacher is in daily contact with a definite group of individuals. He has to deal with their adjustment problems. He works with them when they have been absent from school because of illness or because of cuts. They know that he sees them as they are, both at their best and at their worst. Whether he intends to or not, the teacher who assumes his teaching duties in a responsible manner cannot avoid becoming a guide and counselor to boys and girls.

Counseling and guidance are definitely related to the necessity for making choices, choices that concern problems in group activities as well as courses. The types of problems which confront pupils during the time that they are in high school are many. This condition makes most of them receptive to counsel and guidance so long as they have reason to believe that counsel is being offered in a sincere and purposeful manner. But problems frequently arise when time is limited. For example, a pupil is in his homeroom and he has to make an immediate decision affecting a future course of action. At such times he and his teacher can probably do little more than consider a few evident facts before they proceed. Although this may not be a desirable practice, the situation exists so frequently that the homeroom teacher has to know how to counsel in an economical as well as in an effective manner even under such circumstances.

Many beginning teachers obtain their first positions in small schools. These schools seldom have sufficient financial resources to employ guidance specialists. Although the administrators in such schools usually have had some training in this field of work, they do not always have the time to deal with all of the problems that arise. Under such conditions, the beginning teacher should not be surprised to find himself serving as teacher-counselor to pupils on his first job. Whenever he is given these responsibilities, he may find it difficult to determine how far they extend. He can easily forget that there are other individuals in

the community, such as parents and club leaders, who are also active in guiding and counseling young people. He should at all times be willing to cooperate with these persons in any efforts directed at helping adolescents. Such guidance and counseling should result in cooperative as well as individual concern for the welfare of every young person in the community. The teacher should fulfill his part of this responsibility but he should not project himself into areas of work that are the major concern of others.

Because of his close contact with the work which the pupil is doing, the teacher is often the only one who can really sense the immediate needs of that individual. Such a contact makes it possible for him not only to recognize these needs but also to recognize that they change as the pupil matures. But recognition of this fact is only the first step. The pupil also has to develop confidence in the teacher's ability to give wise counsel. Whenever the pupil has reached this point, the teacher comes to assume an influential role in the life of that pupil. This role can sometimes be even greater than that which the parents themselves play.

The teacher should be careful not to use his teacher-counselor position as a means of exploiting the pupils in any of his classes or advisory groups for his own benefit.

For example, it is possible that he may have personal reasons for wanting to build up a large enrollment in his courses. One method of doing this might be to encourage his advisees to enroll in these courses, even though they might not be of a type to meet the needs of some of these pupils.

Such guidance practices are questionable in nature. Whatever counsel is given should always be given in terms of what it does to benefit the pupil. If the result is such that the teacher also benefits, then the counseling has served a dual purpose. But the teacher-counselor should give priority to the pupil's interests in all cases.

Teaching and guidance go hand in hand. The two are not separate activities. Therefore the more that the teacher can combine them, the more meaningful they become for the pupil. It is truly as Hamrin [4] says, "There is a place for every teacher in a complete guidance program."

Scope of the guidance program. Since the beginning teacher in the small school is generally expected to play a major role in directing guidance activities, it may be well to examine both the organization and the

[4] By permission, from *Guidance Talks to Teachers*, by S. A. Hamrin, copyright 1947, Bloomington, Illinois, McKnight and McKnight, p. 11.

scope of the program in which he is to play this part. The teacher is responsible for guiding pupils into the opportunities open to them. This means that the teacher should not only be familiar with the scope of the guidance program but should also know how to make this program of value to each pupil. Above all, it should help the adolescent to adjust himself so that he can gradually assume more and more of the new responsibilities that go with adult living.

If the guidance program is to help the pupil, it has to acquaint him with the opportunities that are open to him. In other words, means must be found whereby he can be brought to see and to evaluate the choices which lie ahead. As a participant in this process, the counselor must himself be able to recognize these opportunities and responsibilities and point them out to the pupil. McKown [5] lists ten of these as follows:

1. Acquaint the student with the history and development of his school.
2. Lead him to appreciate the necessity for education.
3. Show him the meaning and implications of education.
4. Acquaint him with the main forms of educational institutions.
5. Familiarize him with his local educational opportunities.
6. Assist him in his curricular and extracurricular selections.
7. Help him to improve, develop, and progress in his school tasks.
8. Lead him to appreciate and accept his own responsibility.
9. Encourage him to desire further education and training.
10. Show him the opportunities for his additional training.

The adolescent is sometimes hesitant to admit that he does not understand the terminology or verbalism with which the adult world surrounds itself. Even the names of high school subject areas sometimes reveal very little about the nature of the course work with which they deal. Incoming freshmen are sometimes mystified by such names as "household science" or "physical science."

The writer recalls one school in which there was a certain amount of confusion when all freshmen were asked to enroll in a course in psychology. Even parents expressed some doubts about the appropriateness of such a course

[5] By permission, from *Home Room Guidance*, by Harry C. McKown, copyright 1946, McGraw-Hill Book Company, p. 245.

until they discovered that its purpose was to aid the pupils in analyzing their own abilities and habits in a simple, realistic manner. Possibly the term "personal guidance" might have been more revealing.

Nevertheless, the incident indicates the need for conveying necessary information on course content to pupils in accurate and understandable language when the teacher is counseling and guiding them.

The school's guidance and counseling program touches upon many of the everyday needs of the pupil. He spends at the very least half of his active day in or around the school; therefore, this institution should assume considerable responsibility for his education. The manner in which he works or plays; the manner in which he gets along with his associates; or the manner in which he selects worth-while goals and tries to achieve them—all of these are involved in the guidance work of the classroom teacher or counselor. There may be times when the pupil requires little guidance. Again, there may be times when he needs a great deal. If he does need it, failure on the part of the school to supply it at the right time can result in a lowering of morale. There are times when it can be made a part of the regular classwork since it often deals with his immediate interests and activities. In this way it comes to have meaning for him. But the teacher cannot offer guidance at such times unless he is alert to the problems which his pupils face day by day. He has to understand that their problems are his problems. The chances of obtaining favorable results are generally good if teacher and pupils try to work together on problems of this kind.

It may be well at this time to call the attention of the student teacher to the scope of the guidance program in the school where he is working or expects to work. Because of inexperience, he can easily overlook some of the services which the regular staff teacher provides for the pupils in his classes. The more skillful the teacher is in doing his work, the more difficult it may be to detect the manner in which he guides his pupils toward specific goals. A suggestion here or there may be all that he offers at the moment. Yet these few words may be the means by which he makes a particular pupil aware of the possibilities before him. Guidance does not always involve problems of a major nature. Quite often a decision has to cover points which at the moment appear rather trivial. Yet such decisions, minor as they may appear at the moment, can often do much to lay the general groundwork upon which the individual builds character and habits.

Principles of guidance and counseling. In his description of the ideal counseling situation, Chisholm [6] refers to it as "the case of a rational being who is reasonably well informed about the facts involved in the problem he is facing availing himself of the mature judgment or counsel of one qualified to render such service." All counseling situations, of course, are not ideal. Neither should the teacher expect that the pupil is always "well informed about the facts involved." In many instances, it becomes a part of the teacher's responsibility to help supply these facts.

The following situation is an example of how teacher and pupil can work cooperatively to obtain facts on a case involving counsel.

John informs his homeroom teacher that he does not have time at home to complete his class assignments. He insists that his parents require all of his time for work about the home and farm. The teacher believes that the boy is sincere in his presentation of the case. However, he asks John to keep a brief log or diary of the ways in which he spends his time between the close of school and the hour at which he retires. He is to do this for one week. In addition, he is not to inform his parents of the plan. This is done so as not to modify the conditions under which he has been working.

At the end of the week the teacher and John sit down together and go over the results. The teacher recognizes one point immediately. The parents assign John specific tasks for which he is responsible. These tasks do not appear unreasonable in number, nor do they indicate that the parents are intentionally trying to use up all of the boy's time. Another point is also evident: John makes little or no effort to systematize his work. He leaves one task to begin another and then returns to the first task to complete it. Thus, a considerable part of his time is spent going from one job to another. His parents evidently make no effort to correct this practice. They appear to expect only that the boy complete the work which they assign to him.

After examining the log, the teacher asked the boy to set up a brief chart on which he listed his duties. Along with each item he placed an estimate of the time required to do the work. Then the estimates were totaled. The resultant figure was not unreasonable, a fact which the boy recognized immediately but which he could not understand. At that point the teacher helped him to work out a schedule which he agreed to follow for one week. Again he was to do his work without informing his parents of his change in procedure. At the end of the week the boy came back to report that the schedule had provided time for study. In addition, it had also provided time for a few other things.

[6] By permission, Chisholm, *op. cit.*, p. 158.

The teacher noted that the parents had not added additional responsibilities, even though the boy had time to do things for himself. Because of this, he told the boy that he could use his own discretion about informing them of the change in practice which he was following.

Among the principles which the teacher should recognize as he counsels with a pupil is one which is basic to all others. He should always recognize the dignity and worth of the individual. Possibly he should never attempt to counsel a pupil whom he is not able to respect nor toward whom he has a particular prejudice. The teacher should place his own interests in a secondary position whenever he is counseling. He has a right to express his viewpoints on any matter under discussion, but he has no right to try to force these views upon the person whom he is counseling. Instead, as pointed out previously, it is his responsibility to obtain data which are accurate and which will serve as a basis for evaluation in the case under discussion. He may find it desirable to employ the assistance of the pupil in obtaining these facts, as the teacher did in John's case, and thereby provide the pupil with experience in making judgments that are based upon facts rather than upon opinion. Such training should bring about increased maturity of judgment on the part of the pupil.

The teacher should not permit personal feelings to enter into the guidance or counseling process. He should develop the same objective techniques in making decisions that he expects the pupil to develop. Such a step should make it possible for both parties to discuss problems openly and frankly. Under such conditions, the teacher should not punish or scold the pupil, especially if the latter is making a sincere effort to cooperate.

Little progress is possible in any teacher-pupil counseling situation unless the persons concerned are willing first to look for a common problem and then a solution to that problem. Such a step should be initiated early in the activity, to eliminate wasted effort as well as wasted time. Furthermore, it should be done in such a way that it trains the pupil to look for the heart of the difficulty which he is facing. If the teacher and pupil do not make such identification when they begin a counseling experience, more harm than good may result from any hit-and-miss efforts which they may employ. It is the teacher's responsibility to undertake the identification process as soon as a situation arises in which the pupil needs counsel or guidance.

An example of the need for identifying the pupil's problem may be found in the situation where the teacher of the first-period algebra class reports that Jerry is repeatedly late to his class. Jerry lives about two miles across town and drives an old car to school. The excuse for his tardiness is almost always the same: he had car trouble along the way. However, his car always seems to run well when it is time for him to leave school in the afternoon. Jerry's homeroom teacher has discussed the question of his tardiness with him several times but with no improvement in promptness. His parents insist that he leaves home early enough for him to be on time for his first class. The boy does not deny this; he only explains that the trouble on the way always delays him.

The teacher does not question the boy's explanations. However, as he finally asks him to describe his specific troubles in detail, the boy's answers appear vague and indefinite. He simply says he had tire or engine trouble. The teacher begins to suspect that Jerry has a reason for wanting to be late. Therefore, he asks the algebra teacher what her usual routine is when working with her first-period group. It seems that it is customary for her to collect homework papers at the opening of the period. She admits that occasionally she forgets to ask a tardy pupil for his paper. This happened to Jerry once or twice which was evidently often enough to convince him that if he were late, there was a good chance that he would not have to account for this part of his preparation. Upon questioning, he admitted that this was the case. At this point both Jerry and his counselor knew that the real problem had been identified. Furthermore it was really less difficult to find a solution for the problem than it was to identify it in the first place. As soon as the boy discovered that the counselor knew the cause for his tardiness, he agreed at once to change his practice and be on time.

Guidance and counseling are responsible activities. Therefore, the classroom teacher should not regard them lightly because they are not listed as a part of his classroom load. But he also has other work to do. To carry on both activities, he has to budget his time carefully so as to obtain maximum results from his efforts. Many classroom teachers do both types of work and do them well year after year. They know that there are few experiences in the teaching game that provide greater satisfaction than those in which they help boys and girls make the kind of adjustments that their environment requires.

Scope of guidance problems. Since every pupil in school is a potential candidate for guidance and counseling, the areas in which such assistance is called for are many. Routine problems, such as the selection of subjects, become rather commonplace when compared to the other

difficulties on which pupils seek aid. In addition to advisory or homeroom problems of an educational and vocational nature, the counselor also receives requests for help on many other matters. Some of these, for example, may involve problems of health and recreation. Although such problems may appear rather general in nature, they frequently are of considerable concern to the individual pupil. Any attempt to classify guidance topics according to a system, becomes a complicated process. Many of them are so complex and unique as to practically defy specific classification. Yet there are certain types of questions which pupils ask more often than others. The beginning teacher may find it helpful to become acquainted with a few of these since he has probably forgotten most of those that he himself asked when he was in high school.

The following questions are but a few examples of the many that the homeroom teacher or counselor can expect to have pupils ask him:

How can I obtain my parents' approval to have a date? I like John, but Mother won't let me go out with him. How can I get her to understand that he is all right?

Why should I come to the class party when I do not know how to dance?

I like Helen, but she pays no attention to me. What can I do to make her like me?

At what hour should parents expect pupils to be in on week-end nights?

Do girls have to wear formals to the Junior-Senior prom?

Why do boys act so funny?

Why do girls giggle so much?

How can I study at night when Pa and Ma are fighting all the time?

How can I prove to Mother that I am wasting my time taking music lessons?

My parents are planning a month's vacation out of town and want to take me along. How can I arrange to make up my work?

I want to play basketball, but Father won't let me. He says it will injure my heart. Is that true?

The assignments that Miss Hard gives are terribly long. How can I do them and have time for my other work too?

I don't like school work, but Dad says I have to go to college. Does that seem fair to you?

How much money do I have to have to start college? Does it cost a lot to go to college? Is it better to go to a large or to a small school? Why do I have to go to school when I can make money now by getting a job?

Every experienced teacher could probably make a list of his own much longer than that given above. The length of such a list is evidence that adolescents are concerned about their personal problems, even though to adults some of these problems may at times appear trivial. Be this as it may, the teacher-counselor should always be willing to give these problems the consideration which they deserve. To ridicule even one of them before the adolescent, is to take a chance of losing the confidence of that boy or girl. When such a trust has been lost, the teacher's value as a counselor has also been lost.

Counseling and guiding individuals and groups. Whenever the situation is such that counseling and guiding can be extended to an entire group, there is a considerable saving of time for the counselor. There are occasions when all members of the group are confronted with a common problem. As evidence of this the teacher may wish to examine the "Mooney Problem Check List" [7] which classifies problem-centered groups into eleven problem areas as follows:

1. The future: vocational and educational
2. Finances, living conditions, and employment
3. Adjustment to school work
4. Personal and psychological relationships
5. Health and physical development
6. Social and recreational activities
7. Curriculum and teaching procedures
8. Social psychological relationships
9. Home and family
10. Courtship, sex, and marriage
11. Morals and religion

Each of the eleven areas deals with specific problems. For example, the following sub-areas are only a few of those that are listed under one of the above:

1. Afraid of unemployment after graduation
2. Concerned about military service

[7] By permission, from *Mooney Problem Check List*, High School Form, by Ross Mooney, copyright 1950, The Psychological Corporation, New York, 6 pages.

3. Necessary to know my vocational abilities
4. Family opposing some of my plans
5. Not knowing what I really want
6. Restless to get out of school and into a job

The above topics indicate a wide variety of interests. In addition, they also indicate that there are numerous common factors present in pupil problems. Some of these involve the need for certain general information. For example, there is a time during pre-registration when the school expects pupils to select the subjects which they plan to study the following year. Many of the pupils need to know something about those subjects before they are in a position to make intelligent selections. To take care of this need, the counselor can give out general information to the entire group. Then he can answer individual questions later. Thus, he is not only saving time for himself but he is also providing opportunity for meeting individual and group needs. The teacher who does not attempt to economize in his counseling activities may find it necessary to do a hit-and-miss job for lack of time. He has many other duties to which he must also give his attention. Incidentally, this process of giving information characterizes the counseling aspect of the teacher's work. Guidance, in contrast, deals more with problems involving pupil therapy.

The attempt to assemble pupils with somewhat common counseling problems into one group is only one aspect of the counseling program. In addition to saving teacher time, it also saves pupil time. For instance, there are boys in the homeroom group who are interested in going out for athletics. They have several points on which they need information. If the teacher takes homeroom time to provide such information, he wastes the time of the non-interested members of the group. Thus both groups profit by meeting separately, if the teacher can make such an arrangement.

Groups of this type develop from pupils whose problems are of a common nature. The teacher may initiate their formation by suggestion. The groups may also result from a natural division of pupils on the basis of class or extracurricular activities. Some of the latter may even be activities which have no connection with the school program at all.

In addition to saving time, group counseling has certain other advantages. When more than one person is present, there is increased possibility that numerous aspects of the problem will be brought up for dis-

cussion. This makes it possible for all members of the group to get a fuller coverage of information. It is possible, too, that a pupil may assume that his problem is unique, and for that reason he is afraid to call it to the teacher's attention. But as soon as he discovers that other individuals are having similar difficulties he may gain more self-assurance with the result that the situation loses some of its serious aspects. This makes it easier for him to join with others in discussing the problem. Ohlsen and DeWitt [8] regard this factor as one of major importance to the pupil in a group-counseling situation.

In commenting on it the writers emphasize the fact that when the pupil gets help from his peers it makes him feel that he is earning his independence with the help of people who understand him. The fact that other pupils have similar problems reassures him. "Hence, group counseling is really a process of counseling individual members in a homogeneous group in which the individual members not only help themselves but also help one another." Five variables, the writers believe, affect the success of such group experiences, namely:

1. The group climate
2. The problems chosen for discussion
3. The leader or counselor
4. The composition of the group
5. The size of the group

The success of counseling, especially group counseling, depends a great deal upon the type of confidence and trust which the teacher is able to develop in the minds of his pupils. Pupils are usually slow to confide in a person whom they do not know well. Therefore, whenever the teacher is a counselor, it is important that he get acquainted with his pupils as soon as possible. He should evidence interest in their social life, both within and outside of school. He may not always be able to contact all of them in this manner, but even a closer acquaintanceship with a few of their number will give him an increased hold on the group.

In most types of guidance work there are always some problems that demand individual attention. These are sometimes of an intimate nature. They may deal with such things as course failure, family indiscre-

[8] By permission, from "Group Counseling. A Report on Ways and Means," by M. M. Ohlsen and A. F. DeWitt, copyright 1950, *The Clearing House*, 24:335.

tions, or boy-girl relationships. To discuss them before a group is unjust to the individual concerned as well as to the rest of the group members. Yet there are times when a teacher may violate this principle openly. He is in a hurry and without considering the pupil's feelings discusses personal matters in a manner embarrassing to the pupil. In doing so, he may be furnishing the rest of the group with choice gossip material. Such an approach usually defeats the constructive purposes which he had originally set out to achieve. Some teachers who are guilty of such violations may, because of their authoritative position, enjoy the humiliation which they are able to inflict upon the individuals unfortunate enough to have personal problems. Teachers of this type seldom have the real interests of their pupils at heart.

The pupil with whom the teacher is discussing a personal problem knows that that problem does not always appear important to an adult. Yet to him it may be very important, and he wants to believe that it deserves the serious and courteous attention of the teacher. In order to understand this viewpoint the teacher may have to imagine himself as being in the pupil's position. The adult who finds himself unable to do this can seldom become a sympathetic counselor and guide to young people.

Guidance and the self-direction of the pupil. During his years in high school, the adolescent comes to establish various principles as guides to his course of action. It is to be hoped that among these he will include those by means of which he expects to achieve his goals. However, his goals and his principles are not always such that his counselor can conscientiously approve of them. For example, the pupil may intend to graduate, but he wants to do it with the least possible effort. As a result, he asks to be enrolled in courses which he has heard from other pupils are not overly difficult. He bases his selections upon reports of classmates whose ambitions are probably quite similar to his own. He takes certain required courses only because he has to do so. In all of his courses he works just hard enough to avoid failure. He does not necessarily lack intellectual ability, but he does lack ability to direct himself in his learning activities. Sometimes he drifts along apparently making little effort to direct his course of action toward definite goals.

A case of the type described above was that of a farm boy to whom school work was obviously boring. It mattered little to him whether he passed or failed. The teacher tried again and again to arouse him to worth-while effort

but with no apparent success. Before he had completed his elementary school work, the boy began working at jobs in the community. He continued with this type of work for several years. Then to the surprise of everyone, he suddenly enrolled in an electrical trade school. After a brief period of training there he obtained employment with a power company. The young man had apparently found the type of work which appealed to him. He stayed with this work until he held a position of considerable responsibility with the company. One may ask whether it was the teacher's fault that this latent interest never came to the foreground during the boy's early school days. As an adult today, the man himself is unable to give a satisfactory answer to this question. Yet a certain home condition existed which may have had more than passing influence upon him during his boyhood days. His father was once heard to remark to a neighbor, "You know I just can't trust my boys with any kind of work. Not only do I have to tell them exactly what to do, but I have to follow up to see that they do it." Could it be that until he left home the boy had few opportunities to decide matters of importance to himself? Possibly the father always did this for him with the result that the boy may have had little motivation to apply himself to home and school learning situations.

Young people, such as the boy described above, do not all have the opportunity of becoming self-directive before they enter high school. Then when such opportunities do present themselves, it takes time and patience on the part of the teacher to help them develop sufficient ability to direct their own efforts in a satisfactory manner. Under such circumstances, they are certain to make mistakes. Whenever this happens the teacher should guide rather than censor them. Until they are able to select worth-while goals and establish sound means for reaching them, they may profit from having the assistance of someone who understands their needs and how these needs can best be met. As a first step in this direction, the guide or counselor can help them become acquainted with their own potentialities. They should come to understand what their strengths and weaknesses are and how these may affect their future actions. They have to learn to accept the limitations of their own physical and mental capacities. This step requires a certain amount of caution. For example, the counselor should exercise care to guide and not block the individual's future progress. His assistance should acquaint the pupil with the means necessary for him to achieve the goals which he has set for himself. In order to do this, teacher and pupil should understand clearly and be willing to use such types of personal

information as will assist them in achieving this end. Under no condition should such information be twisted to satisfy the feelings of either individual. Such misrepresentation may only make a farce out of the entire counseling and guiding process. In addition, it will not help the young person to become more self-directive; in fact, it may tend to make him less so.

Available informational data. Most high schools today have files in which the personal data records of their pupils are kept. Thus, a certain amount of information concerning each individual is available for guidance and counseling purposes. Yet teachers and counselors do not always use such information to the pupil's advantage. There may be times when it is not convenient for the teacher to obtain the desired information concerning a pupil. As a result, the information contained in the file contributes little to the solution of the pupil's personal problems. It takes time for a teacher-counselor to go through a file and draw out such data. Hence, when he is busy or in a hurry, he often uses only such general information as he has at hand. He trusts that this information is sufficient to meet the pupil's immediate needs. Such practices frequently bring counseling into disrepute, especially when the results turn out to be unsatisfactory.

Of course, there are teachers who use personal records to full advantage whenever they counsel with a pupil. Such information helps a counselor to recognize not only what the problems of the pupil have been in the past, but also what some of them may be in the future. Such a background serves to strengthen the counselor's feeling of confidence as he works with the pupil.

For example, Bill has been absent from school at various times during the year. His algebra teacher has become somewhat impatient with him, especially since the boy has indicated little willingness to make up missed work. She has come to assume that Bill is rather lazy. However, when she examines his health record, she discovers that the boy has been taking treatments to correct the ill effects of rheumatic fever from which he suffered as a young child. Of course, her knowledge of this fact will not of itself change the boy's attitude toward his work, but it will certainly modify her attitude toward him.

As pointed out above, the personal records of pupils are usually a part of the school's general record system. It takes considerable time and effort to collect such extensive data. Therefore, many schools employ the assistance of the individuals serving as teacher-counselors. These

persons have a certain responsibility in helping to make a guidance file as complete and accurate as possible. Inaccuracy in such materials can lead to serious consequences for the pupil concerned. This is especially true when such records are used and interpreted by various staff members.

Chisholm [9] indicates numerous kinds of information on the pupil which he believes are essential to the files of a good guidance program. Among others he names the following:

1. Personal data on such matters as sex, race, birth date, and nationality
2. Background and home conditions
3. Economic possibilities and limitations
4. Health record
5. Academic record
6. Record of extracurricular activity
7. Character and personality development
8. Record of individual potentialities as revealed by tests and past performances
9. Cumulative record of special interests and achievements in such areas as creative fields, social life, and recreational life
10. Plan for educational training

The teacher should not be surprised to find that the school does not always have available information of all types on every pupil in the school. In fact, the new pupil whose needs may be quite acute as he enters school may be the very individual about whom little information is at hand. However, this does not relieve the teacher of the responsibility of working with such a newcomer. He must help him to make adjustments in his new environment as best he can. While working with him, the teacher is sometimes able to collect data which can be used by other members of the staff later on as they have contact with him in their classes.

The teacher-counselor is seldom responsible for setting up the school's system for recording information about its pupils. The administration usually takes care of this. However, the beginning teacher may find himself in a small school which does not maintain a cumulative

[9] By permission, Chisholm, *op. cit.*, pp. 203–204.

record system. If the school does not establish one, he can develop a simple one which may serve his own needs temporarily. A manila folder with the individual's name on it can be used at first to hold the data which he gathers. Such data should, of course, by nature be worth while and permit accurate interpretation. In addition, the teacher should protect it so that it will not be used indiscriminately by those who do not understand or respect its purpose or its confidential nature. Above all, the teacher should understand that such an arrangement at best offers only limited aid for counseling. It should serve only as a stop-gap measure.

Guidance and behavior. There is a definite relationship between guidance and pupil behavior. The pupil who is maladjusted is a good candidate for becoming a troublemaker in the classroom. Should he feel that his efforts at learning are futile, he may look toward other ways of gaining personal satisfaction from his environment. The teacher or counselor who can help him gain satisfaction in his school work will possibly have done something toward making his outlook on life more pleasant and wholesome. As a result, the previously maladjusted pupil may improve his general behavior in and around the school.

In some instances the effect of guidance upon a change of behavior in the individual may not be noticeable except over an extended period of time. Change in behavior is usually the result of a change in attitude and purpose by the individual. Therefore, the counselor should help the pupil select a goal which is both desirable and attainable; then steps should be laid out by which it can be reached. The pupil may be a behavior problem in the classroom because he does not understand what the real purposes are in the work which the teacher expects him to do. For example, he may dislike writing a theme or giving a report in his English class. Since this is required it becomes a distasteful piece of work to him. He sees the teacher as a person who requires him to do unpleasant tasks. Therefore, he deliberately tries to make life as unpleasant for that person as possible. At the moment that is his major purpose in the course. Punishment of an inappropriate type may only make his attitude worse.

The following incident shows how a certain teacher overcame a pupil's negative attitude toward his classroom environment. The boy was asked by a teacher to remain after school for creating a disturbance during the class hour. During the detention period, the teacher noticed that the boy was mak-

ing numerous crude sketches. Unable to comprehend their meaning, he asked if the boy would explain them to him. In return he received a bitter look and the remark, "Ah! you wouldn't understand anyway. They are just some of the changes I had hoped to make on my 'Hotrod' this afternoon after school. But that is all off now since I have to stay in again."

The sarcasm in the boy's voice startled the teacher at first. It also angered him for a moment, but he controlled himself sufficiently to say, "Bill, tell me about that 'Hotrod' of yours. I didn't know you had such a car." The boy hesitated. He sensed that this could be a trap whereby he might be getting himself into even more involved circumstances. But he took the chance and began describing the stripped-down Ford on which he spent so much of his spare time. As he talked, his enthusiasm grew. He used the sketches to illustrate the changes which he hoped to make on his car.

The teacher could not follow the boy very accurately. There was mention of superchargers and such things. Never in his life, however, had the teacher seen the boy so enthusiastic about anything. At last he interrupted to say, "Bill, if I excuse you so that you can go home and work on that car, will you do one thing for me?" The boy looked puzzled for a moment as the teacher continued, "Tonight you take those sketches and write out just what changes you are planning to make on that car of yours. If you will write carefully and neatly, I will accept that work as your theme tomorrow."

The boy stared in unbelief. "You mean I can go now even before the end of the hour?" The teacher nodded. Bill brought in a theme the next day. It was far from perfect, but it did give evidence of effort which had not been present before. The following week the boy offered the teacher a ride in the "Hotrod." The teacher accepted. It would be pleasant to say that as a result of his change in attitude Bill became an outstanding pupil. This did not happen. In the first place, it is doubtful if he had the ability to do more than average work. But he did try to cooperate more in class than he had done before. In addition, he was no longer a regular candidate for the detention period after school.

Success with a poor pupil does not come to every teacher as readily as it did to Bill's. It is not always possible to discover hidden interests that easily. Neither is there always such a favorable change in pupil attitude. But the incident does illustrate that when a pupil fixes his attention on constructive purposes, there is a possibility that a behavior problem will become incidental to the work at hand. Possibly this teacher's experience was not too directly connected with guidance or counseling. Nevertheless, it paid off in terms of satisfactory results. It may be that a thorough study of Bill's problem should have been made at an earlier date. That point is, of course, open to question.

Although there is a relationship between guidance and misbehavior, there are times when the counselor may find it desirable not to serve as a disciplinarian. It is possible that as a counselor he can carry on his duties more effectively when pupils do not associate their disciplinary problems with him. This separation sometimes has a tendency to make pupils more willing to confide in him and to accept his counsel or advice. This is only natural, for in a situation involving misconduct the pupil usually confronts his accuser in a defensive attitude. In the situation described above, the atmosphere of misconduct was probably an obstacle which made it difficult for the teacher to obtain responses from the boy. Success resulted only when the boy's interest in his "Hotrod" overcame his negative attitude toward the teacher.

The Teacher Has a Definite Role in the Guidance Program

Counseling and the teacher's load. In many schools the administration expects the teacher to provide counseling and guidance service in addition to meeting a full schedule of teaching duties. Such a situation too often gives the teacher the impression that counseling is incidental to classroom teaching. The fact is, that when the teacher has to counsel pupils under such conditions, he often can not give the type of service which effective guidance requires.

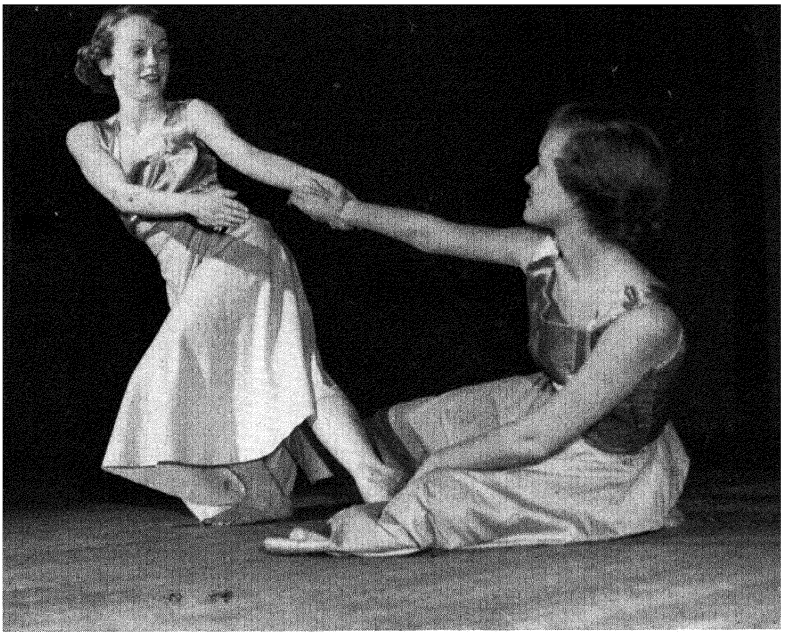
Not many teachers have all the time that they feel is desirable to devote to their counseling and guidance duties. Therefore, when involved cases arise, limitations in time become a real handicap. Even when they try to divide their time between the two responsibilities, they are usually quite aware that the school judges their professional work by the results of their teaching efforts. The administration seldom regards counseling and guidance as a major phase of the classroom teacher's work. In some respects this is unfortunate but is understandable, for it is the unsuccessful cases of counseling that usually come to the attention of the administrator. Knowledge of successful work in that area is frequently unknown outside of the room where it is being carried on. Such a situation is, of course, common in any type of organization as complex as is a school. Yet now and then news of the successful guidance work that is being done in the school does spread into the community. Then parents may express their appreciation to the teacher or to the administration for the help received. Such reports are always welcome. The administration knows that a good job of counseling can do much to create a pleasant

school-community atmosphere. Yet even though the teacher should not receive much personal recognition, he does gain a considerable amount of satisfaction from helping boys and girls make wholesome adjustments within their environments where they work and play.

Counseling and the teacher's time. The teacher who has had counseling experience as a part of his academic preparation should be a preferred individual for a teaching position. The school that can obtain such an individual sometimes assigns to him a light teaching load so that he can give time to advisory work. His program may even be so arranged that it will be possible for him to counsel with pupils at various periods throughout the day. Under such a setup the school encourages pupils to go to him for assistance whenever they have free periods or free time. Such a system provides opportunity for both teacher and pupil to work under conditions favorable to guidance and counseling. They can work in private where pressures of time and outside activities are not too heavy.

Counseling that is provided at the time when the pupil is particularly in need of it has a good chance of being effective. The occasion for this may arise at any time during the school day. It is at such a time that the pupil is particularly concerned with the aspects of his problem. Since at such a time he is usually eager to find a solution, his response to and cooperation with the counselor can generally be expected to be rather favorable.

Some counselors assume the privilege of calling for a pupil at times convenient to themselves. For instance, they may call him out of his history or algebra class at any time during the class period. This practice presents several undesirable features. In the first place, the pupil may receive the impression that his classwork is of secondary importance to other school activities. In addition, if he happens to be particularly conscientious, he may resent being called away from his work to participate in an activity of this nature. Under such circumstances it is easy for him to imagine that his leaving the classroom places him at a disadvantage alongside of his classmates. The classroom teacher usually dislikes the practice because it not only disrupts his class, but it also means additional make-up work for him. He feels compelled to help the pupil, especially if the boy or girl is doing poor work. To make matters worse, it is the latter type of individual who is called out of the classroom most often by the counselor or principal. Teachers are usu-



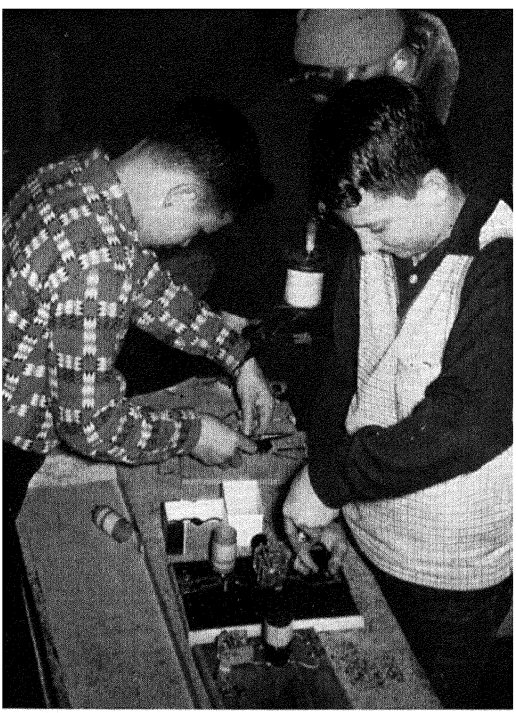
The school can often help the pupil meet his needs in play as well as in work.



There are times when guidance can be made a part of the regular classwork.



There are many occasions when the teacher has to apply guidance on an individual basis.



Motivation and pupil interest usually go hand in hand.

ally willing to cooperate in any form of counseling program which the school may set up; however, they have a right to expect that it be set up to benefit the pupil without working a special hardship upon themselves. Their time is as valuable to them as that of the counselor is to him.

Ability to recognize adjustment needs of pupils. The teacher who assumes counseling and guidance duties should be able to recognize the needs of pupils. Of course, he seldom has difficulty in identifying problems of serious maladjustment, but he often overlooks those of a less serious nature, because, no doubt, they are less apparent. It is these which the teacher also has to identify and attempt to correct.

An example of the above situation may be found in the case of Mary who is not doing well in typewriting. Although she goes about her work without complaint, she does not seem to enjoy the activity. Her work is acceptable but does not show the degree of improvement which gives promise that she will become a proficient typist. The teacher is busy and so does little to find out why there is so little improvement. In the same class is Jane. She does not like typing and does not hesitate to inform the teacher of her attitude. Instead of typing during practice sessions, she spends much of her time disturbing the pupils seated near her. Hence, in order to protect these, the teacher moves her from place to place. In this moving process she is finally located behind Mary. Almost immediately Mary joins with her as a disturber. It seems as though Mary was only waiting for someone to lead her away from her typing exercises. As a result of their behavior, both girls soon find themselves talking with their homeroom counselor. Jane admits she really never wanted typing. She enrolled in the course only because she had heard it didn't require homework. Mary wanted typing but admits to her counselor that she became discouraged when she found that she would have to practice diligently to overcome an inherent slowness of movement. This made it appear rather difficult for her to reach the level of becoming a competent typist. Yet when the teacher proved to her that she had the ability to improve her work by consistent effort, she began making steady progress. This solution might never have been realized, however, had Mary not become involved in the disciplinary problem with Jane. A counselor may have to admit that such solutions are sometimes more the result of chance than of careful analysis. Yet the teacher always has to capitalize on the chance circumstances that arise if he expects to succeed in his work.

The teacher as well as the counselor should be alert to the causes for behavior attitudes such as moodiness, lack of self-confidence, lack of

ability to concentrate, and over-aggressiveness or extreme lack of it. There are, of course, also other characteristics which reveal undesirable reactions to learning situations. The teacher will have to discover the causes of such reactions and help correct them if there is to be improvement in the attitude and work of the pupil. It is for this reason that the teacher-counselor has to be a keen student of human nature. He has to understand the relationship between undesirable symptoms and their causes and has to be able to initiate means for correcting the causes. He has to keep in mind that unusual pupil conduct is often a symptom of some type of personal difficulty. The teacher can succeed only to the extent to which he is able to meet and correct difficulties of this type.

Ability to recognize and deal with health problems. The teacher should take a definite interest in the physical welfare of his pupils. Since he is in contact with them daily, he is in a position to recognize slight irregularities in their reactions. Some of these may be symptoms of illness or of general poor health. Whenever such cases arise, he should report them to the proper authority; this may be the school nurse. If such a person is not available he should inform the administration or the parents. No one expects the teacher to play the role of a doctor to his pupils. He should leave that role to someone competent in the field of medical diagnosis. In addition, as a safeguard to himself, it may be best if he does not try to indicate what he imagines the illness to be. A remark on that point sometimes starts rumors which lead to unpleasant repercussions.

It has been shown, however, that teachers do have considerable ability in recognizing symptoms of poor health in their pupils. Hamrin [10] reports on an experiment carried on in Detroit in which doctors, nurses, and teachers all worked toward discovering which of the three groups was most capable of detecting health difficulties in pupils. Teachers who had been given a small amount of training were found to be the most efficient of the three. It seems that they were in a position to recognize the small mannerisms which indicated that the pupil was more restless or agitated than usual. Since the doctors and nurses had only irregular contact with pupils, they were less able to recognize physical changes which were readily apparent to teachers.

The teacher is responsible for establishing safety conditions in his classroom. At first this responsibility may appear to have little connec-

[10] By permission, Hamrin, *op. cit.*, pp. 37–38.

tion with a guidance program. But he should not only work toward establishing principles of safety in his room; he should also train his pupils to work toward the same end in all of their activities. There are teachers who have, no doubt, had the misfortune of having an accident while they were in charge of a group of pupils. After someone had been injured they probably realized that if they had followed a few precautionary measures they might have prevented the accident. But remedial measures can seldom undo damage which has already been done. Hence, teachers should work continually to help make their pupils safety conscious. This is as much a guidance responsibility as it is to help them make decisions on their course work. Yet in spite of all caution, some injuries are bound to occur in and around the school. Therefore, the teacher should be familiar with steps by which he can best take care of his pupils whenever emergency measures are necessary. It may be well for him to obtain instructions for doing this from a competent doctor or nurse. There can be accidents such as bone injuries, that demand his making decisions in a moment. Then he should know what should and what should not be done.

The author still recalls vividly one of his early experiences involving an injury to a pupil. School had closed for the day, and he was walking down the cement ramp leading to the gymnasium of the school. Suddenly a sophomore boy hurried past him. Just as the boy turned into the entranceway, he crumbled onto the floor with the exclamation, "There it goes again." Only one glance was needed to recognize that the boy's leg was broken. The natural impulse was to spring forward and pick up the unfortunate youth. But before the teacher could do so, the boy explained in a calm voice, "Just leave me here and go call the doctor." Then somewhat resignedly he added, "You know this is the fourth time that leg has broken. My bones are brittle and just snap, it seems." The boy's composure was in sharp contrast to the excitement of those who quickly gathered about him. The author admits that he himself was considerably confused as he attempted to give assistance. It appeared that the boy was quite aware of his affliction and accepted it without a sign of emotion. It was learned later that he had already suffered a dozen or more serious fractures during his short life. In this unique case, the boy, it seemed, was more able to direct emergency measures, than were the teachers who came to his assistance.

The teacher is often the only adult present among a group of boys and girls. It is natural that they look to him for guidance when acci-

dents occur. He should be prepared to meet such emergencies in a professional and capable manner. By being able to do this, he will not only be helpful but he will also be in a better position to retain the respect of the group.

Understanding the pupil and his needs. The teacher-counselor will probably never know as much about the pupil as he would like to know. Yet this should not prevent him from obtaining whatever information is available. If he is a new teacher, it is natural for him to look to numerous sources for information. One of these should be available records, another will probably be older staff members. However, he should not depend too much upon the latter source. Teachers do not always present information about a pupil in an objective manner. There are times when they may inject their own feelings into the description which they are giving. For instance, if the teacher's relations with the pupil in question have been pleasant, his report will probably be favorable. But if he has had difficulty with a particular boy or girl, his report will probably be unfavorable. There is always the possibility in the latter case that the description will be so negative toward the pupil that it will instill a prejudice into the mind of the new teacher even before he has any or much contact with the pupil in question. At such a time the new teacher may not yet be fully acquainted with all of the conditions which gave rise to the trouble between the pupil and the staff member. The cause back of such a difficulty is not necessarily always the fault of the pupil; the teacher may also have to assume some of the blame. But the new teacher is scarcely in a position where he can evaluate these two factors accurately.

The teacher who is entering upon his work in a new position can do little more before school opens than get a sketchy acquaintanceship with the pupils who will be under his counsel and guidance. His homeroom group will probably consist of from 25 to 35 pupils, whose problems become his immediate responsibility. Furthermore, some of these problems will, without doubt, make their appearance during the opening days of school. The teacher must deal with these whether he is prepared to do so or not. Hence, during these days it will help him to have available for quick reference certain of the pupil's personal records, especially those that cover general intelligence, aptitude, and past achievement.

Such records, of course, become more meaningful to the teacher as he comes to know his advisees personally. Therefore, as this acquaint-

anceship develops, he should always be ready to make re-evaluations where he finds that his first judgments may not have been accurate. His willingness to make such changes is a good indication that he is truly interested in furthering the interest of his pupils.

The classroom teacher may have less need for detailed personal information on his pupils when school opens than does the homeroom counselor. But whatever information he is able to obtain should contribute to the ease with which he can carry on his work in an efficient manner. Such information should help him to eliminate some of the wasted effort that accompanies trial-and-error procedures. It should also help him to establish a tempo of workmanship which will challenge the pupils adequately, beginning with the opening day of school. This will provide little opportunity for disciplinary problems to develop because of indefinite or inappropriate classroom activities.

Consideration of the background and maturity of the pupil. Pupils of approximately the same age may differ widely as to background and maturity. This condition, of course, creates guidance and counseling problems. For example, pupils who have been taught to assume responsibilities at home are usually somewhat ready to do so in the classroom. On the other hand, those who have been highly sheltered by parents, sometimes find the give-and-take of the high school classroom somewhat disturbing. It is sometimes difficult for them to realize that adult care and protection cannot always be theirs. The teacher can expect to find a few such cases in practically any homeroom group.

The counselor who has immature individuals in his group should try to provide for these young people a feeling of security even though it is of a type which they may not at the moment be seeking. He may be able to do this through the cooperation of more mature boys and girls. These young people can do much toward helping newcomers develop personal interests in their new school environment. The teacher can help them feel that they belong to the group. He can, for example, do this by giving them limited responsibilities, such as asking them to pick up attendance slips or pass out papers. It is not always easy for the teacher or counselor to sense when a pupil has a feeling of insecurity. However, he can sometimes recognize the symptoms in the individual who is overly retiring or who hesitates to join in normal group activities.

The teacher has a right to assume that most adolescents enjoy the companionship of persons of their own age level. Since homerooms are

usually organized on class levels, the age spread within the group is seldom very wide. Yet the range of interests and abilities, as well as the maturity of members, is often quite wide. In contrast to this, the age spread in a class group may be considerable, even though the interests in at least the subject area are rather concentrated. As a result of this condition, the teacher-counselor may have one type of group in his homeroom and another type in his classroom. This variation makes it necessary for him to deal with each group in accordance with the characteristics of its members.

Familiarity with classroom and extracurricular activities. As a counselor the teacher should be familiar with the full program of the school. This means that he should know what the offerings are in each department. If there is any doubt in his mind on such points, he should not guess at them but should have a member of the department in question clarify the information for him.

Success in a particular subject field is usually dependent upon the learner's having certain abilities and aptitudes. He has a right to know what is expected of him when he enrolls in a particular area of work. If he has little chance of success, he has a right to know it before he has gone so far that course changes will work hardships upon his future plans. Although the teacher-counselor should place the final responsibility for course selection upon the pupil, he should help make available to him the information which he needs in order to make an intelligent selection.

In large schools extracurricular activities are often so numerous that it is difficult for the teacher-counselor to become acquainted with all of them. Yet as a counselor he has the duty of acquainting the members of his homeroom with these activities. He should be able to explain the time of day when they are being offered and also the approximate amount of time which the pupil is expected to devote to them if he participates. If the teacher does not have this information, he should obtain it directly from the sponsor of the activity itself. Sometimes it is possible for the sponsor to come to the homeroom and explain his activity to the group. If this can not be arranged, there is always the possibility that someone in the teacher's homeroom has participated in the activity in question and can, therefore, describe it for the group. Such an arrangement is not necessarily undesirable. In the first place, the pupil giving the report gains the experience of presenting information to

others. In addition, a pupil report of that type usually receives more attention from the group than one presented by the teacher. Pupils often infer that the teacher has personal interests for promoting the activity which he is discussing with them; but if one of their own number is describing it, they are more likely to feel that he understands and respects their own point of view on the desirability of participating in the activity.

The student teacher should take advantage of his assigned period to acquaint himself with both the courses and the activities which the school has to offer. It is generally advisable for him to become active in at least one extracurricular activity. In addition, he should find it enlightening to visit several of the others so that he will understand what their purposes are and how they function. The broader his experiences are in these areas, the easier it should be for him to evaluate how his own interests and abilities can be fitted best into such a program. As he begins teaching, it is highly probable that he will become either a homeroom counselor or a leader of an activity. As has been mentioned before, the chances are that if he begins his work in a small school, he will become both. Hence, his ability to carry out such additional duties in an efficient manner will have considerable bearing upon his success as a teacher.

Relationship between guidance and teaching methods. The teacher-counselor has to be familiar with the manner in which various courses are being taught before he can help the pupil evaluate them. In addition he has to evaluate the pupil's ability to adjust himself to the learning situations which are to be found in a particular course. The success of his counsel and guidance depends to a considerable degree upon how well he can integrate these two aspects of his work.

The need for this type of integration in guidance may be illustrated by a practice rather common in schools. A pupil informs his counselor that he is planning to enter a certain vocation or profession. The counselor and pupil then go over the courses which appear desirable as preparation for such a career. As they select appropriate courses, the counselor assures the pupil that he should find such a program both worth while and interesting. The pupil enters upon his work with enthusiasm, but he soon senses that one of the courses to which he had looked forward rather eagerly, is anything but stimulating. The teacher of this course makes little attempt to relate it to the boy's future work. He pre-

sents the material in a dull and uninteresting manner. This discourages the boy and he discusses the situation with his counselor. By this time he begins to doubt that he is any longer interested in preparing for his selected field of work. The counselor encourages him to continue his preparation, but he knows only too well where the difficulty lies. He questions in his own mind whether he should inform the boy of this situation. If he does so, it appears as though he is being disloyal toward an associate. If he does not explain, the boy will probably change his plans and leave a field for which he is apparently well qualified.

The situation in the above case involves a number of delicate decisions. In the first place, the counselor has to take some action. He may decide to have the pupil and the teacher in question meet with him. Such a meeting he hopes will make it possible for the boy to reveal his future plans in such a manner that the teacher will realize what is at stake and will initiate appropriate changes in his classwork. If the plan succeeds, well and good; if it fails, little more will be lost than is already gone. This situation indicates how the teacher-counselor sometimes has to work with the teachers of his homeroom pupils in order to try to find a solution for a problem which a pupil of his is facing. There are times when he can succeed in such a case only to the extent that the other teacher is willing to cooperate with him and the pupil.

Guidance is an all-school activity. It includes every phase of work which may have a wholesome influence upon the future life of a young boy or girl. Because it is so broad in scope, the teaching methods being used by any or all teachers should be in harmony with the principles upon which the counselors and the administration have constructed the guidance program.

Cooperation between parents and teacher. The school can scarcely expect to succeed with its guidance program unless it includes the parents in the activity. The teacher-counselor should work closely with the homes from which his pupils come. But in order for parents to cooperate, they have to understand clearly what the school is attempting to do. This makes it possible for the guidance efforts of the school and of the parents to supplement each other.

Parents have a background of experience concerning their own boy or girl which the teacher does not have. On the other hand, parents are not always in a position to know how well their child adjusts himself to social groups at school. It is there that the teacher comes to recognize

and understand him. This situation emphasizes even more the need for cooperation between the home and the school if the child is to be provided with the opportunity to reach his fullest social and intellectual development during his adolescent years.

Chisholm [11] names four types of knowledge which a parent should have to be an intelligent cooperator in the school's guidance program. They are as follows: "(1) the nature of modern education, (2) the aims of guidance, (3) individual differences, and (4) the aim and the opportunities afforded by democracy as they have a bearing on the guidance of high-school boys and girls." However, the means by which parents can acquire this information presents a problem. Many schools use their PTA meetings for such purposes. But not all parents attend such meetings. Therefore, a considerable part of the responsibility for disseminating information about the school falls upon staff members who deal with the guidance problems of pupils.

The teacher-counselor is in a strategic position to work with parents in meeting the guidance needs of their boy or girl. Their interest in the adolescent gives him a natural lead for making contact with them. But after making such a contact, there are times when he may discover that the young person's ambitions and those of his parents for him are not the same. It is scarcely judicious for him to "take sides" in such a disagreement. Yet he can sometimes be helpful in resolving it, if he can maneuver himself into a position where he can present and interpret for the family, data concerning the pupil's aptitudes and abilities. Although all parents may not be willing to accept the evidence of such data, there are probably few who will be unwilling to give them at least some consideration. The success of any such conference is largely determined by the extent to which the teacher can gain and hold the confidence and respect of all members of the family. He has a major responsibility in helping the parents understand that he is working toward the same end that they are, *i.e.*, the best interests of their boy or girl.

The teacher-counselor's best approach to parents is often through the pupil himself. If the pupil feels that the school is serving his interests and his needs, he has numerous ways of acquainting his parents with that fact. The dinner-table conversation is a means used frequently. However, when parents are unresponsive and fail to cooperate, the teacher-counselor may first have to work toward getting the family

[11] By permission, Chisholm, *op. cit.*, p. 303.

to recognize and accept him as a professional helper. The beginning teacher especially should not overlook the human factors which may have to be considered in this situation. It is natural for parents to be proud of the potentialities which they believe their child possesses. If the data which the counselor presents are of a nature unfavorable to their hopes, they may, for obvious reasons, refuse to recognize it. Whenever this happens, the counselor will certainly have to exercise caution in his relationships with the parents. His first move may have to be to get them to understand the basis upon which their boy or girl has been doing successful work in school. Such information should make them more able to evaluate the possibilities which the young person has of living up to their expectations or of his own.

Throughout this relationship with the family the teacher also has to keep another factor in mind: there are parents who have strong convictions that the boy or girl belongs to them and not to the school. They feel that the school has been established by them to serve as a medium for the development of the adolescent's potential ability. Hence, the school is their agent, and they expect it to serve their interests and wishes. Parents with such viewpoints are not always willing to admit that the young person has a right to make decisions which are not in agreement with their own interests. Teachers who become involved in a family situation of this type certainly will have to use tact and discretion in order to bring it to a conclusion which is not only acceptable to all those concerned but also to the best interests of the pupil.

Many schools have an open-door policy toward parents. They welcome them to classrooms as well as to social activities. Such an attitude encourages the parents to feel that the school exists for community interests rather than for its own interests. But there are always some parents who fail to take advantage of the welcome which the school extends to them. Yet the knowledge that they may visit at any time may give them a feeling of confidence in the program which the school is attempting to carry on. The teacher-counselor should certainly make the parents of his homeroom pupils feel that they are welcome at any time to come to the school to discuss with him any problems which they may have concerning their boy or girl.

Development of a sound mental attitude in the student. Both the teacher and the counselor are responsible for helping the pupil maintain a healthy outlook on life. The young person who has such an out-

look is seldom bothered by emotional instability, a factor which at times may interfere seriously with learning.

Whenever the teacher discovers that a pupil is greatly disturbed over his failure to succeed in some particular area of activity, it may be well for him to consult with that pupil's counselor. The latter may have the information helpful for the solution of the case.

An adolescent sometimes suffers from a feeling of inferiority. He is convinced that he alone is lacking in all the graces and abilities which go to make an individual popular among his associates. This outlook may change only when he discovers that other young people have similar feelings at times.

There are two types of pupils whose outlooks need to be modified if they are to develop and maintain healthy attitudes. The one becomes overly concerned if he discovers minor errors in his work. He feels that he has failed badly because of these slight mistakes. The teacher-counselor may have to help this type of an individual see his work in a broader perspective. He evaluates his work on too narrow a basis. The other type of pupil remains undisturbed regardless of how poor his work becomes. Such a person also has need of a new set of values by which to evaluate his work. He may not realize that he is failing to utilize the opportunities which the school is providing for him; or if he does realize it, he does not let it concern him. There is small likelihood that such a pupil will respond to any urging by the teacher for him to accept responsibility for himself. He probably cares less about what others think of him than he does about his own likes and dislikes. This type of pupil seldom responds to encouragement to do improved work; if he does improved work, it is largely because he gains satisfaction from the learning experiences in which he participates.

Developing a good all-around program for the student. The counselor's responsibilities extend into practically every phase of the pupil's daily activities. Such an all-inclusive program includes his study, his work, and his recreation.

As the individual reaches adolescence, he becomes increasingly conscious of the limitations of time. He begins to sense the need for budgeting the hours of the day so that he can complete the activities which require his attention. This need concerned him less as a small child; then he had one major interest and that was play. It is quite natural that adolescent and adult responsibilities sometimes frighten him. Upon enter-

ing adolescence he begins to realize that at least part of his play world is behind him. Adult pressure and his own self-discipline in some instances may even bring him to the point where he starts believing that he should work all the time and never play. In fact, he may devote himself so fully to work that he regards recreation as a waste of time and therefore an unmoral activity. He may even assume a martyr complex in this respect in order to gain approval from adults who hold similar beliefs. This type of young person needs wise guidance and counsel. The teacher may help him to see that well-balanced adults are usually able to budget their hours so that there will be time for both work and play. Although cases such as that cited above are rare, the teacher may meet an adolescent of that type now and then. It is the teacher's responsibility, of course, not to blunt pupil incentive but to guide it into channels where the pupil uses it wisely.

The teacher-counselor should help each pupil who has need of it to work out a work-study-play program which will fit that person's individual requirements. In order to do this, the counselor has to be acquainted with the work responsibilities which the boy or girl has assumed outside of school. He also has to know about the play and recreational activities in which the pupil participates and wishes to continue to participate. With such information the counselor and pupil can often work out a plan which utilizes the pupil's twenty-four hour day in such a manner that there will be sufficient time for each activity in which the pupil feels obligated to or wishes to engage.

Some adolescents are quite capable of developing an efficient work-study-play program for themselves. All that they need is encouragement to do so with possibly a bit of occasional help from the counselor. If the pupil is able to do this for himself, he gains constructive experience in providing for his own needs. At the same time, he gains an appreciation of relative values.

Counselor's responsibility for the development of pupil study habits. The types of skills which the pupil has to develop in order to master a particular learning situation are frequently unique to that situation. The pupil does not develop a general ability to study; instead, he develops an ability to study something. For example, the pupil who is learning how to work algebra problems must apply his abilities in a manner quite different from the one who is developing his ability to present an effective oral report in English. Because of this variation in technique, the major

responsibility for directing the learning activities of the pupil rests upon the teacher of the classroom course rather than upon the teacher-counselor.

The teacher-counselor, however, does have some opportunity for helping his homeroom pupils improve their study habits, even though such opportunity is of a limited nature. He can, for instance, emphasize some of the common factors that lead to pupil mastery of learning situations. These include, for example, such factors as the concentration of attention, the application of effort, and the budgeting of time. Whenever the teacher-counselor has reason to believe that a pupil's difficulties are of such a general nature, he may have a conference with that pupil and discuss steps that should lead to improved workmanship. He may, for example, suggest that the pupil establish a study situation where not only he has at hand all of the materials which he needs but where he removes all materials which might have a tendency to distract him from his work. Or if the pupil makes poor use of his study time, he may suggest that the pupil set aside for himself a reasonable period for study. Then he should work toward completing his work in this allotted time. Of course, the counselor has little opportunity to help the pupil put such suggestions into practice. Therefore, the final responsibility for their success rests upon the pupil himself.

Specific study difficulties are, of course, found only in specific subject areas. Therefore, whenever a pupil has such a difficulty the classroom teacher is generally aware of it before it comes to the counselor's attention. Furthermore, whatever improvement is made, has to be made with subject material with which the classroom teacher is probably more familiar than the counselor. In such a situation the counselor may sometimes serve more as a mediator or coordinator between teacher and pupil than as guide for the improvement of the pupil's study habits. At times such coordination may involve most or even all of the teachers with whom the pupil has courses. Each teacher may have to work toward correcting the pupil's weakness to the extent that it interferes with his mastery of material or skills in the course which that teacher directs. Such coordinated efforts can frequently serve to bring about a decided improvement in the learning habits of the pupil.

The counselor should not overlook the parents' role in the development of the pupil's study habits. They can be helpful in setting up conditions in the home which are conducive to learning. Many of them are

willing to cooperate toward this end, but some are not certain of what they can do. To help them, the teacher or counselor should point out the advantages of having a specific time and place for the boy or girl to study. This is one phase of the program in which they can assist. If there are health handicaps which can be remedied, the parents should know what they are and what can be done to correct them.

The pupil who is overly tired seldom studies well. This tiredness may be the result of working too much out of school, or it may be the result of the pupil's habit of retiring so late that he does not get sufficient sleep. It may also result from emotional tensions that arise from conflicts within the home. Although such conditions may have only an indirect bearing on the pupil's study habits, their combined influence may be enough to lower his achievement to a considerable degree. Under such circumstances, it may take continued effort on the part of the counselor to improve the conditions. Some he may never be able to change. Yet if he is able to improve the learning habits of the adolescent at all, the gains may well be worth the effort.

Development of desirable habits and attitudes in the homeroom. Grade levels and age are the criteria by which the school commonly selects homeroom membership. As a result, the attitudes and habits of such a group may vary rather widely. With such diverse characteristics among the individuals of a group, the teacher may have difficulty in getting the entire membership to adopt practices which will facilitate its functioning as a group. For example, it may not be able to agree on the manner in which its business matters should be conducted. Pupils who are not accustomed to democratic procedures in their home life sometimes do not see the need for practicing them in a homeroom setup. Such pupils may even assume that the homeroom belongs to the teacher. Therefore it is his responsibility to take charge and direct its activities. They just do not want to be bothered with work of this type.

The author has seen instances in which a beginning teacher who is to serve as a teacher-counselor, has made rather ideal plans for working with his homeroom group. He has made plans to organize it so that its members can gain experience in democratic procedure. But he is unaware of the attitude which his pupils have already developed toward the organization. Some of the members have probably had previous experiences with homerooms where pupil-teacher relationships were not particularly pleasant. As a result, they have come to regard the organ-

ization as somewhat of a necessary evil to the general life of the school. With such an attitude they are not particularly interested in furthering its purposes. They are just as willing to select the least qualified of their members for officers as they are to select those who are capable. As a whole their interests are negative to the constructive idea back of the program.

In contrast, there are schools today where pupils are eager to use the homeroom for the purposes for which it is intended. They cooperate willingly with the teacher in making it a functioning organization. In these schools pupils understand and accept the purposes for which it has been established. They believe in it, for they recognize that through it the school is able to meet their needs more adequately than through other types of organization.

The beginning teacher who is confronted with a homeroom situation of the negative type described above may as well accept the fact that it will take time to change the uncooperative pupil attitude which confronts him. The situation is unlike that which exists in a classroom. The teacher is not always in a position to direct attention toward interesting subject material. He has less opportunity to engage all members in specific learning responsibilities. He sometimes has to leave certain members of the group to their own resources while he is working with those who need help. The work done in the homeroom is seldom evaluated on the basis of individual pupil progress. For that reason, pupils sometimes regard the work done there as incidental to their general course work.

The homeroom situation is a real challenge to the personality of the beginning teacher. To succeed, he must win the support of the group, a step which may take not only time but patience as well. If he discovers a general negative attitude toward the organization, he will have to try to gain the pupils' respect by introducing experiences which they recognize as having immediate value for them. Changes in attitude can not be forced; they must come about naturally. The teacher should convince the pupils that he is truly concerned with their personal problems, that their interests have become his interests. Whenever this occurs, the chances of his exerting a wholesome influence over the group are generally favorable.

Some schools make the teacher-counselor responsible for the conduct of his homeroom group at certain all-school functions. In many schools

pupils are seated in assemblies according to homerooms. The teacher must sit with his homeroom group and see that they are orderly. On such occasions their conduct often reflects the respect which they hold toward him. They can cooperate or they can make life unpleasant for him. If he has gained their respect previously by being fair yet firm in his relationships with them, they will usually respect him under these less formal conditions.

The above-mentioned points indicate the need for moral and ethical guidance in the homeroom. Character training should be a major objective of group as well as of individual work. McKown [12] points out that there are two methods by which the counselor or teacher may attempt to achieve this. In the first, the direct, desirable virtues, such as honesty or ideals touching on racial tolerance, are analyzed and discussed. This is a step obviously intended to develop emotionalized attitudes. However, such an approach often appears cold and formal to the pupil. Furthermore, as McKown points out, it "does not guarantee the acquisition of desirable ideals and habits." Through it, however, the pupil can become acquainted with certain desirable concepts of character development.

In the indirect method "character education begins with a natural setting or situation and stresses the importance of solving the immediate problems it offers." Wherever possible, the pupil experiences actual practice in dealing with his own problems. This method also has its limitations. It can not be developed unless circumstances present opportunities for the needed practice. For example, racial tolerance can only be taught by this method where pupils of different races are present in the same group.

Both the direct and indirect methods appear to have certain advantages and disadvantages. But it is probable that a practical combination of the two methods often provides the best type of plan by means of which the teacher-counselor is able to achieve his objectives.

Social and economic problems in homeroom groups. There are times when the beginning teacher-counselor has to determine how the school's general policies affect the social and economic conditions of the pupils in his homeroom. Various blanket policies which the administration endorses for the entire student body may, in general, appear to be quite

[12] By permission, from *Home Room Guidance*, by Harry C. McKown, copyright 1946, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., pp. 290–291.

desirable. Yet when the teacher-counselor examines the social or economic aspects of these policies, he may find that certain hardships are being worked upon individual pupils.

The author recalls an experience during the depression years which might illustrate this point. The administration of the school where he was teaching at the time used every precaution not to work economic hardships upon its pupils. Fees for the support of social activities were reduced to a minimum. Yet in his own homeroom, he found pupil after pupil who felt that he dare not ask his parents for the few cents needed for such purposes. In contrast to present-day opportunities, those pupils could not get jobs to earn their own money. Many of the parents themselves could find no work. Hence, pupils were motivated to stay away from social activities altogether. They felt that they lacked appropriate clothes; some had only cast-off garments to wear. Some of the boys were embarrassed to ask for a date because they could not supply even a nickel for refreshments. Yet those young people had need of social activities. Leisure time was plentiful because no part-time jobs were available. However, the economic pressures which existed made it difficult for these young people to grow up together in a normal, social atmosphere.

Possibly such conditions were unusual. Yet they point out the need for the counselor to be familiar with the social and economic conditions under which his pupils live. In the above case there were times when those members of the group who were able contributed what little they could to the group fund. This fund was then used to meet the needs of the entire body. No record was kept of who had and who had not contributed. Usually the amounts contributed were quite small. Yet most of the pupils understood the circumstances which existed and appeared willing to make the best of them. There were times when the teacher-counselors themselves contributed from their own meager pay to meet the costs of social functions of various groups. But they too were limited in such efforts. There were months in which they received no more than ten to fifteen per cent of their pay in negotiable paper. The school was not in a position at the time to furnish financial aid to the homeroom groups. It wanted to do so, but its means were too limited. Possibly, there were other means by which these conditions could have been met more satisfactorily. It appears irrelevant to discuss that question at this time. But it does appear desirable to point out that there was a general recognition by counselors and teachers alike of a factor over which the pupils themselves had no control, yet which played an important role in their ability to make desirable social adjustments.

The homeroom counselor has to know his pupils well before he can understand and appreciate their social and economic problems. But he

can come to do this only as he works with them over an extended period of time. For this reason, it is usually desirable for him to remain with the same group of pupils during most or all of their high school years. Such a plan is being used in a considerable number of schools today. This arrangement makes it possible, year by year, for the homeroom teacher to become more intimately acquainted with his pupils and their needs.

Use of materials from cumulative records and case studies. The counselor should continually keep in mind that he is working with human beings. The information which he is using may change the entire course of an adolescent's life. At no time, therefore, should he pass such information on to those who do not understand how to interpret it or how to use it for the benefit of the child. The counselor should also be cautious about using personal material of questionable guidance value. For example, it is possible that collected anecdotal reports may show conflicting viewpoints on how the child reacts under certain conditions. Such reports may reveal as much about the individual who wrote them as they do about the individual they are intended to describe. For that reason, they should be used only as they throw additional light on data of a more reliable nature.

Teachers and counselors sometimes look for data to support their previously established opinion of a problem child. If their own relationships with such an individual have been unpleasant, they may seek out data which will confirm their previously held belief that he is a behavior problem. In doing this, they are probably attempting to support their convictions that they are accurate judges of human nature. Thus their purpose in using counseling data may be to serve their own ends rather than those of the pupil with whom they are working. Pupils have a right to expect that counselors use personal information for professional purposes only.

The counselor should always be willing to consider new data about a pupil, especially if it supplements that which he already has. It is possible that as the adolescent matures, much of his past record will take on a new light. There will be new experiences which create new interests. As a result, new abilities may come to the foreground. Thus, even over such a short period of time as a few months, the entire outlook of the child may change so that he may want to make new plans for himself.

It is part of the counselor's duty to assist in keeping the cumulative records in usable form. This means that he should not mark them in such a manner as to invalidate the data which they contain. He should also return them to their respective places in the files when he is no longer using them. This not only makes them available for others who may need the information which they contain, but it also avoids their being lost or scattered about where they may be picked up and used by irresponsible individuals. It has already been pointed out that someone might use such records other than for constructive purposes. Much of the success of the counseling program rests upon the assurance to the pupil that data of a personal nature are being kept confidential and are being made available only to those individuals who understand their use. Any violation of this confidence may be cause for the student body to withdraw its cooperation in the guidance program. Should this happen, much of the effectiveness which the program might serve will most certainly be lost.

The place of the individual conference or interview. The counselor should be able to use the interview or individual conference as a constructive force in his guidance work. However, unless he is careful in his approach to the pupil, he may obtain negative rather than positive results with its use.

The interview is a two-way proposition. It can scarcely serve to instill confidence and respect in the adolescent if the teacher uses it solely as a means for lecturing him. For example, a statement similar to the following is sometimes made by a teacher to a colleague: "I called Bill in after school and really laid the law down to him." After such a "lecture" the teacher may have felt better; he had, at least, satisfied his own feelings toward the pupil. But the attitude of the pupil may not have been improved; in fact, it might even have become more negative than it was earlier. Thus no real good was accomplished by the interview.

The teacher-counselor should have an interview with each of his homeroom pupils at some time during the school year. With some pupils he may have occasion for more conferences than with others. The number of interviews needed will, of course, have to be determined by the nature of the problems involved. Some problems can wait; some can not. For example, there will be decisions that most pupils will have to make about the selection of professions and vocations. The counselor and the pupil should both be aware of how immediate these problems

are. A great many interviews deal with the pupil who is doing poorly in his work. As Strang [13] points out, such an individual "finds himself subjected to the criticism of his parents" and "the exhortations of his teachers," all of which gives him sufficient cause to doubt his own abilities. Therefore, if anyone needs a friend and counselor, he does. He needs someone who is sympathetic to his problems, someone who is willing to listen to his "side of the story." This is the role which the teacher-counselor should be ready to fill.

The relationship between the pupil and his counselor should be such that the pupil will ask for an interview when he feels that one is needed. This is a better procedure than for him to wait until the teacher senses that he is in trouble. Furthermore, the counselor should not place the pupil on the defensive the moment that he comes in for a conference. If he does this, it may be difficult for the two to review a problem in an objective manner. Some counselors prefer not to take down notes during an interview. They believe that such a practice tends to unnerve the pupil and make him less willing to discuss his problems with them. If they are to keep notations, they make these notations after the pupil has left the room.

Before the interview is terminated, several points should have been achieved. In the first place, the pupil should understand what the interview has accomplished. In addition, he should have gained a clear picture of the various aspects of the problem. He should also have developed an attitude favorable to the solution of the problem. Only when this happens, is it generally possible for the two to continue working together in a cooperative and effective manner.

Referring special problems to the guidance specialist. The teacher-counselor is not normally a guidance specialist. His duties are centered in the work of the classroom where teaching and counseling are parts of his daily activities. Most of his problems are of a routine type. Yet, occasionally, he does meet with some which, he feels, require the attention of trained guidance specialists.

The principal quite often serves as a guidance specialist in such schools as do not have some other person assigned to that responsibility. Hence, he accepts many of the problem cases which the homeroom teacher regards as particularly complex or difficult. Frequently, such a

[13] By permission, *Educational Guidance: Its Principles and Practices*, by Ruth Strang, copyright 1948, The Macmillan Company, p. 143.

case involves a mixture of guidance and discipline. Whenever that is the situation, the pupil may easily gain the impression that he is being referred to the principal because the teacher-counselor is unable to deal with him in a satisfactory manner. Such a viewpoint may be unfortunate for both parties. In the first place, the pupil is likely to lose respect for the homeroom teacher. Secondly, the situation can lead to further complications when the two have to begin working together once more.

It is important that the teacher-counselor prepare the adolescent mentally before he refers him to a guidance specialist. If he does this properly, the pupil should recognize that such a step is a regular part of the general guidance program of the school. Under such circumstances the teacher-counselor is simply taking advantage of the opportunity to present his problem to an individual supposedly more qualified to deal with it than he is. Some teachers use a personal interview for this purpose. They discuss the whole situation carefully with the pupil. They point out the advantages that the pupil can expect to gain by working with someone who has a wide experience and background in dealing with such a problem. Thus, if the situation is presented in the right light, the pupil should be willing to consult freely with such a person. This favorable attitude also helps the guidance specialist as he works to find a solution for the pupil's problem.

The teacher-counselor should not have a pupil report to the specialist except for major guidance problems. To do so may tend to lower the pupil's estimate of that counselor's ability. If he can not take care of his normal duties, he should not be a counselor. Yet he should not let his pride keep him from using the specialist's services when these services can be of help to him. As the teacher gains experience, he may find fewer and fewer problems with which he himself can not deal satisfactorily. But if he is a beginning teacher, he is naturally limited in his background of experience. Therefore, he should find it helpful to work rather closely with someone who has had training and experience in the guidance field. Such a move is better than for him to make errors which can work to his own as well as to the pupil's disadvantage.

The qualification of the teacher to serve as a counselor and guidance worker. As the student teacher enters upon his teaching work, it may be well for him to be familiar with some of the general qualifications which a teacher-counselor should possess. The following are examples of a few such qualifications:

1. Recognize his own abilities and limitations to counsel and guide
2. Be familiar with the techniques appropriate for guiding individuals and groups
3. Be able to apply appropriate principles of guidance and counseling
4. Observe the confidential nature of the counseling and guidance process
5. Be able to administer and interpret various types of tests
6. Establish and maintain effective relationships with parents
7. Recognize the ability range of the individual pupil
8. Integrate the work of the individual pupil with the school's entire program of guidance

If the teacher is to administer tests of the aptitude or intelligence type, he should make certain that he knows how to do this in an appropriate manner. He should follow instructions carefully. Tests of this type differ on such characteristics. If he should not understand the instructions clearly, he should obtain clarification from someone experienced in working with the type of test being used. The teacher should, of course, be able to interpret the results of such tests in an accurate and appropriate manner. Here again, the procedure has to be determined by the nature of the test itself. There are no general instructions that apply in all cases. Specific tests require specific instructions.

A further discussion of various types of tests appears in Chapter Eleven.

DISCUSSION TOPICS AND QUESTIONS

1. Describe the procedures that were followed by the high school which you attended to take care of your guidance problems. To what extent do you feel that these procedures met your needs? Was it the classroom teacher or the counselor who assumed major responsibility for the activity?
2. Why is it important that the school establish definite principles for conducting its guidance program? How may it acquaint the new counselor with these principles?
3. What action should the counselor take if, in his own mind, he is convinced that the pupil is making an unwise decision on a guidance problem? How may the teacher determine when the pupil is capable of self-guidance?

4. Make a list of the steps by which the beginning teacher-counselor can become acquainted with the personal characteristics of his homeroom pupils? What cautions should he exercise when he is doing this?
5. With what type of counseling problems did your cooperating teacher have to deal when you were student teaching? Distinguish between those that were group problems and those that were of an individual nature. What precautions did the cooperating teacher use to protect the confidence of his advisees?
6. Make a list of some of the common sources from which the pupil may obtain guidance information. What type of information can he expect to obtain from the school library?
7. Give your opinion of the idea of a work-study-play program for the adolescent. What principles could be used to determine the amount of the individual's time which should be devoted to each phase of this program?
8. What action should the teacher-counselor take if he feels that he has a bias toward one or more members of his homeroom group? What explanation should he give to these pupils if arrangements are made to transfer them to some other group?
9. Is there any type of guidance information which should be withheld from the pupil? If so, under what conditions should the counselor do this?
10. How can the counselor determine when he has lost the confidence of a pupil in his group? What action may he pursue in an attempt to regain it?
11. What types of information about the individual pupil should the school have available in its files? Assume you are a homeroom teacher and have asked your pupils to fill out questionnaires asking for rather detailed information. What will you do if one of the pupils raises his hand and tells you he is refusing to answer questions of this nature?
12. How may the homeroom teacher make contact with the parents of his pupils without making it appear that he is projecting himself into the privacy of the family life? What can the teacher do if the parents refuse to cooperate with him on their child's school problems?
13. What advantages and disadvantages does the homeroom teacher have over the guidance specialist when dealing with guidance problems?
14. Discuss the relationship between the classroom teacher and the homeroom teacher concerning guidance responsibilities. How can they determine which of these each should assume?
15. To what extent are you as a student teacher prepared to go out and do an effective job of guidance in the homeroom and classroom? What practical means could you use to improve this background?

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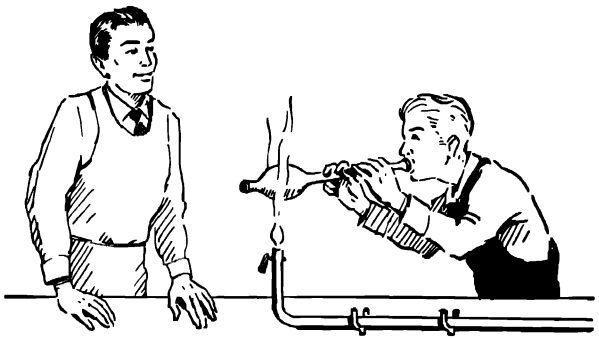
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STRENGTHENING AND ENRICHING LEARNING EXPERIENCES

The imagination is especially active in the period of childhood. During the years of that period the child's mind builds up a world of its own. In this world the child generally lives as he wants to live; he creates and destroys without hesitation. There are times when he finds it convenient to avoid the responsibilities about him because they disturb this dream world of his creation. But to every child there comes a time when this dream world gradually ends. As he grows older, life takes on a different aspect; personal responsibilities begin to accumulate. He becomes interested in finding out more about the world in which he moves. He gains increasing satisfaction from being able to adjust himself to the environment in which he lives and moves.

As the adolescent leaves the dream world of childhood, he sometimes becomes confused by the types of learning which confront him. He may, for example, have difficulty in differentiating between factual learning and practical learning; in fact, he may come to believe that the acquisition of facts alone constitutes learning. In this respect, he may be like the boy who requested that his father buy him an encyclopedia. The boy believed that he would only have to read these volumes to become a learned individual.

For some people the means for gaining a variety of direct personal experiences are limited. Hence, it is occasionally necessary that they de-

velop other means for acquiring them. But such secondary means inject a certain amount of chance into the situation in question. For example, there are experiences which are so incomplete or restricted in scope that they sometimes lead the individual involved in them to develop erroneous concepts, concepts which may serve to hinder as well as to help that individual's intellectual growth and development. Hence, in all learning experiences it is important that the individual take advantage of every opportunity available to obtain concepts that are broad as well as accurate. Since the school promotes learning, it should be concerned with supplying experiences of this type to the pupils enrolled in its courses.

School Experiences Should Be Realistic Experiences

Schools today have numerous means for supplying vicarious experiences which serve to strengthen and enrich the pupil's learning experiences. The sound motion picture, for example, is a teaching device used extensively for this purpose. Projected from a sound track, it stimulates both the eye and the ear, the two organs by means of which the individual probably gains a majority of his mental concepts.

Learning based upon formation of concepts. The individual forms mental concepts as learning takes place. Yet these are of little value to him unless he can retain them in such a way as to make them a part of his future thought processes. It is for this reason that teaching should not only provide instruction for the pupil, but should set up means for helping him retain a reasonable portion of what he learns. This is not necessarily a complex process. Pressey and Robinson [1] point out one of the basic principles in this process, namely: "In general, the more sensible the material is, the easier it is to learn and to recall."

Material usually attains meaning for the pupil only if it falls within his range of experience. As soon as this happens, it builds up associations in his mind and makes impressions which tend to be lasting. Forgetting occurs most often when there is little or no motive for retaining what is being learned.

A common example, found in almost every classroom, is the boy who, because of his interest in baseball, is able to quote the day-by-day batting averages of the leaders in each major league. Yet this same boy may stumble

[1] By permission, from *Psychology and the New Education*, by Sidney L. Pressey and Francis P. Robinson, copyright 1944, Harper and Brothers, p. 553.

in a half-hearted manner as he attempts to memorize a poem dealing with subject material of little interest to him. For instance, the material may deal with flowers. He has little interest in flowers; in fact, it is possible they create a concept of femininity in his mind; therefore he prefers not to read or talk about them. But he quickly learns what he wants to learn. Such words as "single," "double," "outfield fly," and "strike-out" carry unmistakable meanings for him as he thinks about baseball.

In this boy's case, the teacher should accept the fact that the boy is interested in baseball. Hence, to get his attention and interest, it may be well for the teacher to get him to read a poem such as "Casey at the Bat." If the results are satisfactory in this instance, the teacher may extend his interest into other fields of activity. This boy no doubt has the ability, as thousands of others have, of visualizing the action of baseball play by play as it is reported over the radio. The announcer's descriptions create a vivid and realistic concept as he exclaims, "There's the windup, the delivery, and—there it goes, back, back up against the left-field wall!" The crack of the bat creates a real suspense for the baseball fan. He visualizes the ball as it goes towards the stands. His imagination replaces his eyes at the moment.

Experiences of the type described above illustrate an important aspect of the problem of dealing with the formation of concepts. The baseball fan understands the announcer's words. They create a concept in his mind; yet for the person with no baseball experience they are largely meaningless. Such a situation is in no wise a reflection upon the intelligence of either individual, yet it does emphasize the fact that there must be at least some similarity in background experience between individuals if accurate concepts are to be communicated between them by verbal means alone. Even when an example is used, it must be within the listener's background of experience if it is to convey the idea which the speaker has in mind.

Concepts change for the individual as he gains experience. The small child probably sees a baseball simply as an object which he can throw or roll around. On the other hand, a major league pitcher sees the baseball as an object which will respond to his attempts to make it curve or jump past the batter. His continued success as a player depends upon his ability to make it respond in such ways. Thus the novice and the professional usually have entirely different concepts of the use to which particular objects can be put. The novice would probably obtain little meaning from pictures illustrating how a player grips a baseball in order to throw a curve. Yet such an illustration may be studied carefully by the young pitcher who is anxious to improve his ability to win games.

Learning achieved through sensory stimulation. Teachers have long sensed the difficulty of communicating accurate concepts by the use of words alone; therefore, they have sought for additional means of improving the effectiveness of this process. They have found audio-visual aids to be very helpful in achieving this end.

Direct participation is of course the natural procedure for gaining experience. Yet in school the possibilities for practicing it are not always present. Time, distance, and expense are often prohibitive factors. But even these barriers are less prohibitive than they were years ago. For example, in geography pupils sometimes find it possible to travel over many parts of the world to gain first-hand impressions of geographic conditions. In foreign languages, pupils sometimes spend summers in the countries whose languages they are studying. Thus they are not only in the most advantageous position to learn those languages, but they also have first-hand contact with the culture of the people who speak them. Yet not all pupils are in a position to take advantage of such learning opportunities. Therefore, the school has to provide substitute means for developing the ability to gain accurate concepts where such subject material is involved.

The individual derives many of his impressions through the eye; many others he derives by way of the ear. Thus the use of audio-visual materials becomes a direct means by which the teacher provides the pupil with stimulating learning experiences. Whenever real-life experiences are not possible, the appropriate use of these two means can often do an effective job of substituting for the former. This is especially true when they are used in such a way as to reinforce each other. Sound films meet such a qualification especially well.

Learning achieved through a variety of experiences. Brown and VanderMeer [2] describe several types of experiences involving audio-visual impressions which play a part in the development of the school's instructional program. Briefly they are as follows:

Direct experience is thought of as being purposeful participation in real-life situations in which the learner accepts responsibility for the outcome of the experience.

[2] By permission, from "School Use of Audio-Visual Instructional Materials," by James W. Brown and A. W. VanderMeer, Forty-eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, *Audio Visual Materials of Instruction*, copyright 1949, University of Chicago Press, pp. 29–35.

Dramatic participation consists of taking part in or observing dramatizations in which the settings and properties of real-life situations are usually fictitious.

Contrived experiences involve only the "essential elements" of the corresponding environment for a direct purposeful experience. Working models of machines, for example, provide this type of experience.

Observational situations give the learner opportunity to see what is happening. A field trip or a class visit exemplifies this type of experience.

Demonstrations present to the learner an action or a process. They show how a thing is done, such as, for example, solving a problem.

Television broadcasts are two-dimensional and therefore present a learning situation, usually spatially remote from the learner.

Motion pictures are capable of creating impressions of real-life situations. Unreal impressions can also be created through the use of specialized techniques.

Still pictures can be used to present information and, at the same time, aid in the development of powers of observation and description, as well as the stimulation of interest. Still pictures are usually divided into two classes: projected and nonprojected.

Radio broadcasts, transcriptions, and recordings portray auditory concepts. To a large extent they depend upon verbal symbols as a means for communicating concepts.

Graphic materials include such items as maps, charts, graphs, cartoons, posters, and diagrams. They are frequently used to emphasize concepts involving relationships.

As the inexperienced teacher examines such a list of possibilities, he may well ask, "On what basis should the teacher select his materials?" In answering this question he will, no doubt, consider a number of factors, but, above all, he should keep in mind that he should first consider the needs of the pupils in his classes. Visual materials are appropriate for all levels of pupil ability. If anything, pupils of low ability may profit more from this type of instruction than from any other. But material appropriate for such purposes is not always available, unless the teacher has planned ahead for its use. For example, he can obtain films in many instances only if he schedules them a considerable time before the date

on which he wishes to use them. Furthermore, audio-visual materials sometimes lose much of their value if the teacher fails to integrate them properly with other materials in the course.

Word concepts as a substitute for experience. Teachers who themselves have been taught largely by verbal methods find it natural to employ similar techniques in their own work. Furthermore, if they are not overly ambitious they may soon discover that teaching after this fashion does not always require a great deal of previous planning; in other words, it facilitates "getting by."

The use of words to provide a learning experience for the pupil is, of course, an important aspect of every type of teaching. Yet when the teacher does not supplement it with visual and other types of auditory aids, he is failing to utilize some of the most potent instructional devices at his disposal today. Publishers are aware of the situation for there is an increasing tendency to illustrate the books which the adolescent uses in his high school work. Even color is being used more and more widely for such purposes. Yet pictures alone are not always sufficient. Titles and other clarifying statements are also necessary if the pupil is to gain the fullest comprehension from the pictorial material in a text. The use of sound movies supports this view. Words and pictures are almost always more effective in teaching when used together than if used separately.

Since the pupil gains many of his new concepts from oral or printed words, the teacher should check repeatedly to make certain that the meaning he is attempting to convey is not lost at some point during the learning process. It is not always easy for him to make such an evaluation. Yet by the use of a few pertinent questions now and then he can usually determine whether his pupils are comprehending the intended meaning. Whenever there is confusion or misunderstanding, he should certainly consider the use of supplementary aids of an audio-visual nature. But such aids need not always be of an elaborate nature. Frequently he may have to do nothing more than make a more extensive use of the blackboard. Of course, if the subject is unusually complex, sound pictures may serve his purpose more adequately. This use presupposes, of course, that movies of the desired type are available.

Background experience usually determines the extent to which subject material becomes meaningful for pupils. Thus if all members of a

class are familiar with the field under discussion, the problem of verbal concepts is usually not a serious one.

For example, a class of farm boys can discuss details of farm management in a rather abstract manner. Their background is such as to make this possible. The terminology used conveys a similar concept to each individual. Yet if a boy from a metropolitan area were to enter the class, he would probably find it difficult not only to participate in the discussion but even to comprehend what the discussion is about.

School experiences as vital experiences. It is easy for adults to assume that the problems of childhood and youth are connected largely with insignificant experiences. In contrast, their own almost always appear exceedingly important. The reason for this is fairly obvious. Since certain problems of family life are often rather complex or involved, some parents do not discuss such problems with their children. They assume that the adolescent is not experienced enough to consider them in the proper perspective. Such an attitude on the part of the parents can easily create a breach between themselves and the young person with the result that the interests of each become the interests of its own age group alone. Whenever this happens, neither sees any reason for confiding in the other. Misunderstandings are almost certain to arise out of such limited viewpoints and attitudes.

Teachers sometimes fall into a pattern of thinking similar to that of parents. They assume that the young person will be satisfied with any type of experience which the adult sees fit to provide for him.

For example, teachers who plan parties for class groups sometimes have a rude awakening on this point. Pupils do not always enter into teacher-planned activities with as much enthusiasm as teachers think they should evidence. Whenever this happens, the teachers probably feel and believe that the pupils are unappreciative and uncooperative. On the other hand, there are times when teachers may find it difficult to tolerate the disorganized types of social conduct which occasionally develop at affairs of this kind. Yet such actions are often quite meaningful for adolescents. It may be their inexperienced way of attempting to place themselves in more favorable social positions with their neighbors.

Young people sometimes use ways of getting acquainted which adults have long since forgotten. The teacher of a group of young boys once made it a point to observe the conduct of two of them who had never been to-

gether before. He noticed that as they met, one casually gave the other a strong jab with his finger. The latter retaliated with a similar gesture. This give and take went on for some time. There were occasions when the jabs were interspersed with some rather glaring looks. At one point there was even evidence that the action might develop into a brawl. But the teacher did not interfere. After some minutes the entire pattern changed. There were friendly gestures, and before long the two boys were playing as though they had known each other for a long time. The teacher felt certain that the sparring process was just the boys' crude yet understanding way of getting acquainted with each other. To an adult it appeared not only meaningless but even rude and unfriendly. Yet to the boys it was probably an experience both vital and meaningful; its purpose was evidently nothing more than a way to begin a new friendship.

The incident is intended to illustrate how difficult it is sometimes for an adult to evaluate what an adolescent regards as important or unimportant. The teacher faces this problem every time that he selects visual or auditory materials to strengthen and enrich his classroom teaching. He has to realize that the film that interests him a great deal may hold little interest for his pupils. He may even become angry whenever his pupils become uninterested or disorderly during the showing of his selected material. But the teacher who can appreciate the adolescents' point of view on matters of interest to them usually has little difficulty in selecting material that is meaningful and vital for the classes in which they are enrolled. Such appreciation usually gains their confidence and good will. Furthermore, a relationship of this nature usually makes pupils willing to help the teacher select experiences which particularly appeal to them. Thus both teacher and pupils stand to profit from the relationship.

School experiences have to be vital and purposeful for the pupil if he is to engage in them with enthusiasm. In other words, they should provide him with a rich experience, one in which he comes to have a feeling of fulfillment of personal achievement. In addition, they should have a quality of newness about them. Throughout the learning process they should be marked by an emotional tone which is both impressive and stimulating.

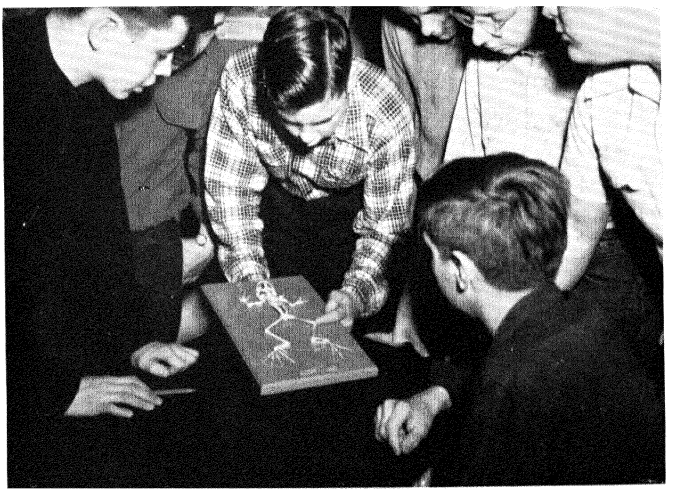
Teaching aids as means for gaining objectives. While the teacher is directing the pupil's learning process, he should also be making efforts toward developing favorable attitudes as well as desirable behavior prac-



Puppets generally appeal to all age levels. These high school pupils are interested in the reactions of two youngsters who have seen their show at an elementary school.



The teacher can sometimes delegate the responsibility for keeping the bulletin board up-to-date to members of his classes.



Pupils enjoy working where the learning environment is stimulating.

tices. His teaching becomes effective only when he is able to achieve these two objectives in a satisfactory manner.

In almost every classroom there are times when pupils suffer from boredom. Whenever this condition arises, they may develop unhealthy attitudes toward the subject material and even toward the teacher. Audio-visual aids are means by which the teacher can sometimes introduce variety into his teaching. Their use may make it possible for him to eliminate such periods of boredom. This purpose should, of course, be a secondary one. Of major importance is the fact that he is presenting material in a manner that is strengthening and enriching the learning experiences of his pupils.

The author recalls how a certain French teacher used the above technique rather skillfully. The film which she showed suggested that Napoleon may not have died in exile on St. Helena, as history reported, but may have been spirited away in disguise to Paris while a double took his place on the island. The film had scarcely come to an end before the teacher was bombarded with questions from all sides. Pupil after pupil wanted to know why such a possibility had not been reported by the historians who wrote the textbooks which they were using. Several pupils were even eager to search through biographies of the famous Corsican to see if they could uncover evidence which might support the theory. The teacher wisely guided this sudden burst of interest into channels where it could produce worth-while results. Later she reported that she had yet to have a class which did not respond in a similar manner to the presentation of this film.

Experienced teachers know that the chances of attaining class objectives are good if they can only motivate their pupils properly. But it is not always easy to find the means for such motivation. This situation is characterized rather well by Corey and Dale [3] when they state that, "One of the reasons that schoolteaching is so strenuous emotionally is that a great deal of time is spent by teachers trying to get boys and girls to learn 'lessons' in which they have little interest and which do not seem to them important." Scolding pupils for not being interested is an all-too-common practice. Whenever the teacher engages in this activity, he seldom does little more than irritate the class and cause it to look upon him as being a bit "peculiar." Almost without fail pupils become

[3] By permission, from "The Teacher's Decisions" by Stephen M. Corey and Edgar Dale, Forty-eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, *Audio-Visual Materials of Instruction*, copyright 1949, University of Chicago Press, p. 84.

2. Audio-visual materials should give us a true picture of the ideas which they present.
3. Do the materials contribute meaningful content to the topic under study?
4. Are the materials appropriate for the age, intelligence, and experience of the learners?
5. Are the materials used worth the time, expense, and effort involved?
6. Is the physical quality of the audio-visual materials satisfactory?
7. Is there a teacher's guide available to provide help in effective use of audio-visual materials?

Inexperienced teachers may do well to give special attention to the last point. There may be occasions when the teacher shows a film which he and his pupils are unable to interpret properly. Such a situation may lead to misunderstandings which are sometimes more harmful than helpful to the learning situation; they tend to establish inaccurate concepts in the minds of both teacher and pupils.

If at all possible, the teacher should always preview or preaudit the audio-visual materials which he plans to use. Of course, he can not always do this with radio or television. But where he plans to use films, it is usually possible for him to obtain them for previewing. This not only helps him to select those that are most appropriate for his purposes, but it also makes it possible for him to prepare his class for their use; in fact, he can scarcely plan his instructional units without having had such previews. Obviously, such a practice works a greater hardship upon the beginning teacher during his first year of work than it does upon the experienced teacher who is already acquainted with many of the films designed for use in his classes. But as the beginning teacher becomes more and more familiar with such material, the time factor becomes less pressing after the first year unless, of course, he finds it desirable to include a great number of new films.

The shortage-of-time problem can, however, create a different type of situation for the experienced teacher which he may not always recognize immediately. He may sometimes continue to use films or other teaching aids long after they have lost their timeliness. This is probably as great a fault as for him not to use such aids at all. Pupils are quick to recognize the inappropriateness of obsolete materials. They seldom re-

interested in those things which impress them and appeal to their nature. For instance, the roar of a fire truck past the school window will bring every pupil to his feet. Yet a moment before the teacher may have found it difficult to keep some of the class alert enough to read the drill sentences on the blackboard.

The teacher is not expected to entertain his pupils. Yet he is expected to make his work interesting to them. The teacher of today has unlimited opportunity to motivate his pupils toward his desired objectives. Facilities of many types are available. One fact should not be overlooked: there are teachers who find it difficult to distinguish between teaching and entertaining when they use such facilities. The teacher can scarcely justify the use of visual and audio aids in his classroom if they do not contribute to the major purposes of his instruction, and it is doubtful if entertainment falls into this category very often. There are, of course, good reasons why such aids should be interesting to pupils; to be effective they must be interesting, but they should also broaden the pupil's general background and experience. At the same time, they should help him develop an attitude favorable to the learning situation in which he is engaged at the moment. If they accomplish this, they usually also make it possible for the instructor to achieve his objectives more quickly than would otherwise be the case.

Evaluation necessary in the intelligent selection of aids. Corey and Dale [4] present the following simple formula for determining the worthwhileness of instructional materials: "If the materials provide boys and girls with the kinds of practice which the teacher's instructional aims require, the materials are good ones. If, on the other hand, they lead boys and girls to engage in activities which are not consistent with the teacher's objectives, the materials are poor ones." Every teacher can well make these criteria the basis for his selection of audio-visual aid materials.

Dale [5] suggests seven principles which the teacher may use for evaluating audio-visual aids as well as certain other types of instructional materials. They are as follows:

1. Do teaching materials make those who use them more critical minded?

[4] By permission, Corey and Dale, *op. cit.*, p. 90.

[5] By permission, from *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*, by Edgar Dale, copyright 1947, The Dryden Press, pp. 500–505.

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spond to pictures of any type unless the pictures appeal to them directly. Where the teacher uses obsolete materials the pupils may not only lose respect for the materials but also for the teacher's ability to select appropriate visual aids; in fact, under such circumstances, they sometimes come to look upon the teacher as being out of step with the times.

The use of teaching aids does not necessarily decrease the need for the teacher to plan his instruction in detail; in fact, his use of them makes it all the more necessary that he plan when and how he can use them to good advantage. As was pointed out above, in order to meet pupils' needs, they have to be pertinent and timely. Moreover, the needs of one class may be quite different from those of another class. Therefore, the teacher has to consider differences between sections of the course within the same year as well as within successive years.

Organization and use of teaching aids an all-school responsibility. It is a rather common practice today for a school to place the organizing and directing of its audio-visual program in the hands of one staff member. This person may be an administrator or a regular classroom teacher; in either case, he is expected to have had some experience with materials of this type. It is his duty to coordinate the use of visual-aid equipment as well as to handle the budgeting and ordering of films and tapes. It is necessary for all staff members to cooperate with him if the program which he is directing is to function smoothly.

The central service provided by an all-school audio-visual aid organization usually takes care of matters such as the following:

1. Obtains funds to purchase new equipment or to repair that which is worn. Budgets charges on rental material. On the other hand, these charges may be included in departmental or individual teachers' budgets.
2. Organizes the storage of material which is on hand. This includes equipment and also such instructional material as may be used by more than one teacher in the school.
3. Establishes a system whereby the material and equipment can be scheduled for use so that it will be available whenever it is needed. This part of the work may include in its services the training of pupils and teachers to operate the various instruments. It may also involve the exchange of classroom so that dark-room and electrical outlet facilities are available.

4. Aids in the selection of appropriate material. The director should be able to assist the members of the staff in locating sources where they can obtain desirable material. In addition, he should be able to help with whatever steps are necessary to make such material available for classroom use.

The success of an audio-visual aid program of the type described above depends largely upon timely cooperation between teachers and director. The latter cannot carry out his functions satisfactorily unless the teachers select their material in time for him to have it available when it is to be used. He has to process all material to make certain that sufficient equipment is available on specified dates to make its presentation possible. For instance, if too many teachers want the film projector on a certain date, he will have time to ask some of them to change their plans. Thus the teacher who is usually inconvenienced most under such arrangements is the one who failed to cooperate with the director when the schedule was being arranged.

There are some schools where the audio-visual aid program has very little central organization. If the teacher finds himself in such a school, he, of course, has to assume many of the duties of the director himself, that is, insofar as his own needs are concerned. This means that he will probably have to arrange for or provide many of the facilities which he wishes to use. Since such a practice has its disadvantages, he may want to try to interest his administration on the value of establishing an organized audio-visual aid program in the school. Such an effort will usually require, however, a willingness on his part to share in the responsibilities of organizing the program.

Audio-visual materials and teacher attitude. The use of teaching aids is not normally an end in itself. A teacher may sometimes assume that he is doing a good job of teaching if he makes use of such aids, but this is not always the case. Aids are but one of the means by which he should be better able to achieve the learning objectives of his course. If their use does not contribute to this end, he can seldom justify including them among his instructional materials.

As was mentioned earlier in the chapter, the use of audio-visual instructional materials does not necessarily lessen the amount of work which the teacher has to do. Even with their help, he usually has to expend a considerable amount of effort to obtain the results which he

wants. He has to prepare materials. He has to prepare pupils so that they are ready to receive favorable impressions. He has to provide conditions favorable for the development of desirable attitudes. He may do this, for example, by anticipating questions for which they will be seeking answers. He should definitely help them develop the background necessary for interpreting and understanding the aspects of the pictures with which they are unfamiliar. But before he can do this effectively, it is necessary that he will have previewed the film and be familiar with the manner in which it presents the material in question.

A teacher can expect that his pupils will evaluate rather critically the audio-visual materials which he uses. Because of this, he should make certain that they will be interested in viewing the kind of film which he brings into the classroom. To some extent he can prepare them for the showing by discussing the general content in such a way as to arouse their interest and curiosity. Their response then to the showing will indicate whether the film is appropriate for their particular needs. If they are not ready for the film, it may be better to delay the showing than to present it at an inopportune time.

The teacher should also keep in mind when using visual aids that there are worth-while films which sometimes contain material of a nature to motivate one or more members of the class to making unfavorable or even inappropriate comments. To help prevent this the teacher should try to prepare his pupils for the type of film which he plans to use.

For example, in a biology class pictures dealing with organs of reproduction in plants and animals may be cause for untoward remarks or, if nothing more, giggles and laughter. Yet if the pupils have previously had opportunity to discuss in an unaffected, frank manner material relating to these topics, they will probably regard the pictures as interesting evidence of nature's remarkable manner for propagating plant and animal life rather than as a topic on which to make off-color comments.

The teacher should always keep in mind that the pupils' reaction to subject material is generally governed by the connotation which it arouses in their minds. Unfavorable attitudes are often the result of unwholesome thinking on their part. Teachers who have pupils with such problems may try to get these individuals to participate in the activities connected with the selection and the showing of films.

For example, they may suggest films which they would like to see or they may be made responsible for setting up equipment or preparing a room for projection purposes. Participation of this type may serve to arouse within them a feeling of responsibility for the success of the activity. In addition, such help often makes it possible for the teacher to economize on his use of class time.

The follow-up activities after the film has been shown are generally as valuable to the pupils as those preceding the activity. At this time the group should be in a favorable position to review important points that have been covered in the showing. Some pupils will, no doubt, raise questions which will have to be answered at once. On the other hand, some of the questions may be of such a nature that it is best to defer answering them for the moment and instead make them the center of later study or discussion activities. But the pupil should never be left to feel that he is being "put off" by such action. The follow-up period is also valuable as a time for checking up on the attitudes which the pupils have developed and the impressions which they have gained. It is quite possible that the teacher may wish to correct or modify some of these at the moment or during later periods of work. The checking up can usually be carried out by means of oral or written questions. Of course, general discussions may also serve this end.

During the time that he is presenting materials such as films, the teacher may want to call attention to certain significant points in the pictures. If he is using silent film, this may be a simple matter, but if he is using sound film, there should be as few interruptions as possible. Interruptions under such conditions may be more distracting than helpful. On the other hand, he should give evidence of his own interest. If he is indifferent or passive during the showing, it is quite possible that his pupils will assume similar attitudes. But the teacher should also recognize the other extreme of this situation. An exaggerated form of enthusiasm on the part of the teacher before or during the use of materials, will not necessarily arouse pupil attention or interest. Instead it may leave the pupils disgusted with the "front" which the teacher is exhibiting. They seldom fail to realize that he is doing this for the purpose of arousing their emotions. Pupils sometimes come to regard such a practice as a reflection upon their ability to judge and evaluate material accurately; therefore, they may resent the teacher's using it. The situation is not unlike that of the moviegoer who in a preview sees and hears a

coming picture advertised as a super, colossal production. Then when he views it later, he finds it mediocre and commonplace. The story and the characters are not unlike those which he has seen many times before. The disappointment that results may lead to a dampening of his enthusiasm for this type of entertainment in the future. In a similar manner, pupils may lose their interest in films which the teacher has described in exaggerated terms.

Pupils are quick to sense whenever the teacher begins using audio-visual materials for purposes other than those for which they are intended. For instance, if he has been too busy or too lazy to plan his work for a certain day he may decide to show a film as a "filler." He seizes upon any picture which is available. He rationalizes to himself that this is a film which the class should see, even though it bears little relationship to the work of the moment. The pupils may also recognize this fact but, along with the teacher, may pretend that it is interesting and important. As long as the teacher does not hold them responsible for the content, they probably enjoy the "day off," even though, at times, the material may be anything but stimulating to them.

Experience as an aid in developing the teacher's ability to use instructional aids effectively. The student teacher should take advantage of every opportunity to observe and cooperate with experienced teachers in the use of audio-visual instructional materials. The number of films available and rated appropriate for secondary school use today is relatively high; therefore, the student teacher should be prepared to use this form of instructional aid wherever appropriate. More and more teacher-training institutions are offering courses to prospective as well as experienced teachers to prepare and aid them in the effective use of such materials.

Among the problems which probably disturb the beginning teacher rather frequently, are two which bear a direct relationship with work in the audio-visual field. In the first of these, the teacher is interested in finding out how he can make the teaching-learning situation increasingly effective. In the second, he is interested in locating appropriate materials of instruction for doing this. Beginning teachers who develop the ability to use audio-visual aids intelligently, and who, at the same time, familiarize themselves with sources from which they can obtain these materials, have gone a long way toward helping themselves solve these two problems.

The successful teacher is continually alert for materials by means of which he can improve his instruction. For instance, he realizes that he has to revise his list of audio-visual aids year after year. This requires careful judgment on his part. The student teacher who has the opportunity to work with an experienced teacher whenever he is evaluating materials of this type is indeed fortunate. But, at the same time, he should not overlook the opportunity of taking a few of the following steps himself during the time that he is in the cooperating school:

1. Make a list of the audio-visual materials applicable to his teaching fields. This list should include the costs as well as the sources from which he can obtain such materials.
2. Develop the ability to operate machines such as projectors so that he can use them effectively. He should also know how to avoid damage to equipment.
3. Become familiar with the steps by which the teacher cooperates with those persons who direct the audio-visual program of the school.
4. Develop the ability to recognize the relationship between learning objectives and teaching materials so that he can select the latter wisely and use them opportunely. This requires that he consider such factors as the age, the ability, and the experience of the learners.
5. Develop the ability to evaluate various types of materials on the basis of cost and economy of teacher time and effort.

The student teacher may have little opportunity to gain experience in the use of certain types of teaching aids during his assignment unless he can convince his cooperating teacher that he is able to use them effectively. As a first step he has to be willing to plan carefully for their use. To do so may require that he become proficient in the use of various types of equipment. This, in turn, may make it necessary for him to obtain the assistance of trained operators until such a time as he can take over these responsibilities himself. Few cooperating teachers will permit the student-in-training to waste class time and school material in trying to learn a technique which would be more feasible for him to acquire outside of class hours. These teachers realize that it is possible to damage equipment and material seriously if the operator is careless or inexperienced. They know, further, that they will have to account for such damage should it occur while the materials are in their possession.

The student teacher should be especially careful whenever he uses expensive equipment or material which is irreplaceable. For example, his cooperating teacher may have collected illustrations or made gadgets which he treasures highly for their instructional values. If these are lost or damaged, it may not be possible to replace or to repair them. The student teacher should try to appreciate what such a loss can mean to a conscientious teacher. The latter will seldom be able to forget that he has lost such aids, especially when each year the occasion for using them comes around again. If the student teacher has been responsible for such a loss his relationship with his cooperating teacher may not always continue to be pleasant.

Visual Aids Can Make a Definite Contribution to the Pupils' Learning Experiences

Visual impressions basic to many learning experiences. Since a majority of the impressions which the individual receives come through the eye, it follows that much of his learning is acquired by means of those impressions. It may not be difficult to appreciate this relationship if the handicaps of the sightless person are considered for a moment. For example, how is it possible for such a person to gain a concept of color or of a phenomenon such as lightning? He has no means by which he can associate one or the other with a past experience; therefore, his concept of each must remain largely imaginary.

Eyesight and learning ability do not always complement each other. Individuals even differ widely on how much this sense contributes to their learning experience.

For example, two persons may walk together through a park. The one sees only trees and more trees; the other also sees trees, but to him they appear as shingle oak, as shagbark hickory, or as American elm. Again, the two may enter an art gallery. The former sees pictures and more pictures. The other also sees pictures, but he stops to study those that particularly appeal to him. He may even come back again and again to look at the same picture. Both of these persons have eyes to see, but only one possesses the qualities that make his experiences rich and inspiring.

In their classes teachers have pupils who represent both of the above types of individuals. The one needs but little assistance in his learning experiences, the other needs a great deal of help.

For example, on a field trip the teacher must help the second type of pupil to see more than just trees or pictures. He must help him recognize that there are qualities that make of a tree a shagbark hickory and of a picture a Mona Lisa. But to achieve this ability, the learner must become willing to devote time and attention to the object in question. If the teacher cannot get him to do this, he has failed in his efforts to help that pupil live more richly and more fully.

Accuracy of interpretation. Visual impressions are usually rather accurate. However, an individual sometimes attempts to generalize on conditions of which he has gained only limited impressions.

For example, the visitor to a strange land returns after a visit of only a few days and proceeds to describe the country and its people by the little that he has seen. Although his descriptions may very well be accurate in part, to a native who is thoroughly familiar with his homeland and his people they will probably appear rather ridiculous.

Similarly, teachers should guard against having pupils draw inaccurate generalizations from the limited number of pictures or films which they may see in the classroom. For instance, pictures of midwestern life will be different from pictures of the far south. Yet both represent a phase of life in the United States. If the learner understands this, such pictures need lose none of their value for him.

The teacher should evaluate visual materials carefully to make certain that they portray accurate impressions. Propagandists have been quick to seize upon this principle of association in attempting to foster the spread of their ideas.

A film or cartoon, for example, can be used to portray the favorable or unfavorable side of almost any situation or condition. For instance, the smile or frown of a political candidate, photographed at an unsuspecting moment, can be used by either opponent or friend to bring about the man's election or defeat. Such a picture is generally subject to a variety of interpretations, depending in each case upon how it is presented to the public.

Even pictures and films designed for classroom use are not always entirely free from subtle propaganda. For this reason, the teacher should try to become a competent analyst of the material which he plans to use; only in this way can he avoid being the means of disseminating information which may be interpreted incorrectly. Sometimes it may even

lead to the creation of unhealthy attitudes toward society. For this reason, he should carefully examine films distributed without cost by commercial agencies. They may or they may not have much educational value. Some agencies distributing materials of this type have made determined efforts to have their films accurate as well as informative. These agencies recognize that in the end they gain good will as well as business by following such a policy. Since certain types of films are available only from commercial agencies, the teacher sometimes has little choice other than to use them if he wishes to present the topic which they cover. But even after he schedules them, by previewing, he can always eliminate those that are objectionable.

Visual concepts tend to be lasting. Because they are concrete, visual concepts often tend to be more lasting than those communicated by verbal means alone. Therefore, the teacher should make certain that these impressions be as accurate as possible.

The classroom teacher continually faces the problem of getting his pupils to remember essential material. He may try to develop more motivation by urging them to study harder; he may use tests to emphasize the need for doing this. Yet he knows that, regardless of how well they learn, they will forget some of the material very shortly. Thus he must seek for means of reinforcing the learning process to obtain a high degree of retention, especially if that material should be basic to the pupils' growth and progress.

There is little doubt but that the pupil forgets part of what he learns because at the moment it does not seem important to him, he does not make immediate use of it, or he does not understand it clearly. Visual aids are often of considerable help in improving not only the accuracy of the concepts which the individual obtains, but they also often improve his retention of the material which he is learning or has already learned.

Among the books which the author read as a boy was a borrowed copy of *Robinson Crusoe*. Not only was the story fascinating, but the pictures were most impressive. The artist had selected dramatic moments and had sketched these in a most striking manner. Even now, decades later, it is not difficult to recall scenes such as the one portraying a charging native crumpling to the ground as smoke pours from the barrel of Crusoe's gun. The description of that event in the story has long been forgotten but the mental picture of the artist's sketch has lost little of its original detail.

Vividness and uniqueness are characteristics which help to make more lasting the impressions associated with visual material. Such qualities can take the form of color, details, or even captions.

For example, the comic supplements to newspapers are frequently presented in color to make them more striking. Advertisements are treated in a similar manner. Captions or titles to pictures must also convey a meaning particularly appropriate for the selection if the picture is to receive more than passing attention. Rembrandt's painting of Dutch military figures was only another picture until it was called *The Night Watch*. The title immediately placed the painting in a position where it first received national and later international recognition. The secret of the popularity of certain types of humorous cartoons lies in the sharp contrast between caption and picture.

Of course, some of the visual material which the teacher finds available is neither unique nor is it sensational, yet it may still have considerable educational value. On the other hand, the teacher should not expect his pupils to become enthusiastic about illustrative material that bears little relationship to their field of interest.

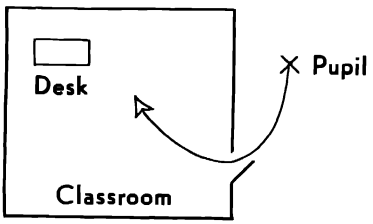
Most individuals have a natural curiosity for the unfamiliar. They enjoy traveling because they are anxious to see what such places as the Grand Canyon or the Yellowstone trails look like. Similarly, in the classroom, the teacher can sometimes capitalize upon curiosity by showing pictures or by using the blackboard to illustrate formations or designs. If he does this well, he is generally in a favorable position to hold the attention of his class.

In an earlier chapter the author referred to the student teacher who for a class of weak pupils drew diagrams on the blackboard to illustrate the geological conditions under which oil is formed. In his case, every member of the class appeared interested in watching him use the blackboard for such a purpose. It was obvious that they were curious to see what the next lines of his sketches would reveal. The results of the tests which he gave to the class when the unit was completed indicated that the pupils had learned this material unusually well. There is little doubt but that in this case the use of the blackboard had much to do with the success of the unit.

The dull pupil frequently finds it difficult to associate words with ideas. Therefore, if visual materials on the subject are presented they often serve to strengthen his concepts and so help to make them more lasting. To illustrate, in a foreign language teachers find it a helpful

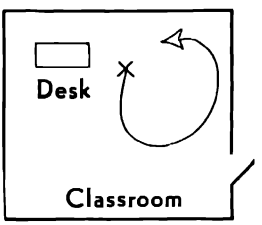
practice to have pupils associate a visual object or sketch with the word which they are learning. Of course there are words, such as adverbs and prepositions, which do not readily lend themselves to this approach, but even in their case teachers can sometimes provide modified visual stimuli. Although the type of aids described above are appropriate for pupils of all levels of ability, they are especially effective with weak pupils.

In the author's own experience, he found that it was sometimes difficult for his classes in German to distinguish between the dative and accusative uses of the prepositions indicating position. A few of the pupils were almost always confused whenever they read or were told that words such as *in* govern the accusative case when the verb indicates motion to a designated place, but govern the dative case when no motion is indicated or there is motion within a place. Because the differences in usage are somewhat technical, the pupils seemed to sense the distinctions much more quickly and be able to retain them more effectively whenever the teacher placed diagrams, such as the following, on the board.



ACCUSATIVE USE

Motion to a designated place, in this case, the classroom.



DATIVE USE

Either no motion—pupil sitting at desk—or motion within a place, or to no designated place. In this instance the pupil is walking around in the classroom.

Types of visual aids. The types of visual aids which the teacher can use in his classroom are almost without number. Yet even the experienced teacher sometimes forgets or overlooks some of the opportunities which are present to use such materials. Therefore, if he glances over a list of such materials now and then he may find some which he has not used to full advantage and some which he has overlooked entirely.

The following list of visual aids is only representative. Any experienced teacher will, no doubt, be able to add others from his own and

other subject fields. Furthermore, the list has some points in common with the area groupings prepared by Brown and VanderMeer, and presented on pages 370–1 of this chapter. The classifications that follow are for convenience only. Because of its unique nature, the field trip is not included in the listing.

Classroom and laboratory mediums designed for making visual aids effective:

1. Blackboard
2. Bulletin board
3. Display case or table
4. Projection screen (film and television)
5. Theater or puppet stage

TYPES OF VISUAL AIDS

Projected (moving and still)	*Models, objects, specimens, etc.*	*Unprojected (flat)*
1. Films	1. Apparatus	1. Cartoons
2. Filmstrips	2. Carvings	2. Posters
3. Slides	3. Dramatics (life and puppet)	3. Diagrams
4. Opaques	4. Models	4. Graphs
5. Television settings	5. Museum material	5. Illustrations
	6. Sand or clay forms	6. Maps
	7. Specimens	7. Paintings
		8. Photographs
		9. Posters
		10. Prints
		11. Stamps

Selection of visual aids. The success of any teacher's visual-aids program depends in some measure upon the basis on which he selects the materials which he plans to use. Above all, he has to decide whether or not the selected aids will contribute anything worth while to the learning situation. The few principles listed below may be helpful to him when he is making such selections.

1. The use of the selected aids should contribute decidedly to the improvement of the learning situation. Some types of learning do not need the assistance of visual aids; others can be helped considerably by their use.
2. The material selected should be of such a nature as to aid learning to the fullest extent. If the material is new to the teacher, he may wish

to obtain the opinion of someone familiar with its use before he finally selects it.

3. The ability level or range of individual abilities should be such that all pupils will profit from the use of the aids selected.
4. Economy of cost and of time in use should be given serious consideration. This step should include an evaluation of the durability or permanence of the aids being considered.
5. Means should be established for testing the effectiveness of the materials as an aid to learning. These results should furnish the teacher with a basis for determining whether he should plan to use the aids again in the future.

Effective use of motion pictures. Probably no one factor can substitute more effectively for actual personal experience than can the motion picture. Of course, television may gradually enter as a challenger to this field, but, as yet, it has done so only on a limited scale. The lack of control of time and of content by the viewer still limits its educational possibilities at present.

The motion picture, as Dale [6] says, "unfolds with a compression of time and space." It "can omit unnecessary and unimportant material and concentrate upon a few selected points." Hence, the teacher can point the picture so that he obtains a particularly desirable effect. But he can achieve such a goal only if the desired type of picture is available. Although in the past appropriate films were limited in number, the extensive production of films by both private and commercial agencies is today gradually removing this early handicap. Many universities and colleges now provide film rental services for school and private use. These services usually extend over a radius within convenient shipping distance from the center of distribution.

Today the photographing and reproducing of sound on film make possible a reproduction of events that can be truly realistic in every sense of the word. The process has combined two very effective means for stimulating and motivating learning. Educators themselves have done and are still doing extensive work to improve the use of these aids. Much progress has been made since that day in 1922 when Joseph Tykociner, research professor of electrical engineering at the University of Illinois, first photographed sound on moving picture film and reproduced it by a photoelectric process. Because of the wide use of sound films today, it may be of interest to the teacher to know that in the first public demon-

[6] By permission, Dale, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

stration of the above discovery, the producers of commercial moving pictures were in agreement that sound movies could not be used widely; their reason: the human mind did not have the capacity for coordinating the dual impressions that would be received by way of eye and ear. Yet today those dual impressions are what make sound film so valuable a teaching tool in the classroom.

Motion pictures are especially effective in depicting gradual changes in long-time processes. For example, the entire life cycle of a flower or plant can be shown in a few minutes by means of a film. Reverse sequences are also possible by the simple expedient of running the film backwards. By eliminating the time between plays the motion picture of a football game can be made into a period of highly concentrated activity. The analytical use which coaches make of such films is commonplace knowledge. They are able to diagnose a player's weaknesses and work toward correcting them from one week-end game to another. In a similar manner, instructors of vocational subjects use motion pictures to teach pupils the proper use and care of tools and of machines. The advantages of this type of teaching are several. In the first place, the class can view repeatedly the movements which the teacher wishes to demonstrate, thereby enhancing their study of correct and incorrect form. In the second place, the teacher can regulate the speed of the projector. This often makes it possible for him to project movements on the screen in such a manner as to obtain the correct speed and timing for the activity in question.

Moving pictures of actual historical incidents are now possible; this was not the case a few decades ago. Today the motion picture reconstructs older scenes to portray the previous action and setting in a realistic manner. In fact, in some of the great historical films, the producers spare neither time nor cost to make even minute details of dress or setting accurate. The instructional value of such films is inestimable. Schools now have access to films which cost fortunes to produce. It is almost incredible that in a matter of minutes a classroom can be transformed from a setting, for example, in which pupils are living with the Crusaders in their wars to free the Holy Land from the Turks, to a modern struggle between the Arabs and the Jews over the same piece of territory. The instructional possibilities that are open to a history teacher with such facilities at his disposal are practically limitless. Certainly there is little need for a teacher to work day by day with only a textbook or two as a background for his discussions.

Effective use of flat or still pictures. The showing of moving pictures is in some instances a costly, time-consuming process. There may be times during the class period when the teacher can use still pictures to better advantage than sound pictures.

The flat or still picture has value in the classroom, but it should not substitute for the pupil's real experience if it is possible to obtain the latter. Yet a picture is often a valuable supplement to a real experience. Most travelers have probably had occasion to discover in pictures details which they missed entirely when they participated in the original experience.

Still pictures are either projected or unprojected. Excellent and reasonably priced projection equipment is making the use of still pictures in the form of slides and prints increasingly popular in the classroom. Filmstrips may also be classified as still pictures.

As with films, the use of projected, still pictures requires a certain amount of complicated equipment. It is not always possible for the teacher to have such equipment set up whenever he wishes to use it. Yet, whenever it is available, the teacher can obtain certain advantages from its use. He can project and show a single small picture to the entire class at one time. Thus all pupils can view and study it equally well. He can seldom obtain such a result by holding the small picture before the class or even by having pupils pass it from one to another. The latter process takes time and gives opportunity for distractions to enter into the activity. Except for the filmstrip, still pictures offer the advantage of being shown in any order desired. Still pictures also provide opportunity for the teacher to point out and emphasize certain details or characteristics as the pictures appear on the screen. Opaque projectors usually require a dark room and a good screen if they are to project clear pictures. Some teachers like to make slides to suit their own special needs. Thus over a period of time they are often able to build up a collection which meets their particular needs especially well.

Every teacher can find wide use for unprojected or flat pictures. He can obtain many of these, for example, from books, magazines, newspapers, and other publications. There are even special prints, cartoons, and illustrations that publishers make available for educational purposes. The teacher should build his own collection of such material and then file it away in an organized manner. By doing so, he will greatly facilitate its use later.

Some teachers become enthusiastic collectors of visual materials. As a result, they often collect for quantity rather than for quality. The pictures which the teacher shows to his pupils should make it possible for them to achieve the goals of the course more readily. The number which he uses is not necessarily a factor in the case. Dale [7] lists the following as standards which the teacher can apply to the selection of a still picture to determine its usefulness for his classes:

1. Will it help me achieve my teaching purpose?
2. Does the picture give a generally true impression?
3. Is this a good picture technically and artistically?
4. Will the picture stimulate the imagination?
5. Will the picture add to the pupil's fund of knowledge?
6. Does the picture give an accurate impression of the relative size of the object?
7. Does the picture have the proper amount of detail?
8. Does the picture focus attention upon one main idea?

Yet selection is only one step in the effective use of still pictures. The teacher must also plan to present them so that they will contribute to the purposes of the lesson or unit. If they are to do this, he must bring them into the pupil's experience so that they provide meaning for him. Through their use the pupil should be able to gain a satisfaction which he has neither felt nor experienced before.

The place of charts, graphs, maps, and flash cards. Many of the most helpful teaching aids are those which the teacher is able to construct for himself. Among these are forms such as charts, graphs, and flash cards. All of these represent a form of visual symbolism.

Through the use of such materials, the teacher is frequently able to stress certain data or facts. He can often construct the type of material which will meet the immediate needs of the pupils with whom he is working. For example, the foreign language teacher can quickly make a few flash cards on the troublesome words or phrases in his lesson. By saving these cards, he will build up a collection for future use. But to make the cards useful, he has to file them away in a systematic manner so that he can draw them out whenever he again has need for them. Such cards should, of course, always be large enough for all members of the class to read without difficulty.

[7] By permission, Dale, *op. cit.*, pp. 227–232.

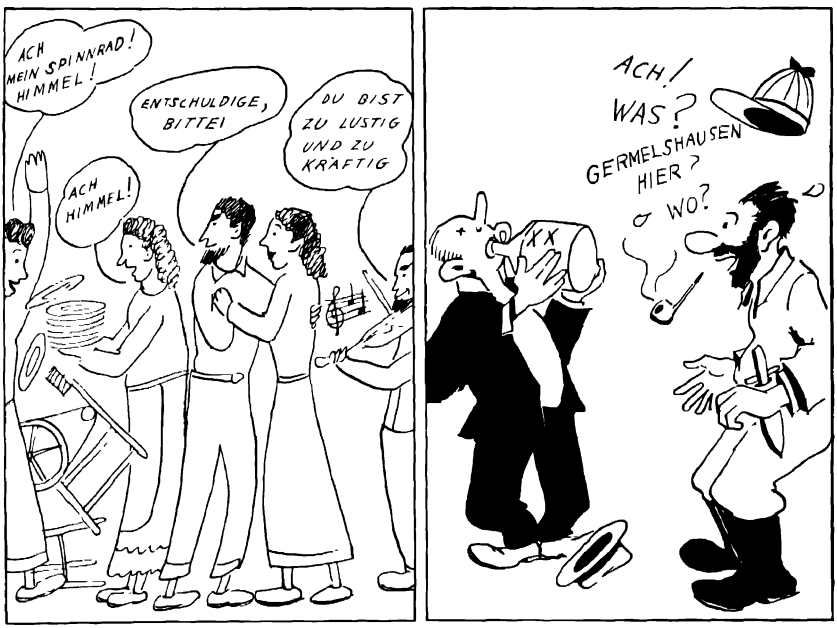
Cartoons and posters also belong to this group of graphic aids. Not a great many years ago cartoons in comic form were looked upon as contributing to a rather low form of aesthetic enjoyment. Today, however, educators know that under certain conditions they are valuable instructional media. They appeal to children and adolescents, as well as to adults. Because they sell their point rather directly to the reader, they lose much of their appeal if someone has to explain their intent. This may be because the artist frequently draws them with the intent of playing on the emotions of the reader thereby creating definite attitudes toward a situation or condition. The teacher can use political cartoons for instructional purposes if all the pupils in the class understand the character symbols which they contain. For example, such a commonly known character as Uncle Sam is, of course, familiar to most pupils. Yet there are other symbols, such as the sickle and hammer, which represent the USSR, that are not so well known and may need to be explained before all of the pupils can comprehend the intent of the artist.

As was pointed out above, the cartoon is sometimes intended to create an attitude. This attitude may be either favorable or unfavorable to the issue in question. For this reason the teacher should help pupils develop the ability to make a critical analysis of the purposes which the cartoonist had in mind. It may be desirable in this type of analysis for the teacher or pupils to bring into class cartoons representing at least more than one point of view. But he should use care that such material does not foster the development of attitudes unfavorable, for example, towards racial, social, or religious groups. He should help train his pupils to examine material of this type in an objective manner.

In an earlier chapter the author described his own experience at having foreign language pupils sketch their impressions from stories or plays. He has always believed that even simple line drawings can help pupils crystallize into sharper form the impressions and concepts which they receive from the reading of such material.

For example, pupils are motivated to reread material in such instances to become familiar with the type of costumes worn by the characters or with the geographical features of certain landscapes. They cannot represent these on paper before they have a rather definite picture in their own minds of what they intend to sketch. Opposite are two selected sketches of this nature taken from Friederich Gerstäcker's German story *Germelshausen*. Sometimes such sketches are as valuable for their impressionistic significance as they are

for their realistic. It might be well to add at this point that when the teacher follows a practice of this type he should be willing to try his own hand at sketching if he expects his pupils to become interested in this procedure. In fact, his own quick, crude outline on the blackboard is often one of the best ways by which he can motivate them to try their skill at visual interpretation.



Posters, charts, and graphs have one point in common. Almost without exception the individuals who construct or use them intend that they attract the reader's attention to a particular idea. Sometimes they also emphasize relationships. Many pupils enjoy making posters because they do not necessarily require a great amount of artistic skill. It is sometimes even possible to make effective aids of this type by cutting out and pasting materials together.

The uses which the teacher may make of maps are many. In some subjects he uses them as a major item of study. Since maps differ as to characteristics, the teacher must interpret them differently if he is to use them to full advantage. The teacher should not assume that the pupil always knows how to obtain the greatest value from the use of a map. He may have to teach the pupil to recognize its purposes as well as its limitations.

For example, flat maps of the world may leave the pupil with erroneous concepts of distance and direction. Therefore, appropriate explanations by the teacher may be necessary before the pupil understands clearly what he sees before him. Even then it may be well to refer to a globe if it is available.

Use of objects, models, and specimens. The preceding paragraph points out some of the problems connected with the use of maps. Some teachers like to supplement their collection of maps of the world with a globe. The latter tool helps in the development of pupils' accurate spatial concepts. The importance of such concepts becomes apparent when, for example, the class is considering the routes of modern air travel. The ordinary flat map simply does not portray such routes in a realistic manner.

Specimens are regular equipment in laboratories.

Biology pupils, for example, make collections of leaves and of bark in order to be able to identify trees accurately. Such a practice is not only more effective but also more interesting than trying to acquire the information by doing nothing more than reading a text. Even when the class follows a text, it is helpful for them to have at hand pictures showing the distinguishing characteristics of each type of tree.

Specimens can be of both living and dead matter. Wherever museums and aquariums are available, they provide resource material, especially for certain types of study.

Models are appropriate for use in classes such as physics. Beginning teachers sometimes assume that models must be especially designed for classroom instruction if they are to be usable. But many times they will find that discarded machines make excellent working models which they can acquire at little or no cost to the school or department. The author once heard a successful physics instructor remark that an old discarded cream separator, which one of his farm pupils had brought into class, served as an excellent model for demonstrating numerous principles of physics. An ingenious teacher can make use of many such sources to meet his needs. The use of everyday material sometimes helps pupils realize the frequency with which they have contact with the principles or materials which they are studying. This can in itself be a worth-while phase of their education.

Use of the blackboard and the bulletin board. The blackboard is really a convenient device by means of which the teacher presents aids

such as outlines, graphs, and diagrams to his class. Efficient teachers use it almost daily. Most classrooms have a blackboard of some type or other, but often this board does not provide as much space as the teacher would like to have. The teacher can use the board as a means of clarifying points of misunderstanding. He can also use it to outline material and to give examples of work. But since it is so commonplace in the classroom, it is easy for him to fail to use it to full advantage. It is amazing how often student teachers and even staff teachers try in vain to explain certain points of information by words alone. If they would only turn and outline or diagram their points on the blackboard, it might not only be possible for their pupils to comprehend them more fully but also to retain them more readily.

The teacher who observes a few simple techniques of blackboard usage, usually finds this medium practically indispensable in his efficient presentation of instructional material.

1. Keep the board clean when it is not being used. Make certain that there is no reflected glare for the pupils who are seated in certain parts of the room. Use the blackboard space at the front and side of the room in preference to that in the rear. It is both uncomfortable and disconcerting to the pupils to have to twist in their seats to be able to see material at the back of the room.
2. Make certain that the view of the board is not blocked by objects or by persons. Teachers sometimes forget that they themselves are guilty of blocking their pupils' view. They stand or sit in front of the very part of the board which the pupils are expected to read.
3. Space the material on the board so that it is grouped or blocked naturally. Write legibly. Remove all irrelevant material; it usually serves only to confuse the class.
4. Practice blackboard economy. Do not spend most or all of a class period writing outlines on the board for the pupils to copy. Such material should, if possible, be prepared in graphed or dittoed form previous to the meeting time of the class.
5. Allow sufficient space for pupils to work effectively if you ask them to write at the board. Crowding often causes inefficiency and confusion.

The bulletin board should be placed in a favorable position in the classroom. The teacher should use it as a center for displaying material as well as for posting announcements. He should train his pupils to read

it regularly by holding them responsible for what is posted on it. Of course, this requires that he provide them with time to read it. He should plan to have the posted material changed regularly. The board cannot become an effective instructional device unless the teacher gives it frequent time and attention. It is seldom possible to collect bulletin-board material except over an extended period of time. Thus the teacher should always be on the watch for new and appropriate material which he can post on the bulletin board. Of course, he may have to keep it in his files until an appropriate time for posting it arrives.

Some teachers find it desirable to make individual pupils or committees responsible for the material on the board. This helps to direct pupil attention to its purpose. It also draws upon the resources which the pupils have available. The teacher may give his pupils the responsibility of caring for the board, but he should seldom expect them to do this efficiently without some guidance and assistance on his part. If the board is to become an effective teaching device, both teacher and pupils will have to work cooperatively to that end. The teacher will usually have to accept the initial responsibility for bringing this about.

Dramatizations and demonstrations. Except in pantomime, dramatization involves the development of both visual and auditory concepts. For this reason it can be regarded as an effective instructional device.

Dramatization is an attempt to reproduce real experience in, what may be called, package form. During the process the individual becomes either an observer and listener to the action and sound or a participant in it. The possibilities for becoming the latter are usually limited. Yet to be able to do both may be a valuable experience for the individual. It is for this reason that, if possible, every pupil in a class should receive some kind of assignment whenever the group plans a dramatic production.

Both teacher and pupils have to understand that even though dramatization cannot catch the effectiveness of the real experience itself, it can provide many of the emotional reactions that accompany the latter. The child who participates in a play has an excellent opportunity to obtain an intimate understanding of its meaning. In addition, the play may provide an experience with therapeutic value for him. Whenever the pupil plays the part of a certain character, he has to project himself into that person's experiences—that is, if he is to play his part effectively. Thus, if he is representing a character or individual toward

whom he previously may have had an intolerant attitude, it may become increasingly easier for him to understand that individual's position and reactions as he comes to assume such a role.

Dramatization does not necessarily involve an audience beyond that of the immediate class group. Some teachers like to develop impromptu skits in their classes. Under such circumstances, pupils assume roles without necessarily memorizing the lines of the various characters. Such skits sometimes reveal to the teacher the extent to which pupils understand the attitudes and viewpoints of the characters whom they are portraying. Thus the activity serves as a means for evaluating interpretation as well as for evaluating the portrayal of character.

The puppet show is a unique form of dramatization. Although some educators think of it as being particularly adapted to use in the field of language, the possibilities for adapting it to other areas are numerous. For example, boys and girls who like to work with materials may enjoy developing their skills by designing, making, and costuming the small figures or by building a stage and its accompanying properties. The puppets and the stage property may be simple or elaborate, depending upon the time and effort which the teacher and pupils wish to expend upon the production.

The visual and auditory values that the pupil can derive from puppetry are many. He may, for instance, direct more effort toward making a puppet reveal character than he would if he himself were playing that role on the stage. However, as with other teaching aids, puppetry can lead to a waste of time and effort, especially if pupils themselves do not assume the responsibility for working with various phases of the production. There is considerable opportunity for dawdling; this can lead to confusion and even to disciplinary problems, both of which may interfere with the establishment of an effective learning situation.

Classroom demonstrations are usually a combination of telling and showing. In them the demonstrator attempts to convey to his listeners the meaning of certain skills, practices, or processes by showing his audience "how it is done." In school situations the demonstrator is usually the teacher, although pupils may also serve in this capacity.

To be effective, a demonstration usually has to follow an orderly procedure. To bring this about, the demonstrator has to plan carefully so that equipment is at hand and also so that the steps which he follows are based upon satisfactory sequences. It is usually best that he exclude

irrelevant comments. Too often they have a tendency to distract the pupils' attention from the subject material. He should study his audience carefully throughout the presentation to make certain that he is getting his points across. He should make certain that everyone can see the material being used. He should also have some means by which he is able to check the effectiveness with which he is conveying his ideas to the class. He may do this by giving pupils an opportunity to ask questions at opportune times. However, the timing of such questions should be such as not to disrupt the sequence of the demonstration.

Demonstrations are usually economical in that they save time and material. However, they seldom provide participating experiences for the observers. For this reason, there are teachers who regard the practice as of questionable educational value except as an introductory step toward the development of certain desirable skills.

Field trips as learning experiences. There are always certain community resources which the teacher cannot bring into the classroom. Hence, if he is to use these for instructional purposes, he will have to arrange for his pupils to go to them. The field trip usually represents this type of learning situation.

A field trip is not just a random excursion. It is an organized visit to a selected point of interest. It is intended to be informative. On a field trip teacher and pupils come into actual contact with the activities which they are observing. They see real objects and observe the carrying out of various activities.

On a trip to a local dairy, for example, they observe the steps by which milk and milk products are made available for public consumption. Such a trip, therefore, should help them to appreciate better the services which provide them with the necessities and comforts of life which they enjoy.

Before going on a field trip, the teacher should brief the pupils on what they are to observe. A process similar to the one for showing films is generally appropriate. This should help them to be more intelligent observers. At the close of the trip, or sometime later, there should be a follow-up during which the pupils and teacher discuss major points of interest. On such a trip the teacher or conductor should keep himself in a position where he can answer questions which the pupils may wish to ask. If they are interested in what they are observing, it is natural for them to seek for new information.

The teacher should always be alert to the learning opportunities that present themselves as the group travels to and from the selected point

of interest. He should not regard these minutes as "dead time." Even a short walk of a few blocks from the school building can provide a worth-while learning experience for an entire class.

The dangers involved in conducting or transporting pupils away from the school building have been discussed in a previous chapter. The teacher should keep in mind that the field trip involves responsibilities of a type which are not present during regular work in the classroom.

Television a powerful audio-visual aid. It is difficult at this time to try to predict the place that television will have in the educational program of the future. Its potentiality is almost unlimited. It appeals through the eye as well as through the ear. It transports the individual to a ringside seat at significant events; in fact, it really becomes a field trip in an armchair.

Today the limitations of transmission and of selected programs are still barriers that will have to be overcome if schools are to use television widely for educational purposes. Yet improvements are bound to come fast. Some of the possibilities are already obvious; the present-day student teacher should be interested in what television may be able to do for the teacher-training program of the future. He has, no doubt, in some instances recognized the limitations of facilities for adequate classroom observations. Television may be able to bring the high school teacher and his pupils into the college laboratory where the prospective teacher and his instructor can observe them in action. This should make possible an analysis of techniques and procedures beyond anything that is possible at present.

Sources of visual material. The beginning teacher should remember that few things become obsolete faster than a list of visual aids and the sources from which they can be obtained. Of course, some material has rather permanent qualities which make it usable year after year, but other material loses its pertinence after a short period of time. Hence, the teacher must continually revise his lists by adding new items and new materials as both become available. But to find a place for using these in his teaching program he must drop those which have lost their effectiveness. He also has to delete the names of firms that no longer supply materials and, in their places, add the new ones that have come into being.

It is part of the teacher's professional responsibility to read professional journals in his field. Almost without exception, these journals

help to keep him informed on the latest audio-visual materials which can be useful to him. In addition, there are magazines which provide regular service toward acquainting teachers with new material. At least one or more of these can be found in most school libraries. Not only do such sources list materials, but they also help to evaluate them for the teacher.

Audio Aids Serve to Make the Pupils' Learning Experiences More Meaningful

Verbal symbols, a common means for communicating ideas. Man's progress has been facilitated by his ability to develop and use verbal symbols for communicating ideas. The child first begins using such symbols at an early age. He communicates his early desires by means of cries. Then he gradually replaces these with words. Later he discovers not only that words are a convenient and efficient means for making known his purposes and desires, but that he can also use them to describe real or imaginary experiences. With the development of radio, the range of the individual's voice has even increased until it knows practically no bounds today; now man can speak and be heard throughout the entire world.

Audio aids are recent developments. The use of audio aids in the classroom is a rather recent development. Practically all of the aids of this type being used today have been invented and developed during the last half century. The phonograph came first, followed by the radio, the sound movies, and then television. Aids such as the tape recorder and the wire recorder are also of relatively recent date.

The tremendous growth of radio listening has made the present generation of adolescents extremely sound conscious. It is quite natural, therefore, that schools should attempt to capitalize on this situation by using audio aids to improve the effectiveness of their instructional programs. All of these aids have been made possible by the simple procedure of amplifying sound. This development makes it possible for the teacher to communicate with large groups of pupils with relative ease.

Functions and characteristics of auditory aids. There is little doubt but that audio aids, such as the radio, influence the thinking and conduct of a large number of listeners. When these aids are used in con-

junction with moving pictures, it is possible to transport the listener and observer into the midst of some of the most dramatic incidents that life has to offer. There is little doubt, therefore, but that the teaching potentiality of such aids has not as yet been fully realized.

Audio aids make a definite contribution to the timeliness of classroom instruction.

Anyone who, some two decades ago, may have had the opportunity of hearing the abdication address of Edward VIII of England, or, some years later, the announcement by President Truman of the dropping of the first atomic bomb, will certainly never forget the impact which the announcement made upon him.

The effect of such statements upon pupils in the classroom is probably equally strong. Most adolescents are interested in world affairs. They like to know what is happening around them because many world events have as far-reaching effects upon their lives as the same events have upon the lives of adults.

Audio aids help to make learning experiences realistic. By using them, the listener can hear the voice inflections of the speaker as well as the sounds that accompany the action of the moment. For example, there is the cheering of the crowd at a ball game. The announcer expresses his feelings in descriptive words, but the crowd resorts to shouts and cheers. Both convey a significant as well as an impressive meaning to the listener.

The type of equipment needed to carry on an effective audio-aid program may, at first, appear somewhat expensive. Yet its actual cost per pupil is seldom excessive. The teacher can almost always obtain a radio or a phonograph without making a heavy drain upon the school budget. Most present-day schools already possess the equipment needed for projecting sound pictures. The only additional cost for the teacher's budget, then, is that of renting or buying films. Today, many schools are adding wire and tape recorders to their audio equipment. The upkeep on these devices, as on loud-speakers, is not heavy if teachers and pupils who use them care for them properly. In contrast, another aid, television, is still somewhat costly. It involves equipment which the teacher cannot readily move from classroom to classroom.

Audio aids are not just luxuries which the teacher draws upon when

he has additional time available in the classroom. They should be used as means for achieving definite instructional goals. It is the teacher's responsibility to decide when and where they can serve this purpose best.

Effective use of radio in education. The time factor has always been a barrier to the efficient use of radio in the classroom. The teacher cannot always have his class meet at the time when a particular radio program is being presented. In addition, the teacher does not always have opportunity to determine beforehand the exact nature of the coming program. As a result, he is handicapped in preparing his pupils for what is to follow. But such handicaps are gradually being overcome. Broadcasting stations are aiding the teacher in his use of radio programs by distributing material describing programs which they plan to present. This makes it possible for the teacher to prepare his classes for the coming broadcasts. In some instances, stations even make recordings of their broadcasts available. These can be rented or purchased and used with the school equipment at times convenient to the classwork.

The teacher also has to consider the advertising angle of commercial programs when he is planning to use radio in his classroom. There are often announcements that appear ridiculous and out of place in such a setting. Occasionally, such announcements may even disrupt the decorum of the class group. But, on the other hand, advertisements may also be used for educational purposes. The teacher may want to study their content for evidence of statements of a misleading or propaganda nature.

The teacher is certainly the individual who is in the most strategic position to evaluate and select the audio aids which fit the needs of his class. But pupils must be taught to listen with a purpose if they wish to make their listening a valuable learning experience. Some programs are especially suitable for certain subject areas. Programs such as the University of Chicago Round Table discussions or America's Town Meeting of the Air are examples of types that present points of view which the teacher can use for discussion purposes in certain classes. There are also foreign language programs and musical programs which are especially adapted to the needs of pupils studying in those subject fields. In addition, some programs of general interest—for example, talks by members of national organizations—may at times be appropriate for any classroom regardless of subject area.

It is obvious that for effective results the equipment which the class

uses during a broadcast should be in good working order. Pupils should be seated comfortably and have at hand any required materials. If they are to take notes, the teacher should brief them on how they are to complete these. However, this activity should provide constructive experiences for them and not be merely busywork. The teacher should keep disturbances to a minimum during the broadcast. He should also prepare pupils to look for significant points in the presentations given. If pupils are inexperienced at following a program, the teacher may help them by providing a list of questions to serve as a guide.

The teacher should indicate an active interest in the program being presented. He can scarcely expect his pupils to evidence interest while he is sitting at his desk grading papers or looking over class materials. He should study his pupils carefully throughout the listening period. Their reactions serve as one means of evaluation and should make it easier for him to select appropriate programs for them in the future. He should also carefully consider follow-up activities. They often provide opportunities for worth-while discussions among members of the class on matters such as the kinds of attitudes which the broadcast is attempting to create. However, the teacher should observe some precautions on this point. He should make certain that this practice does not become a tiresome routine. There is every reason to believe that the follow-up period should be one during which the teacher and class deal with the program material in a pleasurable manner. Should the pupils look forward to it with distaste, their attitude toward the program as a whole may become unfavorable, to the extent that little desirable learning results.

The teacher's responsibility for helping the pupil develop worthwhile habits in his out-of-school radio listening has been discussed in an earlier chapter. But at this time, it may be worth mentioning again that the teacher can obtain valuable results toward this end only when he obtains the willing cooperation of the pupil. Such cooperation requires that the teacher consider the pupil's interests and also his home conditions. The latter may be very unfavorable for the development of desirable study habits. The teacher cannot assume an arbitrary attitude toward such conditions without endangering the very goal which he is hoping to achieve. If he brings about parental opposition and pupil indifference, he has lost much of his opportunity for helping the pupil.

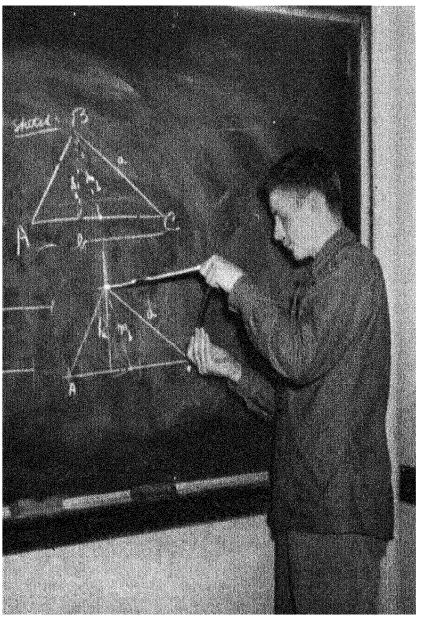
Where local radio stations are available, it is frequently possible for

the teacher to have pupils participate in broadcasts. This experience can have a stimulating effect upon an entire class. It sometimes helps certain pupils to see the need for improving their oral expression. It may even arouse their interest in problems connected with the production of radio scripts. From a community standpoint, it may arouse adult interest in the activities of the schools, and bring about improved relationships between the two. Thus it may even be the means by which a teacher obtains a bit of overdue recognition for some of his past efforts in the classroom. Teachers who prepare programs for such purposes usually prefer having the broadcast be a part of the regular classroom activity. If it is too far removed from this work, the pupils may come to regard the whole effort as little more than an especially prepared publicity stunt. McKown and Roberts [8] make a strong point of the fact that "a radio program is an aid to teaching, not a substitute for it."

Use of records and transcriptions. Not many years ago much of the phonographic equipment in classrooms consisted of an old discarded machine and a few scratchy records. Except for the machines in the music department, such instruments had only occasional use. But when manufacturers introduced recording attachments, the demand for improved machines increased. Language and speech teachers saw in the disc recorder a means for evaluating as well as for improving the oral expression of pupils. But the attempts at recording with these early machines were none too satisfactory. Too often the recording needles became dull, and the records became scratchy. Yet some teachers and pupils continued working with these materials in the belief that they could obtain worth-while results. Even though records were expensive, classes could make recordings at intervals of time, thereby providing a means for determining the progress which individual pupils were making. Later when manufacturers improved discs and recording machines, classroom recording became a comparatively common practice.

Since teachers have found tape and wire recorders convenient and also economical for the preparation of classroom recordings, they have used the phonograph less and less for this purpose. Today teachers use it largely to play back commercially prepared recordings. The quality and the range of such recordings are generally excellent. Music and language classes include many such recordings among their regular instruc-

[8] By permission, from *Audio-Visual Aids to Instruction*, by Harry C. McKown and Alvin B. Roberts, copyright 1949, McGraw-Hill Book Company, p. 295.



Success experience generally has a stimulating effect upon the pupil.



The teacher should channel the pupils' emotional impulses into worth-while and satisfying experiences.



The student teacher can often contribute of her own ability toward making the class period a success.

tional material. In foreign languages the teacher uses them as aids in teaching pronunciation. It is possible that the beginning teacher who may feel somewhat insecure in his use of a foreign tongue may find such records of considerable help both to himself and to his pupils. He cannot repeat a radio program but he can play records again and again to obtain certain desired results.

As with any teaching aid, the teacher should use records with discrimination; he will lose their instructional value if he does not use them to achieve a specific purpose. It is usually desirable for the school to place all phonographic records in a central library. This makes them available to all members of the staff. Yet in certain subject areas, such as foreign languages, it may be advantageous to have the records available in a sound laboratory or booth where pupils can use them during their non-class periods. Such availability makes it possible for a pupil to work privately and in an undisturbed manner to improve his various abilities.

For example, the pupil may want to improve his speaking or his comprehension. Again, he may want to learn to analyze content with greater care than is possible in a crowded classroom. There is also the possibility that he may just want to listen to a music or literature record for the general enjoyment which he obtains from it. He should certainly have the opportunity to do this.

To obtain the greatest benefits from records the teacher should prepare himself and his class for their use. He should use good play-back equipment, and he should follow up the presentation by having appropriate discussions and explanations.

Some teachers find it desirable to obtain recordings of radio programs which their classes have prepared and presented. If they do obtain these recordings, the group can study and analyze them at a convenient time later in the year. By means of a filing system, they can also be made available for other groups.

Use of tape and wire recorders. Many teachers are today making wide use of the tape or wire recorder for instructional purposes. This device is generally satisfactory because of its many practical aspects. It was only a little more than a decade ago that the writer [9] himself began experimenting in his foreign language classes with wire recorders. Even though these early models were crude, they already gave evidence of

[9] Pauline E. Chaugnon and Gilbert C. Kettelkamp, "The Mirrophone as a Teaching Device," *Modern Language Journal*, 1945, 29.517–20.

their instructional potentiality. Today many departments in schools are using improved models in various types of teaching situations.

Tape and wire recorders have a number of advantages, a few of which are as follows:

1. They are generally economical to use; outside of the original cost, there is little expense other than for spools of tape or wire.
2. Long recordings are possible on rather compact material.
3. Recordings may be kept permanently or can be erased conveniently. Erasing permits the wire or tape to be used repeatedly.
4. The machines are relatively simple to operate. Even inexperienced pupils can be trained to operate them in a matter of minutes.
5. The record can be played back immediately after the recording has been completed. The only loss of time is for rewinding. This quick play-back makes the recorders especially adaptable for drill purposes.
6. The fidelity of tone reproduction in these instruments is usually quite high.

Although the tape and wire recorders are similar in design and function, the tape recorder is gradually replacing the other in usage. It appears that tape is more practical to use on a spool than is wire. Tape does not spring loose so readily and, if broken, a better job of repair work can be done. Many audio-visual aid service bureaus are now stocking tape recordings for rental purposes. It is hoped that such a step will lead manufacturers of tape recorders to build their machines so that all will use tape of a standard size. This will add to their usability.

The teacher who uses a tape or wire recorder in his classroom will find many ways in which he can adapt it to his needs. But the use which, for example, the foreign language teacher makes of it will probably be quite different from that of the vocational teacher. The student teacher should use every opportunity during his training period to become acquainted with the many uses to which a recorder can be applied to his teaching field. It can record speeches, conferences, and interviews. It can aid in the improvement of speech habits. It has many possible uses in connection with classroom drill. In fact, there are few, if any, classes where it can not be used at some time or other.

Use of public address systems. Administrators use public address systems for their special purposes. However, where these address systems are made available to pupils and teachers for broadcasting programs of

various types, they serve as teaching aids. Pupils can gain valuable speaking experience from participating in broadcasting programs. In areas such as English, teachers can make writing of scripts and announcing regular parts of the classroom activities.

Schools can employ mobile address systems in the classroom as well as at all-school and public functions, such as athletic events. The individuals who use this type of equipment should exercise every precaution to make certain that it is cared for properly. Because of its delicate nature, it is easily subject to damage. In the classroom such equipment can serve to improve both the listening habits of the pupils and their oral delivery. There will, no doubt, be more and more opportunity to use these abilities as radio and television make increasing impact upon the daily lives of adolescents as well as adults.

Evaluation of audio aids. It is not always possible for the classroom teacher to determine which of his instructional techniques or devices have contributed most to the success of his teaching efforts. Class groups differ too widely for him to make evaluations of this type. If he is an alert teacher, he modifies or changes his methods according to the group with which he is working. The practice that works well in one class may not, for instance, be at all successful in another. Throughout his work the teacher has to be a diagnostician. Whenever he senses that the procedures which he is using are not bringing about the results which he wants, he should be ready to try other approaches. In some instances, these methods may include the use of audio-visual aids new to his earlier experience.

Audio aids, along with visual aids, are resources which almost every teacher has at hand. Therefore, he should use them whenever they serve to strengthen and enrich his instructional techniques. Pupils who do not readily respond to traditional teaching procedures sometimes develop new interests and increased responses whenever the teacher introduces such aids into their learning activities. These aids often serve to add variety as well as realism to the work of the class.

DISCUSSION TOPICS AND QUESTIONS

1. Select from your own background instances in which your learning experiences might have been strengthened and enriched by the use of audio-visual teaching aids.
2. What are some of the physical-plant problems which the teacher will

need to consider when he plans to use audio-visual equipment in his classroom?

3. What criteria can the teacher use to determine the effectiveness of his audio-visual instruction? How can he determine when audio-visual material has become obsolete?
4. Prepare a selected list of audio-visual aids which you believe will be useful to you in your teaching field. Be prepared to justify your selection.
5. Outline procedures which will help the teacher to obtain the greatest benefits from his use of visual aids in classroom instruction.
6. Assume that you are a new teacher in a small school where the audio-visual equipment is very limited in amount and quality. What type of aids can you develop for yourself without buying equipment yourself?
7. To what extent should the teacher concern himself about the type of radio programs to which his pupils listen at home? Discuss the possible connections between the pupil's listening habits at home and his work in school.
8. What are some of the values that may be obtained by having the class listen to a radio program during the class period? Evaluate the practice which some teachers follow of having pupils listen to programs at home so that they may use them as a basis for classwork later.
9. Select a number of programs which are on the air today and discuss their educational values. What factors determine the type of programs to which you yourself like to listen?
10. What are some of the implications of television for future education?

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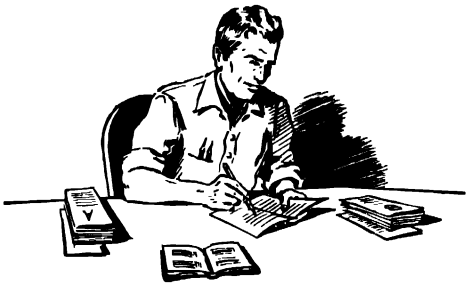
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MEASURING AND EVALUATING PUPIL STATUS AND PROGRESS

The teacher cannot direct learning activities in the classroom effectively unless he has some means for determining whether his efforts are bringing about desired changes in pupil behavior and development. Such means naturally involve the use of instruments of measurement. It is the teacher's responsibility to determine the nature and purpose of the ability or skill to be measured and then, as far as it is possible to do so, to select the instrument which will carry out this function in a desirable manner. Such a situation exists, for example, when a commercial teacher wishes to measure typing speed in one instance and bookkeeping skills in another. He cannot use the same instrument of measurement in both instances and obtain valid and reliable results. The purposes which in each instance the learner hopes to achieve are entirely different.

Measuring and Evaluating Are Essential to the Improvement of Instruction

Meaning and purpose of measurement and evaluation. Although the measuring of learning is a valuable aid to the teacher, he should consider it only a means to an end, and not an end in itself. Although measurement and evaluation possess certain common qualities, some educators see in the term *evaluation* a reference to the process of appraising the whole child or the entire educational situation rather than only a part of it. Others see so little distinction between the terms that they use them interchangeably.

Efficiency in teaching requires that the teacher make a continuous evaluation of the work which he is directing. This step necessitates the use of selected standards of measurement, such as tests which the teacher may use at repeated intervals. Furthermore, the design of the tests which he uses should be such as to measure with a considerable degree of accuracy the progress which the pupil is making from time to time in any selected area of work. The teacher may use standardized tests for such purposes, but other types may serve the same end. It is only necessary that the results of the tests be of such a nature as to provide the teacher with the kind of data needed for directing his instructional activities. Whenever the teacher has such information at hand, he is in a position to evaluate the effectiveness of his instruction at selected intervals. This practice makes it possible for him to modify his teaching techniques and teaching materials as the need arises. In most cases it is natural for a certain amount of subjectivity to enter into such an evaluative process. The teacher cannot always prevent this; in fact, there may be times when a considerable amount of his evaluation may be of a subjective nature.

The place of an accepted base and objective in measuring learning. The teacher cannot measure the growth of pupil learning until he has set up a base from which to compute his measurements. In classwork such bases are normally established within the subject field itself and are then integrated with the system of grading used throughout the entire school program.

For example, 70 may be used as a base for determining acceptable and unacceptable work on a numerical scale, while D may be used to indicate a somewhat similar position on a letter scale. Such a base, however, applies only to a single subject area. The school sets up another base by requiring that the pupil pass in at least a specified number of subject areas of work before he becomes eligible for promotion to a higher grade. Thus the school uses the measurements and evaluations made in subject areas as criteria to determine the pupil's fitness for promotion.

Standards of measurement in education vary widely among schools and also among teachers. Two pupils who may have received identical grade marks under different teachers may have actually attained quite different levels of proficiency. However, such differences do not always become apparent unless, perchance, these two individuals later happen to enroll together in a class under the same teacher. Conditions such as

this indicate that the evaluating of pupil work by teachers is sometimes far from being an objective process. Although some teachers may work toward such a goal, there are other teachers who believe that the final evaluation of the individual's work should never be made entirely on an objective basis. In their evaluation they want to consider such factors as the individual's ability to learn and possibly also the type of conditions under which the learning takes place.

With the establishment of test norms in many subject areas, educators have sought to provide bases for measuring selected types of pupil progress. Such norms are obtained by the use of standardized tests and represent the average or median of achievement of a large number of pupils. By referring to these norms, the teacher is in a position to compare the scores which his own pupils have made with those of pupils of similar age or similar grade level from his own part or from other parts of the country. Such comparisons are usually indicated in terms of percentile rank. For example, a pupil of a certain grade level may rank at the 55th percentile level on a test scale. If the norm or median of that grade level is 52, the pupil can be thought of as being very close to the average of achievement made by pupils in that subject who have been measured by this particular test.

It is possible to develop tests which will measure various types of skills and abilities within a particular subject field. To illustrate, a pupil of French may be tested on his understanding and use of French grammar. He may also be tested on his ability to read the foreign language in a comprehensive manner. Thus, different results are obtained by the use of different tests.

The teacher uses test results for several purposes, a major one of which is to improve the effectiveness of his classroom instruction. But the results can only serve this purpose if he knows how to make appropriate interpretations of them. For example, if such results indicate a weakness in the development of a particular skill which the teacher wants the pupil to achieve, he will have to decide if increased time should be given to improving that skill. Possibly it is preferable that he develop other skills which will be of more value to the learner. But he can do this only at the expense of this lesser skill. Such a situation is rather common. For example, the modern foreign language teacher has to decide upon which of the following to place major emphasis in his work; namely, the ability to read, to write, to speak, or to understand

the foreign language in question. Although he can develop each of these skills to some degree during the few years when the pupil studies the language, he may prefer to develop some at the expense of others. In his case, test results are helpful in determining whether he is doing this in a way that will achieve the results which he wants.

The teacher has to know what the purposes of his instruction are to be before he can determine the amount of progress which he hopes to make beyond a given point. In other words, the processes of measurement and evaluation should include answers to the two simple questions: "From where? To where?"

The relationship of measurement and evaluation to achievement. A teacher may sometimes assume that the results of measurement will of themselves motivate a pupil to increased achievement. For example, he may give a test, score it, and then return the corrected papers expecting that the pupils who have done poorly will be motivated to improve their work. But he usually has to do more than this before such motivation is effective. In most cases it is necessary for him to indicate to the pupil how it is possible to improve upon the specific work in which the latter has shown a deficiency. Although assistance of this type is not always effective in motivating him to improve his work, it at least provides the opportunity for him to do so.

A teacher sometimes employs tests to motivate pupils to review a selected part of the course material. This practice does not always lead to constructive learning. Sometimes it leads to nothing more than the routine memorization of factual material which has little meaning for the pupil.

There is the situation, for example, in the Spanish class where the pupil is reviewing for a vocabulary quiz. It is natural for him to want to score well on such a test. But even though he does well on it, he has only achieved a minor goal with this limited achievement. It is necessary for him to do much more before he obtains a broad understanding of the language and develops the ability to use it as a means of communication. The pupil cannot become a competent Spanish linguist unless he develops abilities other than those involved in the memorization of vocabulary words. He may even achieve perfect scores on all vocabulary tests and yet not acquire a reading or speaking knowledge of the language.

It is a common practice for classroom teachers to give numerous tests. Teachers can easily rationalize that they are doing a good job of

teaching when they give tests at frequent intervals, grade the papers, and give the results to their pupils. But such a practice may sometimes do little more than provide busywork for the teacher. Even the number of tests that the teacher gives does not necessarily have a bearing upon the effectiveness of the instruction itself. Teachers or testing agencies must make tests for specific purposes and then teachers must use them for those purposes if the tests are to have instructional value.

It is usually desirable for the teacher to keep the pupil informed as to the progress which he is making in the course. This means that he should acquaint the pupil with the results of the tests which he has given to the class and then interpret them in the light of the course goals. This step should include a consideration of the pupil's ability. For instance, if one pupil possesses considerable ability, a score of ninety on a test may indicate less relative achievement than a score of eighty for another pupil who is not as strong. Hence, the teacher should help the pupil recognize the relationship between what he is achieving and what is possible for him to achieve in his course work.

Consideration of concomitant outcomes. An earlier discussion of objectives pointed out that when planning his work, the teacher should consider concomitant learning outcomes along with major learning objectives. But to achieve such outcomes, he has to take positive steps to include them as learning experiences in the work which he is planning and organizing. In order to do this, he also has to include means for measuring the progress which his pupils are making as they work toward such goals. This is no easy assignment, for the measurement of attributes, such as work habits, appreciation, interests, and attitudes, requires considerable skill on the part of the teacher. Means used for such purposes must do more than just measure factual information. For example, a pupil may know all the answers to a test planned to measure cooperation, and yet he may cooperate with neither the teacher nor his classmates in the work which they are attempting to carry on day by day.

Whenever individuals evaluate each other, they look for certain desirable or undesirable qualities. In this process they tend to measure these qualities according to standards which they have set up but which they themselves may not necessarily observe. A similar situation exists in the classroom. The teacher first has to list in his own mind the desirable concomitant objectives which he wants his pupils to achieve.

For example, he may want his pupils to develop more courtesy in asking and answering questions. Or he may want them to develop a greater amount of respect for the opinions expressed by other members of the group.

Whatever these objectives may be, after they have been selected, he must establish some means for determining when individual pupils have achieved them. The means will probably not be very objective, yet the teacher will have to find them in areas covered by the pupils' oral and written work, in their observations and comments, and in their relationships with one another.

Frequent appraisal of pupil status desirable. By appraising pupil progress rather frequently, the teacher is in a favorable position to locate learning weaknesses. With this information he is better able to modify his teaching practices so as to correct these weaknesses, especially those that have a tendency to interfere with the pupil's progress and development.

Although teachers commonly use written tests to determine pupil progress, they also frequently employ other criteria for this purpose. Written tests sometimes do little more than substantiate an opinion which the teacher has previously formed of a pupil's progress through observation of his discussion and recitation performances. This opinion is generally the result of factors such as the pupil's response to questions, his participation in discussions, or his regularity in preparing assigned material. Each of these activities makes a particular impression upon the teacher and from these impressions the teacher forms an opinion of the quality of the pupil's work. Thus the pupil's test score which is obtained later may be only a minor factor in determining final evaluation of his work. The importance of these other evaluative criteria, however, should not be overlooked. They probably served as means for directing the work toward the satisfactory conclusion evidenced by the results of the written test.

Possibly such a situation can be made clearer by considering the factors surrounding the recitation of a class in geometry.

John, for instance, is unable to prove the theorem connected with an assigned problem for the day. The teacher believes that the boy does not have the necessary background for completing this phase of the assignment. As he studies the situation, he recalls that John missed two days of school the previous week. Even though he has tried to make up his work, the boy has evidently failed to achieve the proficiency necessary for him to move forward

with the rest of the class. Hence, the teacher is of the opinion that he must first provide the boy with experiences which will help bridge the gap. After the boy has participated in these experiences, the teacher gives a written test to determine whether he has achieved a satisfactory understanding of the problem. The boy could not have reached such an understanding had the teacher waited until the end of the unit to check whether John was making satisfactory progress. In this case the teacher's mental measurement served a constructive purpose.

Frequent appraisal of pupil progress should make it possible for the teacher to practice economy in his own instruction; it should also provide economy for the pupil in his learning activities. In addition, it should help to eliminate the danger of pupil frustration resulting from delays in making corrections and in providing necessary assistance. The teacher should keep two factors in mind as he makes an appraisal or evaluation of pupil progress. The procedure should not be too time-consuming, neither should it affect the pupil adversely. Furthermore, it is generally advisable that the teacher keep the pupil informed of the results of such evaluation. This usually makes him more ready to accept suggestions for the improvement of his work. He has to realize that there is need for improvement before he is ready to try to make it. Furthermore, he has to realize that the measuring and testing which the teacher is directing is for the purpose of benefiting him in his work. If he understands this fully, the chances are favorable that he will be willing to cooperate with the teacher to carry them out to a successful conclusion.

In connection with such appraisal, the teacher should not overlook the possibility of relating aptitude and intelligence test data with the results obtained from the tests used at frequent intervals in regular classroom work. By studying the relationship between such data, he should be in a position where he can not only direct the pupil's learning experiences with a greater degree of efficiency but can also gain a better perspective of the pupil as an individual.

Place of the classroom teacher in the measuring and evaluating program. The classroom teacher is, of course, the individual most directly responsible for measuring and evaluating the work of the pupil. But this is only part of the whole program of evaluation in which the school engages. The full program coordinates the grade or achievement marks of each pupil so that they represent a meaningful pattern to him as well

as to his parents and homeroom teacher or counselor. The classroom teacher may have need for examining this comprehensive record rather frequently if the pupil should be doing unsatisfactory work for him. He may want to determine first whether the pupil is doing equally poor work in other subject areas. He needs such information if he is to be of assistance in indicating steps by means of which the pupil is to improve his work. If the difficulty appears to be common to all areas, it may be advisable for all of the pupil's teachers to coordinate their efforts toward helping him. However, before doing so, it may be best for them to determine whether the cause rests with the pupil's general lack of ability or interest, or possibly with factors such as poor study habits. If the weakness appears in only one subject area, the teacher should certainly examine his own personal relationship with the pupil as well as the pupil's understanding of the nature of the subject material with which he is having difficulty.

The classroom teacher has another responsibility in the evaluating program which he should not overlook. As soon as the pupil gives evidence that he is responding well to the learning situations under which he is working, the teacher should try to provide him with additional opportunity for developing his abilities and interests. Thus only by continued evaluation is it possible for the teacher to adapt his instruction to the needs of all the pupils in his classes. Such action should be directed toward eliminating pupil boredom, a factor which frequently causes disciplinary problems among pupils of all ability levels.

Some teachers find it difficult to plan their work so that they can report grades and other data to the office at specified times. To the teacher such deadlines may not always appear important. He may see no reason why he should not be able to turn in grades on Monday as well as on Friday. However, to an office staff such delays can be very disconcerting. Grade reports to the home are usually released on a specified date. Pupils come to expect them at that time. If teachers are slow in completing their grades and in reporting them, the office staff may be unable to meet the distribution deadline. Homeroom teachers must then give to their pupils some explanation for the delay. This is not always a pleasant task. The procrastination of even one teacher can delay the distribution of reports throughout an entire school system. For that reason, teachers should make reasonable efforts to complete their measur-

ing and evaluating responsibilities on schedule so that the entire school system can continue to function in a systematic manner.

Place of the student teacher in the measuring and evaluating program. The student teacher should be more than just an observer in the measuring and evaluating activities of the school. He should work closely with the cooperating teacher in activities involving the making, the administering, and the scoring of tests. He should become skilled in the techniques required for interpreting testing results. Throughout his teaching or observing activities, he should continually analyze each pupil in order to determine what measures it is possible for him to apply to improve the learning conditions for that individual.

The student teacher can expect that there will be times when the pupil will confide in him rather than in the cooperating teacher about his work. This situation is rather common whenever the pupil is doing poor work and whenever the staff teacher gives evidence of being impatient in dealing with him. If such a situation arises, the student teacher should exercise every precaution not to break the pupil's confidence in him. He should also make certain that his efforts to help the pupil are generally in line with those principles which the staff teacher has established previously. In order to do this, it is usually best that he keep the latter informed of what he is doing. Otherwise the pupil may take advantage of any misunderstandings which might arise between the teachers.

The cooperating teacher should provide frequent opportunity for the student teacher to assist in the measuring and evaluating of pupil growth and achievement.

For example, when marks are to be made out for grading periods, the student teacher may try making out his own set of grades and then matching these with the official list which the teacher submits to the office. In this way he can obtain an estimate of his own ability to evaluate the work of pupils. Some cooperating teachers work jointly with the student teacher in determining pupil grades. Whenever this is done, the student teacher profits directly from the experience and background of the experienced staff member.

A student teacher should have experience in making tests, scoring them, and justifying the assigned marks when he returns the papers to the pupils. The latter step can of itself be a revealing experience for him. In fact, it can be the best means of convincing him that teaching involves a consideration of personalities as well as of routine responsibilities.

Classroom Measurement Should Be for Specific Purposes

The student teacher should become familiar with the areas to which measurements in the classroom are commonly applied. As has already been mentioned, testing for testing's sake alone is generally a futile activity; it accomplishes little of a constructive nature. For that reason, the teacher should direct his testing so that the results will make a definite contribution to the achievement of his objectives in the classroom. Such planning naturally involves the development of appropriate learning situations.

Mental ability. Since pupils differ widely in their mental abilities, it is important that throughout the course the teacher consider the relationship between the objectives of the course and the pupils' abilities to attain these objectives. Before he can make specific plans, he has to have some idea of the range of those abilities. Hence, it is a common practice for schools to give mental tests to incoming pupils. This provides the schools with at least limited information on pupil ability. Such data are generally made available to the classroom teacher. Since they are personal, he should respect their confidential nature and use them for professional purposes only. At no time should he discuss them with anyone outside of the school other than the pupils' immediate families.

Courses in educational psychology usually discuss the manner in which mental abilities and special aptitudes are measurable. For that reason, it appears unnecessary in this text to do more than to refer to the manner in which measurement becomes a part of the work of the classroom teacher.

In many schools members of the administrative staff select and administer tests designed to measure mental ability. Yet the administration frequently expects the teacher, as a homeroom counselor, to assist in giving such tests to his pupils. He should take this responsibility seriously, for the results of these tests are used for numerous purposes, chief of which is the counseling and guidance of pupils. Slipshod methods of administering mental ability tests can result in serious consequences for the individual being tested. If the results are in error, it can lead to improper placement in classes and unfair treatment of the individual. Therefore, it is highly important that members of the administrative, counseling, and teaching staffs administer mental tests in such a manner as to secure accurate and meaningful results. Mental testing is a pro-

fessional business; it deserves the highest type of skill and effort which the testing personnel can devote to it.

The uses to which the results of mental tests can be put have been discussed in a previous chapter. Yet it may be well to point out again the need for the teacher to use such results with discretion. Pupils with low I.Q.'s generally find it difficult to do well in certain academic courses. Still there are other factors, such as aptitude, to which the teacher should give consideration when he is planning pupil placements. He should never excuse his own indifferent workmanship on the grounds that it is not important simply because he has pupils of low mental ability in his classes. Such a factor may be all the more reason why he should feel challenged to help such pupils do the best work possible. Whenever the teacher is dealing with intelligence test data it is probably well that he keep in mind that the pupil's mental ability or intelligence is determined in part by his cultural background. Therefore, whatever guidance and counsel the teacher gives the pupil should include a consideration of such data.

Instructional outcomes. Teacher training programs emphasize the need for the teacher to obtain worth-while results in his instructional practices. Whenever he fails to do this, he places himself in jeopardy of losing his teaching position. Therefore, for his own security he will want to provide evidence that his pupils have attained the objectives set up for the courses which he is teaching. These objectives should not only be of such a nature as to meet the needs of the pupils in the class, but they should also be in line with the levels of achievement set up for equally capable pupils in other schools.

In an earlier chapter it was pointed out that many instructional objectives deal with general learning situations.

For example, a teacher may want to have his pupils develop a tolerant attitude toward minority racial groups. Pupils seldom reach such a goal except over an extended period of time. On the other hand, it is often possible for a class to attain a limited, specific objective in a short period of time. Objectives of the latter type are common in daily lesson plans. For example, there is the situation in which pupils attempt to improve their pronunciation of certain phonetic forms. The teacher can usually measure progress toward objectives as specific as this rather readily. However, whenever he tries to measure such factors as attitudes and interests, the process generally becomes more involved.

In many instances teachers make the tests which they use in their own classrooms. Standardized tests may serve the same purpose if they are designed to measure progress toward the objectives which the teacher has emphasized. Tests of the latter type provide the teacher and the school administration with norms that represent standards of achievement on a regional or a national basis. Yet it is not always possible to measure progress toward certain worth-while classroom objectives by such means simply because tests of the right type have not as yet been developed.

Before the teacher can measure pupil progress toward a given objective, he must determine what that objective is to be. Therefore, it is essential that he define clearly what is being attempted in the instructional processes which he is directing. In addition, he should formulate his objectives so that he can determine progress toward them by means of appropriate, as well as available, forms of measurement. If the latter do not already exist, he has no recourse other than to construct them himself.

General characteristics of the pupil. The teacher needs to know a great deal about the pupil before he can guide and direct the pupil's learning in an effective manner. His attitudes, interests, and habits all help to determine how well he will succeed in his learning efforts. For that reason, it is important that some means be found for determining what attitudes and interests the pupil holds. It is also helpful to know what type of learning habits the pupil has developed. Teachers commonly use scales and questionnaires to evaluate characteristics of this nature. However, a classroom teacher may not always find himself trained to select, administer, and interpret evaluative devices of this type. If such is the case, he should not hesitate to seek the assistance of those who are competent to do so. The guidance specialist is certainly familiar with such techniques. In some schools, personal data of this nature are collected from pupils at a convenient time, generally around the opening of the school year. They are then filed in the pupils' cumulative folders so as to be available when needed later during the school year.

Among the devices being used today to evaluate pupil adjustment is the anecdotal behavior record. Such a record can be compiled only during the school year and only by those persons who are in immediate or daily contact with the pupil being evaluated.

This record is a collection of brief reports of what a pupil says or does in various types of situations. It is generally of a nature to reveal various aspects of the pupil's emotional and social adjustment. Administrators and counselors sometimes ask the classroom teacher to provide reports of such a nature about pupils in his classes or in his homeroom. Since records of this type have value only when they are cumulative, the teacher may be asked to compile a series of such reports on one or more individuals.

The recording of anecdotes can become a time-consuming process for the teacher. Yet a considerable number of records are necessary before they can be used for interpretive purposes. Again, as with other such evaluative devices, it is desirable that the summarization of such records be handled by a specialist trained in their interpretation. One weakness of this type of evaluative device is fairly obvious: the teacher can use anecdotes of this nature to express his own attitude toward the pupil. Therefore, it is desirable that they be interpreted by trained personnel; otherwise they may invalidate other data of a more reliable nature.

Self-inventories also are sometimes used as evaluative devices. To administer such inventories effectively, it is important that the teacher have the full confidence and cooperation of the pupil. It is very easy for a pupil to slant the result of such an evaluative device, that is, if he cares to do so. Whenever he does this, the results which are obtained are not only of little value to the administrator, but they may even be harmful to the entire case. A pupil may hesitate at times to provide accurate information on self-inventory unless he is convinced the teacher will keep the data absolutely confidential and will not use it to the pupil's disadvantage.

Diagnosis of learning difficulties. A major purpose of classroom testing is to diagnose learning difficulties. The reason for this action is obvious. Unless the teacher discovers pupil difficulties he can not take steps to correct them. Brief mention was made earlier in the chapter about the desirability of the teacher's adding constructive criticism on test papers when he returns them to his pupils. The practice supplies a positive means for the pupil to overcome his learning weaknesses.

In his work in teacher training the author has frequently used standardized tests to diagnose weaknesses in the background preparation of student teachers.

For example, he has given students preparing to teach a foreign language a standardized test covering their background in grammar. The results of such a test usually revealed rather pointedly in what aspects of grammar they were weak. A teacher can even administer such a test to himself. Then if he discovers that he needs refreshing in certain phases of the work, he can proceed to build up the necessary background before he runs into difficulty in his classroom instruction later in the year.

As he attempts to diagnose the pupil's learning difficulties, it is important that the teacher use testing devices which test what they are intended to test as well as what they do test. Otherwise the results which he obtains can very well be misleading To illustrate this point it is only necessary to observe the results of such a situation as the following:

The teacher of physics asks his class to identify the various types of levers which are to be found in the classroom. In each instance the pupil is to indicate the position of the fulcrum. Bill, an indifferent pupil, wanders around the room with the rest of the class. He thinks he knows what a lever is, but he has never heard of a fulcrum. He was absent the day the unit was introduced and, therefore, missed the definitions and explanations which the teacher gave at that time. As a result, he is unable to proceed with his work until the teacher has explained this part of the unit to him. The assignment in this boy's case is not testing his ability to recognize various types of levers; instead, it is actually testing his understanding of the word *fulcrum*.

The classroom teacher should develop his own techniques of diagnosing pupil difficulties. In Bill's case the aimlessness with which he wandered around indicated to the teacher that something was lacking in his approach toward solving the assigned problem. The teacher should at all times be ready to recognize from test papers what difficulties the pupils are facing.

For example, a pupil may consistently misspell certain words. This may be the result of poor habits of pronunciation. On the other hand, if he misspells words in a haphazard manner, he may be careless and indifferent about all of his work. The procedures required to correct these two different types of misspelling habits will definitely not be the same.

Whenever the teacher is unable to diagnose learning difficulties from classroom activities, it may be well for him to have a conference with the pupil. The difficulty which the pupil is facing is sometimes of

such a nature that it is not revealed by ordinary testing techniques. For example, physical handicaps sometimes interfere seriously with a pupil's normal learning functions. Yet they may be of such a nature that only careful examination by an experienced physician will bring them to light.

Diagnostic tests are available in numerous subject fields. However, they do not always provide adequate measures for determining learning difficulties. Therefore, the major responsibility for ascertaining the kind of action that is necessary rests largely upon the teacher. He must develop his own ability to diagnose learning difficulties sufficiently well so that he can assist the pupils in his classrooms with their individual problems.

Criteria of Good Tests and Examinations

Value of test results. Test results furnish the teacher with criteria for measuring the effectiveness of his work. They provide him with a means for determining and measuring progress in terms of pupil interests, needs, and abilities. Furthermore, in addition to measuring pupil progress and growth, they serve as a guide to the teacher by indicating the direction which such progress is taking. For that reason, it is most important that the measuring instrument being used to obtain these results is one designed to serve its purpose in an accurate and efficient manner.

As has already been pointed out, tests can be designed to measure the degree of mastery of subject matter as well as certain concomitant outcomes of instruction. Yet there may be times when the teacher does not wish to obtain detailed or comprehensive information; he may desire nothing more than a general overview of the work which the pupils are doing. If that is the case, it may not be necessary for him to use an involved or a complicated measuring form. Yet he has to be certain that it serves the purpose which he wants it to serve. Otherwise it may only serve to confuse him.

Purpose of the test. The construction of measuring devices may become an involved process. As Ross [1] points out, "Good tests do not just happen. Nor are they the result of a few moments of high inspiration or exaltation. On the contrary, the process is calm, deliberate, and time-consuming." Tests should be constructed to meet particular needs. This

[1] By permission, from *Measurement in Today's Schools*, Second Edition, by C. C. Ross, copyright 1941, 1947, Prentice-Hall, p. 104.

means that it is rarely possible to use them for purposes other than those for which they were designed. Whenever the teacher uses tests indiscriminately, he may cause pupils to suffer injustices which can lead to a lowering of their morale.

The teacher should define the purpose of a test clearly before he begins construction upon it or before he selects one that has been previously prepared. He should consider the nature of the learning material as well as the characteristics of the individuals being tested whenever he develops plans which include the giving of a test.

In form a test may be either essay or objective or both. The teacher should use the form which best serves the needs of his pupils as well as himself. This includes a consideration of factors such as the nature of the material being covered and the purposes which he expects to achieve by giving the test.

For example, the English or foreign language teacher may see a definite advantage in using an essay-form test for obtaining certain types of information. He may want to determine how well the pupil is able to express himself in the language; the essay-type test may be very suitable for determining this. On the other hand, through the use of the objective-type test, it may be possible for him to obtain specific information on matters such as the pupil's command of irregular verbs or case endings.

He will certainly also want to weigh such factors as scoring advantages, guessing possibilities, and economy of administration whenever he is considering the selection of a test form.

Principles of construction. There are some rather well-known principles of test construction which teachers can follow when making their own tests. These principles can serve as guides to their efforts, thus assuring them of a certain amount of uniformity along with other desirable factors.

As the teacher begins his construction of this type of material, he should keep in mind what purpose the test is to serve. He should decide if it is to be used for the measurement of achievement or for diagnostic purposes. If it is to serve the latter purpose, he should construct it to reveal pupil weaknesses with considerable detail and clarity. If its purpose is largely measurement, he should orient it to reveal the level of achievement which the pupil has attained. Ross [2] has prepared a list of

[2] By permission, *ibid.*, pp. 113–120.

twelve suggestions which should be helpful to the teacher when he is considering the construction of a test. The explanation under each suggestion has been summarized briefly:

1. *The preliminary draft of the test should be prepared as early as possible.* The teacher may find it helpful to note the items which he is emphasizing day by day. These can furnish him with outline material for the test when he begins to prepare it.
2. *As a rule, the test should include more than one type of item.* Pupils appreciate variety in tests as well as in subject material. The type of test should, of course, be adapted to the type of material being tested.
3. *The content of the test should range from very easy to very difficult for the group being measured.* The test should be of such range that it includes items so easy that the weakest pupils can get 50 per cent of them correct, and others so difficult that the strongest get only 50 per cent of them correct. Such a range can not of course be determined with complete accuracy before the test is given. Yet it can serve as a guiding principle. This range factor points out the need for designing tests to meet the needs of individual classes.
4. *It is usually desirable to include more items in the preliminary draft of the test than will be needed in the final form.* Such a step permits weak or undesirable items to be culled out later.
5. *After some time has elapsed, the test should be subjected to a critical revision.* It may be well to have some other teacher of the same subject read and criticize the test. Rereading of the test after an interval of time also usually reveals some objectionable items.
6. *The items should be so phrased that the content, rather than the form of the statement, will determine the answer.* Telltale words or phrases that afford clues to the answer should be avoided. Figurative language, needlessly heavy vocabulary, or involved sentence structure may so obscure the meaning of an item that it is marked incorrectly by pupils who really understand the point.
7. *The items should be so worded that the whole content, rather than only a part of it, functions in determining the answer.* The pupil should not be able to disregard part of the item and yet be able to respond correctly.
8. *All the items of a particular type should be placed together in the*

test. Such an arrangement helps the pupil to take full advantage of the mind-set imposed by a test form. It also facilitates the scoring of the test.

9. *The items in the test should be arranged in order of difficulty.* It appears desirable to have the easiest items first and the most difficult last so that the pupil will benefit from achieving success at the beginning of the test. This is especially important for pupils of low ability.
10. *A regular sequence in the pattern of responses should be avoided.* When items are arranged in a regular sequence, the pupil may discover the order and answer according to the sequence rather than to the content of the item.
11. *Provision should be made for a convenient written record of the pupil's responses.* Such a record can be a check list, a rating scale, or some other, similar form upon which the observer makes a systematic and permanent record of a pupil's behavior under a given set of conditions.
12. *The directions to the pupil should be as clear, complete, and concise as possible.* The instructions should be so clear that even the weakest pupil in the class knows what he is expected to do, although he may not be able to do it.

Validity as a measurement of purpose. Validity should be present in every good test or examination. It is present in a test when the test measures what it is designed to measure. This condition requires that the test be broad enough in scope to meet the needs of a particular objective as well as of the range of ability of a particular group of pupils.

For example, a test in English IV may be valid for measuring achievement in a course of that level of work but not be valid for measuring progress or achievement in a course in English I. In science a similar situation exists. The meter may be a very appropriate measure for determining length or distance but be of no value for determining weight.

To be valid a test must be designed for the immediate purposes which it is to achieve. This requirement sometimes limits the teacher's use of standardized tests. The individuals who construct these tests can not always be familiar with the needs of pupils in all parts of the country; or if they are familiar with them, can scarcely find it possible to construct a test capable of meeting the needs of such diverse groups. Thus

whenever standardized tests are used in certain classes, it may be necessary that the teacher interpret the results obtained in the light of local conditions. Some tests include instructions for interpretations. In most tests of this type the manual of instruction indicates the purposes for which they were designed. The teacher should always look upon these instructions as valuable criteria, helpful in the selection of appropriate tests for his various classes.

To be valid, a test has to be broad enough in scope to cover the range of pupil differences within the group being measured. Hence, a test designed for use with a class of high-ability pupils may not necessarily be valid for use with a group of low ability. If a test is broad enough in scope to meet the two extremes of all groups, the teacher will not need to check on this point wherever he desires to use it in his classes. However, a test of this type may have to be so long to cover adequately all of the stages between the two extremes that it becomes impractical to administer. Furthermore, it may have to include material which has little value for some members of the group being tested. The makers of standardized tests provide for such situations by constructing tests on various ability levels. For example, they prepare both elementary and advanced types in numerous subject areas. They do this especially where there is considerable range of progression in subject material.

Greene, and Others [3] point out that there is a difference in the concept of validity as applied to standardized and to informal objective examinations. Since the teacher is usually director of the course work, he is in a position where it is generally possible for him to select the type of test most appropriate for measuring the objectives which he has emphasized. But this does not mean that he has always emphasized the objectives which the leaders in his subject area consider most important. Such a situation leads Greene and his co-authors [4] to state that "it seems reasonable to conclude that insofar as test content is concerned the teacher is the person best qualified to test the attainment of the desired outcomes in his particular class, but that the standardized test affords a superior means for determining how well his pupils have attained the outcomes which are most widely recognized as being desirable in the particular course he is teaching."

[3] By permission, from *Measurement and Evaluation in the Secondary School* by Harry A. Greene, Albert N Jorgensen, and J. Raymond Gerberich, copyright 1943, Longmans, Green, and Company, p. 54.

[4] By permission, *ibid*, p. 54.

Reliability as a measurement of consistency. Reliability is another mark of a good test. A test is said to be reliable when it measures what it does measure with a high degree of consistency. This means that the test has to be adequate to measure what it is intended to measure and at the same time be rather highly objective. A test that is reliable does not necessarily have to be valid. That is, it may test well what it does test, but may not test what it is intended to test. On the other hand, a test cannot be valid without being reliable.

Retesting is one means for determining the reliability of a test. If the same instrument of measurement is used repeatedly and the results obtained are always the same, the test is said to be reliable.

For example, a steel chain or tape is used by surveyors to measure distance. Barring human error, it is possible to obtain accurate results repeatedly because the tape does not change in length. However, if a rope is used for the same purpose, the results can very well be unreliable. A rope stretches if it is pulled tight, or, if it becomes wet, there is considerable possibility that it will shrink. Thus the measurements may vary when made at different times.

In the field of education, tests are usually accepted as being reliable if they produce similar results when used repeatedly.

Remmers and Gage [5] describe two methods by which the teacher can determine the reliability of a test. In the one he constructs alternate or parallel forms that are similar in content, length, difficulty, mental processes required, and in all other possible respects. He then administers the two forms close together so as to eliminate the time factor as much as possible. Next the agreement between the two is determined by means of a correlation coefficient. Of course he has to include samplings of material that are similar if he is using this method.

The second method divides the items of a single test into two chance halves. A common practice in doing this is to number all items in the test and place the even-numbered items in one group and the odd-numbered items in another. Whenever the teacher includes a reasonable number of items in this manner, there is a strong possibility that the split will provide adequate material for two tests. When he then administers both parts to his pupils, the resulting two scores for each person form the basis for determining a correlation coefficient. This pro-

[5] By permission, from *Educational Measurement and Evaluation* by H. H. Remmers and N. L. Gage, copyright 1943, Harper and Brothers, pp. 202–206.

vides a rather good means for measuring the reliability of the test. In all these steps the teacher should keep in mind that although a good test should have reliability, reliability alone will not necessarily make a good test.

Objectivity in construction and scoring. A test is objective when it can be scored by different individuals and, barring error, the results obtained will always be the same. At no time does the teacher's personal judgment or opinion enter into the scoring results.

Exercises included in objective tests are usually stated so that only one answer can fulfill the requirements set up for each item. It is generally desirable that these be of a short-statement or one-word type wherever possible. In form they can be multiple-choice, true-false, completion, simple recall, or matching and completion. One advantage of the objective test is obvious. By eliminating the teacher's opinion in scoring, the objective test leaves little provocation for pupils and teacher to engage in irritating and time-consuming arguments over doubtful answers to questions.

The use of objective tests facilitates scoring whenever several individuals are involved. The departmental members of a subject area may, for example, construct a test which can be used by all of its staff members for all of the sections of the same course. Even under such conditions there will be uniformity in the scoring of the test in all instances.

There may be occasions, of course, in which the use of purely objective tests may not be desirable. Wherever the teacher can use other forms to better advantage, he may be willing to sacrifice a limited amount of objectivity to obtain this advantage. Situations of this type arise in classes where pupils are to produce compositions and essays as a part of their learning experiences.

Adequacy of sampling. Mention has already been made of the need for adequate sampling in a test. A test has adequacy of sampling when it includes representative specimens of all of the skills and abilities which are to be tested. Thus the length of the test is determined in part by the total number of samplings needed to cover the variety of performances which the pupils are to evidence.

The samplings used in the test should always be typical of the performances which the teacher intends to measure. They should not be too broad or too narrow. Neither should they cover phases of subject material that have not been emphasized previously. Whenever the teacher follows these principles, he will not include catch questions in

his tests. Questions of this type almost always give the pupil the impression that the test is not fair.

A test is not reliable unless it possesses samplings adequate for the purposes which the teacher expects to achieve in giving the test. As was mentioned earlier in this chapter, the teacher can attain such coverage by listing or checking the important points as they appear in the regular work of the class. Then whenever he believes the time for giving a test has arrived, he has only to refer to this list to have an outline which can serve as a guide to him in his selecting adequate and appropriate samplings.

Simplicity and ease of administration. The efficient teacher economizes in his use of time whenever such economy does not interfere with the effectiveness of his work. The construction and the scoring of tests are two of the most time-consuming tasks that he faces. For that reason he should devise means whereby he can reduce to a minimum the time needed for such efforts.

The teacher should be able to administer a good test with ease and without undue confusion. It is important that all instructions connected with the activity be clear and direct; that is, pupils should be able to understand them without having to ask for special clarification. Whenever the administration of a test has to be delayed for clarification purposes, there is apt to be confusion. The pupils who understand what is to be done will probably want to proceed with their work. If the teacher permits them to go ahead, they may have an advantage in time over those who need further briefing. As a result, the attitude of the slower pupils may be affected adversely to the point of resentment that will prevent them from doing the type of work of which they are capable. There is also the possibility that the situation may induce some of the pupils to continue asking questions in the hope that the test will be delayed or changed for their benefit. Some standardized tests are so devised that the teacher has to make no explanations beyond those given in the instructions. If he does otherwise, he may invalidate the results of the test. If the teacher is to provide his own instructions, he should think them through fully before he uses them in the classroom.

Many teachers find the scoring of tests a tiresome and laborious process. This is especially true whenever such tests are lacking in objectivity. For that reason the teacher may prefer to select or devise tests that he can score with a certain amount of ease. He can even make essay tests somewhat objective by assigning numerical values to various items

in them. In this way as he works his way through the material he can focus his attention on one item at a time and score it individually. Then at the close of his work he has only to total the individual scores to obtain the total score.

The scoring process can usually be made somewhat easier by the teacher if he trains his pupils to follow certain common practices when writing their answers. Except on the occasions when schools provide folders of standardized tests, pupils provide their own writing paper when taking an examination. Their use of clear paper marked with wide lines facilitates scoring. If they have to use narrow-lined notebook paper, they can obtain helpful results by writing on alternate lines. This avoids running work together and also provides the teacher with space for making corrections and comments. Whether the pupils write with ink or pencil, the teacher should require that they write legibly.

From the pupil's standpoint, the teacher should make certain that test questions are always clear and legible. If they are written on the blackboard, they should be in such a position as to avoid glare to the pupils. If they are dittoed or mimeographed, they should be clear and distinct in form and lettering. It is inexcusable for the teacher to pass out sheets that are so dim that pupils are unable to read them in a satisfactory manner.

Whenever the teacher uses standardized tests, he should make certain that the answer keys are available before he gives the test. The results will not be objective unless he uses such keys. He should provide scoring keys for objective tests that he may construct for his own use. He can conveniently do this by simply filling out the blanks on one of the tests. It may appear unnecessary to caution teachers about the need for using scoring keys correctly, but it is easy for a tired teacher to become careless when matching the answer key alongside of the answer sheet. A slight slip at such a time can result in an entire page being marked incorrectly. The pupil is usually slow to accept an excuse from the teacher for such carelessness; he has too much at stake in the results of the test.

Interpretation. The results of a test are of little value to the teacher unless he is able to interpret them with meaning as well as with ease and accuracy. Douglass and Mills [6] point out that there are two princi-

[6] By permission, from *Teaching in High School*, by Harl R. Douglass and Hubert N. Mills, copyright 1948, The Ronald Press, pp. 423–425.

pal approaches to the matter of test interpretation, *i.e.*, the absolute and the relative. The teacher may wish to determine how near the pupil has come to complete mastery in such matters as performing a certain operation, knowing certain items of information, or understanding the meaning of certain facts. Of course, complete learning is seldom possible, but the teacher may want to determine how near the pupil has come to the achievement of such a goal. Thus both usually profit from this type of interpretation.

The determination of relative positions in learning experiences is a commonplace practice in most classes. Where standardized tests are used, individuals are commonly rated according to percentile standings. As has been mentioned previously, such standings are based on norms derived from a large number of cases. The teacher who administers such tests should give them under conditions as similar as possible to those prevailing when the norms were obtained. This means that he should consider such factors, for example, as length of time that the work has been studied. The groups taking the examinations should also have the same general level and distribution of ability as those involved in establishing the norms. If these differ, appropriate allowances may have to be made for such differences. However, this is a practice which can easily invalidate the objectivity of the tests.

Douglass and Mills [7] point out that the teacher should consider the following four factors when he is using norms in his interpretation of test scores: first, the extent to which the objectives being tested have been emphasized by the teacher; second, the previous background of the class; third, the general intelligence of the class or individuals; and fourth, any unusual factors which may have influenced the results during the time that the test was being given.

Economy of cost. Since school administrators have to account for the manner in which school funds are expended, they like to see staff members spend funds in such a way that the school can give the taxpayer evidence that the funds have been used wisely. For this reason, if for no other, money spent for testing purposes should provide evidence that the school's testing program is producing worth-while results. Indiscriminate spending of money by the administration or by the teacher for tests does not necessarily indicate a worth-while testing program. A good program is one in which the testing results are used wisely for the

[7] By permission, *ibid.*, p. 424.

benefit of the pupil and the school. In most cases such a program need not be unduly expensive.

The teacher should cooperate with the administration in helping to keep testing costs to a reasonable minimum. He can do this by selecting and using only tests that meet a particular need. Much time and effort and a considerable amount of money is spent in schools sometimes to administer tests of various types. The results are then placed in a cumulative file. If the teachers and the administration make only limited use of such data, the testing program can definitely become costly and lacking in worth-whileness. On the other hand, it may be poor economy not to give tests whenever the results of such tests are needed for constructive purposes such as in the field of guidance. In some states or communities testing services of a more or less limited nature are offered to the schools by the state at a rather low cost. Wherever such services are available, trained personnel are usually able to help the school conduct a reasonably effective testing program on an economical basis.

Wherever feasible, the teacher can help keep testing costs to a minimum by using teacher-prepared examinations in the classroom. Sometimes such tests may not have to be supplemented by standardized tests more than once or twice a year. Teacher-prepared tests can be produced in amount by the use of a mimeograph or ditto machine. But even in the use of these machines, the teacher can practice economy. For example, he can save stencils whenever it appears that more copies may be needed. This is less expensive than running off a large number of extra copies, many of which may have to be thrown away later. Of course, all stencils and extra copies of tests should be kept in a place to which pupils do not have access. If the test form is to be used only once, it is usually unnecessary to run off additional copies. In this manner the teacher can save material which might otherwise become useless and have to be thrown away later to conserve space.

Instruments and Devices Useful in the Measuring, Evaluating, and Reporting of Pupil Status and Progress

Selection and development of instruments and devices. The tests which the teacher uses should be designed to measure specific objectives. If they do not serve this purpose, they may do no more than to indicate to him that his teaching objectives and those which the test was de-

signed to measure are not the same. Such a circumstance can arise, for example, in a French class whenever the teacher has emphasized conversation and then administers a standardized test designed to measure reading comprehension and a knowledge of grammar. Unless he recognizes these differences and makes allowances for them, he can easily come to believe that his teaching techniques are inappropriate or ineffective. Actually he may be obtaining excellent results in the objective which he is attempting to reach, but the evidence which he obtains from the test data may not indicate that fact. This can sometimes mean trouble for the teacher; in fact, the situation may endanger the security of his job unless the administration understands all of the factors involved. Furthermore, the situation can create a mental hazard which may interfere with the effectiveness of the teacher's work.

The tests which the teacher uses should measure progress toward selected learning objectives. Carelessly constructed tests sometimes violate this principle. Burton [8] comments on this situation as follows: ". . . the better standardized tests, check lists, scales, and behavior guides are based upon and include specific pupil behaviors which are truly indicative of learning." To this he adds the warning that ". . . many carelessly constructed instruments are not valid because either they do not contain items truly indicative of the learning to be tested, or they contain items indicative of other learnings instead." Validity is lost when tests do not measure what they are intended to measure.

The teacher who is skilled in making tests is generally able to construct his tests so that they will meet his immediate class needs. There is some advantage to this situation. Pupils generally respond in a favorable manner to teacher-made tests. It is natural for them to believe that since the teacher constructed them, he will emphasize the same points in the test which he emphasized in the regular classwork. There is, of course, always the possibility that the teacher may violate the pupils' confidence by constructing a test in which he stresses minor aspects of the material which he has covered. Whenever this occurs, there is considerable likelihood that the pupils will feel that they are being "double-crossed." Some teachers may believe that such a step will stimulate pupils to increase their learning effort; however, it usually does little more than build up on their part a resentful attitude toward the teacher.

[8] By permission, from *The Guidance of Learning Activities* by William H. Burton, copyright 1944, D. Appleton-Century Company, p. 420.

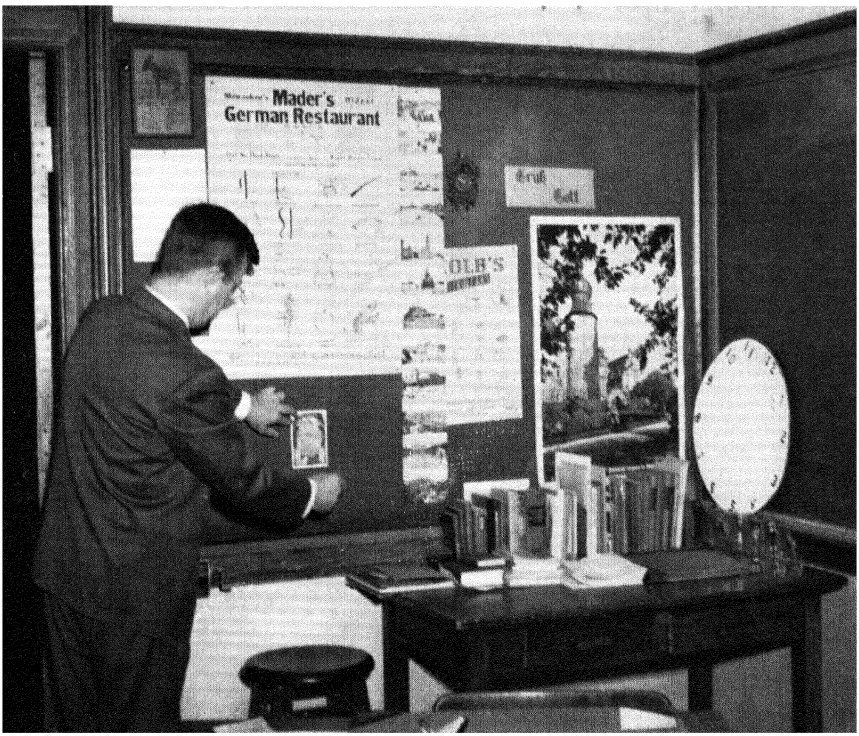
The teacher should not develop instruments of measurement simply for the purpose of rationalizing or justifying his own techniques of instruction. Since he has had training in the use of certain such techniques, it is natural for him to have confidence in their effectiveness. Therefore he may be reluctant to adopt practices which require the reorganization of instructional procedures and materials. Even though he may prefer not to make changes, he should keep in mind that teaching techniques are only a means to an end and not an end in themselves.

The teacher should use tests as an aid in the attainment of desirable learning objectives. He should not use them for the benefit of his own personal ambitions as a teacher. Pupils can be trained to do well on either teacher-made tests or even on nationally standardized tests if the teacher is willing to follow unethical practices and drill specifically on the content of the tests themselves. Whenever he does this, it may appear for a while that he is doing a superior job of teaching, but in most instances, the results of such a practice will work to his disadvantage.

Testing instruments need revision as objectives change. New and improved measuring instruments have to be devised and developed as it becomes possible and feasible for educators to produce them. It is fully as important for the teacher to select improved instruments of measurement as it is for him to obtain accurate and valid results from those that are already in use.

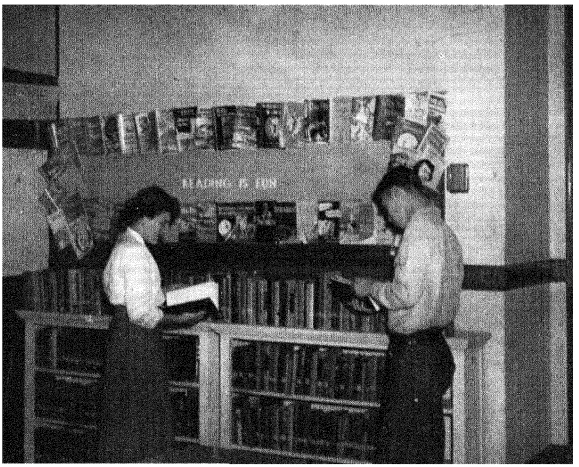
Accuracy in measuring and evaluating. Earlier in the chapter brief mention was made of the need for accuracy whenever the teacher measures pupil achievement. At no time should the pupil be made to suffer because one or more of his teachers have been careless in their evaluation of his work. His promotion and advancement, for example, depend upon the cumulative records of his work. Even the report of one teacher can be cause enough for his loss of credit in a subject necessary for advancement or even for graduation. If the report sent in is not accurate, a grave injustice to the pupil results.

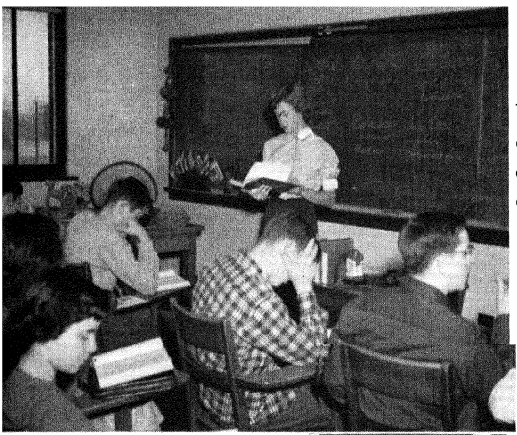
A teacher is usually willing to give serious consideration to the grades or marks which he assigns to pupils. But on the other hand, he can scarcely be blamed if he comes to dislike the emphasis which a school sometimes places upon these evaluative criteria. Some schools make a fetish of delineating between levels of achievement that are so nearly alike that any attempt to make distinctions borders on the ridiculous. It has not been uncommon in schools for one pupil to receive a grade average of 94.7 and another of 94.6. Even letters, such as A, B, C, D,



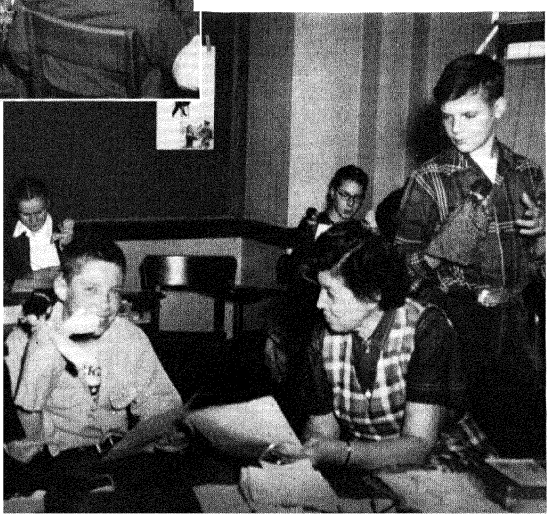
Whenever the teacher has his own room he can arrange it to suit his own needs.

Pupils should learn how to use library facilities to advantage.





The classroom environment can do much to stimulate pupil interest and appreciation of cultural and aesthetic values.



Some pupils take considerable interest in designing and making puppets. Others may prefer building a stage and providing accompanying properties.

and E, when used for grading purposes, do not eliminate fractional or decimal distinctions. Letters can be assigned numerical values, such as A = 5, B = 4, and so forth. Thus the grade-average computers do not go out of business. In the latter instance, they even come up with distinctions such as 4.56 and 4.55. In fact, these decimals can be extended to .001 or more places if it becomes necessary to make a distinction between two individuals. Educators realize that such differences do not necessarily represent accuracy of measurement; rather, they represent mathematical juggling. Certainly, they serve little of a constructive nature in any evaluative process.

Most teachers probably try to be both objective and accurate in their evaluation of pupil achievement, but they sometimes find that this is a difficult task.

The author recalls the teacher who must have felt rather keenly the frustration of trying to place accurate grades on essay material. Occasionally, he would return papers with grades such as $94\frac{7}{8}$ or $93\frac{2}{5}$. At first such grades made quite an impression upon the pupils. But they soon came to sense that these grades were not particularly objective. The teacher's broad grin revealed each time that there was something unusual about the whole situation. As soon as the pupils recognized the ridiculous nature of the grades, they would join with him in a good laugh. A few moments later they all would proceed with their assigned classwork. The pupils seldom gave evidence that they resented this occasional byplay. The author has never seen such a practice followed by any other teacher. Neither has he ever tried it himself. Possibly this teacher followed such a unique practice as a means of providing a mental and emotional catharsis for himself when he was grading papers. Or possibly this was just his way of expressing contempt for grades. Whatever it was, for him it probably added variety to an occasional class period. Although this practice appeared to do little, if any, harm to class morale, it is doubtful if it would be one which most teachers would care to follow.

There is a tendency in some schools to do away with numerical grades or word symbols representing levels of achievement. This move does not necessarily represent an effort on the part of such schools to be less accurate in measuring pupil achievement. In place of individual grades, they provide pupils and parents with progress reports in which they indicate pupil achievement and attitude in various categories. The intent is to make the evaluation more meaningful for everyone. Samples of two such reports used by the University High School at Urbana, Illinois, appear on the following pages.

STUDENT PROGRESS REPORT

University High School Mathematics _____

STUDENT _____ GRADE PERIOD ENDING _____

TEACHER _____ ADVISER _____

Note: The statements checked below are descriptions of the student's achievement with respect to the objectives of this class. His achievement is judged in terms of what is usually expected of high school students in his grade. The part of any statement which does not apply has been crossed out.

Participation

Needs to enter into discussion more actively
Occasionally volunteers, speaks willingly when asked to do so
Takes active part in discussion, often shows leadership

Effort

Needs to complete work and turn it in on time
Sometimes fails to complete assignments on time
Does required work on time
Exceeds required work, shows interest and initiative

Use of Class Time

Needs to bring necessary materials more consistently
Needs to make better use of study time provided in class
Usually works efficiently, occasionally needs reminding
Is self-reliant, requires minimum of supervision

Principles

Can state principles; sometimes fails to apply them
Understands principles, can apply them in problems previously studied
Can select and apply principles to new situations

General Accuracy of Results

Often inaccurate; needs to correct:
misreading problems _____
forming judgment before sufficient consideration _____
faulty use of process _____
wrong meaning of words _____
wrong meaning of symbols _____
Occasionally inaccurate
Is usually accurate
Is highly accurate

Arithmetic Skills

Student needs to build: speed _____ accuracy _____
Computational skill satisfactory
Can compute accurately and rapidly

Checking Results

Checks answers only when required
Usually checks
Consistently checks

Credit Granted toward Graduation (semester only) Yes _____ No _____

Additional comments may be made on reverse of this sheet.

STUDENT PROGRESS REPORT

University High School Modern History

STUDENT _____ GRADE PERIOD ENDING _____

TEACHER _____ ADVISER _____

Note: The statements checked below are descriptions of the student's achievement with respect to the objectives of this class. His achievement is judged in terms of what is usually expected of high school students of his grade. The part of any statement which does not apply has been crossed out.

Dealing with Problems in the Social Sciences

Could improve by making sure he understands and can define problems clearly before he tackles them

Generally recognizes problems but sometimes doesn't react to them by sufficient study

Recognizes problems, applies facts, ideas, and ideals to them, reasons clearly to conclusions

Acquiring Necessary Facts

Could improve by learning many more facts. Needs to concentrate on facts presented by: lecture, class discussion, textbook, outside materials

Factual knowledge often good but could improve by being more consistent and thorough in gathering facts, and by using only pertinent facts

Usually/always gathers a rich fund of facts. Reveals intellectual curiosity. Alert to current developments

Acquiring Basic Ideas

Could improve by learning and using basic definitions, underlying principles, and theories

Sometimes does not stop to penetrate ideas fully; has some difficulty with abstract ideas

Uses both concrete and abstract ideas well; open-minded and penetrating in analyses. Exceptional intellectual integrity

Using Democratic Ideals

Occasionally reveals uninformed intolerance toward groups, individuals, or ideas. Reacts with inaccurate or insufficient knowledge

Could improve work by: relating ideals in which he believes to problems; appreciating individual contributions of others

Shows enlightened concern for groups we study. Reveals both faith in the worth of every human being and courage in his own convictions

Using Group Skills in Class

Could improve work by: contributing oftener, listening attentively, building on ideas of others, showing courtesy to all

Works well on individual projects; could add more to the group

Works well in a group; interchanges ideas profitably and consistently; is self-critical; reveals leadership

Using Writing Skills

Could improve work by: writing more carefully, re-reading written work, working on punctuation and spelling

Could improve written work by concentrating on greater completeness and logical organization

Always expresses ideas fully; uses excellent form, reveals ingenuity in expression

Locating Suitable Sources

Too often satisfied with first source discovered. Should be more careful to indicate sources used

Makes use of various sources but could find more sources and footnote sources more fully

Makes use of a wide variety of sources presenting different points of view; footnotes sources carefully

Using Reading Skills

Could improve reading and thinking in social sciences by: working on vocabulary, reading more carefully, taking better notes

Reads and understands most/all materials used in course. Sometimes doesn't stop to evaluate materials

Reads widely and well; interprets and evaluates what is read

Showing Industry and Initiative

Seemingly makes little effort; could use class study time more effectively

Does minimum work; could be more consistent and careful

Does required work carefully and consistently

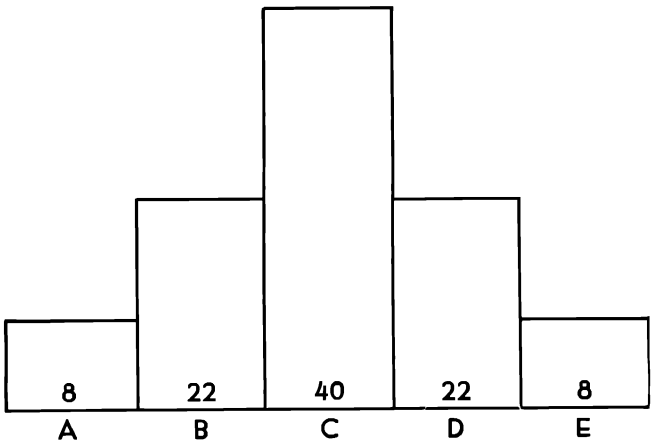
Seeks extra work as suggested; shows initiative in finding further areas to study

Credit Granted toward Graduation Yes _____ No _____

Because there is a certain subjective factor involved in assigning grades, the teacher sometimes finds it convenient to give a great many high grades. At the same time, another teacher of the same pupils will score them much more severely and, as a result, give a large number of low grades. Pupils can not help but recognize the discrepancy in these practices; in fact, it may affect their morale to such an extent that some of them will develop unfavorable attitudes toward one or even both of the teachers. The attitude of the pupils toward an easy grader will not necessarily always be more favorable than the attitude toward the severe grader. Pupils themselves are rather able at evaluating circumstances involving such practices. They realize that teachers do not always use the same criteria for determining grades. For instance, some teachers grade entirely on pupil achievement, while others also consider such factors as attitude and cooperation. These variations make it practically impossible for teachers to establish absolute uniformity in their scoring practices.

Accuracy of distribution is also a factor which the teacher has to consider when he is assigning grade marks. Educators seldom recom-

mend the use of the curve of normal distribution for groups as small as average classes. There is seldom a uniform distribution of individuals according to achievement or ability in such small groups. The chart below indicates how a distribution graph might appear in a situation where grades fall uniformly according to levels of achievement.



In this grouping A represents superior work and E failing work.

The teacher is being both unjust and inaccurate to force grades into a pattern of uniform distribution if they do not normally fall into such an arrangement. It is not necessary that there be as many failing grades as there are A's. It is not at all unusual for the distribution to show a considerable grouping toward the top or lower level of the scale.

Types of marks. In most schools pupil achievement is indicated by means of numerical or letter grades. The letters used indicate the sequence or levels of achievement. The letters A, B, C, D, and E are used rather frequently for such purposes. However, other letters such as H, M, and L are also used. They generally indicate levels equivalent to high, medium, and low. Some schools even limit the grade scale to two letters; for example, S for satisfactory and U for unsatisfactory. The symbols + and − are similarly used by some teachers to indicate acceptable or unacceptable work. Numerical grades usually indicate a percentage score. For example, a grade of 82 represents an achievement of 82 per cent out of a possible score of 100. In any marking arrangement the system used may not be particularly important, but the connotation attached to the mark by the pupil is very important.

In most instances, the school determines the type of marking system which it wishes to use. But practices are not at all uniform. Wrinkle [9] made a survey of the marking systems which a number of schools had used or were using and found that certain practices appeared more commonly than others. He lists the following as having been tried at some time to provide a means for reporting pupil progress:

1. Manipulating the symbols
2. Supplementing the symbols
3. Parent-teacher conferences
4. Informal letters to parents
5. Check forms
6. Pupil self-evaluation and reporting
7. Parents' reports to the school

It is obvious that some of the practices listed above require considerable teacher time. Others are such that parent time also becomes a significant item. The pupil can sometimes derive benefits from having his parents and teacher discuss his achievement status in relation to course objectives. But all parents are not interested in cooperating with a teacher toward such ends. Some of them see little need for spending time discussing such matters. On the other hand, others take such a solicitous interest in their boys and girls that they interfere with the work which the school is attempting to do. Teachers can expect to meet both types of parents in almost any community, but, of course, the majority fall somewhere in between these two extremes.

The teacher is not always able to report pupil progress in a manner acceptable to parents and pupil. A single letter or numeral does not indicate much more than a relative position on a grading scale. For that reason it is sometimes desirable to supplement such a mark with other descriptive criteria. Strang [10] lists some of the movements in this direction as follows:

1. The trend away from subject-centered reports and toward pupil-centered reports
2. The trend toward using more descriptive and anecdotal material and interpretive comments to supplement the quantitative data

[9] By permission, from *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices* by William L. Wrinkle, copyright 1947, Rinehart and Company, Chapter 8.

[10] By permission, from *Reporting to Parents* by Ruth Strang, copyright 1947, No. 10 of *Practical Suggestions for Teaching*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, p. 8.

3. The trend toward reporting on character and personality development as well as on academic achievement
4. The trend away from mere judgment-passing and toward analysis of difficulties and concrete suggestions for improvement
5. The trend toward the use of letters or conferences with parents as substitutes for report cards or supplements to them
6. The trend toward emphasizing the individual pupil's progress rather than comparing it with the achievement of fellow pupils
7. The trend toward fewer and more significant reports sent when necessary or desirable instead of routine reports sent at frequent, specified intervals

Parent and pupil acceptance of grade marks being used. As was mentioned before, the marks used by the school for reporting pupil progress should be of such a nature as to be understood readily by both pupils and parents. In addition, the teacher should be able to use them for guidance purposes. Parents sometimes require help before they are able to interpret the type of grade report which the school uses. Lack of ability to make the right type of interpretation may sometimes cause them to question the accuracy of the marks that appear there. Whenever this happens a situation may arise which can cause considerable unpleasantness for the teacher as well as for the school administration.

The teacher who reports pupil achievement in either numerals or letters without supplementary explanations may find it worth while to sell such a grade to the pupil before the mark is sent home to his parents. Such a move tends to eliminate objections from the pupil as well as from his parents. Instances occasionally arise in which a pupil does not believe that he deserves the mark or grade which he has been given. Whenever this occurs, he may find it convenient to protest to his parents that the teacher has not evaluated him fairly. This defensive action sometimes creates a negative attitude toward the teacher on the part of a sympathetic parent. Such a situation is naturally unpleasant for everyone concerned and should be avoided as far as possible. Therefore, the time required to sell a grade mark to a pupil is often time well spent.

Whenever the pupil is thoroughly familiar with his status in the class, there is a good possibility that he will accept without too much question the grade mark which appears on his report card. This is true, of course, only if he believes that it is accurately indicative of his status.

The teacher can help to obtain this acceptance if he discusses his status with him before placing the mark on the records. By selling the grade to him, the teacher sets up a situation in which the pupil generally finds it desirable to sell the grade to his parents. He knows that if they inquire about his work at school, the teacher will undoubtedly give them the same explanation which he himself has already received. In addition, they may become irritated that he did not provide them with this information himself. Therefore, he may recognize the desirability of trying to create a favorable attitude on their part toward both the teacher and the school by getting them to understand why he received that particular mark on his grade report.

In some instances the school may wish to report to the parents that the pupil is doing unsatisfactory work in a particular subject. The teacher usually initiates such a report after discussing the situation with the pupil's counselor or adviser.

Examples of unsatisfactory-work reports prepared and used by a large suburban high school appear on pages 447 and 448.

Conferences between parents and teacher may be one means for helping a pupil who is having difficulty with his work. However, such conferences are time-consuming and some of them are unnecessary. Since the average teacher's time is limited, it is important that he function in an economical manner. A small amount of briefing can often help to keep a pupil acquainted with his status in the class. Such a step requires little extra time and effort on the part of the teacher. In addition, it may be the means for avoiding a lengthy and a possibly unpleasant interview with the parent over the pupil's unsatisfactory grade report. It is both desirable and necessary that teacher, pupil, and parents understand what the school is attempting to do for the pupil. Often the teacher has to assume responsibility for initiating the means by which this can be accomplished.

The oral examination. The oral examination is used less often in the average classroom than the written examination. This may be because it is not especially scientific as a means for measuring learning. Years ago Horace Mann [11] recognized and listed some of its limitations as follows: ". . . (1) it is not equally fair and just to all pupils, (2) does not test extensively or efficiently, (3) permits of interference and favoritism, intentional or otherwise, by the teacher, (4) is unjustifiably time-consum-

[11] By permission, Greene and Others, *op. cit.*, p. 132.

THE J. STERLING MORTON HIGH SCHOOL & JUNIOR COLLEGE
REPORT OF UNSATISFACTORY WORK
(To Advisers and Parents)

ADVISER _____ DATE _____

The progress of _____ in _____
Student's Name Subject Hour
is not satisfactory. I have talked with _____ about the work and have suggested what to do to improve. Below I have indicated the reasons which seem to me to account for the unsatisfactory progress. An estimate of the grade to date is _____.

_____ 1 Attendance is irregular
_____ 2 Is frequently tardy
_____ 3 Health is poor
_____ 4 Does not study enough
_____ 5 Persists in poor study habits
_____ 6 Seems unable to read assigned work
_____ 7 Seems incapable of mastering the subject
_____ 8 Fails to do home or outside reading
_____ 9 Does not take adequate part in recitation
_____10 Substitutes guessing for thinking
_____11 Does poorly on tests
_____12 Often ignores written assignments
_____13 Does not hand in written work on time
_____14 Turns in written work of poor quality through
_____ *a* carelessness
_____ *b* failure to master previous skills
_____ *c* lack of ability
_____ *d* poor penmanship
_____15 Often ignores suggestions for improvement
_____16 Has too many out-of-class duties
_____ *a* in school
_____ *b* out of school
_____17 Is inattentive
_____18 Is a disturbing influence in class

Remarks: _____

_____

_____

Suggestions to parents: _____

_____

_____

Signed _____ Signed _____
Parent Teacher

Please return to _____
Adviser

J. STERLING MORTON HIGH SCHOOL & JUNIOR COLLEGE
2423 S. Austin Boulevard, Cicero 50, Illinois

Professional Correspondence *OLympic 2-1100—BIshop 2-1480*

_____

_____

_____

_____

You will note from the Progress Report which _____ brought home that he is failing in _____

A failing grade is serious at any time during the course of a semester. However, at the end of the first six weeks' period a student still has an opportunity to redeem himself. I am sure that you desire _____ to do his best while he is in school. Therefore, I suggest that you encourage him to study and also see that a definite time is set aside each day for study.

Because of the lack of rooms, it is impossible to provide study space under teacher supervision at the high school for all who need it. Every student in Morton should spend *at least* one and one-half hours in study on homework every day. No doubt it will be necessary for the student who is failing to spend even more time.

If you wish to have detailed information about your son's work, arrange to meet the teacher during the school day, or telephone the high school, Olympic 2-1100, and leave a request that the teacher call you when free.

I shall appreciate your acknowledgment of this letter.

Sincerely yours,

_____
Adviser

ing, (5) leaves no permanent objective record of pupil performance, and (6) does not permit an evaluation of the difficulty of questions." Yet there may be times when the teacher will find it a convenient and valuable instrument for measuring pupil performance. For instance, he can use it to lead an individual pupil to logical conclusions through his own reasoning abilities. Although this procedure may be more of a teaching than a testing device, the process does give the teacher the

opportunity of becoming rather intimately acquainted with the type of reasoning which the pupil is capable of doing. Thus, in a sense, it can serve as a diagnostic testing tool. The teacher can also use oral questioning to determine why the pupil responded as he did to certain other oral or written questions or problems. In addition, it is useful in determining how well the pupil has integrated his previously acquired knowledge and how well he sees its implications and applies it to appropriate situations.

The teacher requires no small amount of skill to carry on oral testing in an effective manner. A slipshod method can be extremely damaging to pupil morale in addition to being ineffective and time-consuming. For this reason, it may be preferable for the teacher—especially the beginning teacher—to use devices for measuring pupil achievement that are more objective and require less skill to administer than oral testing requires.

The beginning teacher should distinguish between the use of the oral question as a teaching device and the use of the oral examination as a measuring device. Trained practitioners use the latter device for measuring and diagnosing individuals in clinical interviews. However, their training has usually been of such a nature that they have the ability to recognize and apply the results obtained in a professional manner. Classroom teachers do not always have such technical preparation. But every teacher should develop the ability to use the oral question in the classroom in an effective manner. The techniques for doing this have been discussed in a previous chapter.

The essay test. Teachers have used the essay for a long time as a means for testing classroom instruction. Because of its nature, it has to be in written form. Only recently have tests of a more objective type come to replace it as an instrument for measuring pupil progress and for diagnosing pupil weaknesses. The reasons for this shift have been largely the result of the existent limitations present in that type of test.

The popularity of the essay examination in the past among teachers was probably the result of one of its most inherent weaknesses. When using this type of test, teachers found that it required only a few minutes to prepare questions that would keep their pupils busy writing for an entire class period. Thus, if the teacher were pressed for time, he had only to jot down a few hurried questions to take care of what he believed were his testing needs. Under such conditions there was little op-

portunity for him to determine whether the test was valid or reliable, much less, objective.

The limitations of the essay examination are rather apparent. That objectivity and reliability are not present in the scoring of such tests has been shown by numerous experiments in which different teachers marked the same essay examinations with widely varying results. In such cases it was obvious that the teachers participating did not follow the same standards when marking and weighing questions. Strangely enough, results of such a varying nature are even possible in a subject as objective as mathematics.

For example, a pupil multiplies two numbers and obtains an incorrect answer such as the following:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
124 \\
286 \\
\hline
744 \\
992 \\
248 \\
\hline
35{,}4(5)4 \\
6
\end{array}
$$

When one teacher scores this problem, he gives the pupil a zero. Since the answer is incorrect, he believes that he should give no credit. Another teacher decides that the principle of multiplication which the pupil used is correct. Even though the addition is incorrect, he gives the pupil credit for being able to follow the principle involved. Thus he feels justified in giving the pupil a score of fifty for completing this phase of the problem satisfactorily. A similar situation obtains whenever teachers use the essay test. One teacher deducts for misspelled words. Another corrects such words but bases his scoring entirely on the degree to which the pupil has answered the question correctly.

In both of the above instances, the teachers concerned could probably have obtained more nearly the same results in their marking had they previously agreed upon the values to be assigned to various criteria, such as, for example, spelling and addition. Such action would have made it possible for them to have achieved a much higher degree of objectivity and reliability than they achieved in the instances described.

Essay tests are generally somewhat low in validity and reliability because they afford a rather limited sampling of the work pupils are covering. In a class period of from 45 to 60 minutes, the number of essay

questions which the pupil can answer is obviously quite limited. This means that the teacher can include only a relatively small number of samples of the work previously covered by the class.

We may illustrate such a situation by assuming that a teacher has assigned his class five essay-type questions. The work covered by the test actually provides as many as fifteen worth-while samplings, but shortage of time limits the selection to five. Such a situation can easily work injustices upon some of the pupils. For example, there is John who has been absent during the presentation of certain material, or who has not mastered some phases of the classwork as well as he has other phases. As a result, he is able to answer adequately only twelve of the possible fifteen samplings. But two of the five samplings included in the test happen to be made up of the three which he is unable to answer. The result is, it is impossible for him to score more than sixty per cent on the test. It is obvious that the effect upon pupil morale of such a situation can at times be quite unwholesome.

Another factor that affects the marking of essay tests is teacher attitude toward the pupil. The teacher may find it difficult to avoid favoring the pupil who does good work or who is generally agreeable in the classroom. On the other hand, he may find that he is tempted to mark a certain poor pupil down because the latter has not given the desired amount of attention or effort to his classwork. The influence of a mechanical factor such as spelling on a situation of this type has already been pointed out. A teacher may even place a high-scoring value upon such a factor as length. Under these circumstances, he may sometimes penalize a slow pupil for a factor other than poor quality of work.

Because of its high degree of subjectivity, the essay examination permits the teacher to inject his own feelings and moods into the results of the test. He may be critical of such matters as neatness and spelling one day and ignore them entirely some other day. Such a condition is obviously not conducive to the development of pupil respect for either the teacher or the work of the school. Furthermore, whenever it exists, there is a certain temptation on the part of the pupil to "pad" or "bluff" if he does not know a specific answer. There are pupils who develop considerable skill at doing this, and they are sometimes able to fool the teacher who is not particularly careful of the work which he is scoring.

But, as opposed to its disadvantages, the essay test does offer a number of advantages. Certainly not least among these is the opportunity which it provides the pupil for the selection and interpretation of facts

and other material. When writing an essay test, the pupil usually has the opportunity of organizing the knowledge which he possesses in such a manner as to display it to advantage. If necessary, he may defend his own opinion, or he may make comparisons and thereby reveal his ability to judge and to evaluate.

Although the teacher may not find it particularly difficult to construct and administer essay tests, he may encounter a number of difficulties whenever he attempts to score them. However, he can simplify some of these difficulties if he follows certain suggestions for improving the effectiveness of essay tests. Some of these are as follows:

1. Make the samplings as numerous as possible.
2. Keep a fair balance between the content of the test and the ability of the pupils to answer.
3. Train the pupils so that they will be able to follow the requirements necessary for writing this type of test satisfactorily.
4. Keep the emphasis upon questions involving reasoning, judgment, and evaluation. This means that extreme care must be exercised in the selection and preparation of questions.
5. Assign specific values to items or to phases of the subject. It may be helpful for the teacher to prepare an answer key for each question so that there will be a base upon which he can measure the material. Some teachers make it a practice to score one question through all the papers before considering the next one. This makes it easier for them to keep their scoring on an accurate as well as on a relative basis. Some teachers even prefer to group papers according to the certain grade levels assigned on a particular question. This makes a rapid, comparative recheck possible.
6. Make certain that each question is of such a nature as to make it possible for the pupil to deal with it in a reasonable manner in the time allotted. Some pupils become extremely disturbed when the teacher asks them to write an essay answer in what appears to them to be a far too short period of time. On the other hand, the teacher may want to limit the writing time so that pupils find it necessary to organize their material more in order to deal with it adequately. Teachers may make the development of this ability in itself a desirable objective of the test.

The objective test. Objective tests can be classified into two types, *i.e.*, standardized and nonstandardized. Although the two types differ in function and purpose, their structure is often quite similar. In most instances the teacher prepares the nonstandardized test to serve his specific class needs. In contrast to this, the standardized test is developed to serve the general needs of teachers and school systems throughout the country. As was pointed out earlier in the chapter, the standardized test can serve as a basis for comparison between the work being done in two or more classes or schools. Teachers should use it as the sole basis for assigning marks only when it emphasizes the same objectives as those which they have stressed in their classwork.

The informal or nonstandardized test is flexible in that the teacher can construct it to meet the emphasis which he has given to his work in the classroom. For this reason he can use it both for evaluative and for guidance purposes.

Whenever the teacher uses objective tests, he is usually more certain of obtaining the qualities of validity, reliability, and objectivity than he is whenever he uses essay types. This is due largely to the fact that objective tests permit the inclusion of broad samplings which the teacher can score objectively. The questions usually consist of a number of short, concise statements, or even of words only. Because of this factor, the teacher is frequently able to include samplings from many phases of work which he wishes to test without making the examination unduly long. Thus every pupil in the class has at least a reasonable opportunity to do well on the test, even though he may not necessarily have the ability to do so.

Objective tests are seldom more difficult to administer than essay tests, and they are usually much easier to score. Because of this, the teacher can often save time by using them. Not only the teacher but also clerical help can carry out the scoring itself with accuracy and speed. Many of the recent standardized tests are so constructed that they can even be scored by machines. In addition, because of the nature of the answers, there is little opportunity for the pupil to bluff when he is answering objective questions. Speed of writing also affects the result very slightly. This is certainly not true of the essay examination.

As with all tests, the objective type has some disadvantages. Difficulty of preparation is a major problem to many teachers. The worth-

whileness of the results depends a great deal upon the care with which the teacher constructs the tests. However, since the teacher can score such tests rapidly, the actual time which he spends in constructing, administering, and scoring them is often less than that which he spends in the same activities with essay tests.

Some objective tests provide little opportunity for the pupil to develop his ability to organize material. But some essay questions also do not do this very well. Because of this situation, it may be safe to conclude that poor tests are often less the result of the type of test which the teacher uses than they are of the skill with which he constructs them. Under most circumstances it is probably easier for the teacher to prepare an examination in which he is testing for factual knowledge than it is to construct one that will stimulate critical thinking.

Without doubt there is considerable opportunity for the pupil to guess on an objective test. But if it has been constructed in such a manner as not to reveal the pattern or sequence of items, the pupil usually realizes rather soon that guessing is seldom profitable. Teachers can, of course, score objective tests in such a manner as to penalize the pupil for wrong answers, but this step does not always act as a deterrent to the practice. Yet the teacher should not overlook one aspect of the guessing problem. The pupil is sometimes unable to distinguish between a guess and a "hunch." Furthermore, there is a difference between random guessing and intelligent guessing. Since the latter process usually involves reflective thinking, it is questionable whether the teacher should discourage able pupils entirely from following the practice. In the author's own experience he has seen many foreign language pupils who could follow a vocabulary list and, because they had a good background in the meaning of prefixes, roots, and suffixes, be able to determine the meaning of words with which they had had no previous acquaintanceship. Although such a practice may occasionally lead the pupil into error, there are times when it can definitely help him in the selection of the correct answer.

Earlier in the chapter several well-known types of objective tests were listed. Possibly it may be well to repeat these names once more and also add others that are not so well known. Ross [12] has classified objective tests according to the following types:

[12] By permission, Ross, *op. cit.*, p. 127.

1. Recall types
   a. Simple-recall
   b. Completion
2. Recognition types
   a. More common
      (1) Alternative-response
      (2) Multiple-choice
      (3) Matching
   b. Less common
      (1) Rearrangement
      (2) Identification
      (3) Analogy
      (4) Incorrect statement

The *simple-recall* test is so named because the pupil has to draw upon his past experience to recall the answer; this answer is usually brief in form. The following questions illustrate this type of test:

Directions: Fill each blank with the correct answer to the question preceding it.

1. In what year was the Declaration of Independence signed? _____
2. Where was the first permanent white settlement made in America? _____

As is obvious, such questions are well adapted to measuring factual knowledge.

The *completion* test is made up of statements or series of words in which selected words or phrases have been omitted. The following illustrations represent two different types:

Directions: Read sentence (a) carefully, then write pronoun forms in the blanks in (b) so that the question will be answered correctly.

(a) The father had seen the two children playing with their mother.
(b) With _____ had _____ seen the two children playing?

Directions: Fill each blank with a word which will make the meaning of the sentence complete.

The Mississippi River drains the land between the _____ Mountains and the _____ Mountains.

This type of test emphasizes recall and eliminates guessing to a considerable extent. However, the teacher must construct it skillfully if he wants to eliminate the possibility of having pupils supply more than one correct answer. When this factor is present, scoring becomes complicated and the objectivity of the test is reduced.

The nature of the *alternate-response* test is such that it presents only two alternatives to the pupil for his response. The true-false pattern, which may also appear in a right-wrong, correct-incorrect, yes-no, or the same-opposite form, makes the type readily recognizable.

The alternate-response test is adaptable to most subject areas. The teacher should be able to construct it without a great deal of difficulty. Although there is need for it to be of considerable length if it is to have practical value, it provides the teacher with the means for including many items which pupils can answer in a short period of time. Some teachers oppose the use of this type of test because of the negative-suggestion aspect. They believe that they should not confront pupils with false statements that have the appearance of being correct. The test also has limited value insofar as it offers the pupil a convenient means for guessing. There is some tendency on the part of teachers to discard the alternate-response test because of these limitations. However, it is adapted to use in situations where multiple-choice possibilities are not always present; for instance, as in certain phases of English or foreign language work.

Ross [13] suggests a rather safe principle which the teacher can apply to the selection and preparation of tests of this type. He advises that it is generally a safe rule "to restrict the use of the alternative-response test to those situations to which other test forms are inapplicable, and then to give particular care to the wording of the items."

A few examples of the alternate-response type of test follow:

Directions: Encircle whichever of the two words *true* or *false* correctly describes the statement.

1. George Washington served two terms as President of the United States. True.....False
2. Benjamin Franklin served as Secretary of State in Washington's Cabinet. True.....False

[13] By permission, Ross, *op. cit.*, p. 140.

Directions: Underline the word in parentheses which identifies the correct grammar form for the sentence.

1. The child (1. doesn't / 2. don't) understand my question.
2. He has (1. broke / 2. broken) the old record.

The *multiple-choice* test is made up of items consisting of several responses, usually three or more, only one of which supplies the correct answer or completes the incomplete statement. This is a widely used type of test. It is readily adaptable to most subject areas. It is simple in form and therefore eliminates pupil misunderstanding. It is highly objective and therefore admits of ease in scoring. Although simple in form, it is not necessarily easy to construct. The selection of several multiple-choice items that have balance and plausibility is not always a simple task for the teacher. Nevertheless, this type of test has become highly popular and is today widely used in standardized forms. The following examples indicate some of its general uses:

Directions: From the words in the brace select the one word that *best* completes the statement or correctly answers the question.

1. The German word *Knabe* means_____
   1. man
   2. knight
   3. knowledge
   4. boy
   5. child

2. A traveler would have to go to the_____ to see the Lorelei rock.
   1. Alps
   2. Rhine River
   3. Erzgebirge
   4. Elbe River
   5. Lake Constance

3. Das Kind_____mit dem Hund.
   1. spielen
   2. spielt
   3. spielten
   4. gespielt
   5. spiel

The *matching* test is a form of multiple-choice test in which two columns are so arranged that the pupil can match each item in the first

column with an appropriate word or phrase in the second column. But before he begins the test he must understand the basis upon which he is to match the items. The number in the response column must be at least equal to the number in the other column if the pupil is to use each only once. It may be desirable at times for the teacher to include in the response column additional items which the pupil may not necessarily need to complete the matching process. This is known as *unbalanced matching.*

Matching tests are especially adapted for testing the recognition of relationships or associations. The teacher can use such tests to stress the acquisition of factual information in almost any field of study. Teachers do not find them difficult to construct; however, they may be cause for building up false associations in the minds of the pupils if teachers construct them carelessly.

The following is an example of a simple matching exercise:

Directions: Write in the blank before the second column the number of the item from the first column which indicates a definite association with it.

1. July 4	____Cornwallis
2. Trenton	____Financial help from France
3. Yorktown	____Old North Church
4. Saratoga	____Winter quarters of Continental Army
5. Benjamin Franklin	____American spy
6. Paul Revere	____Hessians
7. Betsy Ross	____Turning point of the war
8. Nathan Hale	____Declaration of Independence
9. Mt. Vernon	____Washington's home
10. Valley Forge	____The first American flag

Among the less common forms of objective tests are those involving rearrangement. Such tests usually stress pupil ability to rearrange a series of items in a designated order. The basis for the order may, for example, be importance, correct usage, or just chronological sequence. To illustrate, teachers in the languages may ask pupils to rearrange words or expressions so that the latter will follow an acceptable pattern of usage and express a clear thought. The recasting of a statement into a question may also involve such a rearrangement.

Greene, and Others [14] present a number of suggestions which should be helpful to the teacher when he constructs objective tests. The major items are as follows:

1. Rules governing good language expression should be observed.
2. Difficult words should be avoided.
3. Textbook wording should be avoided.
4. Ambiguities should be eliminated.
5. Items having obvious answers should not be used.
6. Clues and suggestions should be avoided.
7. Items which can be answered by intelligence alone should not be included.
8. It is better to use words which have quantitative and if possible definite meaning rather than words which are qualitative in nature.
9. Catch words should not be employed.
10. Items should not be interrelated so that the answer to one determines responses for related items.
11. Response positions should preferably be aligned to have the response positions occur in columnar arrangement.

Modifications or combinations of certain types of objective tests are frequently possible. But whenever the teacher follows such a practice, he should make certain that the pupil understands how he is to complete the test. Tests which confuse the pupil are generally lacking in validity and reliability and may, therefore, have little practical value. In all of his testing activities, the teacher should select the type of test which will best serve the purpose which he wishes to attain by giving the examination.

Notebooks. Pupils find notebooks useful for recording assignments and class notes. They may also use them to record descriptions of projects, demonstrations, and experiments. The notebook should serve as an aid to the pupil and increase the effectiveness of his work. But often instead of doing this, it serves only as a catchall for bits of unrelated information picked up here and there. Even though this information may be worth while, it does not always motivate the pupil to make it a part of his own background unless the teacher requires him to do so. It is for this reason that some teachers regard the keeping of a note-

[14] By permission, Greene, and Others, *op. cit.*, pp. 188–196.

book as little more than busywork. Yet there are others who regard it as an asset to pupil learning.

It is doubtful if the teacher can attach much educational value to the grading of a notebook. If he looks upon a notebook as a means for augmenting learning, he should help the pupil use it in a manner to meet his own particular needs. Under such conditions the notebooks within a single class may vary widely as to content and organization. Hence, there is little possibility for the teacher to score them on a purely objective basis other than to check for the inclusion of specified items. There are some teachers who check notebooks as satisfactory or unsatisfactory, according to the extent to which they believe the books have been developed to serve as aids to the improvement of pupil learning. But even such evaluation must of necessity remain largely subjective. At no time should the teacher lead pupils to believe that notebook work is unimportant and then call for the notebooks later in the course and evaluate and score them according to a plan with which the pupils are unacquainted. Such action can be cause for pupils to indict the teacher as being unfair and unjust.

The pupil has a right to know at the beginning of the course whether the teacher will evaluate his notebook and, if so, just how much credit he will give to it in determining the course grade. The pupil has a right to know whether, for example, it is to constitute 5 per cent of the total course credit or 40 per cent. If the pupil has such information, he is in a position to adjust his time and effort so that he can give that particular work the attention which the teacher indicates it deserves.

Some teachers make collections of large and attractive notebooks and present these to the public or to school administrators as evidence of the high quality of work which their pupils are doing. Such a practice is questionable. In the first place, a notebook collection rarely provides evidence of academic achievement. In the second place, the purpose for which the notebooks are made and later collected can involve ethics of a questionable nature. The development of notebooks should certainly be a means to an end and not an end in itself. Only to the extent that they contribute to the pupils' learning in the classroom should the teacher help pupils develop and use them.

Anecdotal reports. Mention has already been made of the use of anecdotal reports as a means of evaluating pupil behavior. Teachers may use reports of this nature to evaluate pupil achievement. But such an

evaluation must of necessity be more on a subjective than on an objective basis. Nevertheless, it can provide valuable data for guidance purposes.

Whenever the teacher has an especially large number of pupils, it is often difficult for him to record objectively certain impressions resulting from their work. Yet, even though pressed for time, he may find it helpful occasionally to write a brief statement of the work which a certain pupil did or the attitude which he displayed at a particular moment. It may be that even one incident reveals a new interest or a change in attitude on the part of the pupil. Therefore, such a notation may be helpful when there is time available for a conference with him.

The anecdotal record should narrate in a simple manner just what occurred. In this type of record the teacher may include interpretive data but should keep it apart from the original description in case someone other than the teacher may have occasion to examine the information.

The anecdotal record is usually brief, as the following incident illustrates:

Bill displayed unusual interest in the pictures of Canadian railroads which were shown to the class today. This is the first thing in which he has indicated an interest for more than a week. During the discussion he remarked that as a young man his father had once been a workman on the Canadian Pacific line. The boy evidently enjoys hearing his father discuss these experiences.

In addition to his observation report, the teacher may wish to add comments of his own. These may then be supplemented by additional remarks by the guidance specialist in the school. The following case reports include such remarks:

ANECDOTAL REPORT

Pupil *John Smith* Date *September 29, 19—*

Place *English II* Observer *Miss Smartte*

(When completed, please place in a sealed envelope and place in Counselor's box.)

Description of what happened:

I have noticed that John seems to be easily bored in class and drifts off to other activities while the recitation period is in progress. He almost always

frowns deeply when I talk to him directly, and when I call attention to the fact that he is not paying attention he reacts very negatively.

Today when I pointed out that he was not attending to the discussion he mumbled to the person across the aisle that I was always picking on him. He did continue to listen thereafter but frowned and squirmed in his seat during the rest of the period.

Observer's Interpretation: I have had several other students in the past who have behaved in a similar manner and upon examination it was discovered that they had a hearing deficiency.

Observer's Recommendations: I would suggest that John be referred to the health service for a routine audiometric screening.

Follow-up:

Miss Smartte's recommendation was acted upon and her interpretation of the situation proved to be correct. In this instance the student had not known that he suffered with this defect to the degree that it would impair his class efficiency.

The information was given out to his other teachers and thereafter John was placed in the room in a seat that would reduce the possibility of embarrassment of not being able to follow the class routine.

Medical treatment has alleviated the condition to a great extent.

ANECDOTAL REPORT

Pupil *Mary Jane Lox* Date *October 4, 19—*

Place *Home Economics* Observer *Miss Jones*

(When completed, please place in a sealed envelope and place in Counselor's box.)

Description of what happened:

Mary was late for class again this morning. I explained to her that if she were late or absent again that I would have to ask her to drop the course because she is missing too much of the work. She began to cloud up with tears at this point and I suggested to her that she might like to talk to someone else about the situation. She agreed with this and asked if she might go down and see the counselor right away.

Observer's Recommendations: Mary has always been such a shy girl that I think she probably needs to make more friends here in school. She has always been very hard for me to talk to and therefore I feel

that I do not know her very well. I would be interested in a case conference with her other teachers and the counselor.

Follow-up:

Interviews with the counselor and the case conference brought out the fact that Mary's family was going through a period of financial strain. Both the parents were working and depended upon Mary to get her younger brother and sister off to school in the morning.

Physical fatigue and a refusal to ask for even a minimum amount of money for school affairs accounted for a good deal of the student's behavior. The problem was discussed with the parents and they felt that the mother would probably have to continue working for the rest of this semester. By that time the medical expenses incurred during the father's illness would be pretty well paid and the family would be able to get along on the father's salary.

An adjustment was made in Mary's schedule so she was able to drop her first-period class. Her parents decided to pay her a small amount for the help she was giving at home. Mary is using this money for her school expenses. A part-time job as a clerical worker in the school office has been arranged for her next semester so she will be able to continue earning some of her expenses.

Parents usually appreciate the inclusion of a personal remark by the teacher on the report card which the school office sends home to them. This remark may even arouse a greater interest in their boy's or girl's work than the grades themselves. Parents feel that the teacher is taking a personal interest in their offspring whenever he takes the time and puts forth the effort to comment even briefly about the work which that individual is doing. But, the teacher should always be completely honest and sincere in formulating these remarks. It is true that exaggerated or flattering remarks may at first make pleasant impressions upon members of the family, but, sooner or later, the latter usually come to realize the questionable aspect of the teacher's sincerity. Then it is very likely that they will lose rather than gain respect for him. There may also be occasions when the teacher wants to include a brief anecdote about the pupil so that the parents will be in a better position to help that young person adjust himself to the environment of which he is a part. If it appears advisable, there is no reason why the teacher should not include an anecdote if he exercises tact and good judgment in what he says.

Questionnaires, interviews, and case studies. Schools are giving more and more attention to analyzing pupil difficulties. They need specific information as to the pupil's academic progress and his social adjustment if they are to offer him help of a constructive nature. For this reason they are using devices such as case studies for evaluative purposes. These involve among other things the use of questionnaires and interviews.

In every school there are occasions when some pupil is not making the amount of progress in learning of which the teacher believes he is capable. When such a situation arises, it may be desirable for the teacher to obtain certain information about him. He can use both the questionnaire and the interview to help provide this type of information. For example, Mary's attitude may be such that it interferes with her learning. If this is the case, it may be necessary for the teacher to determine whether her attitude is unfavorable toward the teacher, toward the subject area, or toward other school activities. He can use both the interview and the questionnaire for this purpose.

Information about the pupil has little guidance value until such time as it becomes available to the teacher and counselor. The process by which they obtain it is also important. If the teacher does not have professional training in conducting professional interviews or in using attitude scales or questionnaires, it may be better for him to enlist the aid of someone who is trained professionally to use these instruments. Otherwise, the results may not be valid or reliable and he may be unable to achieve the purposes which he has in mind. Furthermore, the teacher is working with human beings. For this reason he should exercise extreme care in directing their learning experiences as well as in helping them make adjustments in their emotional life. It is usually difficult to rectify errors in either of these areas after they have once been made.

Improving the Use of Evaluative Devices

Thus far in this chapter the author has attempted to stress the need for the teacher's using instruments of measurement that will serve well the purposes which he has in mind. But even the most accurate measuring device is ineffective if the teacher or counselor uses it for other than its intended purpose. For that reason it may be well to review briefly at this point a few of the principles which the teacher can follow to improve the use of evaluative devices in the classroom.

Analysis of objectives. The improvement of teaching requires that the teacher analyze clearly for himself the objectives which he intends to achieve. He has to know where he is going before he can plan to arrive there. Furthermore, it is well that he orient himself frequently to make certain that he is following in the right direction. It is very much as Greene and Others [15] point out: "A definite aim enables the worker to direct his efforts toward the particular task to be accomplished. By the proper use of instruments for measuring results it is possible for the worker to know what he has accomplished."

The teacher should strive continually to keep his objectives in mind. These include the major goals which he expects to reach, as well as the concomitant outcomes which he hopes to achieve. Only when he has identified these carefully, is he in a position to select the means whereby he can measure pupil progress toward them.

Selection of tools of measurement. In choosing devices for measuring pupil progress or for diagnosing pupil difficulties, the teacher should make certain that the instrument which he intends to use will measure what he intends it to measure. This means that it must be appropriate for measuring the knowledges and the skills which the pupil has acquired. It must also be adapted to meet the needs of the particular pupil whose knowledges and skills it is to measure. If it is too difficult or too easy, it will have little value regardless of how or when the teacher administers it to the pupil. The test should generally be of a type with which the teacher is familiar. At least he should know how to select or construct it and, by all means, be able to score and interpret it with skill and accuracy.

Effect of measurement upon learning procedures. The use which the teacher makes of evaluative results determines, in a large measure, the real value of any testing procedure. Testing should supply at least part of the data by which the teacher determines the effectiveness of his instructional practices. It should indicate the degree of progress which each individual in the class has been able to achieve. If the amount of progress indicated is unsatisfactory, it is the teacher's responsibility to institute means for improving the effectiveness of his instruction or changing its emphasis. Such a step may require further testing of a diagnostic type. Thus diagnostic testing and testing to measure pupil progress, are both means to an end, this end being determined by the previously selected objectives of the course.

[15] By permission, Greene and Others, *op cit.*, p. 2.

DISCUSSION TOPICS AND QUESTIONS

1. In what type of testing practices did you participate during the time that you attended high school? How were the results of your tests used to aid you?
2. What type of testing conditions created a favorable and what type an unfavorable attitude on your part during your high school and college work?
3. On what basis can the teacher determine the amount and type of testing required for his course work?
4. What type of measurement will you need in your major field of instruction so that you can do an effective job of teaching?
5. Explain the meaning of objectivity, reliability, and validity in a test. Of what value are norms to the teacher?
6. Of what particular advantage is the use of the informal objective test to the teacher? Under what conditions can he use the essay test to advantage?
7. Construct sample tests of various types which you can use in your major teaching field. Note the difficulties which you encountered and point out how you overcame these.
8. Discuss the marking and reporting system used in the high school which you attended. What meaning did the various marks have for you and for your parents?
9. What steps may the teacher follow to insure having his tests rate high in validity and reliability?
10. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of various marking systems. To what extent should tests measure the pupil against his own past performance or against that of his classmates?
11. What part should factors such as attitude, attention, and behavior have in the teacher's assigning of grade marks?
12. Discuss the relative values that the teacher should assign to such factors as the oral recitation, the written test, and the notebook or project when he is determining pupil grades.

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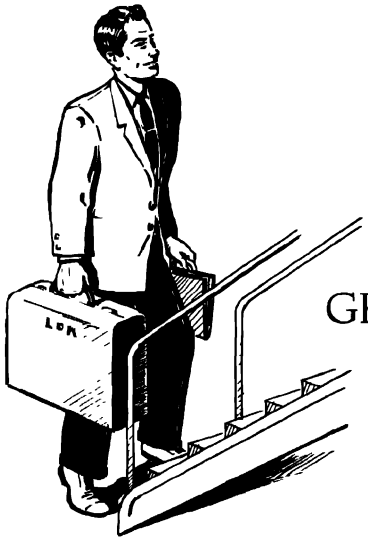
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CHAPTER TWELVE



GROWING ON THE JOB

In the previous chapter the author directed attention toward the need for the teacher's establishing learning objectives in the classroom and then measuring at repeated intervals the pupils' progress toward the attainment of those objectives. The teacher should follow a similar procedure in regard to his own professional development. As he grows professionally, he should become a more effective teacher. Umstaddt [1] has stated this point of view as follows: "The teacher who continues to grow in professional understanding and in his vision of education and of life will, if he remains a classroom teacher, be a better leader of youth than the teacher whose mind does not eagerly and continually seek new ideas."

The teacher who does not continue to grow professionally must of necessity fall below the standard of competence which at one time he must have hoped to achieve. In education, as in many other fields of activity, it is impossible for either teacher or pupil to maintain a *status quo*; there is either progression or regression.

A middle-aged English teacher was once heard to remark that she had discovered the secret of successful teaching during her first year of experience. To this remark she added, "And ever since then I have taught my classes according to that pattern." But that pattern evidently did not always meet the

[1] By permission, from *Secondary School Teaching*, New Edition, by J. G. Umstaddt, copyright 1944, Ginn and Company, p. 463.

needs of the occasion. The time came when she was relieved of her homeroom duties because her guidance had become ineffective. Pupils no longer responded to her leadership. Then the time came when the administration recommended her release on grounds that her teaching had also become ineffective. She had lost touch with her pupils. She was unable to project herself into the kind of world in which they were living. Her old-fashioned ideas became the center of their ridicule. In other words, she was no longer in a position to see herself as others saw her. Unable to find another teaching job after her release, it was necessary for her to turn to other types of work to earn a living. Throughout this experience she never appeared able to understand what had happened to her. What had once appeared to be a promising future in her chosen field had become a period of disillusionment from which she never fully recovered.

Professional growth does not imply that the teacher accept blindly every new theory of education that is promoted by either a left-wing or right-wing group. But it does require that the teacher evaluate new theories of teaching in the light of experimental data so that he can improve his own course work wherever possible.

Teachers who adopt new methods or techniques of teaching will want valid reasons for doing so. Although most of them will, no doubt, want to play safe when taking such a step, it is impossible to discover improved techniques unless someone is willing to experiment with new ideas. An experimenter knows that an experiment may or may not bring forth favorable results. But even unfavorable results are not without value; they can serve as a basis for determining future action by the experimenter as well as by others in the profession.

All teachers are not capable of attaining a high level of professional growth. However, professional responsibility requires that every teacher try to improve his work as much as possible. He should utilize the potential abilities at his command and develop them in the direction in which they can best serve his own needs as well as those of his pupils. If he has administrative abilities, he may be happier and be able to offer more significant service as a principal than as a classroom teacher. On the other hand, the reverse of the situation may likewise be true. There are even times when experience in more than one field of school work can provide a worth-while background for growth in the profession. For example, some educators hold to the belief that administrators who have had teaching experience are in a better position to under-

stand the classroom teacher's problems than are those who are lacking in this background. In a like manner, some administrative experience may make it easier for the teacher to appreciate the problems which the administrator has to face.

Analysis of self. In previous chapters of this text repeated mention has been made of the need for self-analysis by the teacher. Possibly no one factor can contribute more to the growth and development of the teacher than a frequent appraisal by himself of his own strength and weakness. But such an appraisal must be truly realistic if it is to be helpful. For example, the teacher who has repeated personality clashes with pupils in his classes may do well to look at himself to see whether certain of his actions may be responsible for creating some of these irritating situations. Or possibly the types of motivating devices which he is attempting to use are inappropriate for a particular level of work or a particular type of pupil.

When he is appraising himself the teacher must also evaluate the circumstances under which he is working. The two cannot be separated.

For example, during depression years a pupil may show little interest in his work because he sees no after-school vocational or professional future for himself. At such a time, jobs are usually scarce in most communities. During war years many pupils, especially the boys, know that they will have to enter military service upon leaving school. Their emotions and interests are conditioned by this fact. In both situations, the teacher has to be sensitive to the conditions under which his pupils are working if he wishes to understand their reactions. Some teachers fail because they refuse to recognize prevailing conditions and make needed allowances in the learning situations which they are directing.

The teacher who begins working in his home community sometimes finds it difficult to develop professionally if he stays there for an extended period of time. The environment may not be particularly unfavorable to teaching; it may only be that the teacher feels the pressure of local opinion so keenly that he is fearful of making mistakes. As a result, he is extremely cautious in his moves; he even hesitates to make any change in his methods, lest such changes might possibly result in failure. The teacher who finds himself in this predicament may do both the profession and himself a service by breaking away while local relationships are still good and by going to a community where he feels less restricted by community opinion.

Every teacher should score himself repeatedly on such matters as attitude, appearance, initiative, classroom control, and community participation. A decided weakness in any one area may not always be a critical matter; yet it may warrant attention and consideration if it is not to stand in the way of his professional growth and development. For example, the teacher who carries a grouch throughout the day, or whose appearance is slovenly, may be able to succeed. But to do so, he will usually have to overbalance these weaknesses with outstanding qualities of some other type. Of course, any form of personal evaluation must include a recognition of the opinions of those with whom the individual has repeated contact—this includes his pupils, their parents, and his colleagues. All of these individuals have likes and dislikes which he has to consider in the light of the work which he is attempting to do. No teacher will ever find it possible to please everyone. If he is aggressive in trying to improve his professional effectiveness, he is bound to find some individuals who will object to the means which he is using. In such cases he has little choice other than to proceed with whatever steps he believes will result in the most good for his pupils as well as for himself.

The teacher may find it helpful when analyzing himself to examine the personal characteristics included in recommendations sent out by school administrators. Such lists vary somewhat in form, yet many of them ask for evaluations on such points as the following: personality and character, including tactfulness; proficiency in teaching and control of classroom situations; and professional attitude. A question commonly asked on such a recommendation is "Would you employ this person if you were an administrator and there were a vacancy in your school for which he were qualified?" The teacher might do well to answer this question as it applies to himself. There are reasons why administrators and school boards promote certain teachers within a school system, or why certain teachers move from one school to an improved position in another school. In most cases such moves are the result of excellence in teaching and in ability to make a satisfactory personal adjustment to local conditions.

The teacher may find it helpful to select a particular day and then analyze the causes back of his successes or failures during that period of time. A despondent or critical attitude will seldom lead to improvement in workmanship. The teacher who always blames the pupils or

the staff for his failures is usually only seeking a means whereby he can rationalize his own shortcomings. Such an individual seldom grows professionally. On the other hand, the teacher who is willing to recognize the real causes back of his failures is usually in a favorable position to profit from the evidence which confronts him. Information of this type can come from various sources. Whenever pupils feel that the teacher is sincerely trying to do his best and is receptive to suggestions, they are even willing sometimes to point out ways in which they believe he can improve his work. They are often much more aware of the teacher's strong and weak points than he realizes. He can do well to study their suggestions; they are aware that it is to their advantage as well as his that he improve his work wherever possible.

Improved emotional balance. The teacher's activities naturally require that he be in contact with many individuals throughout the school day. For this reason it is desirable that he maintain both a healthy outlook on life and a satisfactory emotional balance in his relationship with these individuals. But it may be impossible to achieve such an end unless he specifically points his efforts in that direction.

As the teacher gains experience, he should find himself increasingly able to meet irritating situations with composure and judgment.

For example, the needling remarks which some pupils throw out during class periods should come to affect him less and less. This does not mean that he should ignore such actions; it does mean that he should find means for dealing with them in such a manner that the pupils will have little or no desire to continue their misbehavior.

Similarly, the teacher should come to accept with composure conditions over which he has no control.

For example, if one or two pupils are ill on the day when he gives the semester examination, it will do him little good to become highly disturbed over the fact that a make-up test is necessary. He must accept such situations as part of his work.

In respect to emotional poise, Pressey and Robinson [2] point out that the teacher should not let his emotions become so involved in relationships with his pupils that he acts to satisfy his own feelings rather than their needs. He should develop the ability to "maintain an ob-

[2] By permission, from *Psychology and the New Education* by Sidney L. Pressey and Francis P. Robinson, copyright 1944, Harper and Brothers, p. 190.

jective attitude of calm, friendly openmindedness and desire to understand what the trouble really is." Pupils expect the teacher to be well poised. They may excuse an occasional emotional outburst on his part; repeated outbursts can easily lead to unhappy and even strained relationships between himself and his pupils. Since he is an adult, adolescents expect him to act as an adult. The beginning teacher must recognize that when he assumes professional standing, he can no longer revert to the irresponsible moods sometimes present during adolescence and maintain the respect due him as a teacher.

The student teacher should find it helpful to observe the manner in which respected teachers control their emotional reactions in the classroom. However, since they too are only human, there may be times when some of them will fail in efforts to control themselves. Should this ever happen, the student teacher may find it interesting to evaluate pupil reaction under such circumstances. The experience may also help him to plan a course of action to follow should he ever find himself in a similar circumstance. Yet he must realize that his own personality may be quite different from that of the cooperating teacher with whom he is working. Attempts to imitate the teacher's actions directly may only lead him into involved situations of his own. Whatever he does, he should do with full consideration of the limitations of his own abilities.

Improved use of techniques. The teacher should work continuously to increase the effectiveness of his work with his pupils. Even when he finds that his results are satisfactory, he should look for ways to improve them. Contact with other teachers through professional meetings and reading professional journals and books can do much toward providing information which he can apply to this purpose.

The teacher who is doing an effective job of teaching should be willing to share his experiences with others. He can do this by describing practices which he has found particularly successful in his teaching work. A written account of what he has done is often the very type of material which editors of professional journals are seeking. The teacher may feel that he has no startling experiences to report; therefore he believes they are unimportant and uninteresting. This is not necessarily the case. Teachers often gain confidence in their own efforts when they discover that other teachers have used and are using techniques similar to their own with satisfactory results. Beginning teach-

ers, especially, find such explanations stimulating and encouraging in their work.

Circumstances outside of as well as within the classroom are continually evolving new and improved methods of teaching.

For example, World War II provided foreign language teachers with a wonderful opportunity to experiment with oral teaching techniques. Although duplication of the techniques used in the army training program are not possible in most schools, the results of these techniques did influence foreign language teaching methods throughout the country. While not a new method, the oral approach in modern foreign language teaching has led to changes that appear to be both desirable and fruitful in that particular subject area.

Scientific developments also leave their impact upon teaching practices. Among these, as pointed out previously, are audio-visual aids which make it possible for the teacher to increase the range and effectiveness of his work. Even such a device as the tape recorder was not commonly available for school use a decade ago. Since advances in science are often rapid, it is imperative that the teacher, regardless of subject field, keep abreast of changes which may affect the content material in his field as well as his teaching procedures. Only by doing so can he provide the changes that will keep him among the leaders in his profession.

Relationship with professional associates. Mention has already been made in earlier chapters of the need for the student teacher and the beginning teacher to be critical observers and listeners. It is during these first months as a teacher that the beginner has the opportunity to learn how to get along with his associates. If he is able to do this satisfactorily then, he should be able to continue doing it throughout the years of his service in the profession.

It is a normal desire for any individual to want to be accepted into the group of which he expects to be a part. But the beginner must realize that such acceptance does not just follow as a matter of course; he must earn it. What the teacher does and says determines to a considerable degree the extent to which his fellow staff members accept or reject him. If he projects himself unduly into groups where he is not at the moment welcome, he may endanger pleasant future relationships with those individuals. He should recognize the mores that exist both in the community and in the school and adjust himself accordingly.

For example, fellow staff members usually appreciate his respect for conventional patterns of conduct in the teachers' lounge. There is, for example, the case of the teacher in a certain school who would wait until he had a vacant period in the morning and then go to the men's lounge and proceed to shave himself. Naturally, the other men on the staff disliked this practice very much. Their indirect suggestions that he change his practice appeared to have little or no effect upon the offender, who made it a practice to violate other mores about the school with equal unconcern. It was neither a surprise nor a disappointment to most of the members of the staff when the administration finally asked this individual to seek a different position. Teachers can seldom violate the mores of courtesy and good taste and expect to retain the respect of their colleagues.

On every school staff there is a certain amount of jockeying for positions of influence on such matters as committee memberships. These placements can become causes for jealousies among those who are vying for such appointments or elections. Often promotion and increase in pay are dependent upon such recognition. For that reason it is natural for the individual who is anxious to progress in the profession to seek out means by which he can bring recognition to himself. It would be foolish for him to do otherwise, unless he were not professionally minded. On the other hand, some teachers try to avoid committee work. They regard it as an unpleasant part of the teacher's load. A certain amount of committee work is, of course, necessary in every school. Therefore, it would seem that each teacher should be willing to assume at least his legitimate share of this load. However, this load should not be so great as to interfere with the effectiveness of the work which he is attempting to direct in the classroom. Thus it would seem that every teacher has the right as well as the responsibility to participate in a limited amount of committee work.

Whenever a beginning teacher fails in some phase of his work, he may be tempted to lay the blame for this failure upon the doorstep of his predecessor. This is a dangerous practice. There is always the possibility that the person with whom he is speaking could be a friend of the former teacher whom he is criticizing. At the most, the practice seldom brings credit to the young teacher. Because of this, older members of the staff may hesitate to include him in their circle of friends. Even though these individuals may not have thought too highly of his predecessor, they generally prefer to see a newcomer accept his professional

responsibility in a professional manner. A beginning teacher, as well as an experienced one, has a job to perform, and this job is one for which his colleagues do not expect him to provide an alibi.

Teachers usually expect their colleagues to join with them in at least a limited amount of social activity. In many communities these efforts are connected with popular recreational activities. For example, bowling facilities are available today in many communities. The sport has become a popular pastime for both men and women on many teaching staffs. The types of recreation available in a community depend, of course, upon the nature of the community. Yet every local area will have at least a few. The teacher will most often find it wise to select types which are in general favor with a majority of the people living there.

In order to enjoy recreational activities to the fullest, some teacher groups make it a practice to avoid gossiping about other staff members or discussing school business whenever they meet for recreational purposes. The desirability of following such a practice is immediately obvious. First, group members avoid the dangers that accompany gossip. In addition, the more they can free their minds from the pressures of the profession, the more value the activity has for them as a recreation. Sometimes a teacher prefers to withdraw entirely from social or recreational participation. Such a step is seldom desirable. At least a limited number of social contacts are a necessary asset to the development of professional relationships. A teacher even needs to brush shoulders with people outside of his own profession. Otherwise he may be limited in his understanding of the give-and-take world of which he is a part.

Nonprofessional responsibilities. As the teacher continues with his teaching activities year after year, it is only natural for him to assume numerous nonprofessional responsibilities. Among these may be the building of a home and the rearing of a family. Although such a step is normal for most individuals, some communities have frowned upon the practice if the teacher happened to be a woman. The bearing and rearing of children requires a certain amount of time which some school boards are reluctant to give to a teacher. They, no doubt, feel a responsibility to the community for making certain that the teachers give full time and effort to the instruction of children in the school. In a sense they are right, but some very effective teaching is being done in our schools today by women who are also engaged in rearing families. Pos-

sibly the problem in each case should be decided upon an individual basis. The woman who can do both jobs and do them well, should not be denied the privilege of accepting such a dual responsibility. On the other hand, no mother should expect to teach school on an incidental basis. If she cannot devote the time and attention needed for the work, she should not accept the responsibility. To do so may inflict a grave injustice upon the pupils under her direction.

A division of personal responsibilities is not always the problem of the married teacher alone. Single teachers also have to deal with it at times. Teaching salaries have usually not been very high. They still appear inadequate for many teachers. As a result, a teacher sometimes feels compelled to supplement his salary by picking up additional employment of one type or another. Such a practice is certainly not unethical as long as it does not interfere with the work in the schoolroom. Some teachers, however, find it tempting to give more and more time to such interests for the additional pay which they receive. As a result, their professional growth in the teaching field suffers. They avoid going to professional meetings or reading professional literature. They even reach the point where they reduce more and more the time spent in preparation for teaching. When they reach this stage, it is obvious that they have lost some of their effectiveness as teachers.

There are, no doubt, teachers who find themselves in financial difficulties because of misfortunes. Others find it necessary to support a growing family or a dependent relative. Such circumstances place a great amount of pressure upon them. The fact that they have accepted these responsibilities is certainly no discredit to them. But it still does not aid in the solution of their financial problems.

Fortunately, teacher salaries are being increased in many communities; therefore, the need for the teacher to supplement his financial income by outside work is probably less pressing now than it was some years ago. But needy cases still exist. Teachers will probably have to meet this problem mostly on an individual basis. If the situation is overly acute, the teacher concerned may find it preferable to seek some other field of activity where he believes his efforts are open to greater financial reward.

The beginning teacher should not overlook the fact that advancement and promotion usually provide additional salary increases for the individual. Therefore, if he diverts his efforts too much, he may defeat

the very goal of limited financial independence which he is hoping someday to achieve. It is probably a common hope among teachers that the time will come when they will be paid wages sufficient to take care of their needs on a basis comparable to that of certain other professions. The willingness of many of them to continue as teachers, even when they are paid insufficient salaries, may be a credit to their devotion to a worthy cause, but it does little to improve their financial status and should certainly not be accepted as a solution to the problem. The loss of many trained teachers to other professions is also no credit to those who take little interest in raising educational and professional teaching standards.

Participation in school affairs. The teacher who evidences a sincere interest in his pupils can expect to find himself invited by them to participate in their school affairs. Parties, hikes, and games need sponsors. Pupils want as sponsors teachers who take an interest in making such events a real success. However, pupils and teacher may not always have the same idea of what constitutes a successful hike or other social event. An understanding on this matter by both parties as they plan the event may save confusion and trouble later on. Pupils seldom like to be disciplined under such informal circumstances; teachers probably also prefer not to have to use disciplinary measures at such times. Successful sponsors are usually those teachers who can direct activities by placing much of the responsibility for appropriate behavior upon the pupils themselves. This gives the young people the feeling that it is their party. Yet the teacher may not be able to leave them entirely to themselves. They may need help in realizing what such responsibilities involve. It is at such times that the teacher will have to assume responsibility for guiding pupil conduct. The extent to which he does this tactfully will usually determine the extent to which the group will continue to respect him as a desirable sponsor.

Probably every school has special social events of one type or another. For example, a school may hold an all-school carnival or festival each year to provide needed funds for activities. It may hold open house to permit parents and friends to observe some of the work which is being done in the school. Of course, every school has at least a limited number of tournaments and games. Although these activities may appear to have little connection with classroom instruction, they often provide

experiences in cooperative effort and individual responsibility for the pupils.

The teacher who directs activities of an extra-class or extracurricular nature should take special pains to see that pupils are seeing worth-while objectives in these. As he gains experience in such efforts, it should become easier for him to determine the values that he can obtain from such activities. If he feels that the effort does not contribute to worthwhile ends, he has a professional responsibility to modify it so that it will, or to use his efforts to drop it from the program of activities in the school. Few teachers can maintain a healthy attitude toward their work if it is necessary for principals to urge them to sponsor activities in which they believe there is little of value for the participants.

As the teacher gains experience in directing extracurricular events, it should become easier for him to recognize where he can use his abilities and talents to best advantage. It is natural for him to want to apply his efforts in these areas. Furthermore, it is natural for principals to want to appoint teachers to positions of leadership in activities where they have a good chance of being successful. Of course, there always are jobs for which no one teacher on the staff is particularly qualified. Under such conditions the teacher may have to accept his share of such responsibilities and do the best he can under the circumstances.

Attitudes toward school traditions. If the teacher moves from one school to another, he very probably discovers that each community has traditions which it respects rather highly. At first some of these customs may appear somewhat strange and even incongruous to him. Yet they are probably the result of long years of development in that community and may involve a great deal of sentiment for the people who live there. Under no condition should he ridicule these feelings. Rather, he should study them carefully to discover what it is that has made these people attach such significant values to them.

The author recalls his own experience in a community where each year on the first day of May the board of education, the teachers, and all elementary and high school pupils marched in a parade through the town and out to a nearby park. Possibly there was little educational value connected with such an event. But as the author—then only a young teacher—saw parents and friends line the sidewalks and look proudly at the children who were marching past, he began to realize what this event meant to them. Through these

children, the townspeople were probably looking toward the future of their community. They were willing to work and sacrifice to build a good educational system for them. This was their way of honoring the group. The writer understands that the people of this community still observe the custom of holding such a parade each year. Probably there is more connection between this event and the fact that a beautiful new high school has just been completed in that community than is at first evident to a casual observer.

The teacher should try to discover the values that are attached to community traditions. Such values are not always as readily apparent as was the parade described above; yet they may be equally significant for the school. Sometimes they are no more than a quality of character, such as honesty. There are schools which highly revere qualities of this nature. Some attach traditional values to achievement in learning; some, to the development of individual pupil ability; and others, to any one of a number of other worth-while objectives. As the teacher works in the school and the community, he should find it professionally stimulating to become familiar with the worth-while traditions established there and to give of his time and efforts toward fostering them. Such action helps the community to feel that he really has its interests at heart. In return, he can expect to receive increased confidence and support in his work both from within and from outside of the school.

The teacher who expects to grow professionally should expect to make a wholesome contribution to the spirit of good will existing among the faculty itself. A sincere yet reserved interest in the welfare of other staff members is not too much to ask from anyone who has entered the teaching profession. Furthermore, it is a contribution that can help the donor in clipping coupons of good will and friendship for himself. Yet the teacher should not confuse this move toward friendly cooperation with the idea that he must necessarily lead the group socially. There are those who have the ability to lead and who should therefore exercise that talent. But there are those who do not have this ability. Yet each teacher should assume his share of the responsibility for helping develop the kind of rapport among the staff which will make for wholesome relationships for everyone. All members of a staff need not agree on matters of policy or attitude; but they should respect one another as individuals and, furthermore, respect the views which anyone as an individual sees fit to hold. If they do this, it is usually possible for them to establish and maintain a healthy spirit of fellowship among their group.

The longer the teacher is an active member of the profession, the easier it should become for him to get along with boys and girls as well as with his colleagues. If this is not the case, it may be well for him to evaluate the type of professional growth that he is making. An experienced teacher should be both a better teacher and a more agreeable companion than he was when he entered upon his career.

Establishing effective impressions. Whether consciously or otherwise, the beginning teacher may begin his professional work by trying to imitate the practices which he saw others carry out successfully. In other words, he wants to make an equally effective impression by being like someone else. In itself, this is not necessarily an undesirable practice. The teacher, as well as the beginner in any profession, has much to learn when he begins his active service. Much of his learning will result from observing others at work. But as he matures and gains experience, he should develop those qualities which are unique to himself as an individual. He should discover and develop those techniques for which he has special qualifications. Those which he finds unnatural and ineffective, he should modify or discontinue. Inability or unwillingness to adapt himself to changes has led to the downfall of many a promising teacher.

As he grows older, the teacher will want to leave a different type of impression upon his pupils than he did when he was a beginner. Pupils are often willing to tolerate weaknesses in younger teachers which they will refuse to accept in those who are older. They apparently feel that the latter have had time to improve their ways. Pupils also usually expect older teachers to be somewhat more reserved in manner and attitude than are beginners.

For example, they may regard the use of colloquial high school expressions by older teachers as quite inappropriate. Yet they will excuse a beginning teacher if he occasionally expresses himself in this manner. Professionally, of course, the use of such language by a teacher is almost always an indication of poor taste. However, the author is only trying to point out here that impressions vary according to certain factors—in this instance, age and experience are of particular importance.

It usually does not take the beginning teacher long to discover that considerable skill or artistry is involved in becoming a successful teacher. He finds that he must learn to read his audience as the professional

speaker learns to do. He must learn to judge impressions by pupil reaction. Usually this is not too difficult a task. Yet if a teacher fails to adjust his work to the emotional reactions of the class, he is almost certain to run into behavior problems. His pupils become restless and inattentive and often lose their zeal for learning. Whatever the factors may be, they are seldom conducive to the establishment of healthy learning situations.

Freedom of discussion in the classroom. As the teacher gains experience, he should be able to provide his pupils with increased opportunity for discussing controversial issues in the classroom. As a beginner, he may find it comparatively safe to limit himself to discussions in fields with which he has a fairly good background. Intentionally or otherwise, pupils sometimes lead the teacher into a discussion of controversial subjects. If he is able to control such discussions, considerable good may come from them. But if the discussions get out of hand or lead to emotional outbursts, there is danger that the pupils may accuse the teacher of prejudice or even of indoctrination. If at all possible, a teacher should control his own and his pupils' emotions in discussions of this type. Unless he can do this he may find it unwise to shape up discussions which will stimulate them unduly. Yet worth-while discussions of controversial issues do have their place in the classroom. It is the teacher's responsibility to help foster those that can contribute worth-while results. Pupils and teachers alike need to develop the ability to examine controversial topics or subjects in an objective manner. Biased judgments seldom stimulate the mind to do worth-while reflective thinking.

If the teacher finds that his pupils have a tendency to get "out of hand" when discussion topics arise, he may find it desirable to work with them to develop principles for governing discussions. Pupils are quite able to recognize the need for establishing such principles. They can usually sense that freedom of discussion does not mean license to shout and rant in a discourteous manner. Yet they may need guidance before they are able to recognize that such discussions serve a worthwhile purpose by having both sides of the question presented in a frank and open manner. They need to learn how to obtain information from reliable sources. It should be a useful experience for pupils to learn how to seek out such sources.

The willingness of pupils to accept the teacher as a guide in classroom discussions should increase as he gains respect among them. Pos-

sibly the teacher can find no better way to teach a principle of democracy than to exercise that principle in the conduct of his own class groups. He should seek for truth at all times. Schorling [3] touches upon this point as follows: "Democracy can never lose by loyalty to the scientific pursuit of truth; but democracy is in serious danger if that right is ever qualified." A teacher should help pupils to look for the arguments on both sides of an issue. But in doing so he must guard against having any one individual, including himself, assume a position in which he draws a conclusion from opinions rather than from facts.

The teacher should have the respect of his pupils before he attempts to direct discussions on controversial issues. Furthermore, the manner in which he directs such discussions will go a long way toward determining whether he will continue to hold that respect.

Economic adjustment. The emotional stability of the teacher is often affected by the type of economic security which he has been able to establish for himself during his early years of teaching. He can seldom do superior work if he is beset by the pressures and worries of overwhelming economic needs. Of course, even today with the increase in salary levels, there are teachers who at times have to face acute economic hardships. A serious illness or an accident can unbalance a teacher's budget regardless of how carefully the members of his family may have planned it and adhered to it.

Teacher organizations are aware of this problem and are themselves, in some instances, providing types of insurance which are reasonable and which offer some degree of financial protection to the teacher. Yet the teacher must be the final judge as to the type of arrangement which can best serve his own needs. Whatever it may be, it should be of a nature to provide adequate protection for himself as well as for his family. Whether this should be insurance, a savings plan, or some similar program, is a matter which he has to decide for himself.

In teaching, as in any other work, hardships frequently strike a family at a moment when the father and mother are already making intensive efforts to clear themselves from financial obligations. Increased burdens then require additional time and attention. Whenever this occurs, the teacher, whether it be a father or a mother, may find it increasingly difficult to care for his professional responsibilities in an adequate man-

[3] By permission, from *Student Teaching*, Second Edition, by Raleigh Schorling, copyright 1949, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., p. 369.

ner. Pupils deserve to have the best teaching that the school can provide. For that reason, the teacher has an obligation to try to maintain his emotional stability so that it will contribute to the effectiveness of his work. If worries are the result of poor economic management, the teacher should make serious efforts to improve his management. Those that are unavoidable he will, of course, have to meet as best he can.

Most states today require teacher participation in some form of retirement plan. If they do not require participation, the teacher may wish to make provision for himself by joining voluntarily. Of course he can also make some provision for old age through investments and annuities. Whatever he does, should, as far as possible, be of such a nature as to free his mind from the type of worries which interfere with teaching effectiveness.

If the teacher is married, he and his family will usually find it profitable to work as a unit toward meeting their financial obligations. In this respect they are no different from any other family. Attempts of any one member to live beyond the means of the group usually bring misfortune upon all. Even though a family does not have a particularly large income, all members can still plan together to make that little go a long way. As children become members of this planning unit, they gain valuable experience in providing for their own needs in later life. They come to appreciate the values of the little things which contribute much toward the welfare and happiness of the entire family. Intelligent saving and wise spending go a long way toward making a program of this type a success. Even such a simple plan as that proposed by the Institute of Life Insurance [4] can be helpful to the teacher and his family in developing a workable budget.

It would appear that an unmarried teacher may be in a better position to take care of his immediate personal needs than one who is married. Salary scales seldom differentiate between the two, and there is no reason why they should. Marital status appears to have little to do with determining whether or not a teacher will be successful in his work. Economic independence is also seldom a determining factor in this case. It appears that the teacher who has the ambition and the ability to succeed can do so regardless of whether he has a large or a small income or whether he is married or single. It is probably normal for most individ-

[4] Copies of "Family Money Manager" can be obtained by writing to the Institute of Life Insurance, 488 Madison Avenue, New York 22, N.Y.

uals to experience financial difficulties at some time or other. Teachers are certainly no exception. On this point the author recalls the remark made by a college roommate of his one evening as he came in from caring for the job by which he was earning his way through school. Tired and exhausted, he picked up his book to study. He sat there a moment and exclaimed, "You know it may not be a disgrace to be poor, but it certainly is darn inconvenient." No doubt many a teacher or prospective teacher has felt this way about finances even though he may not have expressed his feelings in exactly such words.

Many schools are today providing in-service training for teachers. One of the means being used today for improving instruction in schools is that of the in-service training of teachers. Of course, the teacher education program in most colleges and professional schools attempts to give the beginner the type of training needed to take care of his immediate teaching needs. But such a program must necessarily be brief because of the limited time available. No one realizes these limitations more than do the teachers themselves as they enter upon their work. Many of them look forward eagerly to the time when they can broaden their training and background and so gain a greater feeling of security in what they are trying to accomplish. They realize that continuous growth in the profession requires that they develop in the various aspects of their professional life.

As the conscientious teacher tries day by day to meet his routine responsibilities in a satisfactory manner, he may well begin to wonder how he can find the time and energy to keep abreast of all the changes that touch upon his work. He has to consider new scientific developments and new experiments if he is to make them available for use in his classroom. He has to modify teaching techniques in the light of these advances if he is to obtain improved results in pupil learning. Yet throughout this entire process of change there lies a certain element of risk which he has to face. All changes in techniques or procedures do not necessarily lead to improvement in practice. He has to select those that do not, from among those that do, and cast them aside. Even the fact that one teacher obtained a certain result when he used a particular technique, does not assure another teacher that he will obtain equally satisfactory results when he follows the same or a similar practice. Teaching involves evaluation and selection. The effective teacher develops a competency for doing both.

The responsibility of the administration. The administration of the school profits when the members of its staff improve their teaching practices. For that reason there should be continued effort on the part of principals and superintendents to provide efficient in-service training opportunities for their teachers. Such effort should represent more than a passive move to have staffs meet minimum state requirements by occasional attendance at teacher meetings or institutes. Effective in-service programs require detailed planning and the cooperative efforts of all participants. The administrator must consider a teacher's real interests and needs if he expects him to become active in promoting programs of this nature. Too often programs have been set up for teachers rather than by them. Teachers know that their professional work can become more interesting and stimulating if they can acquire improved means for reaching the goals which they set for themselves in their work.

A study conducted some years ago by the North Central Association [5] among teachers and administrators suggested several procedures for carrying on in-service practices in education. It listed the following ten as being particularly useful, and ranked them according to the importance which the teachers and administrators attached to them:

1. Organizing teachers into committees to study problems
2. Organizing studies of special topics—general staff meetings
3. Providing a professional library and browsing-room for teachers
4. Having teachers (not administrators) give reviews of articles in current educational magazines
5. Giving special financial awards for participation in programs of in-service education
6. Engaging cooperatively in a systematic evaluation of the school using the criteria of the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards
7. Carrying out a well-planned attack upon the problems of curriculum development
8. Holding forums where parents, pupils, teachers, and board members participate
9. Attending summer workshops
10. Visiting teachers in one's own school or in other schools

[5] By permission, from "Promising Techniques for Educating Teachers in Service," by C. A. Weber, copyright 1942, *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 28:691–695.

The administration must accept general responsibility for organizing the in-service program that deals with such affairs as teachers' meetings, workshops, and school visitations. But the teachers should have the privilege of deciding which of the opportunities can be of most help to them. Under such conditions, there is a greater probability that they will support those which have a particular appeal for them.

Faculty meetings. The general purpose of faculty meetings has been discussed in an earlier chapter. However, it may be well to emphasize again some of the values which such meetings can contribute to the professional life of the teacher. It is true that when they occur at the close of a strenuous day of teaching, they can very well take on the appearance of after-school punishment for the teacher. This is especially the case if they are tiresome routine affairs which serve little, if any, constructive purpose. However, there is no reason why they cannot achieve a worth-while objective by contributing to the work which the teacher is trying to accomplish. To do this, they must first make it possible for him to present his problems in a satisfactory manner. Then there must be opportunity for him to participate in the solution of these problems.

Small committee groups may at times be able to function more constructively than can the entire faculty meeting as a unit. This situation is especially the case when the faculty is large and whenever the teachers' problems are so varied in nature that a general consideration of them by all members of the staff becomes a practical impossibility. The committee procedure is practically a necessity whenever teachers are working on all-school matters, such as curriculum revision. Attempts of a large group to do the initial work on such a project can very easily result in a wastage of time for all concerned. However, the recommendations from individual committees should in all instances be presented to the entire staff for final approval or rejection. Such a step permits democratic consideration of matters in which the administrator may later ask the teachers to assume various types of responsibilities.

Sometimes teacher resentment toward faculty meetings arises from the fact that the administration asks the teachers to support a policy or to participate in a project about which they have little or no information. For this reason, it may be desirable to have major points or plans outlined and distributed to staff members ahead of the time of meeting. This gives each member the opportunity to study the proposals. As a re-

sult, he is in a position to participate in the related discussion. The practice also makes it possible for him to prepare questions beforehand which he can present to the group when it meets.

Someone remarked once that if a teachers' meeting could be given the name which it should rightly carry, it might well be called "The Opportunity Hour." Such a meeting would be looked forward to by teachers as a time when they could meet certain of their professional needs in a professional manner. However, to be able to do this, it would be necessary for each teacher to contribute actively to the successful functioning of the group. This may be asking a great deal of the teacher who prefers to remain in the background and let others carry the load. Likewise, it may be asking a great deal of the teacher who feels obligated to "run the show." Both of these extremists have to change their attitude toward individual and shared responsibility if such a program is to succeed.

Administrators are sometimes accused of sponsoring faculty meetings so that their previously formulated plans can be put into action. No doubt there are times when those accusations are justified. On the other hand, staff members sometimes force an administrator into such action because of their passive reaction toward certain out-of-class responsibilities which someone must meet in some manner or other.

On almost every teaching staff there are one or more individuals who do not raise their voice during the time that the staff meetings are in session. But as soon as the meetings are over, they become extremely critical of any action that other members of the staff may have taken. They bore their fellow staff members with all types of arguments against such actions. The principal or the teacher who suggested a change in practice or procedure usually becomes the center of their attack. The attitude of such individuals is generally destructive rather than constructive as they eagerly seek to convince others of their own point of view.

If faculty meetings are held in a democratic manner, there should be no reason for such behind-the-back attacks. The teacher who objects to any particular action or proposed principle should accept the opportunity to voice his objection openly in the meeting so that the entire group can consider his point of view. Frank discussions are usually healthy for a staff even though they may present widely diverging points of view. The teacher who learns to express his opinion in an unemotional yet

sincere manner at such a time is training himself for an important aspect of his profession. He should be able to retain the respect of his associates at the same time that he is maintaining his respect for them. Moreover, such a person is usually developing his ability to help students conduct themselves appropriately under similar circumstances in his classroom.

Professional meetings. The teacher who divides his time and effort among a large number of professional organizations is not necessarily contributing to his own professional growth. A certain amount of activity in such organizations may be very desirable; in fact, most of the teachers who are leaders in their field devote some time to such activities. But the teacher who tries to be on every committee or attend every type of professional meeting may just be running around without going anywhere in particular in his profession. A busybody of this type can very easily come to regard his teaching as of secondary importance, with the result that it deteriorates rather than improves.

On the other hand, the teacher who seldom goes away from the classroom to meet associates in his own and other fields is living within a very small world indeed. New ideas and improved methods may reach him eventually but usually by a very slow process. He may even be doing outstanding work in his own classes but feel that out of modesty he must keep his light hidden under a bushel. Such an individual owes something to others in the profession. He should find some means of informing them of the practices which he is using. If he does not feel capable of describing his own techniques before large audiences, he may invite an experienced associate to observe his work and then describe that which he himself is doing.

A certain amount of prestige is naturally attached to the work of a successful teacher. Unfortunately, there are always a few individuals who seek such recognition in an unethical manner. They describe practices which they have seen without giving credit to the person who is really responsible for them. Or they represent a practice or an experiment in a false light, pretending that they have achieved outstanding results when in reality the results are quite commonplace. Such misrepresentation is especially disturbing to modest, sincere teachers who recognize these attempts at self-glorification for what they really are. It is hoped that most teachers attend professional meetings with the desire to find some new ideas which they can take home and put into action.

If they are successful in such attempts, there is probably little doubt in their minds that their attendance at professional meetings has been worth while.

Teachers owe some professional responsibility to the committees which are selected to prepare the programs for their meetings. Members of such committees are generally anxious to provide the type of programs which the teachers want. But their contacts may be limited. Therefore, teachers should take the initiative for providing good programs by sending in suggestions for meetings. They may know of desirable features of which the program committee is entirely unaware. Thus by showing a little professional interest along with a bit of professional cooperation, they are sometimes in a position to help make professional meetings increasingly meaningful and valuable for themselves.

Professional teacher organizations should concern themselves with the interests and welfare of their members. Many of the gains which teachers have achieved over the years can be credited to the efforts of such organizations. But teachers are often as human as are those who are members of other professions. It is easy for them to let their groups fall into the hands of a few professional promoters, after the groups have achieved a few immediate gains. Whenever this happens, the organization may lose its real vigor and suffer a decline in general interest. If teachers are anxious to avoid this loss of interest, they should work to keep their organizations in the hands of individuals who are truly concerned with promoting the interest of the profession rather than that of a few particular individuals.

Study and workshops. Many older teachers are familiar with the reading-circle plan of years ago wherein they met in groups to discuss texts assigned by their administration. In rural areas the county superintendents would usually make the selection of books and would ask certain teachers in various parts of the county to serve as chairmen for monthly discussion groups. Obviously the superintendent intended to carry on this plan as an in-service training program. In some instances, however, there was not always a great deal of enthusiasm for such meetings. The books were not always of such a general nature as to appeal to all members of a group.

The author recalls vividly his own experience as one of four beginning rural teachers who slaved over a textbook in educational psychology, month after month for a whole school term. The results were truly pathetic as he looks

back upon them now. Without much teaching experience or the aid of experienced leadership the author found the meetings to be anything but helpful to him or to the group. Yet each teacher present had to be able to meet his own problems day after day. He had no one to whom he could turn for help. He often wanted help and he often needed help in solving his problems, but he had to acquire much of his training by a trial-and-error procedure or by the comparison of his efforts with those of the teacher in the neighboring district.

The author intends no ridicule of these early attempts to give teachers further training in their field. The efforts may have been crude and the results may not always have been effective, but in the practice someone sensed a need and was trying to meet that need in a reasonable manner. Even with improved training facilities today, most teachers feel the need for occasional group study of the problems which confront them day by day. Teaching techniques are, no doubt, being improved in many ways. With an increasing number of teachers working close to one another, it becomes increasingly easier for them to meet on the basis of common interests. Improved libraries and trained personnel are available to help them. With these, or other equally helpful facilities at hand, teachers should feel motivated to work in study groups without having to feel pressured to get together.

Colleges and universities everywhere are offering courses for continued teacher training both on an off-campus as well as on an on-campus basis. If teachers live near centers where such courses are offered, they can attend classes in the late afternoons or evenings or on Saturdays. Of course, during the summer, full-time college attendance is a common practice for many teachers. Correspondence courses are also available for them in many subject fields.

Additional professional training should make for better teachers. For that reason, it is a practice which members of the profession should encourage. Yet there are some dangers which the teacher must recognize. If he attempts to carry too many courses in addition to his full-time teaching load, he may find that both his teaching and his course work suffer. In addition, he may endanger his health if the load is too great. It may be better for him to practice some degree of moderation in the amount of work which he is attempting to do so that he will be emotionally and physically able to continue doing a good job of teaching. After all, his first responsibility is to the pupils with whom he is working.

Workshops are a rather recent innovation in the teaching field. But already they have met a type of need which conventional educational courses have not always been able to provide. Their appeal is based largely on the fact that they provide teachers with the opportunity of working together on problems which are of immediate concern to them. School administrators sometimes establish workshops on a purely local basis, or they organize them in centers which attract teachers from considerable distances. Sometimes teacher training institutions cooperate in sponsoring workshops. Institutions doing this frequently provide certain of the personnel, such as the consultants or resource individuals and possibly the director.

The value of the workshop for the teachers is fairly obvious. The teachers themselves do a great deal of the work toward achieving the objectives which the program is supposed to develop. In fact, part of their responsibility may be to determine the specific objectives which they hope to achieve. Leaders usually organize the workshop around information which they have collected previous to the actual meeting. This information may be in the form of questions or problems upon which the group can work whenever they come together. Thus the leaders usually determine the general theme beforehand, but they leave the manner of its development for the group to decide when they begin working.

The actual procedure for conducting the workshop is generally rather uniform. Small group activity usually follows a general orientation meeting of all participants. Each of the small groups works upon a selected problem. In doing so, they draw upon available resource material. Below is a brief example of how any group of leaders might organize such a workshop:

General Topic: Improving parent-teacher relationships

Group Topics:
1. PTA meetings
2. Reporting pupil progress
3. Communication on advisory problems
4. Classroom visitation by parents
5. Open-house programs for parents

Consultants who are specialists in the fields under study may attend and be available for conferences with the workers. The groups are not

always static. Sometimes an interchange of personnel makes for an interchange of ideas. This practice may serve to keep the entire organization somewhat more unified than would otherwise be the case. The type and amount of resources which are available often determines the extent to which a workshop can become productive. Whenever resources are especially limited, there is usually only limited motivation for action. For this reason a workshop may not be desirable except in such centers where facilities are of such a nature as to provide adequate resources. Conditions under which staff members from two or more schools can work together usually provide a certain amount of incentive for the members of various groups. They like to look forward to getting new ideas from persons with whom they normally do not associate day by day. From such contacts they may be able to achieve a feeling of professional security.

Reading and writing. During the years that the teacher was in college, he probably found himself required to read one professional book after another. Some of these interested him, no doubt, while others did not. It is possible that some of the material which his professors asked him to read did not have very much meaning for him until after he began working in a classroom with pupils. Then he may have yearned to review such reading material again, but the opportunity for doing so was not always present. Furthermore, neither time nor material may have been available to him.

Teachers can very easily lapse into the habit of reading little or no professional literature when teaching duties begin pressing down upon them. It may require considerable effort after a hard day's work for a teacher to sit down and give his attention to material of a professional nature. Light reading may be considerably more relaxing. But the teacher who does not do a certain amount of professional reading may soon fail to keep pace with those of his colleagues who do. The amount of such reading which the teacher can do may of course be limited. For this reason it is well that he use his time to advantage by selecting first that material which is especially pertinent to his teaching field. Monthly journals are published for practically every subject area. Through these journals he can keep in touch with many of his colleagues. He can follow what they are doing. He can read about their ideas. The advertisements in these journals will help to keep him informed on new texts and other teaching materials which are being published. In other words,

such contact should not only have a tendency to keep him professionally alert and active, but it should also help to give him a feeling of confidence in the type of work which he is doing. He can compare his own teaching techniques with those used by other individuals in his field. If he is doing work of the type generally described in these journals, he can at least know that with his methods and techniques he is not too far behind others.

Every teacher has a responsibility for helping to make the journal in his field a worth-while organ in the teaching profession. Professional publications need, and in most instances are anxious to accept, articles which describe teaching practices that teachers have found particularly successful. The teacher owes it to his colleagues to inform them of such practices. On the other hand, the teacher should also assume equal responsibility for helping to keep trivial matter out of professional journals. In the first place, he should not submit material of such a nature for publication; in the second place, he should use his influence in letting the editor know that such material is not worthy of publication. Of course, the editor is responsible for the regular appearance of the journal. If he does not have first-rate articles to publish, he must naturally use poorer material. He can not obtain desirable material by just asking for it. It must come from the individuals who are active in the field. It is their journal, and they should share in the responsibility for making it contribute to their needs.

There is some feeling among teachers that too many articles have a tendency to idealize the activity which the writer is attempting to describe. Accuracy should always be a major factor in such a description. The writer who is guilty of perverting facts for his own glorification is guilty of disservice to the teaching profession. Most experienced teachers are usually able to sense inaccuracies of this nature when they appear, but the beginning teacher may experience considerable difficulty in attempting to follow a practice described in glowing terms in a journal. No doubt the editor will try to prevent publication of such material if he is aware of this weakness, but he is not always in a position to check on the accuracy of each item in an article. He does only the best he can. For that reason, the real responsibility for accuracy must rest upon the individual who prepares the article.

Professional books designed for use by teachers in every type of subject field appear quite regularly. Because of their limited sale, it is usu-

ally necessary that the price be rather high to cover publishing costs. The teacher's budget may not permit him to add a great number of such books to his library at any one time. Furthermore, he may find that only a limited number will ever be of special value to him. On such a list will be texts in his own teaching field, as well as books of a general professional nature. Most publishers permit books of both types to be sent out to a teacher on an examination basis. The teacher may then return those that he feels do not serve his needs, or he may purchase them at a small discount.

The superior teacher keeps himself informed about new publications in his field. As new texts appear, he tries to find an opportunity to examine and to evaluate them for possible future use. There will be some which he cannot use as regular class texts but which he will want for desk reference. By selecting material from these, he may be able to enrich his classwork and build a course that has a broader scope than it could have had if he had limited himself to the use of one textbook alone.

The alert teacher draws his material from many sources. New texts and new reading materials can often make valuable contributions to such collections. Through professional books the teacher also has available bibliographies which can give him valuable leads to materials with which he may not already be familiar. The busy teacher can often use the *Readers' Guide* and the *Education Index* to advantage. Even if he has only occasional access to them, he can gain a picture of what has been published in his particular field of interest. He can then take steps to try to obtain the magazines or the books which he wishes. Some teachers list articles from these guides which they wish to read and then make occasional trips to a large city or college library where such materials are available. This practice makes it possible for them to keep fairly well acquainted with what is going on in their field of work. At the same time, they have made no great outlay of money for magazines or books which will have little value for them after they have been read. Of course, every teacher should find it possible to subscribe for at least one or more of the periodicals published for his major field of interest.

Travel. The ease and rapidity of modern transportation are providing an excellent means for the teacher to become better acquainted with the world about him. The exchange of teachers between various countries

of the world is becoming a common practice. Such a step should do much to further the interchange of ideas and experiences upon which countries can build improved international understanding. Strange as it may seem, some of the most profitable visits of this type are taking place today between people who, only a few short years ago, were fighting each other most bitterly. The impressions which teachers receive upon such travels provide them with material for their helping pupils to develop favorable attitudes among themselves. In other words, such experiences should make them better teachers.

The values to be obtained from travel need not be limited to teachers alone. In certain subject areas, teachers organize pupils into groups and then conduct them on tours of foreign countries. In the foreign language field such tours provide opportunity for both teacher and pupils to become better acquainted with peoples of various countries as well as to gain firsthand experience in speaking other languages. Other subject areas, such as social studies, can often follow a similar practice to good advantage.

Unfortunately, financial limitations restrict the organization of travel groups. Furthermore, there are excellent teachers who do not have the ability to direct the activities of pupils on such tours in an effective manner. The responsibilities involved are considerable. Teachers should give careful consideration to all aspects of such a project, of course, before they encourage pupils to participate in it.

The teacher who does not wish to organize a tour or to travel alone may find it desirable to join a guided tour. Such tours reach into almost every part of our own country, as well as into most accessible parts of the world. Since individuals may share costs on such a trip, the actual outlay of money by each teacher is often not beyond his means. Furthermore, he has the advantage of traveling with others, some of whom may already be acquainted with the area they are covering. The principal objection to this type of tour is that the teacher is not always free to follow up on his own interests. Instead, he must usually conform to the travel schedule set up for the entire group. For this reason the teacher may want to consider how well the tour meets his own interests and needs before he commits himself to go on it.

Visitation. The administrators of many schools today are coming to recognize the value of interschool visits for their teachers. It is easy for a teacher to get into a rut in his teaching practices. If he happens to be

working in a small school, he may be the only individual teaching in one subject field. Thus he has little or no opportunity to exchange ideas with anyone on problems relating to his particular area of work. However, if he has the opportunity to visit a colleague in a nearby school, he may find himself stimulated to initiate new practices. If not, at least he will be in a position to compare his own work with that of his colleague.

Some schools close for an entire day to permit staff members to visit other schools. In other cases, only a limited number of the staff are gone at any one time. Under such conditions, the school continues to function with those who remain on the job absorbing the teaching loads for that particular day. Regardless of the arrangement used, the intent of the administration is obvious: the teacher is to have an opportunity to see one or more of his colleagues at work.

Teachers should regard a visit of the type described above as more than a vacation from duty. The teacher who profits most from such a trip looks for improved methods of directing pupils in their learning experiences. Such visits also provide opportunity for examining new teaching materials. Teachers can exchange ideas during the lunch hour or during free periods. In fact, the visit can be as profitable for the teacher being visited as for the one who comes to the school. The author has gained many valuable helps from visitors who raised pertinent questions as to the teaching techniques which they were using in their own classrooms. Such questions frequently led to a re-evaluation of teaching practices with the result that ways for improvement were frequently found.

Growth is a continuous process. As the teacher gains experience in his profession, he should come to recognize those aspects of his work where improvement can make him a better teacher. He should not be satisfied until he has used all means at his disposal to attain this objective. This need not make of him an impractical idealist. In striving for such a goal, he must, of course, consider the everyday environment in which he is living and working.

For example, a teacher may want to obtain an advanced degree by a certain date. He believes that this additional training will help him to become a better teacher. Yet if he achieves his degree in a limited time at too great a cost to his own health and social relationships, it is doubtful if he has really achieved his major objective. It may be wiser for him to proceed at a slower rate of speed and thereby not lose certain other gains which also contribute to the effectiveness of his work.

Improved teaching is not always the result of further professional training, of further study or travel, or any one of the many criteria recommended by those who make teaching a profession. More often it results from the growth of the individual's personality. Outstanding teachers usually have professional training and travel experience, it is true, but they are successful because they use these experiences to enrich their personalities as they work with boys and girls. They do not gain sympathy and understanding of the adolescent because of these experiences; they probably already had a deep concern for the problems of young people before they entered upon the profession. If they did not have it then, it is doubtful if many of them acquired it later in their work. No single personal characteristic can ever make an inexperienced person into a good teacher; it can serve only as one of the many contributing factors. Favorable personal characteristics and appropriate professional training are of course the types of prerequisites which should point to a successful teaching career. Yet the teacher's future is determined not by the fact that he has these factors but rather by the manner in which he applies them to his work. He continues to grow only as he becomes alert to the needs of his profession and adjusts himself to meet these needs in an adequate manner. His work becomes largely one of selecting and blending. He must develop the ability to select and blend together older and newer methods of teaching until he finds a formula that fits his needs. He must also develop the ability to select means for blending together into a working whole personalities of various types. Thus the effective teacher becomes both a successful workman and a pioneer in his field.

DISCUSSION TOPICS AND QUESTIONS

1. What steps can you take to determine your effectiveness as a teacher? Analyze your personal strengths and weaknesses in the light of the results that you obtain from applying these steps.
2. What personal differences do you recognize between teachers who have the reputation of being old-fashioned and those who are reputedly up-to-date?
3. Discuss the values that the teacher can derive from various types of professional contacts. In what way can he be of help to other teachers through such contacts?
4. List the personal characteristics of those of your high school teachers who appeared to be particularly respected by their colleagues.

5. What factors may a teacher find it worth while to consider if he plans to move from one position to another? Should a teacher continue to work in a position where he cannot live normally without supplementing his salary through additional work?
6. What values toward his professional development can the teacher derive from directing and guiding extra-class activities?
7. What criteria can the teacher use to determine whether it is advisable for him to adopt new teaching techniques in his classes?
8. On what basis should the teacher select his recreational activities? To what extent may it be advisable for him to include in these activities persons who are not fellow staff members?
9. Discuss the types of savings plans which appear especially designed to meet the needs of teachers. Should teachers be required to join a pension plan?
10. What type of travel would be especially beneficial to you in your subject area?
11. In what way can the workshop plan be adapted to meet the needs of the individual teacher?

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Appendix

A. UNIT PLANS AND CURRICULUM OUTLINE [1]

TEACHING UNIT ON PERCENTAGE

Objectives

The general objective of this unit is to make the understanding and use of percentage a real part of each pupil's everyday life.

I. Understandings
   - A. The meaning of percentage
   - B. The relationship of percentage to fractions, decimals, and ratios
   - C. Why percentage is used
   - D. The meaning and use of the terms:
     1. Percentage
     2. Hundredths
     3. Principal
     4. Interest
     5. Credit
     6. Loan
     7. Mortgage
     8. Discount
     9. Rebate
     10. Commission
     11. Proceeds
     12. Profit and loss
     13. Margin
     14. Mark-up and mark-down
     15. Picture-graph
     16. Bar-graph
     17. Circle-graph
     18. Angular degrees
     19. Percentage of error

[1] A class of student teachers at the University of Illinois under the direction of Professor Robert E. Pingry developed the unit on mathematics. The science unit was prepared by Stanley Chagnon, Jr., a student teacher at the University of Illinois, working under the supervision of Professor W. E. Harmsh. The English staff at the Jacksonville, Illinois, High School developed the English curriculum outline and the ninth grade resource unit. Miss Emma Mae Leonhard, Chairman of the department, directed the work.

II. Abilities—The Pupil Should Be Able to:
  A. Solve examples involving the three cases of percentage:
    1. 20% of 55
    2. 20 is what % of 55?
    3. 55 is 20% of what?
  B. Convert fractions and decimals to per cent and vice versa
  C. Handle new mathematical symbols, forms, abbreviations, etc.
  D. Solve problems dealing with
    1. Per cents greater than one hundred, and less than one
    2. Per cents of increase and decrease
  E. Interpret and solve word problems
  F. Interpret and construct graphs (bar, circle, profile, etc.)
  G. Approximate, on sight, percentages of various quantities
  H. Approximate answers and check results
  I. Use the fundamental operations of arithmetic with increased skill

III. Appreciations That Should Be Developed
  A. The pupil should realize the convenience of using percentages in many phases of industry, commerce, and daily living.
  B. The pupil should be aware of the use of percentage in various phases of his environment:
    1. Merchandising
    2. Profit and loss calculations
    3. Discounts and rebates—particularly in regard to home utility bills, credit accounts, etc.
    4. Interest rates in the field of finance—loans, savings accounts, investments, financial page of newspapers, etc.
    5. Commissions, payroll deductions, taxes
    6. Family budgeting
    7. Baseball batting averages
  C. The pupil should know that his ability to solve percentage problems is related directly to future work in higher mathematics, particularly algebra.

Initiatory Activities

1. Have pupils bring to class newspaper and magazine clippings showing the various uses of percentage.
2. Have pupils collect from old pants, coats, blankets, etc., labels showing the percentages of wool, rayon, cotton, etc.
3. Bring to class bills in which a percentage discount is offered for promptness in paying.
4. Tell how percentages are used in sports for comparing batting averages in baseball and shooting percentages in basketball.
5. Have the class look up percentage statistics on population growth.
6. Have the class look on bottles and other containers for labels showing percentage of alcohol, water, etc.
7. Talk about Ivory Soap's "$99\frac{44}{100}$% pure" advertising.
8. Bring to class a budget showing how people use percentage in budget planning.
9. Have pupils examine tax rates to see how they are based on percentages.

10. Have pupils look at clothing store or grocery store advertisements telling of "25% to 50% price reduction" sales.
11. Have someone look up the derivation of the word per cent.
12. Tell how percentage is used in loans and in financing homes, etc.
13. Have a salesman speak on how part of his wages are based on a percentage commission of his sales.

Developmental Activities

(Arranged in what may be considered a logical time sequence)

1. Introduce per cent as so many hundredths.
2. Review changing fractions to decimals and decimals to fractions after you have introduced percentage.
3. Drill on changing per cent to hundredths and to fractional form, and fractions to decimals.
4. Use some circle-graph charts or bar-line charts to help visualize percentage.
5. Have the pupils start a class scrapbook, or class bulletin board of materials showing percentages. They can acquire these from newspapers, magazines, or advertising folders.
6. Have the pupils make a list of all the cases they can find of percentage used in their school and home lives.
7. Have the pupils work simple problems on finding the number that is some per cent of another by working such problems as commissions and discounts.
8. Supplement text problems with practical examples from a text on practical mathematics.
9. Give practical examples of the use of estimating answers, and attempt to get all pupils to estimate the answer beforehand in order to have a good check on the decimal point.
10. Have the pupils keep a time budget of their school time and home life for a week or two. From this have them find the percentage of time spent in each activity.
11. Have the pupils keep won and lost percentages of the various intramural athletic teams.
12. Have the pupils keep a record of the standings of the conference basketball teams.
13. Have the pupils keep percentage standings of the shooting averages of each member of the basketball team on field goals and free throws.
14. Have the pupils visit a local bank, a local store, and a local filling station to find out how interest, and state and federal taxes are figured.
15. Have the pupils gain skill in finding what per cent one number is of another number by working text problems on increase and decrease, and simple mixture problems.
16. Give drill in rounding off numbers and in placing the decimal point. Use population figures or school enrollment figures as vital examples.
17. Demonstrate, or use local visits to business concerns, to fix the meanings of business terms and to develop the business vocabulary.
18. Demonstrate the idea of percentage over 100% by "increase" problems, etc. Give drill and problems on large percentages.
19. Have the pupils work problems on finding the number when the per cent and

the percentage number are given. Give good problems on finding the selling price, and the total amount of a mixture.

20. Have the pupils make a visit to a pharmacy, feed stores, etc., to notice percentages in mixtures.
21. Show a movie that will help correlate activities.

Culminating Activities

1. Test
2. *Projects* such as
   a. Present a chart showing breakdown of class in per cent according to height.
   b. Have a class store and let pupils figure per cent of profit and loss.
   c. Make a circular chart (pie) of their time for an average day; per cent spent in school, play, sleep, etc.
   d. Have pupils estimate distances; then measure them and figure their per cent of error of judgment.
   e. Have pupils figure basketball shooting percentage, also all other statistics connected with basketball, such as win-loss, etc.
3. *Examples for Test*
   a. (Case 3) A salesman receives a commission of 10%. If his monthly income is $300, how much did he sell?
   b. (Case 1) How many questions out of 32 may a pupil miss and still receive a grade of 75%?
   c. (Case 1) If sleds costing $10 are reduced 40%, how much do you have to pay for them?
   d. (Case 2) There are 30 pupils enrolled in class. If 4 are out sick, what per cent is present?

TEACHING UNIT ON MINERALS [2]

General and Specific Objectives

(General objectives are indicated by capital letters and specific objectives by numerals)

I. To Develop Pupil Ability
   A. To think geographically; that is, to put facts about geography together and be able to reason and arrive at a solution to a problem
      1. To create and explain mineral graphs and maps, and their implications
      2. To use facts about minerals as they apply to the mineral rights of various lands
      3. To write in an understandable manner about the locations and uses of minerals
   B. To recognize and locate geographic areas; that is, to comprehend the size and relationship of such areas
      1. To explain where minerals are found

[2] Objectives and tests are shown in complete form but parts of the content material have been deleted here to shorten the unit.

2. To construct maps and diagrams of mineral locations
3. To locate the main mineral areas in the world and the political spheres under which they fall
4. To locate and describe the lines of transportation used by people working these mineral areas

C. To understand the definite relations of minerals to national and international problems
1. To compare the mineral productions of various countries
2. To explain how minerals are a major contributing force to a country's political importance
3. To explain how mineral locations have led to wars—France with coal and iron vs. Germany with coal

D. To gain a mastery of the unit through self-activity
1. To use the library and develop scrapbook projects
2. To give special reports
3. To use and construct outlines

E. To understand and realize the effect of minerals upon the physical and cultural life of mankind
1. To explain the relationship of health to minerals and their by-products
2. To describe how minerals have affected the level of living of mankind
3. To understand the job possibilities in mineral professions
4. To explain how fluctuations in mineral production can affect many of the materials used in daily life

F. To read and to choose essential, satisfactory reading material applying to this unit
1. To select appropriate references for scrapbook projects and oral reports
2. To read pertinent textbooks and understand their content
3. To make appropriate use of newspaper and magazine articles that apply to minerals

G. To understand other peoples and lands concerned with minerals
1. To understand social problems, such as miners' strikes
2. To understand the history-making steps in civilizations of the world by the development of mineral ages
3. To describe peoples of mineral areas and towns and to compare them to those of the local community

H. To understand the grouping and scope of the whole mineral unit
1. To describe the relation of minerals through a knowledge of the mining practices used to obtain each
2. To explain the similarities in the uses and physical properties of minerals
3. To describe the origins and occurrences of the major minerals
4. To develop an outline concerning the essential facts connected with each mineral
5. To describe and explain the similarities and differences in effects of mineral smelting, distillation, and refining, and the effects of these upon a country's transportation and location of industries

Unit Teaching Plan on Minerals

DAILY OUTLINE — MONDAY, MARCH 1

I. Introduction of Unit
   A. Explain regulations and objectives
   B. Discuss
   C. Assign long-range projects (scrapbooks). (Refer to pages 522–523 for list of projects)
   D. Set aside pages in workbooks for mineral chart
   E. Plans for definite yet short period of supervised study each day

TUESDAY, MARCH 2

II. Nature and Distribution of Minerals
   A. History
      1. Stone Age
      2. Metal Age
         a. Bronze
         b. Iron—by use of coke
         c. Steel—basis of modernization
      3. Fuel Ages—recent
         a. Coal
         b. Petroleum
      4. Atomic Age
         a. Destruction
         b. Fuel
      5. Modern civilization depending on a gigantic pyramid of minerals

   Question: With what civilizations did these metal ages coincide?

   Question: How is this age affecting the history of mining and materials?

   B. Distribution of Minerals
      1. World irregularity
      2. Mineral regularities
         a. Mountain regions
            (1) Volcanoes
            (2) Folding
            (3) Erosion
         b. Flatlands—sedimentary rocks

   Procedure: Point out that mineral distribution is according to belts

   Question: Why should Russia have great mineral potential?

   Procedure: Diagram points under a.

   C. Nature of modern mining
      1. Large-scale mines
      2. Manufacturing and mining combined

   Question: Locate cities in this country that are based solely on mining.

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 3

I. Petroleum and Natural Gas

A. History
   1. Whales
   2. First oil wells—need for illuminating material

Question: What needs led to the development of the petroleum industry?

B. Uses
   1. Illuminating material
   2. Lubrication
   3. Power—3 major types
      a. Gasoline
      b. Diesel oil
      c. Fuel oil
   4. Side products

Question: Under what conditions are kerosene and electricity used for illumination in U.S.? Describe the place of oil in the development of modern machinery.

Question: What are some of the many oil products you use?

C. U.S. petroleum—68% of world's supply

Question: Why will this percentage not remain the same?

   1. Fields in U.S.
      a. Appalachian—1st discovered
      b. Lima
      c. Illinois—4th in U.S.—Salem and Centralia
      d. Southern California—2nd —Los Angeles
      e. Mid-continent (Texas and Oklahoma)—1st —Tulsa, Dallas, Oklahoma City
      f. Texas and Louisiana—Gulf Coast—3rd —Houston and Galveston
      g. Rocky Mountains

Procedure: Teacher relates personal experiences obtained in these fields

Question: Why from time to time do the leading oil fields in the U.S. change their relative positions?

Question: Where can a person see oil derricks in the ocean in this country?

THURSDAY, MARCH 4

   2. Origin and occurrence
      a. Decomposition of plants and animals
      b. Folding and trapping in sedimentary rocks
      c. Depth of drilling —extremes 100–5000 ft. —average 2000–4000 ft.
      d. Yield —5 to 10,000 bbls.

Question: What appearance does oil have? Of what does the smell remind you?

Procedure: *Diagram* change of rock structure in oil formation and label

Procedure: Illustrate personal view through a story on mineral rights

3. Drilling procedure
   a. Geologic survey
   b. Leasing
   c. Seismographing
   d. Derrick
   e. Drill
   f. Pipe sinking
   g. Drilling results
   h. Cementing

Procedure: *Diagram* structure on board and talk about *personal experiences* as an oil-field worker

4. Oil rushes
   a. Oklahoma—largest rush
      —caused statehood
      —made Indians rich
   b. Texas
   c. California—Los Angeles started
   d. Illinois—growth of Salem

Question: What feature of oil business is similar to gold mining?

Procedure: Tell of personal experiences in seeing actual changes in Illinois

5. Transporting oil
   a. Fluid—easy to ship
   b. Inflammable—dangerous to ship
   c. To refineries
      —local refineries
      —distant market refineries
   d. To markets
      —Chicago area
      —Eastern cities
   e. How transported
      —Trucks
      —Railroad cars
      —Pipelines—best
      —Ocean tankers

Question: What kind of shipping did German submarines attack on our East Coast during World War II?

FRIDAY, MARCH 5

6. Oil refining
   a. Small local refineries
      —gasoline and kerosene
      —local use and distribution
   b. Large refineries—Eastern U.S. markets
      —produce all petroleum products
   c. Process—heat distillation
      —$\frac{2}{5}$ gasoline
      —$\frac{2}{5}$ gas oil and fuel
      —$\frac{1}{12}$ kerosene

Question: Why don't local refineries produce all side-products of oil?

Question: What part of oil that is refined is used for gasoline?

7. Commerce in petroleum

a. Domestic uses (already discussed)
b. Exporting—U.S. ranks 1st
—China—illumination material
—England—commercial uses
—France—commercial uses

Question: Why do we ship quite an amount of kerosene to China?

c. Importing—from Venezuela
—our oil exports are refined and exceed our supply of crude oil

Question: Why does the U.S. have to import crude oil?

D. Foreign petroleum regions

Procedure: As in all previous possibilities, use wall maps to locate places of discussion

1. Mexico—6th in world
—developed by U.S.
2. Venezuela—3rd
—Lake Maracaibo—good transportation
—shipped to U.S. for refining

Question: How is Venezuelan oil so easily carried to ships?

3. Canada—7th
—new pools in Saskatchewan
4. Russia—2nd
—increasing production
—use all for military purposes

Question: Why does Russia have so much oil for military purposes?

5. Rumania—5th
—entire production to Russia
6. Iran and Iraq—4th
—located in desert areas
—far from ports of shipping

Question: Why is oil producing so difficult in Iran and Iraq?

7. East Indies and Burma

E. Natural gas

Question: What oil fields would be best for gas producing?

1. Location—near big market areas
—Appalachian field
—Mid-continent field
2. Utilization
a. Wastage
—hard to confine
—some states (Illinois) have no laws ordering saving of gas

Question: Why is gas burned in the Illinois oil fields?

b. Good fuel—value equal to U.S. gold and silver
—heating homes and stoves
—manufacturing
—forced into wells to bring up oil

MONDAY, MARCH 8

I. Films on Coal and Petroleum
   A. "Petroleum and Its Uses"
      1. An 11-minute silent film to follow up work on petroleum
      2. Point out during showing, the things that have been discussed
      3. Announce quiz on petroleum for the following day
   B. "The Story of Coal"
      1. A 15-minute film to introduce the section on coal
      2. Traces mining methods and transportation
      3. Introduce unit division on coal

TUESDAY, MARCH 9

II. Petroleum Quiz—20 minutes
(Questions for this quiz will be found on pages 516–517)

III. Coal and Its Importance

A. Uses

Question: How is much of the electricity in U.S. produced?

1. Steam power
   a. Industrial power
   b. Development of electrical power
2. Heat
3. Smelting of minerals
4. Distilled substances

Procedure: Describe distillation and coke making

   a. Coke making
   b. Coal gas
   c. Ammonia and tar

B. Origin and occurrence

Procedure: Show sample of leaf print in a lump of coal

1. How formed
   a. Accumulation of decayed vegetable matter
   b. Exertion of pressure by overlying rock

Procedure: Draw a series of diagrams illustrating formation

2. Seam thickness
   a. Extremes—1" to 50 ft.
   b. Average is 4 to 8 ft.
3. Seam position
   a. Horizontal—flatlands
   b. Angled—folded regions

Question: How do seams lie for coal digging?

4 Stages of coal development
   a. Peat—soft and brown —swamps
   b. Lignite—medium soft and brown
   c. Bituminous—hard and black

Question: What do the different stages of coal look like? Why and where found?

Question: What type of coal is mined in Illinois?

d. Anthracite—very hard and shiny black
—Pennsylvania (N.E.)
—subjected to terrific pressure

Question: What causes the varying types of coal hardness?

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 10

C. Coal-mining types
1. Shaft—especially in Illinois
a. Flatlands and seams
b. Dangers—gas and falls
2. Strip—¼ of all Illinois coal mined this way
a. Dug on surface down to 60-foot maximum
b. Ruins the land
3. Slope—hill lands
a. Follows fault lines on the diagonal
4. Drift—cave tunneling in mountain sides—just follows seams
a. Alleghenies
b. Cheapest type

Procedure: Pupils illustrate main types on board

Procedure: Complete diagrams of all the types. Label fully

Procedure: Have someone describe the Danville strip mines to the class

Question: How is coal mined in difficult mountain areas?

D. U.S. coal mining—world leader
1. Northern Appalachian Field
a. Produces 70% of U.S. coal
b. Has best coal—anthracite and high-grade bituminous
c. Near Eastern markets and excellent transportation
d. Many slate-free seams
2. Eastern Interior Field
a. Easily shipped and mined
b. Close to the Chicago markets
c. Firm structure—safe
d. Smoky coal and low grade bituminous mostly
3. Southern Appalachian Field
a. Thick seams of good coking coal
b. Small amount with tilted seams
c. Close to iron deposits
4. Western Interior—lignite
5. Rocky Mts. Fields—smelting

Question: What country leads the world in coal supplies?

Question: What area of U.S. is the leader in coal in quantity and quality?

Question: What are the disadvantages of the coal in this field?

Question: What is the main advantage of the field?

THURSDAY, MARCH 11

E. Coal mining in Europe
   1. Great Britain
      a. Fields
         (1) Scottish lowlands
         (2) Pennines
         (3) South Wales
      b. Disadvantages
         (1) Small fields
         (2) Seams thin, angled, and at great depth
      c. Advantages
         (1) High-grade bituminous
         (2) Near iron mines
         (3) Near harbors—easily shipped
   2. Germany
      a. Fields
         (1) Westphalia—high-grade
         (2) Eastern lignite beds
      b. Advantages
         (1) Thick seams of rich coal
         (2) Close to iron (France)
      c. Disadvantage—too much is lignite

Question: What recent book and movie depicted English coal-mining conditions? (Locate these fields on the map of England)

Question: How does the English field compare with the American?

Question: What commercial advantage has English coal?

Question: What is the one big area in Germany that has all of the coal production?

Question: What is the big difference between German and English coal?

F. World areas of coal
   1. Minor European—France, Belgium, Russia, Poland, and Czechoslovakia
   2. Minor Asiatic—Japan, China, and India

Question: What are some of the other nations of the world having coal supplies?

G. Significance of coal regions
   1. Limits iron and steel industries
   2. Relationship of coal to world's two great manufacturing areas

Question: What has been the significance of coal's location to world civilization?

FRIDAY, MARCH 12

I. Scrapbook Projects
   A. Discuss personal problems involved
   B. Have each committee head give a report on his group's progress

II. Iron
- A. U.S. location and mining methods
  1. Open Pit—Mesabi Range, Minn.
     a. Has 50% world's ore
     b. High-grade ore at shallow depths

     Procedure: Diagram process of open-pit mining
  2. Tunnels and shafts—Mich. and Minn.
     a. 30% of U.S.
     b. Alabama—10%
  3. Import—N. Africa, Cuba, and Chile
     —Supply less than demand of American industry

     Question: Why does U.S. have to import iron ore?
- B. Transporting iron ore—U.S.
  1. Taken to coal and limestone areas
     a. Iron less bulky than coal to ship
     b. Iron and steel near Eastern markets

     Question: Why not put smelters in Minn. or near other ore fields?
  2. First step by rail to Lake Superior
  3. Go via Lakes and Soo Canal
     a. Disadvantage—Lakes freeze four months—build supplies

     Procedure: Trace boat routes on map of the U.S.
  4. Destinations are the Lake cities and Pittsburgh
     a. Buffalo, Gary, Cleveland, Erie
     b. Iron and steel primary industry of these Lake cities

     Question: What is the end of this iron transportation line?
- C. Manufacture of steel
  1. Smelted in a tall blast furnace
  2. Ingredients in layers
     a. Coke
     b. Iron ore
     c. Limestone
  3. Steel made
     a. Bessemer process
     b. Open hearth

     Procedure: Draw a diagram of blast furnace

—Self-flux in high-grade ore
—No limestone needed
—Close to coal

Question: What is advantage of having iron ore that is self-fluxing?

D. European ore fields
   1. Lorraine, France
      a. German and French industrial desires with resulting major wars
      b. 50% of European ore
      c. High quality and self-fluxing
      d. Near German coal (Westphalia)

Question: Why has Lorraine always been a sore point between France and Germany?

   2. Great Britain
      a. Small well-worked fields (old)
      b. Low percentage of ore content
      c. Many small fields near:
         —coal fields
         —sea and harbors

Question: Why does England have to import so much ore? What are two advantages of England's ore?

   3. Sweden
      a. High quality (60%)—large deposits
      b. Transported to sea by R.R.—across to Narvik port
      c. Most of ore to Germany

Question: Why did Germany take Narvik, Norway, first in their Norwegian invasion?

   4. Spain—to England and Germany
   5. N. Africa—England and U.S.

Question: How was Sweden able to remain neutral in World War II?

E. World distribution
   1. Extensive—Brazil, leading example
   2. Often difficult to reach and ship
   3. Too often far from coal deposits

Question: Why is much of world's ore never mined?

F. Smelting of iron—main world regions
   1. N.E. America
   2. N.W. Europe
   3. Outstanding *quantity* and *quality* of coal and iron ore

Question: Where are the two great manufacturing areas of the world and why?

III. Mineral Chart
   A. Fill out for petroleum, coal, and iron
   B. Use as a method of review—use oral questions to fill the chart (Chart appears on page 517)

TUESDAY, MARCH 16

I. Films on Iron and Tin
   A. "From Iron Ore to Pig Iron"
      1. Traces digging from Mesabi Range through Great Lakes to steel cities, and shows blast furnace process
      2. An 11-minute silent film to follow upon previous work
      3. Serves as a review of the section on iron
   B. "Tin from Malayan Jungles"
      1. Use this film to introduce the section on nonferrous metals. Film on tin used because it is a major mineral not mined in the U.S.
      2. A 15-minute sound film introducing tin
      3. Shows various methods of mining tin and transporting it
   C. Announce a quiz on coal and iron for the following day

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 17

II. Coal and Iron Quiz—30 minutes
   A. Questions for this quiz will be found on page 518
   B. After quiz hold class discussion on the questions
   C. Discuss scrapbook projects. Answer questions. Determine progress

THURSDAY, MARCH 18

I. Discuss quiz with pupils
   A. Go over questions and answers
   B. Clarify answers with which pupils had trouble
II. Mining nonferrous metals and minerals [3]

THURSDAY, MARCH 25

I. Organization of Scrapbook Material (Plan will be found on pages 521–524)
   A. Each group works separately
   B. Compile work and begin organizing books
   C. Give individual and group assistance when help is needed

FRIDAY, MARCH 26

   D. Complete book organization
   E. Bind books and material together
   F. Collect scrapbooks at close of hour

[3] This part of the unit covering the work of four school days is omitted here in order not to lengthen this section of the book unduly.

MONDAY, MARCH 29

II. Review for Unit Examination
  A. Cover the mineral outline (See page 517)
  B. Discuss main points
  C. Answer pupil questions
  D. Discuss nature of test

TUESDAY, MARCH 30

I. Final Examination
  Questions for final examination will be found on pages 519–520.

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 31

II. Return the graded papers
III. Cover questions and answers
IV. Assignment for unit on Illinois Geography

QUIZ QUESTIONS ON PETROLEUM

I. From the four oil fields shown on the map of the U.S., give for each: (Map drawn on the board with each field circled and numbered)
  A. Name of the field
  B. Its rank in production of oil
  C. Name of one principal oil city in that field
    (Use the Illinois field, Mid-continent, Southern California, and Gulf Coast)
    (Total question—36 points, 3 points for each blank)

II. Write a short paragraph explaining why you, as a plant locator, wouldn't build or pick the Norris City, Illinois, large refinery as a suitable spot for building a candle wax plant.
  (This question is used to test pupil ability to reason that petroleum side-products aren't produced so far from Eastern markets and that all other side-products plants would necessarily have to be set up in Norris City to make this one sub-industry profitable.)
  (Total question worth 44 points)

III. Draw a diagram of oil-well drilling and label the surface structure, underground structure, and substances.
  (Total question worth 20 points. Each part evaluated according to list)

Derrick	4 points
Drill	4 points
Cap rock	2 points
Reservoir	2 points
Source rock	2 points
Crude oil	2 points
Salt water	2 points
Natural gas	2 points

Test Objectives:

a. To determine if pupils are getting important factual knowledge, especially about U.S. oil
b. To determine if pupils can reason geographically with facts presented to them
c. To determine whether pupils are getting a visual concept of oil drilling and location

MINERAL CHART PLAN [4]

Directions:

1. Allow four sheets in the notebooks at the start of the unit to be filled as unit progresses
2. At the end of each section, such as *Precious Minerals and Stones*, have pupils fill in the information during class discussions

Example of Part of the Mineral Chart

MINERALS	REGIONS	USES	MISCELLANEOUS
Petroleum	U.S.—1st —Mid-continent —So. Calif. —Gulf Coast —Illinois Russia—2nd Venezuela—3rd Iran-Iraq Rumania	Illumination Lubrication Power source Heat By-products	Shipped R.R. cars pipelines tankers Refineries Drilling diagram Natural gas and use as fuel
Coal	U.S.—1st —N. Appalachian —Eastern Interior —So. Appalachian Great Britain—2nd Germany—3rd	Heat Power—steam —electricity —fuel —smelting Side-products —coke, gas	Four types of coal mining and diagrams Significance of coal Origin and occurrence —four types of coal
Iron	U.S.—1st —Mesabi —Mich. & Minn. —Alabama Lorraine, France Sweden Spain N. Africa	Manufacturing Basis of all industry and civilization Steel making	Iron dependence on coal Great Lakes System Diagram of a blast furnace

[4] The material on nonferrous metals and minerals is omitted.

QUIZ QUESTIONS ON COAL AND IRON

(This copy has answers in parentheses, thus can serve as a scoring key)

I. True and False (Each question counts 5 points)

1. (F) Lignite is the poorest form of coal.
2. (F) Drift mining of coal is the cheapest way to mine coal.
3. (F) Coke is an important side-product of iron ore.
4. (T) Coal distillation produces a useful gas.
5. (F) Sweden's iron ore, which is England's main source of ore, almost caused Germany to attack her in World War II.
6. (T) French iron ore from Lorraine is shipped to German coal fields in Westphalia.
7. (T) Coal from Eastern interior coal fields has two disadvantages—the coal is smoky and of a low grade.
8. (F) Mesabi, Michigan, is the greatest iron-ore field in this country.
9. (T) The Gary steel mills buy a lot of Pennsylvania coal and have it shipped 800 miles from Pennsylvania, even though all the coal needed can be found just 300 miles away in Southern Illinois.
10. (F) The Great Lakes' big disadvantage to ore shipping is that they are frozen five months of the year.

II. Fill in the blanks. (Each question counts 5 points)

1. The Lake cities, i.e., Gary, Buffalo, Cleveland, and Erie, are primarily based on what industry? *(iron and steel)*
2. What is the name of the canal on the Great Lakes that is an important link in the shipment of iron ore? *(Soo)*
3. 4, and 5. If you were in charge of a corporation to locate a blast furnace plant, what two minerals being close and available would determine plant location? 3 and 4 *(limestone and coal)* And what other blast furnace ingredient would not necessarily have to be near? 5 *(iron)*

III. Write two or three sentences on *any two* of the following questions. (Each question counts 17 points)

1. Suppose there are coal fields located in Illinois, Pennsylvania, and Oklahoma. Which of the three fields is best located in this country and why?
2. Birmingham, Alabama, has mineral conditions unlike any other area in the world. What unusual combination makes it so different?
3. Draw small diagrams of a shaft mine and a drift mine and label.

Quiz Objectives

a. To determine pupils' factual knowledge of coal and iron
b. To determine pupils' knowledge of international ramifications of minerals
c. To determine the pupils' further abilities to think geographically
d. To determine pupils' knowledge of mining and smelting processes

FINAL EXAMINATION ON MINERAL UNIT

(This copy has answers in parentheses, thus can serve as a scoring key)

I. True-False—on the false, put correct answer

1. (F) Of every 100 lbs. of sea water, 19 lbs. are salt. (3 *lbs.*)
2. (F) There are no diamonds to be found in U.S. (*Arkansas*)
3. (F) Mineral history has gone through several ages and we are now entering the Metal Age. (*Atomic Age*)
4. (T) Petroleum has helped make possible modern machinery because it is the only source of lubricating material.
5. (T) Seismographing is a method used to locate petroleum.
6. (F) Bituminous coal is a brown coal. (*black*)
7. (F) Deep, small English coal fields have no advantages over the shallow, large American fields. (*closer to seaports than American*)
8. (T) The U.S. has more iron ore than any other country and yet it imports iron ore.

II. Matching—use same answer only once

1. Russian criminals are punished by having to work in (P) mines.
2. A feature of settling new oil lands that is similar to settling gold lands (M)
3. These two types of coal mining are found in the mountains in Pennsylvania (G).
4. What city is called the "Pittsburgh of the South"? (D)
5. What city has oil wells on the capitol grounds? (K)
6. Vermilion and Mesabi are names of what kind of mine fields? (N)
7. Venezuela is noted for (F).
8. Tin is mined by (J) mining.
9. An alloy of copper and tin is (B).
10. The field that produces the best coal in the U.S. is the (A).

Selections

A. N. Appalachian
B. Bronze
C. Coal mines
D. Birmingham, Ala.
E. Tulsa
F. Petroleum
G. Slope and drift
H. Eastern Interior
I. Brass
J. Placer mining
K. Okla. City
L. Galveston
M. Oil rushes
N. Iron mines
O. Shaft and strip
P. Salt mines

III. Fill in the blanks

1. & 2. Salt domes are a good source of two minerals, (*salt*) and (*oil*).
3. Copper and zinc are fused to make brass, which is known as an (*alloy*).
4. What valuable earth material is made by grinding and heating limestone and shale? (*Portland cement*)

5. Of the four main nonferrous metals (lead, zinc, tin, and copper), which one is not found in this country? (*tin*)
6. (*Diamonds*) are the hardest mineral in the world.
7. & 8. (*Pitchblende*) is the name of the mineral from which uranium is extracted, and a (*chain*) reaction of the atoms in the latter causes an explosion.
9. Hanford and Oak Ridge atomic plants send their materials for assembly at (*Los Alamos*), New Mexico.
10. What mineral is common to the countries of Europe, Sweden, France, England, and N. Africa? (*iron ore*)
11. & 12. What are two leading mineral and industrial countries of Europe? (*England*) and (*Germany*)

IV. Map Locations

(Pass out a map of U.S. with the states line on it, but no titles)

Directions: For each question, *locate* the area and write in the *name.*

1. The leading oil field of U.S. (*Mid-continent*)
2. The leading coal field of the U.S. (*N. Appalachian*)
3. Field where oil wells are out in the water (*Gulf Coast or Calif.*)
4. State where copper mining is a principal industry (*Montana*)
5. Location where coal (2nd) and oil (5th) fields coincide (*Illinois*)
6. Small area where lead and zinc are mined together (*Tri-State*)
7. Leading area where iron is mined (*Minnesota*)
8. Area of the U.S. where granite is dug and cut (*New England*)
9. Only place in the world where iron ore, limestone, and coal are found together (*Birmingham, Alabama*)
10. Leading area of salt source (*Salt Lake*)

V. Discussion Questions—write a short paragraph on any two of the three questions below:

1. What has been the significance of coal to the world?
2. If you owned a farm, what importance would knowledge of mineral rights be to you?
3. Why weren't the big blast furnaces and steel centers like Pittsburgh, Gary, and Cleveland built in Minnesota near the iron mines?

—End of Examination—

I. Scoring Scale

A. For parts I, II, III, and IV each answer is worth 2 points (40 answers)
B. For part V, 10 points for each question

II. Test Results

A. Statistics—30 pupils
   1. Test range—from 39 to 89

2. Mode, 72
3. Median, 69
4. Mean, 67
5. Standard deviation, 11.8

B. Actual grade levels for the test
100–84 is A—had 1
83–77 is B—had 5
76–68 is C—had 10
67–59 is D—had 5
58–39 is E—had 9

C. Interpretation by teacher for personal use
1. The test was difficult, as was shown by the mean, median, and mode, but the grades showed a parallel condition to the pupils' established grade levels from previous work.
2. The extreme deviation and large test range shows that there is great variance in ability in the class.
3. The pupils did the poorest on the map location questions, but the other results showed they had pretty well mastered the other objectives of the unit. I should therefore do a better job of getting pupils to realize and visualize size and world locations.

SCRAPBOOK PLAN

I. Objectives
A. To increase pupil self-activity in doing separate project
B. To increase interest and enjoyment of mineral unit by making information and mineral facts more tangible to pupils; that is, each individual gets a personal picture of one mineral to an intense degree, which should improve his interest and understanding of other minerals. Development of group interest through group action
C. To create a change of pace during the unit from regular classwork
D. Length covers the entire time that the unit is studied
E. To develop geographical thinking through map and graph compilation. Lead to a better understanding of mineral locations on the earth and the relation of minerals and geopolitics
F. To develop ability to outline and organize material
G. To afford different levels of problems for different levels of individual ability and intelligence

II. Directions and Procedure
A. First day
1. Pick five class members to lead the five groups of seven members apiece
a. Three group leaders are good pupils, but two are problem cases
b. By rotation in selection, five leaders pick the six members who are to be in their group; that is, choose sides to get a competitive element as well as groups that are similar in likes and desires
2. Groups work separately in the room on selected scrapbook topics. (Topic sheets shown on following pages)
a. Each group picks a secretary to coordinate the work, keep all records

of who is doing what, and the selection and purchase of the group's book (The expense of each book is divided equally among the group.)
b. Each pupil assigned to copy and keep list of biographical references for his own project
c. General list of library materials on the board applicable to any of the topics
d. Pupils who have special map problems may use blank maps provided for this purpose
e. Project material due in four weeks, at the end of the unit. Two days allowed for putting project material together and assembling scrapbooks

3. Grading plan
a. Late work to lose proportionate credit
b. Material to be graded on following basis:
(1) Appearance—neatness, color, and attractiveness
(2) Subject matter—correctness and development
(3) Amount of extra work beyond required project
(4) General appearance
c. Grading scale—poor, average, or good
d. Scrapbook grade to count $\frac{1}{3}$ of total grade for the entire unit on minerals
e. Two best books to be put on display in main display cases

B. Class separates into groups once a week
1. Every Friday groups spend part of period talking among themselves about their projects
2. Teacher aids individuals and groups with problems
3. Each group secretary turns in a list of each individual's progress, so teacher can keep a check on who is behind schedule with his work

C. Final two days for completing projects and books
1. Teacher helps pupils organize their material
2. Assembling and gluing completed and books turned in to teacher

III. Topics and References for Petroleum Scrapbooks
A. Chairman—Ralph Jameson
B. Topics
1. Chart the percentage of oil that each country in the world produces
2. A dot map of oil (barrels) production in the U.S.
3. A chart on the changing amount of production of oil in all countries for the past 30 years
4. A color diagram of a cutaway oil well and strata—the drilling methods included
5. A page of pictures and drawings showing the various methods of transporting oil, includes an article of explanation
6. Map of the world with the location of the oil fields and their size
7. Cutouts, pictures, and drawings illustrating the uses of oil and natural gas

C. References
1. *Earth Oil*, by Egloff, 1933 (553 Eg5e)
2. "Black Gold" in *Men without Fear*, by Flaherty, 1940 (614.8 F65)
3. "Striking Oil" in *Machines and the Men Who Made the World of Industry*, by Hartman, 1939

IV. Topics and References for Coal Scrapbooks
  A. Chairman—Audrey Simmonds
  B. Topics
    1. Map of coal locations in the U.S.—the fields and kinds of coal
    2. Map of iron locations in U.S. in color with the percentages of each
    3. Detailed diagrams of the four types of mining
    4. Write a paper on the four types of coal with pictures and drawings
    5. Percentages of coke and coal distribution in the world
    6. Map of the major coal fields of Europe
    7. Pictures and drawings illustrating the many uses of coal
  C. References
    1. *Buried Sunshine*, by Philadelphia and Reading Coal and Iron Co. (P 553.2)
    2. "Modern Magic" in *Our Mineral Civilization*, by T. T. Read, 1932 (P 553 R22)
    3. "Coal" in *Materials of Industry*, by Mersereau, 1936 (600 M55m)

V. Topics and References for Iron Scrapbooks
  A. Chairman—Dwain McCurdy
  B. Topics
    1. Cutouts and drawings with accompanying descriptions illustrating the uses of iron
    2. Map of iron locations in U.S. in color with the percentages of each
    3. Map of lines of transportation of iron ore on the Great Lakes system
    4. Two written pages on iron, including properties, occurrence, source, usefulness, and value to the world
    5. Map of the iron-ore deposits in the world
    6. Map of the market area for iron of the Birmingham area, and a cross section of the strata of that area and location of the three minerals
    7. Answers to the exercises in textbook on page 323
  C. References
    1. "Iron and Steel" in *Materials of Industry*, by Mersereau, 1936 (600 M55m)
    2. "Iron" in *Pan-American Union*, 1939 (P553)
    3. "Skeleton of Modern Industry" in *Our Mineral Civilization*, T. T. Read, 1932 (P553 R22)

VI. Topics and References for Precious Metals and Stones Scrapbooks
  A. Chairman—Jean Tempatti
  B. Topics
    1. Written page on gems, with definitions
    2. Map of world locations of diamonds, platinum, silver, and gold
    3. Chart of percentage output of countries of the four stones and metals
    4. Article on use of the four metals and stones (2 pages), including pictures
    5. Two written pages on how gold is mined, with drawings showing the four ways
    6. U.S. dot map of gold and silver production
    7. Colors and appearances of all precious stones
  C. References
    1. "Gold! Gold! Gold!" in *Great Heritage*, by Shippen, 1947 (333 sh6)
    2. "Platinum" in *World's Book*, by Lonelle, 1937 (P553.4)

D. General Outline of Reference Material for Entire Class
   1. "Mineral and Mineral Fuels" in *This Is Our Land*, by Cheyney and Schwartz, 1940 (333 C42)
   2. "Statistical Summary of Mineral Production," by Clark and Meyer, 1942 (P338.2)
   3. *All about Mining*, by Whitcome, 1937 (622 W77)
   4. "Minerals," in *Our Use of the Land*, by Ayers, 1939 (333 B77)
   5. Atlases:
      Commercial and Library Atlas of the World, by Geographical Publishers, 1944
      Cosmopolitan World Atlas, by Rand McNally, 1949
   6. *Encyclopedias Britannica and Americana*

VISUAL AIDS USED IN THE UNIT

I. Visual Aids and Purposes:
   A. Diagrams:
      1. Diagrams written on the board to illustrate types of mining, origins, and occurrences of minerals
      2. Purposes of diagrams—to let pupils envision many of the above-mentioned uses, not shown in the text; also to better explain growths or developments in mining types or in stages of mineral origin
   B. Movies:
      1. Purposes—to serve as a preview or a review for pupils so that they gain an over-all picture of a mineral from origin to production
      2. Examples:
         a. "Petroleum and Its Uses," review
         b. "The Story of Coal," preview
         c. "From Iron Ore to Pig Iron," review
         d. "Tin from the Malayan Jungles," preview
   C. Pictures:
      1. Cover bulletin board with color pictures and photographs of the various minerals and related phases, such as series photographs of the atomic explosions
      2. Purpose—to supplement movies and diagrams in furthering mental images
   D. Actual samples:
      1. Purpose—to develop realistic concepts of the physical properties that are hard to understand and imagine
      2. Examples:
         a. Lump of coal with a fossil imprint
         b. Bottle of crude oil for color, texture, and smell
   E. Maps:
      1. Wall maps of parts of the world necessary to the unit
      2. Purpose—to further the pupils' concepts of the location of minerals, and of geography in general
   F. Scrapbooks:
      1. Maps, charts, diagrams, and pictures of a pertinent type
      2. Purpose—to serve as a means to an end; i.e., to get more detailed personal examination of visual elements that lead to improved understandings

GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM
JACKSONVILLE HIGH SCHOOL

Freshman English

I. Orientation
  A. Getting acquainted
    1. With classmates and teacher
      a. Oral work—including such projects as informal introduction of self, introductions of groups, introductions of friends to mother and father, conversational etiquette, etc.
      b. Written work—including an autobiographical theme on "Meet the Family," a dialogue, etc.
      c. Drill work upon such simple-sentence and common-usage problems as the oral and written compositions necessitate
      d. Reading of short stories and animal stories to create incentive to read; the Instruction Sheet for an understanding of the English evaluating system and the requirements for manuscript form
      e. Listening to teacher's introduction and instructions; to a wire-recording of a conversation
    2. With our school, including the history, customs, activities, clubs, etc.
      a. Oral work—reports of interviews with upperclassmen; question period
      b. Written work—"Why I Expect to Like the _____ Club"
      c. Continued drill on common-usage errors
      d. Reading of the "Student Handbook" (published by the Student Council)
      e. Listening to reports from clubs' members
    3. With our study aids, including library, dictionary, textbooks
      a. A reading test
      b. Formal meetings in the school library
      c. Follow-up application of formal library instruction
      d. Extensive exercises in the use of the dictionary
  B. Understanding ourselves
    1. Our language skills, taking inventory and setting goals
      a. Conferences with students on reading tests; oral readings
      b. Writing—test on usage; examination of themes for common errors; dictation
      c. Both group and class discussions of radio, movies, and books
    2. Our study habits, taking inventory and setting goals
      a. Informal discussions of different methods of studying
      b. Practice in making topical outlines as a study aid
      c. Observing the movies: "How to Read a Book" and "How to Study"
      d. Making a study plan
    3. Our personalities, emphasizing *building* personality
      a. Reading and discussion of textbook selections upon the general topic
      b. Class, group, and panel discussions based upon the reading of many library books on the subject
      c. Discovering what qualities and rules are important

d. Movies: "Are You Popular?"; "Story of Dr. Carver"; "How Do You Do"
e. Writing friendly letters
f. Discussions upon such subjects as "Accepting Ourselves," "Overcoming Handicaps," "Making the Most of Our Abilities"
g. A theme on "My Biggest Problem"

C. Living together
1. As teen-agers
a. Exploring the teen-age social world through movies, columns in newspapers, magazines on teen-age problems, radio
b. Discussing and dramatizing telephone manners and appropriate telephone conversations
2. In the family
a. Extensive reading from list of books dealing with family life
b. Panel discussions based upon group reading of such books as *The Yearling, So Dear to My Heart, Family Circle,* etc.
c. Socio-drama on family living
d. Writing a list of "do's" and "don'ts" parents should observe in the treatment of their children
e. Movies: "Family Life," "You and Your Family"
3. At play
a. Studying home and community for increased opportunities for individual and group recreation
b. Keeping a diary of leisure activities for one week
c. Demonstration talks on hobbies
4. At work
a. Reading about vocations, especially stressing how to choose a vocation
b. Movies: "Find Your Life Work," "I Want a Job"
c. Writing of business letters
d. Learning techniques of the interview

D. Knowing all kinds of people
1. In America
a. Getting acquainted with varied patterns of living
b. Observing the movies "Home Town U.S.A.," "New York," "Dead End Kids," "Americans All," "The House I Live In"
c. Interview relatives regarding nationality of ancestors
d. Writing reports of the interview; writing a theme entitled "An American" and one on "Why I Prefer to Live in the Country" or the opposite
e. Oral report of the interview
f. Searching for information about ancestry of famous Americans in biography and *Current Biography*
2. In the world
a. Investigating the different modes of living
b. Observing the movie: "We Are All Brothers"
c. Oral reports on the country chosen by the student for special study
d. Individual reading on a foreign country
e. Writing a theme entitled "The Country I Would Like Most to Visit"

Sophomore English

I. Broadening Our Horizons
  A. The newspaper in today's world
    1. Studying the construction of the newspaper
    2. Reading the newspaper with discrimination
    3. Comparing different kinds of newspapers, including foreign ones when possible
    4. Writing news articles and editorials
    5. Drill on common-usage problems
  B. Oral communication in the modern world
    1. Saying what we mean with our bodies
      a. Does my manner create good will?
      b. Is my eye contact direct?
    2. Conveying my thinking and my feeling to others
      a. By conversation and introductions
      b. By anecdote, joke, incident, or experience
      c. By telephone conversations
      d. By giving directions, explanations, and descriptions
      e. By class, group, or panel discussions
      f. By informative talks
      g. By demonstrations
      h. By characterizations
      i. By reading aloud either prose or poetry
      j. By radio
  C. World of humor
    1. Humor on the radio
    2. Comic strips and cartoons
    3. Humor in literature
      a. Poetry
      b. Essays
      c. Fiction
    4. Discussion on different types of humor
    5. Discussion upon proper behavior at, and reaction to, programs for school assemblies, and for public performances
    6. Telling and writing about humorous incidents around school
    7. Writing a theme upon "My Favorite Comedian"
    8. Writing a letter to a sick friend to cheer him up
    9. Drill on common usage
    10. Practice with complex sentences
  D. World of science
    1. Discussion upon such topics as
      a. Scientists' consciousness about truth
      b. The patience of scientists
      c. The scientific approach
      d. Scientists as problem solvers
      e. Difficulties that scientists face
      f. Qualities that a scientist must possess
    2. Talks on "The Scientist of the Year"

3. Listing and discussing superstitions
4. Writing business letters of inquiry to various companies or laboratories
5. Observing a laboratory by visiting one
6. Listening to a talk or to talks by a scientist or a teacher of science on modern implications of what it takes to be a scientist
7. Listening to recorded broadcasts concerning science or scientists
8. Observing films and filmstrips such as "Hermits of the Sky," "Luther Burbank," "On to Jupiter"
9. Reading biographies of scientists
10. Reading pamphlets, booklets, and magazines on present-day science problems
11. Investigating the progress of science
    a. Student's selection of his area of interest for concentration
    b. Student's themes, oral or written, centered around that area
    c. Demonstration–talks
12. Panel discussions on such topics as
    a. Science as a means of avoidance and control of war
    b. Intelligence about diseases
    c. Conservation of natural resources
    d. Coordination of chemistry and industry

E. World of human achievement
1. Panel discussions upon such subjects or questions as
    a. What ___ ___ _____ has contributed to mankind
    b. Are we enjoying the benefits given us by this person?
    c. Why is ___ ___ ___ ___ an inspiration to us?
2. Developing a standard for "greatness"
3. Vocabulary–differences between the famous, great, and notorious
4. Nomination of candidates for "Hall of Fame" on a world basis, and on the local high school basis
5. Writing letters to distinguished people for information of some nature
6. Writing a biography of a classmate or of some outstanding person in the community
7. Focusing the follow-up discussion of the biographies upon prejudice or bias of authors
8. Listening to a talk on some celebrated person whom the speaker knows
9. Class, group, and panel discussions on "My Home and Nation in a World Community," including such topics as
    a. Racial backgrounds of the people of the community
    b. All races of mankind have helped to develop our civilization
    c. Our responsibility as citizens toward displaced persons and others from foreign soil
    d. How can we as sophomores show tolerance?
    e. How can we use the radio for understanding our own and other peoples' problems?
10. Presenting a dramatic production of some of the "brotherhood" plays
11. Listening to foreign students from the local colleges who are willing to talk to the classes about their own lands and people, and particularly about their own problems
12. Writing friendly letters to foreign students

13. Emphasizing careful use and choice of vocabulary in the letters
14. Group reports on music, dances, flags, foods, marriage customs, religions, and arts of other peoples
15. Discussion of stereotypes in radio, movies, comics, and magazines
16. Using films, recordings, transcriptions, and all other mass media of communication available to further knowledge of and interest in peoples of the world
17. Consideration of world peace by "uniting for peace"
    a. Writing letters to United Nations officials for free materials on the UN or for definite information containing certain phases of the plans of the UN
    b. Panel discussions concerning UN problems of health, education, world government, peace treaties, etc.

Junior English

I. The American Scene
   A. A letter of self-introduction including the following material:
      1. What have you most enjoyed, found most valuable, and found most difficult from past English courses?
      2. What do you consider to be your greatest need in English work?
      3. Travel experiences that might be useful in your understanding of American life
      4. Have you lived in any other locality than Jacksonville? Where?
      5. Any special interests that you have, hobbies that you pursue, or talents that you possess
      6. Outside employment or special duties that take much of your time
      7. Health defects that might interfere with your best work
   B. Understanding the people and the conditions in the following regions:
      1. The Cornerstone Country (New England, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware)
      2. Low Country and Up Country
         a. Seacoast States (Virginia, N. Carolina, S. Carolina)
         b. The Highlands (W. Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee)
      3. The Deep South (Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana)
      4. The Region North of the Ohio (Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan)
      5. The Pacific West (California, Oregon, Washington)
      6. The Land of Lakes and Prairies (Wisconsin, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota)
      7. The Cornlands, Plains, and Mountains (Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, Wyoming, Montana, Idaho, Colorado, Utah, Nevada)
      8. The Colorful Southwest (Texas, Arkansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, Arizona)
   C. Reading literature about the different regions or works by natives of those regions
   D. Special investigation by each pupil of the region most interesting to him
   E. Group and panel discussions on the different regions
   F. Writing the following types:
      1. Travelogue letters

2. Friendly letters to young people in different regions
3. Reports or short essays on comparisons of people in the different regions

G. Listening to regional music
H. Observing regional films
I. Comparing newspapers from different regions

II. Personal Freedom
A. Equality of opportunity
B. Promotion of education
C. Freedom to speak and to worship
D. Willingness to sacrifice for preservation of the American way
E. Class reading and discussing selections relating to the above topics
F. Vocabulary building related to the reading materials
G. Reading and dramatizing a play or plays on understanding democracy
H. Finding newspaper or magazine items which pertain to the ideals of personal freedom or their violation
I. Writing a paper to show how democratic ideals may work in the student's own life

III. Importance of the Individual
A. Awareness of failures in dealing with one another
B. Recognition of need for understanding and insight
C. Appreciation of simple relations of everyday life
D. Reading selections, poetry, and biography of the type that can aid the student to better understand himself and others
E. Group dramatization of human relationships presented to the class
F. Writing of social letters, including
1. Letter of sympathy
2. Letter of apology and excuse
3. Letter of appreciation
4. Letter of congratulation
G. Use of choral reading and the wire recorder for appreciation of poetry
H Drill in sentence variety

IV. Pride in Work Well Done
A. Reading of books with a vocational trend
B. Consideration and discussion of such questions as
1. Is good workmanship a reward in itself?
2. Do Americans place too much weight on material progress?
3. Write a theme upon the topic, "How to Make Adventure Out of Drudgery"

V. "Pursuit of Happiness"
A. Appreciation and enjoyment of nature
B. Sense of humor
C. Appreciation of the arts
D. Enjoyment of people
E. Recall of memories

VI. America's Growth and Her Place in the World Scene
A. Modes of travel
B. Communication
C. Science

VII. Her Spiritual Growth
- A. Individual
- B. Social

Senior English

I. A Senior's Design for Living
- A. His thinking problems (including speaking, listening, reading, and writing processes)
  1. Recognition of fact, opinion, and propaganda
  2. Library instruction upon source materials and workshops in the libraries
  3. Instructions on bibliographies and note taking
  4. Panel discussions on controversial issues such as
     a. The American Press Is a Free One
     b. Book Clubs Are Detrimental to the Best Reading Interests
     c. Movies (or Comic Books) Are Harmful
  5. Writing editorials and letters to editors of periodicals
  6. Review of basic elements of sentences; basic rules of punctuation, spelling, and capitalization as a constructive follow-up of theme and speech errors
  7. Study of sentence variation for improvement of style
  8. Letters written to and from foreign students
  9. Class, panel, and individual discussions of plays written for propaganda purposes
  10. Reading of lyrics or poetry written for reform purposes
  11. Individual formal reviews of "purpose" novels
  12. Original orations written and read to the class
- B. His philosophical problems (including speaking, listening, reading, and writing processes; self-evaluation and evaluation of many life problems)
  1. General understanding of philosophy, religion, ethics, and aesthetics
  2. Word study, including the intangibles used in philosophical discussions
  3. Class discussion and evaluation of materialistic, moral, and spiritual attitudes and behavior
  4. Study of the methods used in paragraph development
  5. Writing of different types of paragraphs
  6. Perusing or tasting recent or popular books dealing with the philosophy of living
  7. Reading and discussing philosophical articles in magazines
  8. Class, round-table, and panel discussions upon such philosophical topics as
     a. Justice Is More Important Than Mercy
     b. Leaders Become Demoralized by Their Own Powers
     c. Money Can Buy Happiness
  9. Class reading and discussion of appropriate works of literature presenting philosophical issues, religions, and philosophies of different nations
  10. Free reading of such
  11. Self-evaluation
  12. Writing a "Credo"
- C. Quality magazine evaluation
- D. Writing formal notes to help the seniors write responses to invitations to formal occasions
- E. Writing letters of application

Electives

I. Speech for the juniors and seniors
II. Creative writing for the seniors, including review of simple writing techniques and grammar; study of style in composition work; reading of outstanding types of literature as a basis for the discussion of style; much writing, both free and disciplined.

Remedial Reading

Wherever it is possible, the pupil needing remedial reading receives individual help in addition to his work in a regular English class.
Pupils needing speech correction receive individual help.

RESOURCE UNIT: Ninth Grade English—Building Personality
(Part III of Unit II, Understanding Ourselves)

Objectives

1. To help the pupil toward a greater understanding of himself
2. To encourage the pupil toward *building* a personality
3. To assist him in understanding and attacking some of his own personality problems
4. To further his growth toward maturity by helping him to recognize his weaknesses and strengths and by encouraging him to make the most of his abilities

Suggestions for Self-Evaluation

Use self-rating personality tests, such as:
"Check List of Fifty Physical Characteristics That Hurt Your Personality," and "Check List of Fifty Habits and Attitudes That Hurt Your Personality," both from *How to Improve Your Personality* by Roy Newton
"How Popular Should I Be?" from *Getting Along with Others* by Helen Shacter
Use any good standardized personality test

Reading

Core-reading material in *Adventures in Reading*, Third Edition, by Ross and Thompson, Harcourt, Brace, 1947
"Building a Personality," Fosdick
"The Buffalo Dance," Meigs
"Visibility Unlimited," Lay
"The Last March," Scott
"The Valiant," Hall and Middlemass
"Gunga Din," Kipling
"Dunkirk," Nathan
"Invictus," Henley
"Song of the South," Holt

From *Conquest, Book Three*, Norvell and Hovious, Heath, 1947
"A Spark Neglected," Tolstoy
"The Fighting Soul," Heyliger
"What Is Good?" O'Reilly
"Code of the Cow Country," Barker
"The Miller, His Son, and His Donkey," Aesop
"The Night of the Storm," Gale
From *Pleasure in Literature*, Nieman and Salt, Harcourt, Brace, 1949
"The Outsider," Hanlon
"No Two Are Alike," Sears
"Learning to Speak," Keller
"Springs of Hope," Hatch
"A Voice in a Hundred," Burchett
Individual reading from extensive bibliography below
From *Adventures in Reading*, Fourth Edition, by Ross, Thompson and Lodge, Harcourt, Brace, 1952
"Judge," Edmonds
"The Interlopers," Saki (H. H. Munro)
"The Necklace," De Maupassant
"The Thousand Dollar Bill," Komroff
At end of unit, *Great Expectations*, Dickens (Abridged Edition)

Writing

Writing friendly letters, stressing ways in which letters reveal personality and some of the fine points of good manners and good taste
Making a list of "do's and don'ts" for being well liked
Theme topics:
1. My Biggest Problem
2. The Person I Would Like to Be
3. What I Consider a Good Personality
4. The Most Attractive Person I Know
5. The Qualities I Like in a Friend
6. My Most Annoying Habit

Making a list of characteristics to be desired in a friend
Writing thank-you notes, bread-and-butter notes, and others dictated by courtesy and good taste
Making charts of traits of many acquaintances, comparing traits and noting those occurring most often
Grammar and usage drills as they are shown to be needed in speaking and writing
Word study with each reading selection

Observing

Movies:
Are You Popular?
You and Your Friends
How Do You Do
Story of Dr. Carver
Shy Guy
Act Your Age

Filmstrips: The Etiquette Series (McGraw-Hill)
As Others See You
Home Ground
School Spirit
Table Talk
Stepping Out
Perfect Party
Away from Home
Developing Social Maturity
Public Appearance

Bulletin Board
Students bring in materials clipped from current newspapers and magazines on good grooming, good manners, and the like.

Listening

Stressing courteous listening to one another in group discussions
Listening to a wire-recording of a panel discussion for the purpose of self-evaluation and criticism of speech

Speaking

Class discussions based on core-reading materials
Panel discussions based on individual reading from extensive bibliography

Topics for discussion:
1. The meaning of personality
2. Why we behave as we do
3. Our basic needs
4. How to deal with certain problems, such as fears, shyness, bad temper, etc.
5. What makes people like us, or dislike us?
6. How to be more attractive
7. Good manners for all occasions
8. How to overcome handicaps

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B. OBTAINING A TEACHING POSITION

The purpose back of the student teacher's training, of course, is to prepare him for a teaching position. For this reason he should familiarize himself with factors that may play a part in his obtaining a position when he graduates. First of all he should realize that there must be a vacancy before a position is available for him. In times of economic depression there is frequently a surplus of teachers in some teaching fields. This surplus is naturally greater in some fields than in others. A study of the teaching market can well be a worth-while practice for any individual who is planning to enter the profession. This study can be particularly valuable during the early years of training when the student can make changes in the selection of curricula. There are times, for instance, when even well-prepared teachers fail to obtain employment simply because they may have specialized in fields that are especially narrow or unusual. Under such conditions they may not be qualified to assume additional responsibilities such as, for example, those needed in directing extracurricular activities.

There are also occasions when individuals who are careless about their personal appearance or give evidence of a weak personality may find it difficult to obtain a po-

sition. On the other hand, limited physical defects will often be overlooked by employers if the teacher shows strength of character and ability to teach.

Unfortunately, there is still racial and religious discrimination in some communities. If this affects the candidate adversely, there is little that he can do about it except to look elsewhere for a position.

Sources of contact for position. Most teacher training institutions have placement bureaus whose purpose it is to assist their graduates in finding positions. This service is usually offered to the student without cost except for possibly a small registration fee. These bureaus make most of their placements within a limited radius of the college community where they exist but they also receive calls from many parts of the country.

Commercial agencies are also active in helping teachers find employment. Naturally, they charge for this service. In most cases this fee is about five or six per cent of the teacher's first year salary. Such agencies frequently have branch offices located in various parts of the country. If the prospective teacher is interested in locating in a particular state or region, he can make this known to an agency which will probably make an attempt to locate vacancies in that area. This, of course, presumes that he is able to meet the certification requirements in that location.

The teacher may seek employment by making direct contacts with superintendents of schools in communities where there are known vacancies. He may receive such information from friends or relatives who are familiar with the school situation. Some teachers send out blanket applications to many schools, trusting that there may be a vacancy in one of them. The ethics of this practice are questioned by many school people. Furthermore, it is doubtful if the results obtained by this practice are usually very favorable to the applicant. Full cooperation with any agency designed for placing teachers is necessary if the applicant is to receive the full benefits which their efforts and experience are able to provide.

Available credentials and recommendations. The prospective teacher should have his credentials and recommendations available for examination by the superintendent where he is making application for a position. Usually copies of these are on file with each placement office where he is registered and do not pass through the applicant's hands as they are sent out. Such credentials should be complete and indicate all possible qualifications for teaching or directing school activities which the candidate possesses. Subject matter and activity combinations play a very important role in the selection of a candidate for a teaching position. Experiences which may appear minor to the applicant when he registers with a placement agency, can well be the basis for his selection by an employer. It is important that the candidate neither underrate nor overrate his abilities.

The recommendations which are on file for the applicant should be from individuals who have been in a position to know the candidate personally and have been able to observe him in learning situations. It is important that these individuals be able to answer accurately, and, it is hoped, favorably, questions similar to those appearing on the Illinois directors' recommendation list of teacher training which appeared in Chapter Three. A few pointed recommendations are usually more effective than a larger number that describe the candidate or his work in general terms.

Analysis of qualifications for the position. The teacher has the greatest chance of succeeding when he is filling a position for which he is well suited. For this reason it is important that a teaching candidate analyze a position carefully before he accepts it. He should make certain that he is qualified for the work which he is expected to

do. If there is any doubt in his mind about this he should discuss the matter frankly with the superintendent or principal so that there will be no misunderstandings later. There may be times when he does not have the needed subject combination. This does not always lead to rejection, for administrators are frequently able to reassign loads among staff members so that it is possible for them to accept a candidate for a position even though at first he may not have been entirely qualified by his subject combination.

Evaluation of the vacancy. When a teacher is informed of a vacancy he will want to be sure that it is the type of position that he wants before he plans to accept it. It may be well for him to seek out information on such matters as the following:

1. Reasons for the vacancy
2. Recognized rating of the school
3. Advantages and disadvantages of the location
4. Annual salary and salary schedule in relation to living costs
5. Opportunities for advancement
6. Housing and rooming facilities
7. Nature and amount of teacher load
8. Community mores and customs

The teacher should plan to visit the school and the community before he accepts a position. He should weigh his own qualities in the light of what the school and community have to offer. A position to which he can make satisfactory personal adjustments may be more desirable than one whose major attraction is a high salary schedule.

Selling self to the school officials. The prospective teacher must remember that much of what happens between the time he hears of a vacancy and his possible appointment to the position depends upon himself. Honesty, tact, and good judgment are invaluable in this interim.

A letter of application is a common means for indicating a desire to teach in a particular community or school. The impression that this letter makes upon the school officials determines to a great extent whether the applicant is to be given consideration. A few suggestions for writing such a letter may be helpful to the student:

1. Address the letter to the individual who is responsible for presenting the teachers' names to the board of education.
2. Use plain business stationery, enclosing a self-addressed and stamped envelope for reply.
3. Write neatly, use good English, and give special attention to content and form.
4. Include personal data in concise form, especially when a placement agency has already provided pertinent information concerning yourself.
5. Avoid use of open letters of recommendation.
6. Give your letter a tone of sincerity and interest.

Some school officials refuse to consider an applicant for a position without a personal interview. Such a meeting is usually mutually advantageous. When it occurs, each individual is in a position to find out something about the other. Such an interview also presents the possibility that the teacher may make such a favorable impression upon the superintendent or school official that he will be employed imme-

diately. Whether he obtains the position or not, the applicant will at least have had the opportunity of presenting himself in person and not just by letter.

The success of an interview often depends upon how well the applicant observes such general principles as the following:

1. The applicant should permit the employing official to set the time and place for the meeting.
2. The applicant should expect to pay the travel costs to the place of meeting, unless other arrangements have been made. It is possible, of course, that the employing official will offer to have the board defray some or all of these costs.
3. The applicant should appear in neat, attractive attire. Overdressing is not in good taste.
4. The applicant should let the administrator lead the conversation. But it is not inappropriate to ask this official for information about the school and the position at opportune times during the interview. Intelligent and appropriate questions may even aid the applicant in making a favorable impression.
5. The replies which the applicant gives to questions should be honest, frank, and sincere. It is seldom desirable to take a strong opinionated stand on matters involving policy.
6. Personal information should be supplied modestly and yet without apology. If the applicant believes that he has the ability to fill the position and wishes to have it, he should make this clear to the employing official in a tactful yet definite manner.
7. The applicant should not talk himself out of a job by "playing up" his abilities or his connections.
8. He should sense when the interview has been concluded and leave in a gracious yet unaffected manner.
9. He should remember that he is being judged both by what he says and by what he does.

Employing officials do not agree on the qualities that they desire in a teacher. It is very possible for an applicant to make a favorable impression in one instance and not in another. A certain degree of compatibility is necessary between two individuals before they can work well together. If this condition does not exist, it is probably well for both that they seek other connections.

The teacher who is offered and accepts a position is responsible for giving information of this fact to other school officials who were considering him. He is only being courteous and businesslike when he does this.

The beginning teacher will have few greater thrills in his lifetime than when he receives word that he has been accepted for his first position. This experience can help him forget some of the heartaches and disappointments that went with the years during which he was preparing for his professional career. Now he is in a position to feel that the way is open for him to become an active member of that profession.

Certification as a teacher. Most states require certification before the teacher can begin his work on a regular assignment. This certification indicates that he has met specified standards of preparation in subject matter fields and in professional education. Some states also require that the candidate pass a physical examination before he is permitted to teach.

To obtain a certificate, the student must usually make application through such channels as his state department of public instruction or the office of county superintendent where he lives or where he expects to teach. In some areas the certificate must be obtained and registered before the teacher is eligible to receive pay from school distributive funds. The first certificate that the teacher receives may be of a limited nature. Additional training and experience are usually required to keep it effective over a period of years. It may be well for the beginning teacher to study his certificate carefully when he receives it so that he will be familiar with its various provisions.

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