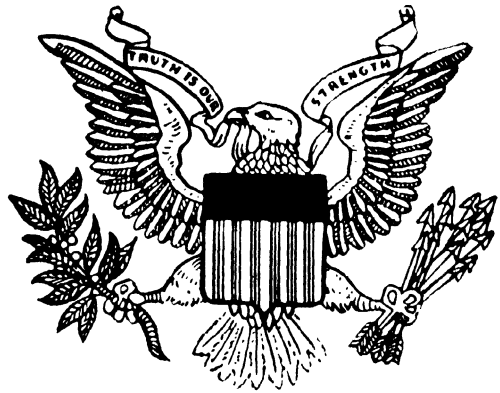
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THE TEACHER IN THE *Modern Elementary School*

By

ROBERT HILL LANE

Formerly Assistant Superintendent of City Schools
Los Angeles, California



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Foreword

In *The Progressive Elementary School*[1] the writer made an attempt to outline a tenable and acceptable philosophy of education and to indicate in very general terms how that philosophy could be applied. That book dealt, in short, with the *theory* of the modern elementary school. The purpose of this book is to present good *practice* from the standpoint of the classroom teacher in the elementary school. It is hoped that a third book may present progressive school practices from the standpoint of the principal.

It will be observed that the present book begins with "A Charter for the Elementary School" which embodies, in brief form, the goals toward which modern elementary education is moving. Following this is a brief account of some selected phases of the current American scene in which the schools operate. Three successive chapters present selected trends in the present-day school: the concept of interaction between home and community, the concept of social maturity as a basis for school organization, and the concept of a philosophy of education as a way of life rather than as educational theory.

The major portion of the book is devoted to the day's work

[1] Robert Hill Lane, *The Progressive Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938).

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THE TEACHER IN THE MODERN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

INTRODUCTION



A Charter for the Elementary School

PREAMBLE

THERE IS OVERWHELMING evidence to show that the great majority of Americans are seriously concerned over our elementary schools. These are not the militant taxpayers who wish to reduce all school expenditures, regardless of the effect on the schools. These are not "traditionalists" who wish to see the elementary school return to the pattern of 1870. These are not the lazy, indifferent, and selfish teachers to whom all change is anathema. These are millions of kindly, thoughtful, sympathetic, and intelligent men and women, both in the teaching profession and outside the profession, who gladly recognize the many desirable achievements of the modern elementary school, but at the same time question certain educational methods and practices which seem to them to be fundamentally unsound and which result in making the elementary school graduate improperly prepared to meet life effectively on his age-level. There is, therefore, great and urgent need for an immediate clarification of the philosophy of elementary education in the United States today.

ARTICLE ONE

An Acceptable Philosophy of Education

1. *The major purpose of elementary education is to ensure successful growth of children.*

Rapid growth is characteristic of the elementary school child. From a minute speck at the moment of conception he has, at his fifth year, attained a height somewhere between 36 and 49 inches and a weight somewhere between 30 and 47 pounds.

He skips and dances and can use his body skillfully. He climbs trees and turns somersaults. He can throw a ball well.

He can draw pictures putting in many details correctly.

He likes to cut and paste and weave. He plays many imaginative games and likes to pretend and dress up. He also tries to do all the things that he sees being done around him — hammering, cutting, painting, washing, ironing, sweeping, cooking, sewing. He can learn to do many of these things well if he has tools or utensils suited to his size. He will work well with other children building forts or castles or boats. He likes to try out new toys.

He likes to hear longer stories and can repeat stories well that he has heard or has made up. He wants to learn to read and write.

He dresses and undresses himself without help, even lacing his shoes, though he may not be able to tie the shoestrings yet.[1]

2. *All kinds of growth are equally important.*

The child grows *physically.*
The child grows *intellectually.*
The child grows *socially.*
The child grows *emotionally.*

[1] Adapted from *The Child from One to Six* (Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, Publication no. 30, 1937). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office.

Any plan which is devised for the elementary school must be based upon meeting the needs of the growing child in *all* the ways in which a child may grow. This fact has been recognized in day nurseries, nursery schools, and primary grades in modern school systems, but the bulk of educational practice in the middle and upper grades of the elementary school is still overwhelmingly intellectual. Such time as is given to meeting the physical, social, and emotional needs of children is pitifully small, and is due to pressures from intelligent parents outside the school, rather than to the vision of the professional educator.

3. *Each child grows in an environment — physical and social — which conditions his growth.*

He lives somewhere. He lives in the city, in the country, on a farm, by the shore, in a tenement, on a mountain top. He lives in a social group — father, mother, sisters and brothers, neighbors and friends. Through inherited traits, his heredity will determine the quality of his life as he grows, but his environment, likewise, will exert a powerful effect upon his future development. No one can speak with authority as to the relative potency of Nature as opposed to Nurture, but each is of vital importance in the life of the child. The elementary school can do little about maturation — the development of the child as an organism; it can do a great deal with environmental factors.

4. *The growing child's day is made up of experiences within his environment.*

He does things. He walks and runs; skips and hops; draws and paints; makes toys and destroys them; fights and "makes up"; and so on through

a long series of events in meeting life on his level. Born a rugged individualist, he finds out that he has to modify his conduct if he is to live happily and successfully with the people and the things he meets in his small world. Whenever he modifies his conduct through behavior, he has *learned.*

5. *The major task of the teacher is to direct the growth of the child from each level of his development to the next higher level.*

She watches his physical, intellectual, social, and emotional growth continuously and intelligently, and sees that he attains his maximum development at each stage. She prepares a school environment which is rich in experiences and helps him modify his behavior throughout each experience, so that maximum learning may take place.

ARTICLE TWO

The Objectives of Elementary Education

The major objective which the elementary school should reach is: To give its boys and girls a thorough grounding in the fundamentals of good living.

The dictionary is quite definite as to the meaning of "fundamental" — a foundation, indispensable, basal, essential.

What preparation must a child have for the serious business of being an adult? The ability to read at the fourth grade level; to write a short business or friendly letter in the fourth grade vocabulary with a fair degree of legibility and not too many mistakes in spelling; the ability to use the four fundamental processes of arithmetic in carrying on the day's work; the ability to read the sports returns

are about the minimum accomplishments which the average American needs in order to "get by." What inner resources does such a man have? How can he entertain himself in his leisure moments? How can he leave the world richer when he dies by reason of his having lived in it? Do we wish to train our children to become adults who will live out their days intellectually, socially, and emotionally on a bare subsistence level?

Assuming that the child has had rich and ample experience in good living throughout his elementary school career, what specific accomplishments and achievements should he be able to evidence at the point where he leaves the sixth grade to enter the secondary school?

Physical Growth

1. He has attained a normal physical development within the limits accepted for the average twelve-year-old child.
2. He can use tools with sufficient skill to produce such articles of use and beauty as are possible for him at this age-level.
3. He can use his body easily and effectively and gracefully in free and directed games, in dancing, and in dramatics.
4. He has formed correct health habits and has attained a pride in maintaining maximum bodily efficiency.
5. He has mastered the mechanics of speech to the point where he speaks easily and effectively, and is free from speech defects and incorrect speech habits.

Intellectual Growth

1. He can read, orally or silently, any book on the sixth grade level with reasonable speed, accuracy, comprehension, and enjoyment.
2. He can use easily and effectively the informal speech current in America at the present time, in his daily conversations.

3. He can use with equal success the higher level of speech necessary on more formal occasions when making reports to his classmates or to a larger audience on an assembly program.
4. He can write a business or friendly letter which serves a purpose useful to himself, observing those standards of composition, spelling, and handwriting which are possible of attainment by the normal twelve-year-old child.
5. He can solve with reasonable speed and absolute accuracy, any arithmetical problem which has social value to him.
6. He has mastered such computational skills in the fundamental processes of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of whole numbers, easy fractions and simple decimals as are necessary to the solution of his arithmetical problems.
7. He has as thorough a knowledge of the geography of the United States as is possible to him on the twelve-year-old level.
8. He knows such major facts and understandings of the story of America from its beginnings to the present, as may be reasonably required of the twelve-year-old.
9. He has a clear understanding of the way in which science contributes to our daily life, and has mastered those generalizations in elementary science which are appropriate to the developmental level of the normal sixth grade child.
10. He has an effective grasp of the ways in which arts and crafts contribute to American life in the Power Age, as seen through the eyes of the average twelve-year-old.

Social and Emotional Growth

1. He can "get along" happily and successfully with other children and with adults.
2. He likes people and likes to be with them.
3. He finds satisfaction in being a member of a congenial group.
4. His membership in his group is sought after by members of the group.

5. He is open-minded and tolerant.
6. He accepts responsibility, displays initiative, and is resourceful in an emergency.
7. He has mastered the conventions demanded by social situations to which he is exposed.
8. He displays poise and self-control under criticism and opposition.
9. He responds readily to beauty, seen and heard.
10. He has accumulated sufficient inner resources to fill his leisure time with experiences appropriate to his age-level.

ARTICLE THREE

The Curriculum

1. *The curriculum of the elementary school shall be conceived of as the sum total of desirable experiences which the elementary school child should have.*

Bearing in mind the purposes and the objectives of the elementary education, it is assumed that those shall be realized through the modification of the child's behavior through experience in a controlled environment.

2. *Experiences composing the elementary school curriculum shall be selected from fields of experience intrinsically interesting to children of elementary school age.*

Experiences which satisfy the objectives and purposes of elementary education may, at the same time, be chosen in areas which meet the needs and interests of elementary school children. Children between six and twelve years of age are interested primarily in nature and science; in people; in places; in machines and tools; in adventure; in making things; in aesthetic expression through music, art, and dramatization; in the fanciful and mysterious; in physical fitness and achievement.

3. *The daily program of the elementary school teacher shall be a balanced program contributing directly to the objectives and purposes of elementary education.*

The school day of the elementary child should be divided among the following subject-matter fields:

(*a*) The fundamental bodily skills.
(*b*) The fundamental intellectual skills — reading, writing, speaking, social and computational arithmetic.
(*c*) The fundamental social skills.
(*d*) Aesthetics — music, art, dramatization, and literature.
(*e*) The practical arts and crafts.

4. *The objectives listed in Article Two shall be kept in sight throughout the entire six years of the elementary school.*

It is assumed that the teachers in all grades from first grade to sixth grade shall share responsibility equally in contributing to progress toward these objectives so that maximum responsibility shall not fall on any one teacher or on any single grade.

ARTICLE FOUR

The Organization of the Elementary School

1. *The elementary school shall be so organized as to provide for the continuous growth of children.*

The child grows by reaching one stage of development after another until he becomes an adult. It is the task of the school, in co-operation with the home, to see that each growth level is reached at the proper time, and that the process is not delayed by placing artificial barriers in the child's path. A rigid graded system, standards impossible of achievement, semiannual or annual promotion, marks, grades, and penalties interfere with the normal growth of childhood.

2. *The simplest form of school organization reduces the eight traditional school units (nursery school, kindergarten, and six elementary school grades) to two — a Lower School for children from five to eight years of age; and Upper School for children eight to twelve years of age.*[1]

At the present time the nursery school is not generally accepted as part of the public elementary school. The Federal Government maintains nursery schools for the benefit of families on relief; others are supported by university experimental schools; still others by private endowment. There is, therefore, no organic administrative union with the kindergarten into which most nursery school children graduate. Separate methods of financial support and of certification of teachers divide, in many states, the kindergarten from the graded elementary school. Conflicting aims of education and of achievement standards from one unit to the next highest, interpose barriers in the way of the child's progress.

The institution of the Lower School providing for the continuous education of the small child, and of the Upper School for the older child, recognizes the essential differences between the period of Early Childhood and that of Later Childhood and Pre-Adolescence.

3. *Within the limits set by the Lower School and by the Upper School, the simpler and the more flexible the organization, the better.*

The replacement of the traditional graded system by a simple grouping based in the first instance on

[1] The reader who thinks this idea visionary is referred to Ilse Forest, *The School for the Child from Two to Eight* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1935).

chronological age, contributes directly to the continuous and successful growth of children. Since children differ so widely in inherited traits, in environmental conditions and in school experiences, a correction will be necessary to ensure that each child is assigned to a group in which he can live, work and play successfully and happily. In other words, a primary grouping on the basis of chronological age, and a secondary grouping on the basis of social maturity will best meet the needs of growing children.

4. *A child should be advanced from one group to another whenever his growth level exceeds that of the majority of his classmates.*

There is no excuse for the present method half-yearly or yearly promotions. Children grow and grow continuously but by "fits and starts," rather than steadily and evenly. Parents and teachers alike are familiar with the child who lives for months on a certain level of maturity and almost overnight evolves into quite a different person. In such cases, slow subtle changes under the surface of physical, intellectual, social, and emotional growth come suddenly to a climax and the child needs a change of scene within the school organization. To compel him to wait until "promotion time" reflects a willful blindness to the needs of childhood.

5. *A child should remain with his teacher as long as he can profit by association with her.*

Under the semiannual method of promotion the teacher loses her class just when she is beginning to know her children as persons, and is learning to care adequately for their needs and interests. Under

normal circumstances, a year, a year and a half, or even two years of close association together, will enable the teacher to teach, and the child to learn, effectively.

6. *Standards of accomplishment should be adjusted to the child and not the child to the standards.*

The achievement of the child in physical, intellectual, social, and emotional development is conditioned by innate capacity, environment, and growth factors. Bearing those elements in mind, the school should demand maximum achievement within the limits set by the child himself. The child of border-line intelligence, poor cultural background, and limited school experience, can be held to satisfactory accomplishment within his limited powers; the child of superior intelligence, fine cultural background, and rich school experience must be held to a much higher level of accomplishment. One of the most distressing features of modern elementary education is a willingness on the part of teachers and parents to accept slipshod, mediocre, and careless work on the part of children able to do much more than they are doing.

7. *Home reports should contribute directly to the growth of children. They should always be positive in spirit instead of negative.*

Too often, home reports are made to serve as a club over the heads of children and parents alike. The best kind of home report in the Lower School is a friendly, frank, honest, and constructive personal note to the parents; in the Upper School, a report prepared by the child himself upon his own progress with accompanying comments by teacher and by parents.

8. *School organization should secure to each child the elements of a truly integrated personality.*

What are those elements? A sense of security, recognition, a sense of belonging to the social groups represented at school and at home, a sense of being wanted as a member of each group, a sense of achievement which arises when a child attacks a task which seems (*a*) meaningful, (*b*) worth while, and (*c*) within his powers, and carries that task on to its conclusion. If he attains success he should reach satisfaction without vanity; if he fails, he should be led to analyze the causes of failure, and to renew the attempt without discouragement.

CHAPTER ONE

◇

The Elementary School in a Changing World

THE DECADE between 1930 and 1940 saw more radical changes in the socio-economic structure of American life than any other similar period in American history. The depression which followed the financial crash of 1929 had far-reaching results. The Roosevelt administration, which came into office early in 1933, distinguished itself by endless experimentation based upon new concepts of the functions of our Federal Government. A stupendous public works program was instituted with some successes and many failures. A sharp division in the forces of organized labor into two hostile factions dismayed an American public which has always shown a friendly attitude toward the rights and needs of the workingman. The National Recovery Administration and the Agricultural Adjustment Administration were born, had a brief childhood, and died at an early age. The great railway systems of the country went into a financial tailspin owing to over-capitalization and incessant competition from motor-driven vehicles, and extricated themselves by inventing new modes of transportation, such as the stream-lined train for the wealthy traveler and the popular-priced coach train of the

"Challenger" type for the thrifty. The radio grew increasingly important in conveying to the public the news of the world and seriously impaired the influence of the daily press. It became a fixed conviction in the minds of millions that every man is entitled to a living and that, if through no fault of his own, a man is without a job the Federal Government must provide him with one or with financial help to tide him



Each figure represents about 13 million people

SOURCE: 1930 CENSUS
Social Security Board

THE AMERICAN PEOPLE — WHO THEY ARE

over the period of unemployment. Provision for the aged and the handicapped became the joint responsibility of federal and state governments.

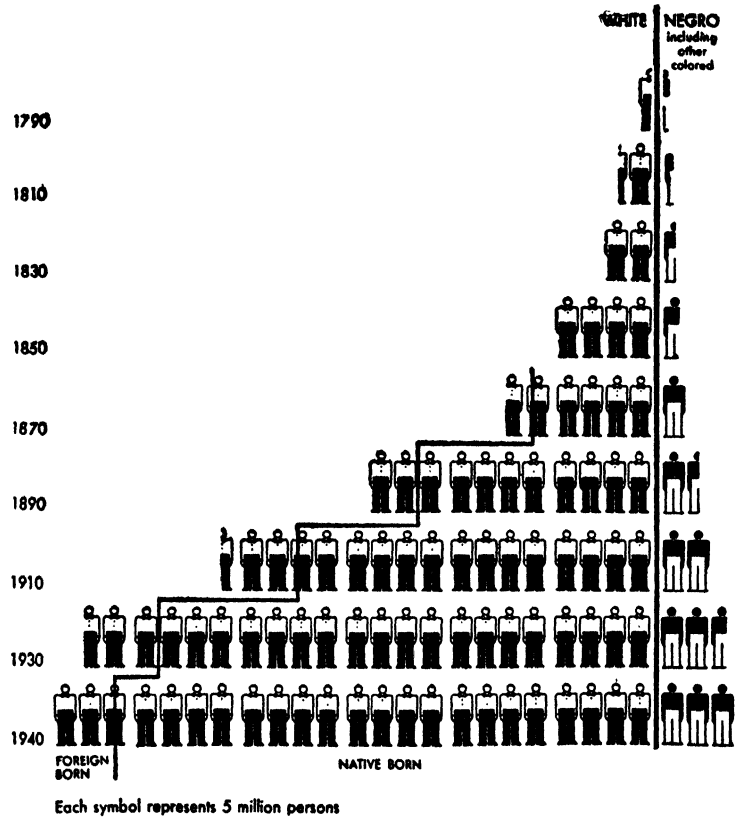
Alarmed at the rapid spread of the totalitarian doctrine of government in Europe and Asia, the American people became increasingly sensitive to the need for preserving our democratic ideals and for keeping the United States free from any entangling alliances with foreign countries either in peace or war. The outbreak of the second World War aroused the American people not only to the problem of national defense but to the greater problem of preserving the ideals and practices of democracy in the face of danger from without and dissension from within. Our people have been greatly concerned, therefore, with the need for making the public school the major agency whereby democracy may be safeguarded and perpetuated.

All of these changes have left their effects upon our schools. No consideration of public education in the United States today would be complete which does not include some of the prevailing trends in current American life.

I. Population Trends

There are several aspects of our changing population which are of especial interest to public school teachers and others interested in education.

1. *America is becoming a nation of middle-aged and elderly people.* Our national history has been the story of the greatest population growth in the shortest time on record. We have grown from a total population of approximately four million people in 1790 to approximately 131 million in 1940. A vast land with tremendous physical resources, and with what seemed to be unlimited opportunities for expansion, attracted new citizens from all over the world until the Great War of 1914–1918 set in operation a series of changes which put a brake upon further spectacular increases in population. While ex-



Hacker, Modley, Taylor, "The United States: A Graphic History." Modern Age Books, Inc.

GROWTH OF POPULATION

perts differ as to the exact figures, it seems likely that our national population will "level off" about 1980 at a stable annual figure of about 160 million inhabitants.

At the present time, we are faced with the problem of a declining birth rate. As a result, the relative proportion of children to adults is rapidly shifting.

How do economists and sociologists account for our declining birth rate? Here are some of the possible factors:

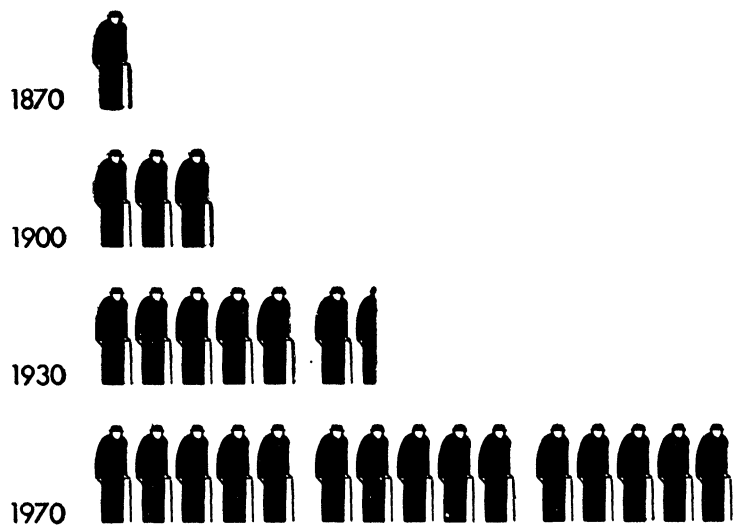
TABLE I. NUMBER OF WHITE PERSONS TWENTY YEARS OF AGE AND OVER PER 1000 WHITE CHILDREN UNDER SIXTEEN YEARS OF AGE

1790	1820	1850	1880	1910	1930	
782	883	1118	1355	1765	2013	

Note: 2.6% of the total population were 65 years or over in 1850. By 1890, this figure had been raised to 3.9%; in 1930 to 5.4%.

(*a*) *A rising standard of living.* It is considered more sensible by modern parents to raise a few children in comfort than to raise several children in semi-poverty.

(*b*) *A rising standard in education.* There was a time in our history when graduation from the common (elementary) school was considered adequate for the average child. Later, graduation from high school was set as the common goal, and today, college or technical school are considered end-points in



From "Security or the Dole?" Public Affairs Committee, Inc., New York

AGED PEOPLE IN THE UNITED STATES

education for hundreds of thousands of American families. A longer period of formal education involves greater expense in maintaining children in school.

(*c*) *The growing economic independence of women.* The modern woman wishes to earn her own living for part, at least, of her married life. One or two children are possible under such conditions; but a large family lays too heavy a burden on the woman who is essaying the double rôle of wage-earner and housekeeper.

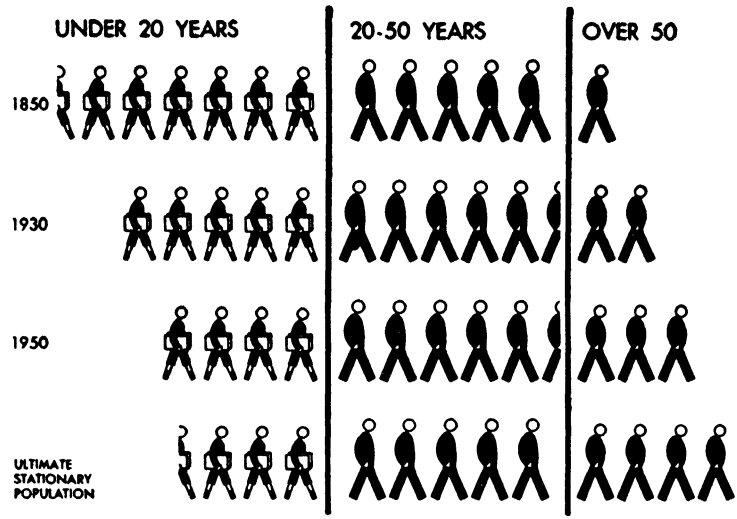
(*d*) *The fact that children are an economic liability.* In pioneer days, children twelve years of age and over in good health were an economic asset since they could help on the farm and in the household. Later, during the early days of the industrial revolution, they could earn money in factories. At the present time, compulsory attendance laws shut out children from most gainful occupations.

(*e*) *A decrease in immigration.* Foreign immigrants were unusually fertile. Because of economic factors operative in European countries since the war of 1914–1918 and by the operation of our own "quota" laws, immigration has steadily decreased in recent years.

(*f*) *Birth control is rapidly increasing.* The sale of contraceptive devices has become a familiar feature of life in the larger towns and cities. Physicians and nurses are more inclined to disseminate information of this nature than was true twenty years ago.

(*g*) *Economic uncertainity.* The difficult years since 1929 have made prospective parents take heed as to their responsibility for bringing children into a world which affords little assurance of economic independence for young people.

Opposed to a falling birth rate is the factor of a declining death rate. In spite of the fearful toll of life caused by the automobile, the span of life is steadily increasing, due in part to our firmer grasp of science in dealing with the problems of physical life, and in part to our national interest in sports and physical well-being.



Hacker, Modley, Taylor, "The United States: A Graphic History." Modern Age Books, Inc.

OUR AGEING POPULATION

Gillette and Reinhardt [1] summarize this trend in population as follows:

> Thus we are coming to be a "nation of elders." This will bring about certain social and economic readjustments. The "deadline," the expulsion age for workers in industry, has been 40. This must advance, or society will have to carry an enlarged number of the unemployed. Habits of consumption will be transformed. There will be a smaller proportion of youthful goods, more undertakers and fewer baby carriages. Other things being equal, conservatism in business, politics and social movements will increase, on the other hand, radicalism is a youthful trait. The direction of activities along recreational and cultural lines is likely to change. We would expect more interest in things of the mind and less interest in things of the legs, more concerts and fewer dance halls, more books in place of cleated shoes and plus-fours.

The implications for elementary education are obvious. With a declining birth rate elementary school enrollment will

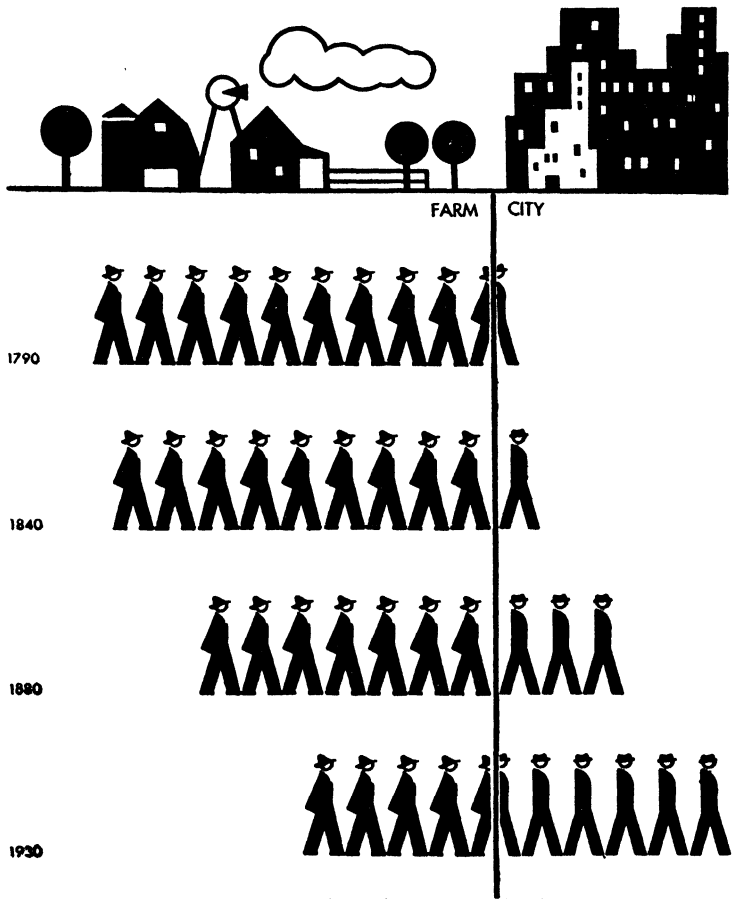
[1] J. M. Gillette, and J. M. Reinhardt, *Current Social Problems* (New York: American Book Company, 1933), p. 104.

decrease. One large Western city lost, for example, between three and four thousand children in elementary schools in the school year 1938–1939. This decrease means (*a*) fewer elementary teachers will be needed from year to year until the population level is stabilized; (*b*) training schools and teachers' colleges will need to restrict their entrants; (*c*) classes will be smaller and as a result more attention will be paid to the individual needs of children; (*d*) school systems which have been burdened under a heavy building program to provide classrooms for children will build fewer and better buildings better suited to the needs and interests of children and will be able to provide more supplies and better equipment; (*e*) the curriculum will swing backward to a heightened emphasis upon the "essentials" and there will be increased opposition to "progressive" education; (*f*) the average age-level of teachers will rise unless countered by effective retirement laws.

2.[1] *An Army Marches to the City* — An agrarian civilization such as we maintained from the American Revolution through the Civil War, tends toward a diffused population. Cities grew to a modest size at strategic points where commerce was concentrated, but the great bulk of the country's population remained on the farms, in villages, and in small towns. Just as soon as we were transformed by an evolving technology into a great industrial society, the metropolis began to grow. Our greatest American cities are great because, primarily, they are industrial centers. The presence of factories and of other industrial plants together with banks and other financial institutions (life insurance societies and trust companies for example) make concentration of population inevitable. In 1929, 74 per cent of our industrial workers were located in 4.5 per cent of the three million square miles which comprise the continental United States. Since the metropolis uses up people physically and mentally at an alarming rate, replacements must be continuously made by a steady stream of newcomers from the countryside.

[1] The author is greatly indebted to Gillette and Reinhardt, *op. cit.*, for the views expressed in this and the following section.

The American metropolis is a living, growing organism which has its component parts, each of which has its youth, maturity, and old age. The organic changes which have taken place in New York City alone would fill a volume. Retail business



Eckenrode, Morgan, Corson: "This Government." Johnson Publishing Company

URBANIZATION

has moved successively from Fourteenth Street to Thirty-Fourth Street; from Thirty-Fourth to Forty-Second Street; from Forty-Second to Fiftieth Street; and is now moving rapidly up Fifth Avenue toward Central Park. Fashionable areas have become slums and slums have become fashionable areas. Former retail business areas have become marginal areas which house either small wholesale firms or small industrial plants, or have become a waste of cheap lodging houses and apartments. If the metropolis has vacant land on its borders new suburban areas are developed for the small home-owner, and suburban business areas arise to provide the inhabitants with both the necessities and luxuries of life.

Defining "urban centers" as cities of 2500 inhabitants or over, and "rural" communities as all places of less than 2500 inhabitants, the following table tells its own story:

TABLE II. PERCENTAGES OF ALL COMMUNITIES DIVIDED BETWEEN RURAL AND URBAN

	1790	1880	1930	
Rural	96.7	71.4	43.8	
Urban	3.3	28.6	56.2	

The rise of our greatest cities has been phenomenal. New York City grew from 2,500,000 in 1890 to approximately 7,380,259 inhabitants in 1940; Chicago from 1,100,000 to approximately 3,384,556 in the same period; Detroit from 205,876 to approximately 1,618,549; Los Angeles from 50,395 to approximately 1,496,793.

Often, the metropolis grows by annexation of surrounding communities and the consolidation into boroughs or other administrative units of the annexed areas. New York and Los Angeles afford good illustrations of this tendency. Again, the metropolis grows beyond its mere political boundaries as "spheres of influence" develop. For example, the real New York City includes part of New Jersey and a generous portion of western Connecticut owing to the presence in those areas of

large numbers of commuters whose business takes them daily to the metropolis although they happen to live in suburban areas.

The metropolis is noisy, nerve-racking, hurried, and confusing, but to thousands of people it means more work, more federal relief, more opportunities for advancement, greater recreational facilities, more excitement, more opportunities for culture, more freedom from the provincialism of the small town or the rural community. These are the reasons why such a large proportion of "native" New Yorkers hail from the "sticks."

Life in the metropolis is hard for children. The apartment house, the down-town hotel, the cheap rooming house, the slum, do not provide adequate environments for growing children. The educational implications of metropolitan life are: (*a*) three- or four-story school buildings with large enrollments; (*b*) lack of yard space for physical exercise; (*c*) lack of space for a school garden; (*d*) formal discipline necessitated by the conditions under which teachers work; (*e*) a conservative, traditional approach characteristic of the large city school system everywhere in the United States; (*f*) difficult lighting problems caused by congestion of buildings in a metropolitan area; (*g*) noise; (*h*) traffic hazards.

3. — *And Marches Back to the Country.* The great metropolis as we have known it since 1900 is rapidly undergoing vital organic changes. The popular-priced automobile has made it possible for thousands of city workers to move their residences to suburban areas where there is light, air, space, and greater opportunity for social contacts. New paved highways are constantly bringing the job and the home more closely together by cutting down the time necessary to get from one to the other. The development of electric power lines encourages industrial plants to move out into the countryside where property values, taxes, and overhead are greatly lessened and workers may live within walking distance of the job. The process is assisted by the extension of interurban railway

service and ever-expanding bus lines. Federal housing acts make it possible for the worker to own his own home in the suburbs by stretching his payments over a generous period of time. The development of the national highway system has brought into existence many new lines of business dependent upon the highway trade — the auto camp, the filling station, the "hot dog" stand, the service station, the night club, the summer camp. These provide occupations and a decent livelihood for many people tired of the noise and strain of the big city. The development of the highway system, the extension of electric lines providing power and light, and the increase of bus and rail service, are doing much to reduce the traditional isolation of the farm and help to make farm life attractive.

The Federal Government has done much to assist the movement from city to country through the resettlement of thousands of workers who are tired of city life. As a result of the operation of all these factors, a steady flow is maintained outward from the metropolis which counterbalances in part the migration from farm to metropolis. From the standpoint of education, these movements are highly desirable as they provide the city child with opportunities for living in a richer and more congenial environment. Sunshine, fresh air, constant contact with nature, and membership in a smaller and more highly integrated social group all work to the benefit of childhood.

4. *The American family is changing.* The Power Age has effected profound changes in our thirty million families in the continental United States. In the first place, the average American family has become smaller, dropping from 5.6 persons per family in 1850 to 3.9 persons in 1930 (in California to 2.39 persons). We have seen that the birth rate is steadily declining; as a result the living accommodations of the average family are necessarily smaller. The big, old family mansions of twelve to fifteen rooms are rapidly disappearing and the small home is attracting attention everywhere. In many large

cities single-house occupancy is declining and duplex and multiple-unit structures are becoming increasingly popular. Where ground space is valuable, grass plots, flower and vegetable gardens and play space decrease in area or disappear entirely. As a result the family restricted to a combination of living room, two bedrooms, bath and "kitchenette" is finding relaxation and entertainment outside the home. The automobile transports the family on week-end trips into the country and after-work jaunts around town or "down the highway." The trailer has become so popular that many families, aided by increased comfort in auto camps, have become permanent pilgrims without any settled habitation, going from place to place as the spirit moves them.

There are, however, some bright spots in the picture. If the family lives in a very modern multiple-house building it may have communal gardens, play space, and recreation centers provided for it by the management. If the family lives in one of the recently built small homes, the lessened cost of construction has provided additional money for adequate space for garden, play space, and open courts and terraces. Inside, the small home is a marvel of convenience. It has been so planned as to save the steps of the housewife, and electricity plus modern ingenuity make possible all kinds of labor-saving devices from mother's electric range to father's electric razor and the "magic eye" which opens the garage door when the family automobile reaches home.

No one is quite sure, however, that the own-your-own-home idea is economically sound. Economic uncertainty, high taxes, high rates of interest, onerous property laws, assessment areas, and the counter attractions of a fine automobile, a power boat, a trip to Mexico or a new wardrobe make the prospective home-owner hesitate before he signs his application.

What factors strengthen modern family life in the United States? Here are a few of them. (*a*) Economic security which permits the family adequate food, clothing, shelter, and

the financial means to provide a decent standard of living. (*b*) Membership in a congenial community group. If the father of the family has strong lodge and service club affiliations, if the mother belongs to a neighborhood club, if both attend the same church and the children attend a school which is attractive to them and provides them with security, recognition, and a sense of achievement, the family is fairly well anchored to a stable base. (*c*) A community of personal interests which make married life congenial and happy. (*d*) Membership in a larger community outside the immediate neighborhood of which it is a part, a community distinguished by a lively civic pride. (*e*) Family, racial, and common economic and social viewpoints.

The factors which affect family life adversely are: (*a*) economic insecurity; (*b*) membership in a community composed of persons with whom the family is thoroughly out of sympathy; (*c*) membership in an unpopular racial or national minority group; (*d*) the desire to attain a standard of living above the economic possibilities of the family; (*e*) uncongenial relations between husband and wife; (*f*) the economic independence of the wife who is employed in a "gainful occupation"; (*g*) the strain, stresses, noises, hazards, and uncertainties of modern life.

One factor which indirectly affects family life favorably is the increasing number of women workers who really enjoy their work. In 1930, nearly four million home makers were gainfully employed. In 1880, of every 1000 females 160 women were gainfully employed; in 1890, 190 women; in 1900, 206 women; in 1910, 243 women; in 1930, 253. More and more these women workers are entering upon jobs which appeal to them. In 1870, 21 per cent of employed women were at work in agriculture, in 1930 the percentage had fallen to 7 per cent. In 1870, 53 per cent of employed women were engaged in personal and domestic service; in 1930 this percentage was reduced to 33 per cent. On the other hand, the percentage of women employed in the professions had risen

from 6 per cent to 12 per cent between 1870 and 1930. Clerical workers rose from 4 per cent to 19 per cent, and women engaged in trade and transportation from 1 per cent in 1870 to 12 per cent in 1930. In the latter year women constituted 39 per cent of all persons enumerated in the census as professional or semi-professional workers. In general, therefore, women's work has become increasingly meaningful and important to them. Business and professional women's organizations are doing much to revise those laws which have been unfair to women and are slowly securing recognition of themselves as persons from a world of men still strongly imbued with the mid-Victorian tradition which looked upon "the weaker sex" as "clinging vines."

So far no one seems to have discovered the solution to the problem of divorce. The marriage rate in general is steadily increasing in spite of a parallel rate of increase in divorce and a decrease in the number of marriages at an early age. The mathematical chances of success in marriage are about 5 to 1, the local rate varying from a much lower figure in the New England States to a much higher figure on the Pacific Coast. One decided advance, however, in spite of the great diversity of divorce laws from state to state, has taken place in liberalizing grounds for divorce. Today there is a growing tendency to recognize the more intangible factors of temperament, physical condition, and emotional compatibility.

From the standpoint of education, it is well to remember (1) that the American family, in spite of many reports to the contrary, is still a going institution and a force to be coped with; (2) that the family possesses assets which should be capitalized upon in any effective program of education; (3) that a sound knowledge of the factors which affect family life today is an essential part of the teacher's fitness for her job; and (4) that no mental hygiene program or scheme for personality development in our schools can be carried on with any hope of success which does not recognize the emotional background of the child insofar as it is colored by happiness or discord at home.

MARRIAGES

1895 

1916 

1929 

1932 

1937 

Each married couple represents 100,000 marriages

DIVORCES

1895 

1916 

1929 

1932 

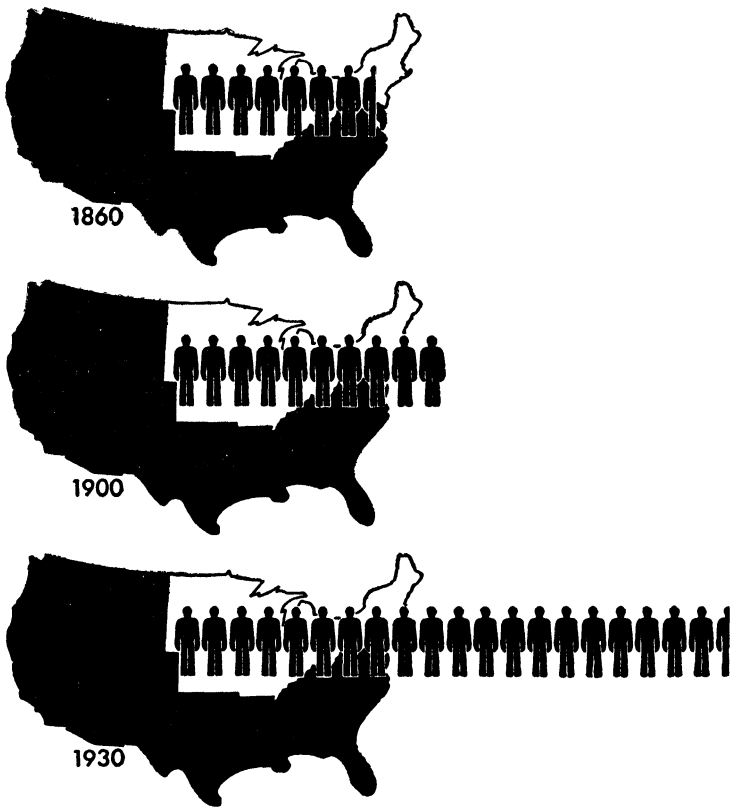
1937 

Each divorced couple represents 20,000 divorces

Progressive Education Association: "The Family." D. Appleton-Century Company

MARRIAGES AND DIVORCES

5. *America is striving to settle its racial problems.* In general, three racial groups present major problems: the Negro, the Mexican, and the Oriental. In 1930, there were approximately twelve million Negroes in the United States, nearly 10 per cent of the total population. The greater part of these are found in the Southern states. Every other person in Mississippi is a Negro, and the percentage of Negro population in



Hacker, Modley, Taylor, "The United States: A Graphic History." Modern Age Books, Inc.

THE NEGRO MOVES NORTH

the neighboring states in the Deep South varies from 30 per cent to 40 per cent of the total population. Increased economic opportunities in the industrial North have caused a steady flow of Negroes to northern industrial centers. In many northern cities the Negro has become a powerful factor in politics and is rapidly securing recognition and freedom denied to him in his original home. For example, the Negro percentage of the total population of Akron, Ohio, increased 98.6 per cent in the decade 1920–1930; of Buffalo, New York, an increase of 200 per cent; of Chicago, 113.7 per cent; of Flint, Michigan, 236.6 per cent. The struggle of the Negro to secure economic independence has brought about strains and stresses which are clearly reflected in our schools. In nearly all Southern states, the Negro child receives his education in segregated schools which operate on a far lower financial base than is operative in white schools. In many Northern cities he is compelled to attend segregated schools but allowances for teacher salaries, equipment, supplies, and school plants more nearly approximate those in white schools. In many localities in the North and on the Pacific Coast, Negro children attend schools which are open to all children regardless of race. One of the most urgent tasks before the teacher in the elementary school is to develop a spirit of tolerance for the Negro and a sincere appreciation of the richness of Negro culture.

The need for low-cost agricultural labor in the lush years between 1900 and 1930 brought into the Southwestern states a veritable army of Mexican immigrants. Many of these have been repatriated but thousands of Mexican families still remain. In many localities the children of these families are compelled to attend segregated schools as distinguished from the so-called white schools, in spite of the fact that the Mexican is a member of the Caucasian race. As a result, the Mexican child is often subjected to indignities and oppressions which are not in the spirit of the theory of public education in the United States.

A similar problem is found on the Pacific Coast in the case of

native-born Japanese children. The Japanese population is steadily increasing all the way from San Diego to Vancouver, B.C. and as a result, racial prejudice has become a factor in many far-Western localities. Fortunately, there has been little attempt at segregation of Japanese children and the excellent scholarship and behavior of the Japanese child often disarm the opposition of the "one hundred per cent American." Elementary school teachers should earnestly strive for the recognition of the fundamental principles of American public education: (1) that our schools belong to all the children of the people; (2) that segregation is un-American and undemocratic; and (3) that public funds for education must provide equal educational opportunities for all children regardless of nationality, race, creed, or "previous condition of servitude."

II. The Poor, the Middle-Class and the Rich

In spite of the theory that in a democracy such as ours all people have equal opportunities and equal rights, we have actually three social classes, determined by the economic status of the persons concerned. We still have in the United States, the Haves, the Have-Nots and the Have-Too-Much'es. There can be no question that the inequitable distribution of wealth is at the basis of our economic troubles but no one seems to know how to remedy matters. No nation can be happy and prosperous if a large section of its people lack the purchasing power to maintain a decent standard of living.

Let us consider four fundamental facts in current American life.

1. We are living in a land of potential plenty. We have abundant natural resources, a sufficiency of industrial plants, ample technical knowledge, and enough man-power to ensure to every American family adequate food, clothing, shelter, and the comforts and little luxuries which give significance to life. *We have the wealth.*

2. In spite of our wealth, only a fraction of our thirty million families possess these desirable things. Many American families live at a bare subsistence level.

3. The machine is rapidly displacing man-power. Human labor is becoming an increasingly smaller factor in the cost of manufacturing goods.

4. As a result technological unemployment (i.e. unemployment caused by a lessened demand for labor caused by increased efficiency in machines) will steadily increase unless

(*a*) We can divert the worker from labor occupations (i.e. picking cotton or tightening nuts on an automobile assembly line, etc.) to service occupations (i.e. working in a filling station or a radio broadcasting station, etc.);

(*b*) We embark upon a tremendous and permanent public works program; or,

(*c*) We engage in a lengthy and eventually costly war.

> During the decade 1920–1930 the proportion (of persons) engaged in manufacturing and mechanical industries actually declined, while the proportion in trade, professional and service occupations rose sharply. These figures are a striking reflection of the transformation of our economic system from one organized around the exploitation of natural resources to one in which the chief stress is on mechanical, managerial, professional and service functions. Employment opportunities are, to an increasing extent, in the factory, store or office. If the trend established in the past decade continue in the future, most of the new jobs must be sought where there is opportunity for taking part in complex industrial and commercial processes or in servicing community needs.[1]

Our immediate problem is to find some way in which to raise the annual income of the average American so as to increase his purchasing power. Our present national income is estimated at about 58 billions of dollars, whereas conservative economic authorities claim that our natural wealth (true wealth) justifies an annual income of at least 105 billions of dollars. More money spent for goods and services — more money spent in producing raw materials — more money spent

[1] National Resources Committee, *The Problems of a Changing Population*, p. 44.

in processing raw materials — more money spent in manufacturing goods — more men at work — increased national income and so on all over again.

The National Resources Committee published in 1938 a report, *Consumer Incomes in the United States*, based upon an economic study of 300,000 American families. From this study it was possible to construct an estimate of the annual incomes of our 29,400,000 American families of two or more persons; of the 10,000,000 single individuals living alone or as lodgers; and of the 2,000,000 persons living in institutions and in institutional groups.

The experts who interpreted the statistics revealed in the study, divided the figures into "exact thirds." The "lower third" received incomes of less than $780 per annum during the year 1935–1936 (13 million families). The "middle third" received from $780 per annum to $1450 (13 million families). The "upper third" received from $1450 to over a million dollars per annum. Bearing in mind that the bed-rock figure adapted by economists as necessary to provide an American family with a decent standard of living is $1800, the conclusion is obvious: the entire lower third and a respectable fraction of the middle third cannot decently maintain themselves.

The magazine *Fortune* published in April, 1938, a report on the economic status of a typical American city, Oskaloosa, Iowa. Annual incomes for 1937 appear as follows:

TABLE III. ANNUAL INCOMES IN OSKALOOSA, IOWA (1937)

Group	I	II	III	IV	V
No. of families	871	1168	416	163	61
Annual income	Less than $600	$600–$1560	$1560–$2600	$2600–$5000	Over $5000

What does it mean to be "poor" in America? It means such a limited income that the family suffers from an insufficient supply of food, from an unbalanced and inadequate diet, from a lack of good drinking water, from insufficient clothing,

from inadequate housing, from a lack of sanitation, from cold in winter and heat in summer, from a lack of physician and nurse service, from moral conditions incident to over-crowded living quarters. Above everything else, to be poor means to have no hope for the future, and to live always in the shadow of insecurity with illness, accident, old age, and death always lurking around the corner.

Life on the comfort level (annual incomes from $3000 to $10,000) means living in a double or triple apartment in the metropolis or in a five- to seven-room flat, or in an adequate small house in the suburbs. In the small town, the house may be larger, sometimes containing seven to nine rooms. The annual income permits the family to spend from 20 to 25 per cent of its budget for rent, or for the upkeep of the home if the home is owned. Father has a steady job or a stable business of his own; Mother is able to stay at home and keep house, or to hire a maid if she is employed. The children are kept in school. The family owns an automobile, a radio, and innumerable labor-saving devices for making the home comfortable and easy to operate. Mother does her own housework if she is not gainfully employed, prepares the family meals, makes most of her own and her daughter's clothes, assumes the major responsibility for raising the children, and along with all this, endeavors to keep her person attractive and her mind informed. She usually belongs to a club or other neighborhood organization to parallel her husband's interest in lodge, service club, or country club.

Father works hard at his business and likes it. He is interested in his home, wife, and children. He likes to work in his garden. He is mildly interested in world events, is strongly interested in national affairs (especially in politics), he is convinced that the Federal Government is ruining the country, and that labor leaders are incompetent or crooked or both. He is not particularly interested in his personal appearance but becomes enthusiastic over the advertising pages in the

Saturday Evening Post and *Collier's* which relate to automobiles, radios, liquor, and tobacco. His interest in physical improvement is limited to attendance at football and professional baseball games, to hair tonics, and to golf. He reads several national weekly magazines and an occasional book. His tastes in fiction run to sprightly stories about young women or mystery yarns. The planes of man's interests in his work and woman's interests in her home intersect in only a few places. The housewife who is gainfully employed is the true link between the two worlds. She has the man's point of view while at the office or store, and the woman's point of view at home.

Life with the comfort of riches does not impinge to any appreciable degree on the world of the elementary teacher. She reads about the "idle rich" in *Vogue* or some other magazine devoted to that section of the American public which receives annual incomes of $25,000 or over, but seldom comes in contact with their children who are enrolled, as a social class, in fashionable, private schools. The rich seem to fall into several groups: the Old Rich, or families whose wealth has been inherited through several generations; and the New Rich, the executives of our great industrial corporations, executives of banks and other financial institutions, motion picture stars, and finally, a scattering of novelists, artists, architects, playwrights, physicians, and corporation lawyers.[1]

The elementary teacher, by and large, comes from the great American middle-class and is entirely sympathetic with the great majority of her pupils, coming to her as they do from the same social matrix. What she needs desperately to know is how to handle kindly and intelligently the children from the lower third of the American public which is characterized by

[1] The curious reader will enjoy the description of Old Rich and New Rich in H. G. Wells, *Wealth, Work and Happiness of Mankind* (New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1931).

poverty and insecurity. She needs to provide for such children an adequate program of health, physical fitness, diet, rest, and emotional adjustment before she hammers on achievement in reading, writing, and arithmetic.

III. America is Concerned Over Its Search for Beauty

One important by-product of the depression of 1930–1936 was a renaissance of fine arts in the United States. A new music and a new art are slowly evolving out of the American Scene and for the first time in our history we are freeing ourselves from European influences and beginning to rely upon ourselves in our search for beauty. In colonial times such art as we had in America was merely a faint echo of British art. The Puritan was too busy conquering a savage and unfriendly land on week days, and too busy saving his soul on the Sabbath to know or care much about representative art. When wealth began to accumulate, the colonial American had both the time and inclination to consider the place of art in his culture. The eighteenth century was the age of the great British portrait painters and it was inevitable that such native painting as evolved in America was largely portraiture. Gainsborough, Reynolds, Romney and their followers set the criteria of American art. This tendency percolated down to the lowest level of colonial society where the "art" of the village was comprised in the rough-and-ready portraiture of the itinerant sign painter who produced in exchange for a meal and a night's lodging, a "portrait" to hang outside the tavern door to advertise its merits. In spite of the tendency to ape British models a few native artists, Copley, Earl and Peale for example, proved to be possessors of the American spirit.

One of the early pioneers in realistic American painting was George Caleb Bingham (1811–1879) who became to American art what Mark Twain was to American literature. Bingham represented most faithfully the boisterous lusty life of the

frontier and today he is regarded as one of the best of early American painters. Winslow Homer and Thomas Eakins broke with the European tradition sufficiently to be called true representatives of the life of our country during the nineteenth century.

In his autobiography, *An American Artist's Story*,[1] George Biddle states his belief that our present renaissance is due to two major factors, the federal patronage of art which made possible the employment of American artists on federal projects under the Works Progress Administration, and a growing social awareness of the place of the artist in our culture.

> This social awareness had manifested itself in different ways. One was the obvious organization, unionization, co-operative efforts of artists for mutual economic protection. There has been nothing on the same scale since the Middle Ages. It couldn't happen in the same way in Germany or Russia, because there the collectivization would be forcefully imposed from above. Here the unionization was spontaneous and from below. The Artists' Unions had about five thousand members; the Artists' Congress, about eight hundred.[2]

For the first time in our history we seem to have evolved an American school of painting, free from European tradition and influence, and realistic in its attitude toward the current American scene. By reason of display of paintings by American artists in museums and private galleries, by traveling exhibitions, and by the excellent color reproductions found in current magazines, the man in the street is becoming increasingly aware of the American artist. He has become proud of the contribution made to our cultural life by such painters as Grant Wood, Thomas Benton, John Steuart Curry, John Sloan, Reginald Marsh, Charles Burchfield, George Biddle, Dale Nichols, Lauren Ford, and Edward Hopper.

The great metropolitan museum is no longer a static affair.

[1] Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1939.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 291.

It does not wait for people to visit its galleries; it sends paintings out to meet its patrons; it holds classes in the techniques of the fine arts, in the history of art and in art appreciation. The children are not forgotten. Classes for them are provided in after-school hours and on Saturdays. The purpose of all this is not to create artists but to give every citizen actual experiences in the fine arts and so add to his enjoyment and to his spiritual and emotional development.

We Americans are listening to more music and to more good music than ever before in our history. More people are making music than ever before. Our orchestras are the best in the world, our orchestra conductors are entirely competent, and our technical skill in making orchestral arrangements cannot be approached on any other continent. Yet, outside of a few exceptions, we Americans are not distinguished for our creative ability in music. When one calls the roll of modern American composers, the list is pitifully short — Howard Hansen, John Alden Carpenter, Roy Harris, George Antheil, Daniel Gregory Mason, George Gershwin, Aaron Copland. These men tried to hear the voice of the real America and reproduce it in music, but our most popular musician is still Victor Herbert whose work is European in flavor rather than American.

Probably our real and lasting American music is found in the folk songs of the American Negro of which Stephen Foster is the best interpreter; in Negro "spirituals" or traditional religious songs; in our cowboy songs written and composed by unknown artists on the Western ranges; and in the "hillbilly" songs or traditional melodies of the Ozarks and the Tennessee mountains; and in the solos of our jazz improvisators. America is still waiting for its native Beethoven, Mozart, Handel, or Richard Wagner.

On the credit side, however, we may list our summer musical shows, concerts, and operas in the open air from Hollywood Bowl to the Berkshire Festival.

> The delight of summer music lies as much in being outdoors as in hearing the music. The audience, which would sit tense indoors and listen hard, relaxes and lets the music come to its ears. When summer music first became popular, conductors seldom dared venture anything weightier than a Strauss waltz. To their surprise, murmurs of "We want Beethoven, We want Bach" were heard. Given Beethoven and Bach, audiences rapidly grew larger. Today, outdoor music is as heavily classical as anything played indoors. On July 28 (1938) 19,000 music lovers crowded New York's Lewisohn Stadium to hear Jascha Heifitz play a Brahms concerto.[1]

The modern broadcasting station and the popular priced radio have brought music into forty million American homes, music which ranges all the way from the popular songs of the Hit Parade to the symphony orchestra led by Toscanini. As a result, the American family is rapidly improving its musical education and realizing a whole new world of emotional and intellectual enjoyment.

Again, Americans are not merely passive admirers of music. The musical tyro is coming into his own. Father is somewhat amazed at what Junior has accomplished as a member of his school orchestra, and nothing daunted, gets out his own saxophone and joins a neighborhood orchestra.

> Hundreds of symphony orchestras are scattered all over the country. They range from our great virtuoso ensembles, which are the finest in the world, down to the humblest of orchestras made up entirely of amateurs who sweat and strain and, in the end, know the pure, heady rapture of making music in concert with their peers....
>
> What does this steady advance in music portend for the nation?... The growth of music appreciation in the land means that the average American is living a fuller inner life, and as the average American lives more fully, the national culture burgeons.[2]

Finally, a word should be spoken for the reprint method whereby book publishers are able to sell the classics of world literature at a modest price. A complete volume of Shake-

[1] Adapted from "Listening to Music" in *Life*, August 15, 1938.

[2] H. Howard Taubman, "Outdoor, Indoors, Music Conquers America," in *New York Times*, July 31, 1938.

speare's plays is available for a couple of dollars in excellent clear type and substantial binding, and hundreds of other titles are on sale for less than a dollar. Modern color presses make it possible to offer books on contemporary and classic art at a fraction of their former cost and good individual prints can be purchased for a quarter. Certainly "culture" is now accessible at bargain-counter rates.

IV. America Is Concerned About Its Future

There are social and economic problems in our country about which there is a marked difference of opinion but all citizens are agreed that solutions to these problems must be found. An interesting list of problems of this kind is found in *Social Changes and Education*, the Thirteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. Ten trends which are listed in the Yearbook are freely adapted in the following paragraphs:

1. America is concerned about the new leisure, the leisure time which is a by-product of the release of labor by the modern machine. Shall every man decide how to spend his leisure time? Shall a program be given him? Shall the schools train their students in leisure-time activities?

2. America is concerned with the social lag — the gap between mechanical progress and obsolete social-economic theories and behavior-patterns. Home, school, church, the courts, and political institutions have not kept pace with technological progress.

3. America is concerned over the intrusion of the relatively new ideal of co-operation upon individual freedom. How far shall a person surrender his individual rights for the common good?

4. America is concerned as to the necessity for long-term planning. Shall the government plan so meticulously for us that our liberties are in danger? Is government planning for our future in areas better left to private enterprise?

5. America is concerned over the producer-consumer relationship. How shall the buyer know whether he receives good value for his money since he is so far removed from the producer, and buys blindly, trusting the goods he purchases are as represented on the labels and in the advertisements?

6. America is concerned over the inability of the citizen to express his views as centralized authority removes him farther and farther from direct personal contacts with the agencies concerned. For example, does not the consolidated school destroy local autonomy in school affairs?

7. America is concerned over the function of leadership in local, state, and national affairs. There is a marked distrust of the Brain Trust, of the expert, of scientific management. Is not the elevation of the expert over the majority directly contrary to our democratic theory of government? Is not every man just as able as any other man, if not better?

8. America is puzzled over its inability to reconcile the growing recognition of the theory of individual differences with the democratic ideal. Is it true that all men are really created equal? Are the public schools attempting the impossible in trying to educate "all the children of all the people"? Do our compulsory school attendance laws force into school children who do not want an education and cannot profit by it? Should not higher education be restricted to individuals of marked ability?

9. America is concerned over the mounting cost of crime and the marked increase of crimes of violence. Are these due to progressive education? to the results of the World War? to the decay of the home? to the decline of the church? to the corruption of the courts? to a weakening of the national fiber as regards character? to "subversive influences"?

10. America is concerned over strains and stresses in our social fabric which appear to indicate that we are becoming increasingly class-conscious — rich against poor, employer against employee, professional worker against working man, white against Negro, white against Oriental, public employer

against private employer, organized lobbies against the general good. Shall we abandon our traditional political parties and substitute parties organized upon economic levels?

We may enlarge this list by adding such problems as the following. How shall we secure as good human stock as we get in breeding farm animals and race horses? What shall we do with the mentally incompetent family and with the lazy, idle, and shiftless family which relies upon direct relief for maintenance? Is our sturdy American stock degenerating? How shall we protect our people from accident and death caused by reckless automobile drivers? How shall we protect our citizens from propaganda, from being misled in their thinking by the deliberate distortion of truth? Shall we exercise strict censorship over newspaper and radio and motion picture?

Current problems which have resulted in governmental effort under the Roosevelt administration are:

1. *The relationship between private enterprise and labor.* The National Recovery Administration attempted to set up codes or patterns which would bring employers and labor closer together, but the gap is steadily widening. Two warring labor factions have kept the daily press full of accounts of their differences.

2. *The protection of the farmer's income.* The Agricultural Adjustment Administration had its little day and ceased to be and no permanent solution of the desperate plight of the farmer has yet been found. In a country in which one-third of the nation has insufficient food and clothing shall we destroy food and cotton in order to keep up prices?

3. *The protection of the worker.* The Works Progress Administration, while ostensibly a device to add to our national wealth, actually acted as a work-relief organization. Intended as a temporary measure, it now appears that federal relief for the distressed worker will become a permanent feature in American life. The Social Security Act was passed to protect

the worker against the loss of his job, against temporary unemployment, against illness and accident, and to assist the aged, the handicapped, and the child without means of support.

4. *The protection of heavy industries.* The Public Works Administration was devised ostensibly as a means whereby we could add to our national capital wealth by building airports, highways, schools, and the like. In reality, the major purpose was to help the heavy industries by increasing the market for steel and other building materials.

5. *The protection of youth.* The Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration attempted, with some successes and many failures, to care for unemployed youth between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five years of age.

6. *The protection of the home.* Various acts passed by Congress since 1933 have aimed (*a*) at the removal of the slum; (*b*) at providing low-cost housing for the poor; (*c*) at financial assistance to the home-owner; and (*d*) at making it possible for the renter to buy a home of his own on easy terms.

7. *The protection of the common carrier.* The Emergency Railway Transportation Act and similar legislation have brought some relief to the great railways which have been in financial distress for many years. Attempts have been made with some success to co-ordinate rail, bus, truck, and air transportation.

8. *The protection of health.* Permissive legislation has made it possible, in several states to provide either extended public service or low-cost, private health service through voluntary group co-operation.

This, then, is the setting in which the American elementary school operates. These are the social-economic levels of daily living from which children come to school in the morning and to which they return at the close of the school day. No educational program can hope to achieve success without a careful

consideration of the factors which have been discussed in the preceding paragraphs. No teacher can deal adequately with a child unless she knows the type of living which the economic status of his parents makes possible for him, the cultural opportunities of his home, the attitudes and ideals which surround him during the nineteen and twenty hours out of each twenty-four when he is outside the influence of his school, and the resulting strains and stresses which his social group life imposes upon him. It is hoped that vigorous exploration of the resources suggested in the following bibliography will open new avenues of approach to the vexed problem of personality adjustment of school children, and to the teacher's responsibility in building good citizens in a desperately chaotic social scene.

Notes on Chapter One

1. *Our Cities — Their Rôle in the National Economy* is a publication of the National Resources Committee. Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Publications, 1937. Section 1, The Facts About Urban America; Section 2, The Process of Urbanization; Section 3, The Problems of Urban America, followed by recommendations for future action. This is an attractive brochure with generous, page-size, large-type maps and charts. An invaluable reference.

2. *The Problems of a Changing Population* is a companion publication to the above, issued under date of May, 1938. Population facts and trends are treated in detail, implemented by maps and charts.

3. *Consumer Incomes in the United States — Their Distribution in 1935–36* is likewise a publication of the National Resources Committee (Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Publications, 1938), and will be found exceedingly readable and informative to the layman.

4. Rugg, Harold, *American Life and the School Curriculum.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936. Since Rugg emphasizes backgrounds throughout, this is required reading for the student of public education in the United States.

5. Kolb, J. H., and Edmund deS. Brunner, *A Study of Rural Society.* Revised edition; Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. This study is based upon a long-term investigation of 140 village-centered agricultural communities in the United States. An excellent book for browsing.

6. Carpenter, Niles, *The Sociology of City Life.* New York: Longmans Green and Company, 1931. The best handbook for the busy teacher on the morphology of the American city.

7. *Life* for May 10, 1937, has an excellent illustrated section on "Middletown," with photographs by Margaret Bourke-White.

8. Three yearbooks of the Department of Superintendence (now the American Association of School Administrators) deserve special commendation.

The *Thirteenth Yearbook* (Washington, D.C., 1935), *Social Change and Education,* is one of the best expositions in recent educational literature of the social and economic changes, trends, and goals which affect public education in the United States. Required reading.

The *Sixteenth Yearbook* (1938), *Youth Education Today.* Chaps. III, IV, and V are especially good.

The *Seventeenth Yearbook* (1939), *Schools in Small Communities.* The city teacher should remember that "nine out of every ten schools and 55 per cent of the teachers in the United States are in communities of less than 2500 inhabitants. Consequently the vast majority of school systems in the country are small and comprise rural schools." Required reading for all who wish to get the complete picture of education in the current American Scene.

9. Agar, Herbert, *Land of the Free.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935. One of the best "American Scene" books in recent years. Note the interesting discussion on civilization *versus* culture in our national life. Do not overlook the illustrations gathered together at the back of the book. Very easy reading for the tired teacher!

10. Agar, Herbert, and Allen Tate, *Who Owns America?* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1936. This is a symposium edited by Agar and Tate. The subtitle, "A New Declaration of Independence," indicates the scope of the book.

11. Beach, Walter G., and E. E. Walker, *Social Problems and Social Welfare.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. The titles of the five units indicate the scope of this excellent textbook: Group Life, Its American Aspect; Population Change and Social Reorganization; Health and Welfare Under Changing Conditions; Depressed Groups and Social Struggle; Human Values and Social Reconstruction. Good material for study of the current American Scene.

12. Ogburn, William F., and Meyer F. Nimkoff, *Sociology.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. The most generously illustrated and generally readable and interesting book on the principles of sociology. Part Six, on Social Institutions, is especially pertinent to education. Fine for browsing.

13. Landis, Paul H., and Judson T., *Social Living — Principles and Problems in Introductory Sociology.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1938. The scope of this book is similar to no. 12 above. Well written and effectively implemented with illustrations and graphs. The authors have attempted to show that in restless, unsettled America are normal, stable relationships which should be emphasized if we are to face the future with confidence.

14. Terpenning, Walter A., *Village and Open-Country Neighborhoods.* New York: The Century Company, 1931. A fascinating study of village life in America as contrasted with village life in eight selected European countries.

15. Odum, Howard W., and Harry E. Moore, *American Regionalism — A Cultural-Historical Approach to National Integration.* New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1938. This is the standard reference on regionalism in the United States. A grand book for browsing on the part of the teacher who really wants to know something about the physiographic, economic, and cultural regions of her country.

16. *Survey-Graphic* for February, 1940, a special number on *Homes — A Front Line of Defense for American Life,* is exceedingly helpful. The two-page spread of illustrations, "The Life and Death Curve of an American City," show in graphic form what is meant by the morphology of a city.

17. Mumford, Lewis, *The Culture of Cities.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1938. Chapter IV, "Rise and Fall of Megalopolis," is exciting reading.

18. Mumford, Lewis, *Technics and Civilization.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1934. Chapters IV and V, "The Paleotechnic Phase," "The Neotechnic Phase," offer difficult reading, but the effort is abundantly rewarded if one is to clearly understand American life in the Power Age.

CHAPTER TWO

◇

The School and the Community

THE AUTHOR of this book has worked for several years in an elementary urban school of approximately six hundred children. Within the district which is served by the school are many city blocks covered thickly with substantial masonry apartment houses equipped with all necessary modern conveniences making daily life comfortable; with frame apartment houses which are left-overs from earlier days and have now gone to seed; with large family dwelling-houses which have been altered and made into tenements; with four-and-six-flat buildings; with small, unlovely single dwelling houses; with cheap hotels. From these come, every day, our six hundred boys and girls to kindergarten and six grades, and to these they return at the close of the school day. There are practically no recreational facilities in the district since it is close to the downtown business section and land-values are high. As a result, the rate of juvenile delinquency is appalling, exceeded only by a neighborhood school district which includes a large foreign population, whereas most of our children are native-born Americans of Anglo-Saxon parentage.

The fathers of our children work at all kinds of jobs. They are mechanics, taxicab drivers, waiters, small-business men, clerks. A few are at work in the professions and live here, not by choice, but because it is necessary to be near their offices.

Many of the mothers are working as clerks, saleswomen, waitresses, and assistants to professional workers. Some of the women are managers of the better apartment houses, some are landladies in tenements and less attractive apartment houses. A few mothers are fortunate enough to have husbands whose income is sufficient to permit their wives to be relieved of the necessity of being gainfully employed. They do their housework in the morning, go downtown in the early afternoon to shop or attend a local cinema palace and are home early enough to receive the children when they come home from school. They do not have to work in the garden since there are no real gardens, only small patches of grass and occasional shrubs.

In the neighborhood are a few very small Protestant churches, a Jewish synagogue, and, not far away, a large senior high school. These with our own elementary school comprise the cultural influences of the immediate community. However, there are compensations. A ten-minute walk brings the children to the main Public Library, a beautiful building richly equipped with book collections, pictures, magazines, historical documents, and all the other treasures which the public library of a great city can afford. Murals adorn the walls of the library and the exterior of the building is relieved by generous grassplots and clever landscaping. A large Children's Room caters to the juvenile reader. Across from the library are two office buildings in the modern style, affording the passing child an object lesson in up-to-date functional architecture. On the opposite corner is a large metropolitan hotel, "modern in every respect," if we are to believe its owners. This faces a public square occupying an entire city block. The usual soldier's monument stands at one corner of the park, there are many trees, a large family of tame pigeons, and many benches along the crosswalks. However, this is not a good place for children since, on most days, it is full of idle unemployed men who gather at all hours to hear the inevitable soap-box orator.

Directly across from the park is the large building which houses the Philharmonic Orchestra and here children can gather on Saturdays to hear the world's greatest music at a nominal price. One block farther brings the children into the very heart of the retail business section of the metropolis. Here are large department stores through which the children love to wander looking at goods brought from the four corners of the world. Here the small child learns for the first time how to travel in elevators and on escalators. A block away is one of the world's largest motion picture houses, which boasts a stage show as one of its added attractions. In the other direction, a block distant, is a great public market reaching clear through a city block from street to street, exhibiting every conceivable kind of fruit, vegetable, meat, fish, and staple food product. Just beyond is the building which houses the Department of Power and Light which has harnessed the water-power of the high Sierras in the north and the power and water of Boulder Dam to the northeast and put them on to our electric wires and into our faucets at home.

One more block brings us to the new home of one of the greatest metropolitan newspapers in the country, and it is quite possible to secure permission to visit the entire building in company with a competent guide. Across from us is the new Civic Center, whose buildings are grouped around the dazzling white City Hall whose tower is crowned by its Lindbergh Beacon. Beyond is the new Union Station built in a modified type of Spanish architecture relieved by open grass courts and native olive and pepper trees. Thousands of travelers from all over the world pass in and out of this station every day, and if we are lucky we may be able to see an ultra-modern streamlined train brilliant with stainless steel and orange enamel.

If we walk north from the Union Station we can reach the Old Plaza Church which is the last remaining remnant of the little pueblo from which the modern metropolis has evolved. Near the church, a short block has been dedicated to the

industries of the Southwest and of Mexico, and one can watch native artists at work on their respective crafts. A few blocks away is the Chinese quarter, in the opposite direction the Japanese quarter. Coming back, we can reach home by one of two long passenger tunnels, or if we are feeling energetic we climb the hill which dominated the early pueblo, walk by the junior high school to which we will go when we finish the sixth grade, and so on down through the Jewish quarter.

This, then, is our neighborhood. These, then, are our community resources, inanimate and human.

What can we teachers do in our school about all this? Shall we shut ourselves up in our ivory tower within the school and drill on arithmetic, shutting our eyes to the kind of education which the community is constantly giving our boys and girls whether we like it or not? Or shall we tolerate it, making the best of what seems to us a bad business? Or shall we capitalize our community resources, eagerly and joyfully utilizing the good things and working patiently and earnestly to offset the bad things? What shall we do? What can we do?

The first contact which the school makes with the community arises when father or mother or a grown-up son or daughter calls at the school to enter a child, to make a complaint, to ask for information, to explain an absence, or for any of the thousand and one reasons which brings the home to the school. Or the visitor may be the person who keeps the little candy-shop or small grocery across the street, or a property owner who complains about the noise on the playground, or a childless housewife who is indignant because some child has stolen flowers from her meager garden. In a large city school, the most accessible representative of the school is the school clerk who sits in the outer office and handles as many as possible of the routine contacts. The right kind of clerk, who is kindly, patient, and sympathetic, has it in her power to establish good community relationships; the haughty or ir-

ritable or lazy clerk can destroy the confidence of the community in the school by making it clear that community contacts are not welcome. In a school where good living is going on, the door of the principal's office is always open, and the principal himself is easily accessible. The Sign of the Open Door is an indication that parents and other dwellers in the neighborhood are welcome as partners in the enterprises of the school.

In general, the average parent dislikes going to school, largely because he feels unwelcome or is actually made to feel unwelcome. Granted that some of the visitors are difficult, fault-finding, and antagonistic, the school people have still little excuse for missing an opportunity to make friends. The tactful, diplomatic, and understanding clerk and principal usually win over the person who comes as an enemy and departs as a friend. All of this takes time, of course, but it represents an investment of time which pays big dividends.

The next major contact with the community is through the parent organizations, which are very much in evidence at the beginning of each school semester. This may be a regularly constituted unit of the Parent-Teacher Association or a more informal type of organization. The principal is at once confronted by a host of problems. How shall I use my influence to secure the right kind of P.T.A. officers? How can I eliminate the busybody and the amateur politician from securing a prominent place on the executive board? How can I prevent some disgruntled faction in the neighborhood from obtaining the upper hand, so as to embarrass me in my sincere efforts to serve our children wisely and well? How can I handle this continued pressure on my children which seeks to make the P.T.A. a money-making institution? How shall I avoid the circuses, bazaars, and pageants which disrupt my school for weeks at a time? Here is the chance for the principal to show her social intelligence in leading, without giving the impression of autocratic direction, and to steer the frail bark of community relationships around the reefs and bars which threaten ship-

wreck. Parents are, in the main, intelligent people; they are kindly disposed at heart; they do wish the best for their boys and girls. They suffer from human frailties, of course, but not in any degree more than do teachers and principals. Let us build on their strength rather than worry so much about their weaknesses.

The monthly meetings of the P.T.A. present still another set of difficult problems. Why do so many mothers so joyfully stay away? Why do teachers dislike to attend, or if they are present, why do they sit and suffer so obviously? The following suggestions may help to answer some of these problems. In the first place, it is a very unwise procedure to inflict an outside speaker on the mothers and teachers to the extent that the participants are made purely passive spectators. It is no fun to sit on a wooden folding-chair for one solid hour listening to some person, unfamiliar with local problems, ride his or her particular hobby. How much better for the P.T.A. president and the principal and an intelligent teacher to bring their chairs close to the audience and discuss informally the immediate problems of the school, making every effort to draw the parents and the other teachers present into the conference. Let the participants become active and not merely passive in discussing the affairs of Zion. Occasionally, it is very interesting to the parents to have the hour turned over to a class of children and allow the children an opportunity to discuss what is going on in their classroom. Recently, a class entertained several hundred auditors most delightfully with an account of a unit on records which had been the center of interest in that particular class. Again, parents are usually intrigued when the principal gathers several teachers around her to discuss freely, frankly and informally, school problems from the school standpoint, and, toward the end of the hour, allows parents to comment, interrogate, criticize, suggest, and evaluate what has been said. Again, the same technique may be used with a group of parents discussing some of the immediate problems of the home. Again, the meeting may take

on the appearance of a work-shop period when all present take part in studying a series of related problems which have been set up as the basis of the year's work, as, for example, problems revolving around the growth of children. Finally, every effort should be made to eliminate the kind of P.T.A. meeting where unfortunate children are exploited to cater to the vanity of their mothers. It is not true — as is so often said — that parents will come to the school only to see their young hopefuls perform on the stage of the auditorium.

A word about poor father. He is usually recognized once or twice a year at a Fathers' Night, but aside from this his contacts with the school are negligible. This is better than nothing, but very far short of the ideal. There seems to be no good reason why afternoon and evening meetings of the parents' organization should not alternate so as to give the fathers of the district an opportunity to become acquainted with the school, and vice versa.

Fathers have much to offer. They have the man's point of view, which is so desirable in an elementary school situation so hopelessly feminized. Think of the thousands of elementary school children who have no direct contact with any man during school hours except with the janitor (or custodian) who, after all, may prove to be a woman! Fathers have resources which can be tapped for the benefit of the school. This father served in the Navy for several years. This one has been around the world. This one is an executive of a nationally known broadcast station. This one is a distinguished architect. This one is only a junk man but an unusually well integrated personality who understands human relationships perfectly. This is an excellent amateur musician; let him help us with our school orchestra. That one is a recognized artist; let him help us with our murals. It is amazing how whole-heartedly and good-humoredly we neglect the human resources of our fathers.

Another major contact of the school with the home revolves around our health program. The school physician comes and

finds that Jimmy is undernourished although he comes from a family that is economically, socially, and emotionally stable. We send a polite note home and receive in return an equally polite note promising to do something about it. Here is another failure to make a lasting bond with the home. If we invited the parent to be present at the medical examination, and allowed time for a complete and painstaking going-over of her child, it is quite possible that we might discover that Jimmy's underweight is a symptom and not a cause. He is suffering from a glandular deficiency which needs attention. Parent, physician, nurse, principal, and teacher sitting together in consultation could find a solution to Jimmy's problem, and a new friend of the school could be made.

And then the whole vexing problem of home reports. Mr. Jones, who is a citizen and a taxpayer, is incensed at the school authorities because twice a semester he receives (*a*) no report at all because the school is an exponent of "progressive" education which does not approve of home reports; or (*b*) a card marked in percentages — arithmetic 87 per cent; or (*c*) a card marked in A's, B's, C's and D's which are unintelligible; or (*d*) a curt note directing him to call at the school; or (*e*) a folder containing 137 questions about Jimmy, most of which are answered "No." On one of these, he reads, "Has he (Jimmy) a real appreciation of beauty?" Poor father wonders just how any teacher can answer so glibly about Jimmy's aesthetic traits, bearing in mind that Jimmy is just half-past six and inclined to shuffle and scrape his feet at the most inopportune times. Mr. Dellarocco, who runs our neighborhood vegetable stand, stumbles through the report sheet to confront the question, "Does he (Mr. Dellarocco's Angelo, aged nine) have a well-developed social consciousness?" Mr. Dellarocco is properly mystified at modern education and who can blame him?

In spite of the progressives, father and mother have a right to know (*a*) how Jimmy behaves in school; (*b*) how he is getting along in the more formal school subjects; (*c*) if his attendance

is regular; (*d*) if he is having difficulty and where; and, (*e*) if he is showing evidences of special abilities which have not been evidenced at home. Surely, the educators in a modern school should be smart enough to devise forms of home reports which serve both to inform parents as to the progress of the children and to bind the parents more cordially to the school.[1]

Still another form of home and school relationship centers about the matter of home visitation. Some school systems make it compulsory for each teacher to visit each home represented in her classroom at least once a semester. Theoretically, this is admirable; and practically, very dubious. To most of the neighbors and to the child concerned, the visit of the teacher to the home is an evidence of misconduct on the part of the child. The poor mother who sees Mamie's teacher at the door is apt to groan and say to herself, "Oh, dear! I wonder what Mamie's up to now!" Often the teacher comes after school just when the mother is starting her preparations for dinner and is compelled by circumstances to be polite, while inwardly she wonders if the cauliflower is being burned to a crisp. The more militant mother takes the attitude that her home is her castle and that the teacher should come only upon invitation, like any other guest. Actually, this idea is the clue to the solution of the problem. Forcing a visit upon an unwilling hostess merely intensifies the parent's distrust of the school. Let the school act as host to the mothers until desirable community relationships are established and then invitations to visit the home will follow in due course. The fatal error in all this is to misunderstand the purpose of the school visit. Emphatically it is not to discuss the child's progress in school. The call is a social call, not a business call, and its sole justification is to allow mother and teacher to know each other as human beings, not to emphasize the fact

[1] A fuller discussion of forms of home reports may be found in Robert Hill Lane, *The Progressive Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938), chap. XI.

that one is a teacher, the other a parent. When it becomes necessary to discuss a child's problem the parent may go to the school "on business," or she may invite the teacher or principal to the home "on business" and settle the matter in a business-like way. The teacher who visits the home and enacts the rôle of a social worker visiting a family on relief, gazing curiously around her all the while and asking embarrassing personal questions, can do an infinite amount of damage to desirable school-home amity.

The machinery of school organization should be set up so as to make parents active participants in school affairs as far as circumstances permit. There are many odd jobs around the school which mothers can handle effectively; helping in the cafeteria, caring for the repair of library books, or decorating tables in the lunch room. Fathers usually like to assist, and many a school is richer in equipment because fathers have made bookcases, work-tables, sandboxes, and other necessary paraphernalia for effective group living. Why not capitalize on the human resources in the community?

Another phase of this problem is the recognition of special talents possessed by parents. This has been touched upon in a preceding paragraph as a source for the enrichment of school meetings, but it can be extended to bring into the classroom the man or woman who out of his experience can widen the horizons of the children. Why is it that so many teachers feel that the educative process can be carried on only by the professional? "Miss Jones, wouldn't it be nice to invite Mr. Anderson tomorrow afternoon to tell our class about the murals he has finished in the public library?" "Oh, dear, I have just finished planning my arithmetic for that time!"

One of the major items on the elementary school program is the making of as complete and accurate inventory of community resources as possible. The problem here consists of two parts: first, What is the community? and, How can the school best utilize its resources?

1. *What is the Community?* The White House Conference[1] has this to say:

> The basic needs of the child, security and an opportunity to develop, can never be fully satisfied by his own home, his school, his church, or industry. He needs group life, widening interests; he craves the adventure and the opportunities to act as an independent human being which are to be found in what we call the *community.* All children, privileged and underprivileged, take what the community has to offer. Adults make the community what it is.

An excellent discussion on certain aspects of community life may be found in the *Thirteenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.[2] In Chapter V, "Plans for an Improved Social Life," J. B. Edmonson points out some factors which militate against the effectiveness of the community as a social agency, such as the conflicts of warring groups within the community, conflicts over the school system, over the desirability of the presence of racial or national minorities, over religion, over politics, over economic theories. The community disperses its energies in profitless quarrels instead of attempting to channel these energies into constructive action for community welfare. In small towns, a disproportionate number of women and of aged people who are not in sympathy with the needs and interests of youth constitutes a barrier to community effort.

Edmonson inquires as to what people want of their community. His list is adapted freely as follows:

(*a*) Protection of life and property
(*b*) Opportunity for personal development, pleasure, and recreation
(*c*) The chance to earn a good living under favorable conditions of work
(*d*) Conditions favorable to the health, happiness, and well-being of the entire family
(*e*) A friendly, optimistic, constructive, co-operative community spirit.

[1] *The Delinquent Child,* at p. 193, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection (New York: Century Company, 1932).

[2] Washington, D.C., 1935.

Reference is made to a *Community Appraisal Card*[1] prepared by a committee of the Michigan Congress of Parents and Mothers and revised in 1933 by Edmonson and Fisher. This card will be helpful to any school which is seeking to determine the quality of its community life. It lists ten requirements characteristic of the community which is able to qualify with a high score:

(*a*) A marked degree of civic unity and community pride.

(*b*) Reasonably good opportunities for honest and industrious parents to maintain a comfortable standard of living for themselves and their children.

(*c*) Adequate facilities for wholesome physical and social recreation for children and adults.

(*d*) Emphasis on the importance and value of the refining influence of good music, lectures, entertainments, and books.

(*e*) Emphasis on the health and physical well-being of children,

(*f*) Liberal financial and moral support of the schools.

(*g*) Emphasis on a high standard of efficiency in the schools.

(*h*) Churches which take active part in the religious education of children and young people.

(*i*) Participation of the finest people in the community in community affairs, and the maintenance of high standards of personal conduct among such participants.

(*j*) Generous support of effective character-building community organizations and agencies.

The Community Appraisal Card effectively amplifies each of the above items in a series of thought-provoking questions which will add greatly to the value of the school's investigation of community conditions.

To sum up this brief discussion of the question, "What is the Community?" it should be pointed out that there are three aspects of community life which demand attention, two of which are obvious, and a third which is often neglected.

[1] Copies of the *Community Appraisal Card* may be obtained from the Extension Division of the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

The Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence expresses this most adequately:

> In brief, then, the community is not limited to the bricks, stones, mud, and elements out of which its physical manifestations are constructed. Nor is it limited to the people who live in the geographical area and who perform more or less useful social services. The community includes a third aspect, the climate of opinion, individual aims, and social purposes which guide and motivate the lives of citizens. If, then, pupils are to have genuine understanding of their environment, they must be given the opportunity to examine and to evaluate the intangible processes of group life as well as the tangible social machinery and institutions.[1]

The authors suggest a three-fold approach to the problem: (*a*) listing of community resources by individual teachers, checked and enriched by a committee of teachers; (*b*) making a community survey by a committee of pupils under adult supervision and guidance; and (*c*) seeking the aid of a committee of laymen which can conduct a community survey in cooperation with a committee of teachers. Two books which have aroused the interest of Americans in the sociological survey are the imposing volumes by Robert S. and Helen M. Lynd: *Middletown*,[2] a survey of a typical American city, published in 1929, and its successor, *Middletown in Transition*,[2] published in 1937.

The chapter titles in *Middletown* are comprised in the following sequence: Getting a Living, Making a Home, Training the Young, Using Leisure, Engaging in Religious Practices, Engaging in Community Activities. Additional points of view found in *Middletown in Transition* are Caring for the Unable During the Depression, The Machinery of Government, Getting Information (the press), Keeping Healthy, The Middletown Spirit. Elementary school people, who are seriously considering community relationships, will find an immense amount of rich material in these volumes.

[1] From the chapter "The Utilization of Community Resources" in *The Social Studies Curriculum, Fourteenth Yearbook*, p. 249.

[2] New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company.

Many excellent books written for elementary school children discuss community relationships most effectively. For example, *Centerville*, by Hanna, Anderson, and Gray, uses a technique which has made *Centerville* [1] a juvenile *Middletown*, and which can be easily adapted to any American community. A later book in the same series, *Ten Communities*,[2] analyzes community life in ten American cities and towns in a manner likely to prove helpful and interesting to fifth and sixth grade children. *The Community Life Series*,[2] edited by L. Thomas Hopkins and Lorraine Sherer, includes five books: *Jimmy the Groceryman*, *To Market We Go*, and *Dean and Don at the Dairy*, all by Jane Miller, together with *Here Comes the Postman* and *Pets are Fun*, by Dorothea Park. These books are justly popular with children and teachers interested in studying common aspects of community life. Other titles will be found at the end of the present chapter.

2. *How Can the School Best Utilize Community Resources?*

(*a*) *The Curriculum.* In school systems in which curriculum revision has taken place in consonance with modern theories of education, certain units or interests fields or areas are suggested on several grade levels which deal directly with various aspects of community life. Such a sequence is found in the Santa Barbara (California) curriculum.

Kindergarten, First Grade — adjustment to self, home, school, and neighborhood groups.

Grade Two — adjustment to community.

Grades Three and Four — continued adjustment to the community with especial reference to historical and geographical backgrounds.

It is impossible to carry on the familiar units found in nearly all school systems on transportation, communication, the postal service, and the like, without bringing in many references to local neighborhood and community life. It is assumed that the supervisory force in such situations will provide

[1] Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1938.

[2] Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934, 1935, 1936, 1936, and 1939.

classroom teachers with lists of available community resources and suggestions as to the best ways in which to use them. Supervisors and teachers will find it necessary to revise such data occasionally because the community is a living organism which is continually changing. Modern supplemental readers such as those referred to in preceding paragraphs will prove invaluable in clarifying children's concepts of community life, while visual aids of all kinds illustrating phases of community life are part of the equipment of the modern classroom.

(*b*) *Trips, excursions, visits.* All three terms are in use and in actual practice appear to be interchangeable. They represent the modern trend in elementary schools to give the children firsthand acquaintance with local industries, business houses, museums, art galleries, airports, and other sources of information likely to attract the interest of children. The techniques followed comprise three items: (*a*) the conference before the excursion takes place, at which children and teacher list the things which they wish to see, the information they desire to obtain, and the social conventions to be observed throughout the visit (to be orderly on the school bus, to listen attentively to the guide, to keep together in a group); (*b*) the actual visit; and (*c*) the post-visit conference to exchange experiences and clarify meanings. The *Fourteenth Yearbook* classifies community contacts of this kind under three heads, *observational*, *participatory*, and *contributory*.

> OBSERVATIONAL — The pupils are cast in the rôle of more or less passive listeners and observers. Most excursions are of this nature where the pupils are guided, for example, through a factory, a botanical garden, a zoo, a dairy or a firehouse.[1]
>
> PARTICIPATORY — A common example is the utilization of the public library. Pupils do not simply discuss the value of a library to the community, or content themselves with an observational trip, but they actually *use* the library much as do adult citizens. In other words, the pupils use the information and the experiences obtained from the community contact to increase the effectiveness and richness of their *participation* in local life.[2]

[1] *Fourteenth Yearbook*, p. 255. [2] *Ibid.*, p. 261.

> CONTRIBUTORY — The contributory type of community contact differs essentially in two particulars from the observational and participatory types previously described. In the first place, the contributory type is what its name indicates, a definite contribution or addition by the pupils to their environment. In the second place, the contributory type has no theoretical limits as to the amount of originality and creativeness which may be put into it by the students. For example, a social studies class might survey the recreational opportunities of a district, prepare plans and models to show how conditions might be improved, submit these plans to local governmental officials, and then help to arouse public opinion in support of the project.[1]

Interesting examples of each type of community contact will be found in the *Fourteenth Yearbook* (pp. 255–74), and will repay careful study and analysis.

A new movement in public education which is very old indeed in European countries is the long-distance trip which involves the absence of the children concerned from school and home for a period extending from a day or so to several weeks. During the World's Fair summers of 1939 and 1940, thousands of children visited both the New York and the San Francisco World's Fairs as part of the regular school program. This is a tendency to be encouraged, and the unqualified success of these longer excursions should encourage the timid educator and the timorous Board of Education to take heart. Some sensible, practical suggestions on the subject will be found in the *Fourteenth Yearbook* on page 277.

An excellent reference for elementary school people interested in excursions is the chapter by Fannie W. Dunn — "The Environment as a Primary Source of Materials of Instruction,"[2] in the *Eighth Yearbook*. Miss Dunn sums up the possibilities very neatly:

> These resources include opportunities to observe the materials and process of nature, to re-live the past through contact with his-

[1] *Fourteenth Yearbook*, p. 266.

[2] *Eighth Yearbook: Materials of Instruction*, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935), p. 26.

torical remains, to gain accurate evidence of the influence of earth factors on human living, to see the agencies and institutions of society in action and even to participate to some degree in the control of nature and society.

One of the potential weaknesses in all school excursions is the failure to capitalize fully on the trip through an inadequate follow-up in the classroom. Probably no elementary school does a better job in this respect than Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University. Very meticulous accounts of numerous school excursions and what happened subsequently will be found in the several volumes of the *Lincoln School Curriculum Studies*, edited by L. Thomas Hopkins and Paul Hanna.[1] For the convenience of the reader the following list is offered:

First Grade — *A First Grade at Work* (Lula E. Wright, 1932)

Second Grade — *Carrying the Mail* (Avah W. Hughes, 1933)

Third Grade — *Indian Life and the Dutch Colonial Settlement* (Katharine L. Keelor and Mayme A. Sweet, 1931)

Fourth Grade — *Adventuring with Toys* (Jessie B. Eakright and Bess M. Young, 1933). Note the techniques developed in Chapter III, "The Group Explores Farther Afield." — *Millions of Years in a Winter* (Edna Bridge Leining, 1935)

Sixth Grade — *Ships and Navigation* (Tompsie Baxter and Bess M. Young, 1933). Chapter V — "Excursions" is excellent. — *Children and Architecture* (Emily Ann Barnes and Bess M. Young, 1932)

(*c*) A powerful agency in maintaining adequate community contacts with the school is the school publication, which may range all the way from a mimeographed "Newspaper" produced by a classroom group to the costly and handsomely illustrated brochure such as the New York City Board of Education's *All the Children*, and Los Angeles' *Your Children and Their Schools*. There is no more effective way of establishing and maintaining satisfactory relations with the home than

[1] New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University

by a school newspaper or magazine in which children, teachers, and parents co-operate. The most common fault of such a publication lies in diffuse and unorganized content. The editor, whether a child or a teacher, usually lacks the experience which would enable him to set up a series of departments under which his materials may be effectively organized. Occasionally, one finds a school magazine which shows evidence of careful planning. Its major departments are: (*a*) General School News; (*b*) Sports; (*c*) Special Events; (*d*) Current Units of Work; (*e*) Trips and Excursions; (*f*) Local Community News; and (*g*) School and Home Organizations. There seems to be no justification for the common practice of allowing space for reports from each classroom. It is not likely to be a matter of interest to anyone to learn that "Room 10 is studying ants."

Another form of school publication which is becoming increasingly popular is the "occasional report" which appears to occupy a position somewhere between the standard school magazine and a board of education brochure. An excellent example of this type is *A School for the World of Tomorrow* — "The Story of Living and Learning in Lincoln School" [1] (Elementary Division). This delightful booklet steers very skillfully between the Scylla of high-brow, academic language which is baffling to the average citizen, and the Charybdis of over-simplification which is an insult to the intelligence of the civilized adult. Organization, style, page-size, type, and illustrations set standards for future publications of this kind.

Even a booklet of information can be made attractive. The Minneapolis Public Schools publish *The Approach to School*, a booklet of information to parents about to send their children to kindergarten. This type of publicity deserves commendation.

Why are course-of-study publications so forbidding in appearance and so desiccated in content? There is an increasing tendency on the part of intelligent citizens to inform them-

[1] New York: Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939.

selves about local school curricula, and it speaks volumes for their earnestness of purpose that they plow religiously through such unlovely material. This condition can and will be changed as the schools come closer in contact with the community. A pioneer in this respect is the primary course of study for the elementary schools of Los Angeles County, California. No one would ever suspect by looking at the cover that this is our old friend, the course of study, in modern dress. It is a large, handsomely bound, and beautifully illustrated volume bearing the intriguing title *Their First Years in School.*[1] Such a publication succeeds admirably in arousing and maintaining the confidence of the people in our schools.

Another fine example of good publicity along this line is *Living Today — Learning for Tomorrow*, a course in the social studies, published by the Seattle Public Schools. Well arranged, simply told, and beautifully illustrated, this publication will build excellent home-school relationships.

An interesting phase of community development has evolved out of the joint efforts of parents and teachers to bring about an improvement in school architecture based upon a functional approach to the problem, using "functional" in its literal sense as adapted to the comfort and convenience of the children who spend a large part of the daylight hours in school. That we have a long way to go in this respect is indicated by William Lescaze, the well-known architect:

> Since the word "modern" has been so often misused, I must hasten to say that by modern architecture, I mean something which, with one exception near Los Angeles, we have not yet seen in our public school buildings. There is not at this moment one single, really modern, public school building in the United States.[2]

It appears to be axiomatic at the present time that both the parents who foot the bill for a new school building and send

[1] Los Angeles, California: County Board of Education, 1939.

[2] William Lescaze, "The Functional Approach to School Planning," *Architectural Record*, June, 1936.

their children to it, and the teachers who teach in it, should have something to say about the site, the building, and the accompanying equipment. It is only within the last decade that a new conception of the elementary school plant has come to be accepted by progressive school people, that a school plant should be devised for the comfort and convenience of children. School buildings for decades have been designed for almost any reason other than that given in the preceding sentence: to please the local civic authorities, to impress visitors, to help float a dubious real estate project, to surpass the achievement of a rival city. As a result we are hard put to it to find anywhere in America a school building designed primarily for the sake of the children. We find imposing exteriors and dingy interiors. We find Queen Anne fronts and Mary Ann rears. We find school buildings alongside crowded traffic arteries where noise and gasoline fumes make life miserable for children. We find the combination of a very large building and a very tiny yard. We find a school auditorium hidden behind the main building so that access to it from the street is difficult. We find classrooms so small that forty children fill them so as to leave little available floor space.

From the standpoint of functional architecture, it is highly essential that classrooms should be designed with one primary end in view, the comfort and convenience of the children. In the modern school, which calls for the provision of many desirable experiences for children, it is imperative that children have sufficient room in which to carry on their work. The organic parts of a modern elementary classroom are as follows:

A. *The classroom proper.* Minimum width, 23 feet, minimum length, 38 feet. A blackboard should be placed on the front wall, bulletin or display boards on side and rear walls. The modern elementary program does not require much blackboard space. Built-in equipment — bookcases, shelving, etc. — is not advisable, as movable furniture is preferable.

B. *The workroom.* This will obviously be the width of the

classroom and not less than six feet in depth. It should be provided with a sink, shelving, and a cupboard.

C. *The cloakroom.* This also will be the width of the classroom and not less than three feet in depth. It should include rods and coat hangers for the children, shelving, and a coat closet for the teacher's use. An alternative plan is to provide steel lockers for storage in the adjoining hall. These should be recessed in the wall.

D. *The exterior wall.* This is a most vital spot in designing a functional school building. The conventional idea of an exterior schoolroom wall is that it shuts the children in from the outside world. The functional idea is to make it merely a "veil" or a "curtain" or a "skin" (to use the functionalist terms) to allow instant access to the outside. In all but very cold climates there will be many days when it will be delightful to extend the classroom outward into fresh air and bright sunlight. This is being done in a variety of ways: by steel-and-glass frames which raise upward toward the ceiling, by French doors, or by sliding glass doors. Each method has its merits and defects.

E. *The terrace.* Immediately outside the exterior wall should extend a terrace nearly as long as the classroom and at least twelve feet wide. This terrace serves as an outdoor workroom in good weather. This terrace should lead by one or two steps to a grass plot where children can play or work as desired. Since each classroom has its terrace, the three- or four-foot space between terraces should be planted to quick-growing shrubs to ensure a degree of privacy. A variation of the terrace idea is to recess the outside wall six or eight feet to allow for partial roof covering the terrace. In very warm climates where bright sunlight is common it is wise to cover the terrace with awnings, securely fixed to steel rods, or to employ canvas curtains which can be easily rolled up. A third method, the least satisfactory, is to use large beach umbrellas fixed to sockets bored in the terrace floor.

Classroom lighting should be controlled by photoelectric

cells and the temperature, by thermostats. Lamps should be run in relays. All furniture should be of the movable type, preferably of tubular-steel construction. Ceilings should be acoustically treated to obviate unnecessary noise. Classrooms should provide facilities for both silent and talking pictures. Color should be used in classroom walls to increase light, provide for variety, and to lessen eye strain. All classroom floors should be covered with linoleum.

In the quotation from William Lescaze, there was a reference to a school "near Los Angeles" which exemplifies modern architecture as Lescaze defines the term. This elementary school is located in the city of Bell, a suburb of Los Angeles, and was built by the distinguished architect, Richard J. Neutra. Examination of Plate 1 shows that the school is built on the L-plan with an open corridor on the inner side. The construction is wood and steel lath covered with stucco. Plate 2 indicates ventilation by small windows set close to the ceiling of the classroom. Plate 3 shows the exterior side of the L-shaped building. The front of the classroom is recessed to afford partial coverage by the roof, supplemented by a heavy canvas curtain. Outside the building line is a grassplot which will be separated from its neighbors when the shrubbery is full grown. The exterior classroom wall is made flexible by a sliding glass door. Plate 4 indicates the exterior of the kindergarten which occupies the short arm of the L. There are two defects in the building from the standpoint of the teachers: the outside terrace is too narrow and should be extended outward for at least six feet beyond the line of the building, and the inside ventilating windows should be hooded to prevent excessive light on bright days. Classrooms are shown in Plates 5–10 inclusive and Plates 17 and 18.

A final word about the minimum essentials to be observed whenever a community proposes to erect a school building. First of all, let the enterprise be a real community enterprise in which parents, teachers, and architect work together cooperatively for the welfare of the children to be housed in the

new school. Second, list the functions or uses to which the school is to be put and provide adequately for each. Third, keep the building as simple as possible, avoid excess ornamentation and useless landscaping, and spend the money thus saved on equipment and supplies. Fourth, allow ample space for classrooms and halls and avoid built-in features which consume space needlessly. Fifth, if funds are available, provide for recessed lockers in the halls to eliminate unsightly and unusable cloakrooms. Sixth (which really includes all the foregoing hints), allow nothing in the school plant which is not constantly usable or functional. Let the slogan be: *Thousands for use and not one cent for show!*

Notes on Chapter Two

1. Yeager, William A., *Home-School-Community Relations.* Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, 1939. This imposing volume covers the entire field and is invaluable as a reference book on the subject.

2. Bain, Winifred E., *Parents Look at Modern Education.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1935. A comprehensive study of the modern school from the standpoint of father and mother. Invaluable for material with parents' study and conference groups. Required reading.

3. Hart, Joseph K., *A Social Interpretation of Education.* New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1929. The standard work on the social setting in which the schools operate. Indispensable to the student of community life.

4. Hockett, John A., and E. W. Jacobsen, *Modern Practices in the Elementary School.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1938. Chapter V, "Making the Most of the Environment," is a comprehensive and satisfactory chapter.

5. If your public or university library has back files of *Progressive Education,* there is a mine of rich material in the quarterly number for April–June, 1927: "Some Comments on Environment" by Edward Yeomans; "Come Let Us Live with Our Children" by Queen Coonley; "The Cooperative Planning of a School" by Katharine Taylor; "New Schools for Old" by Rose Knox; "A Child's Size World" by Margaret Pollitzer; "Making Environment Meaningful" by Caroline Pratt. Excellent photographic illustrations. Here you will find ideas to bring before your parents' conference groups.

6. *Progressive Education* for February, 1938, is devoted to community resources; for March, 1938, to regional resources; and for March, 1939, to natural resources. These numbers will suggest to the upper school teacher desirable and interesting leads to community studies.

7. There is an excellent section, "Making Use of Community Resources," in the *Eighteenth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary Principals, *Enriching the Curriculum for the Elementary School Child.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1939. Especial attention is called to "A Fourth-Grade Excursion to Another City," pp. 481–88. A good bibliography appears on page 505.

8. Fincher, Ernest B., R. E. Fraser, and William G. Kimmel, *Democracy At Work* (Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1939), has as its subtitle *Living in American Communities.* This can be used effectively as a reference book in the upper elementary grades and as a text in secondary schools. The elementary teacher about to embark with her class on a survey of community resources will find many excellent suggestions in this.

9. *69 Bank Street*, vol. I, no. 8, May, 1935. This magazine is the house organ of the Harriet Johnson Nursery School and the Cooperative School for Student Teachers. In this number is an account of an extended excursion to West Virginia by student teachers under the direction of Lucy Sprague Mitchell; it is described by two of the students, Miss Elizabeth Walther and Miss Elsa Ueland. Worth reading as indicative of the technique used by adults on excursions.

10. *69 Bank Street*, vol. II, no. 3, December, 1935. This number contains two programs for the seven-year-olds which are worthy of study, especially the second which involves the environment of the city school child.

11. *Know Your Modern Elementary School.* Leaflet no. 52. Washington, D.C.: Department of the Interior, Office of Education, 1939. This excellent twenty-two page statement will be found exceedingly helpful for use in parents' group conferences. Price, five cents.

12. Goodykoontz, Bess, *Elementary Education—Is It All Settled?* (Special reprint from *School Life.*) Washington, D.C.: United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, May, 1939. A short list of unsolved problems in elementary education. Good material for discussion in parents' classes and conferences.

13. The *Fourteenth Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, *The Social Studies Curriculum.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1936. Chapter XI, "The Utilization of Community Resources."

14. Murray, Josephine, and Effie G. Bathurst, *Creative Ways for Children's Programs.* New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1938.

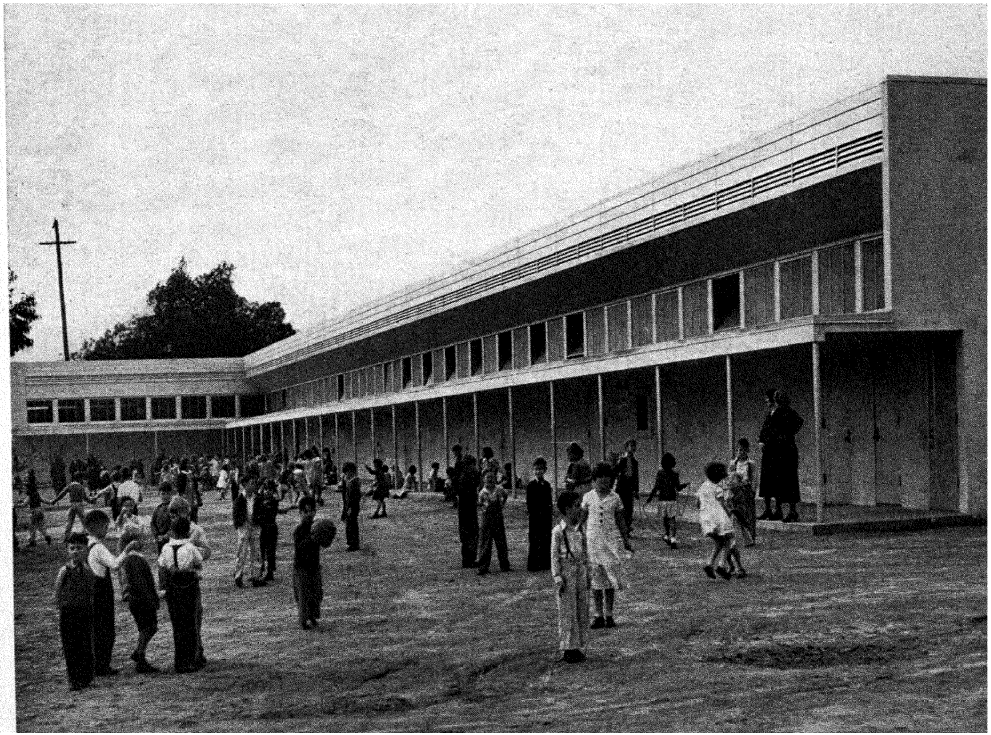


PLATE I. Court View, Corona Avenue School

Eventually the playground will be paved and the building landscaped.

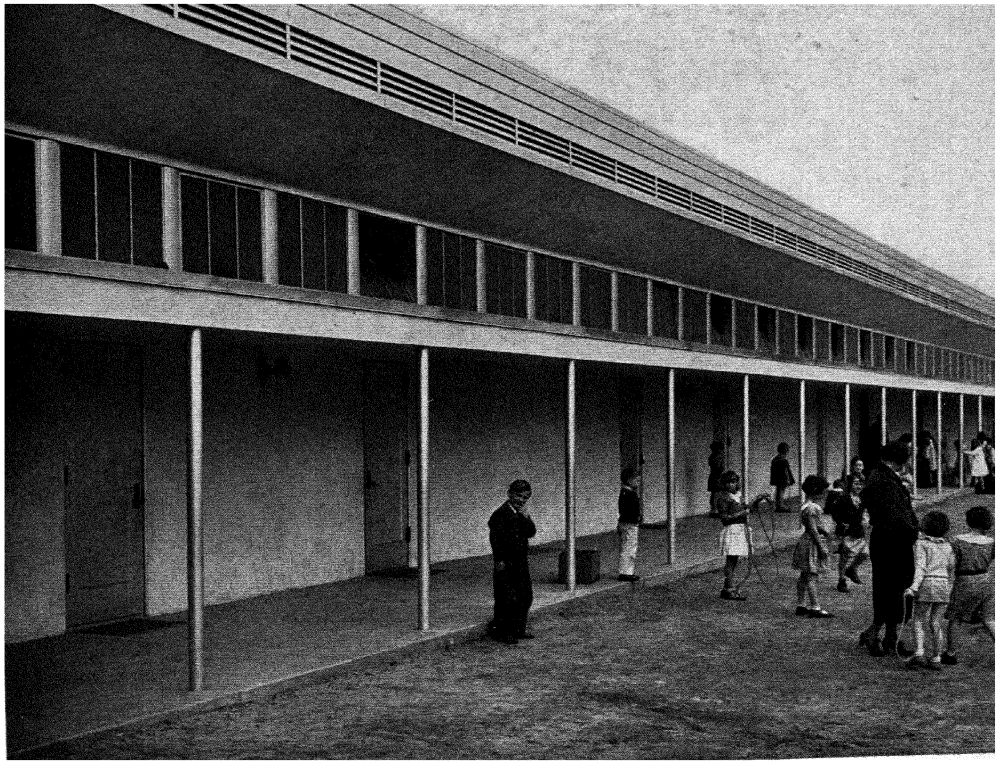


PLATE 2. Close-up of Court, Corona Avenue School

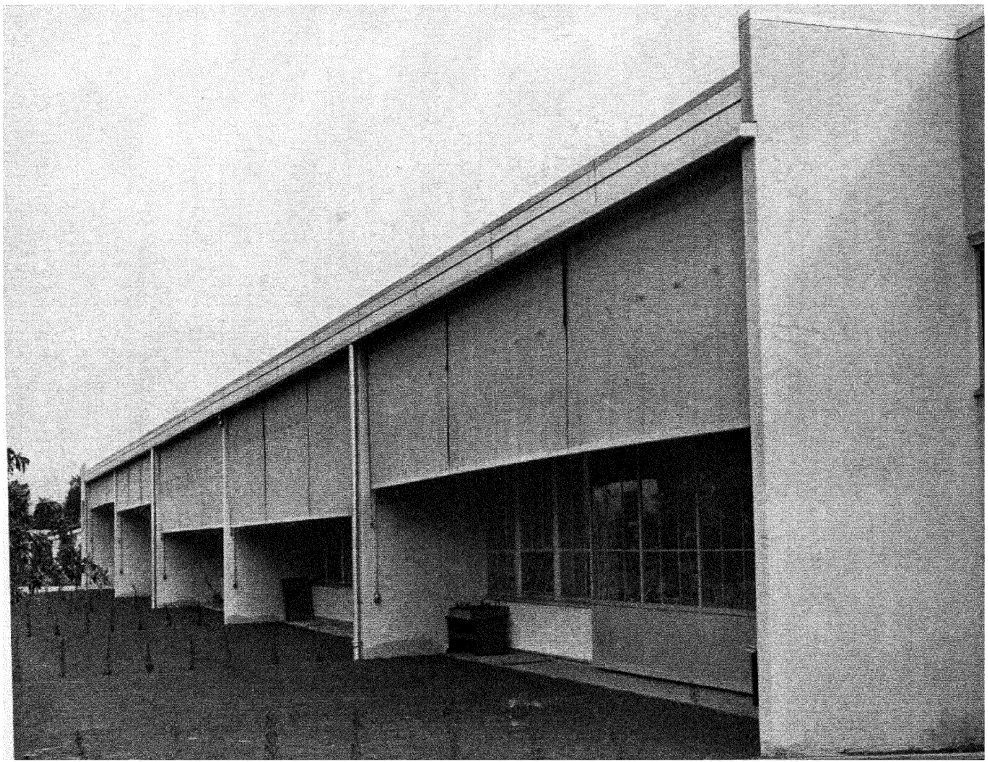
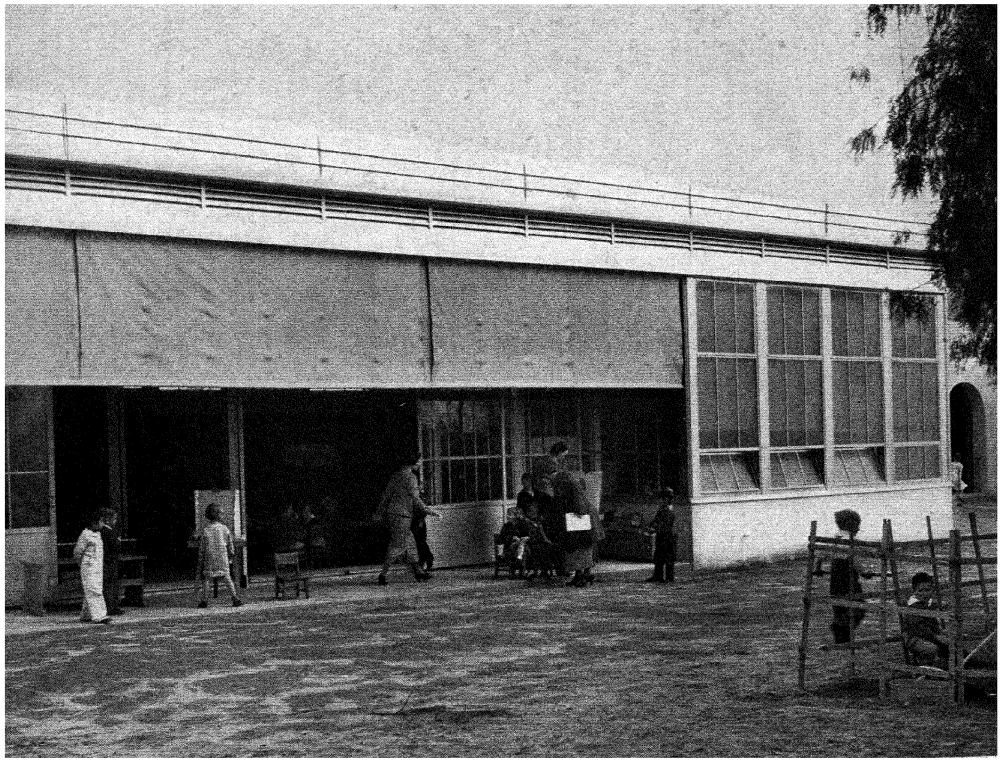


PLATE 3. Exterior View, Corona Avenue School

The narrow cement platform is to be extended to the end of the dividing walls. Note canvas curtains.



LATE 4. Exterior of Kindergarten, Corona Avenue School
The playground area has now been paved.

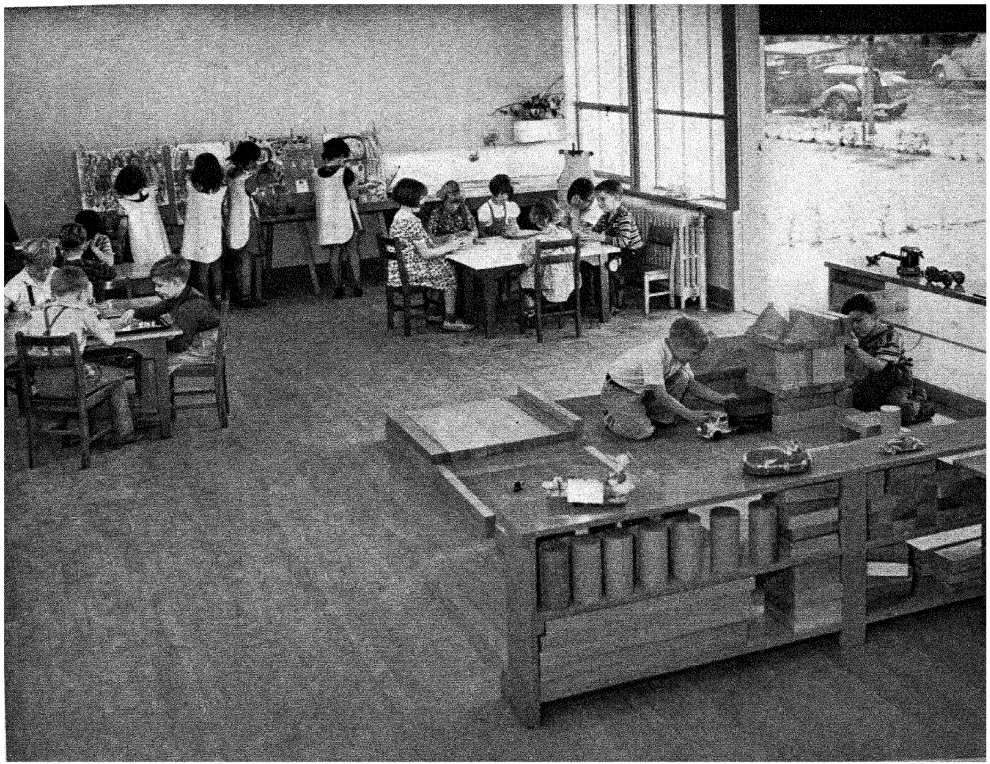


PLATE 5. Primary Classroom, Corona Avenue School
Note open door and canvas curtain. Four work centers are in use.



LATE 6. North Half of Classroom Shown in PLATE 5



PLATE 7. Primary Classroom, Corona Avenue School
A different arrangement of room furniture from that shown in the preceding pictures.



PLATE 8. North Half of Classroom Shown in PLATE 7

An excellent manual for teachers on the use of the school auditorium. There is no better meeting place for parents, children, and teachers than at a functional school program.

15. Clapp, Elsie R., *Community Schools in Action.* New York: Viking Press, 1939. "A case study of two experimental rural schools in their relations with the community." The two schools referred to are in Kentucky and West Virginia. Required reading.

16. Engelhardt, Dr. N. L., "Elementary Public School Design," *Architectural Record,* February, 1939, pp. 87–122. Subtitles: (*a*) Current Trends, (*b*) Nursery Schools, (*c*) Kindergarten-Primary, (*d*) Upper Elementary. Floor plans and excellent illustrations add materially to the text. Dr. Engelhardt is from Columbia.

17. Haskell, Douglas, "The Modern Nursery School," *Architectural Record,* March, 1938, pp. 84–100. Excellent illustrations and helpful floor plans accompany the text.

18. Write the Harriet Johnson Nursery School, 69 Bank Street, New York City, for these publications:

(*a*) *Equipment for Two-year-old Children*
(*b*) *Equipment for Three-year-old Children*
(*c*) *Equipment for Four-year-old Children*
(*d*) *Equipment for Five-year-old Children*

Persons interested in developing nursery schools and kindergartens will welcome these carefully worked out lists.

19. *The School Auditorium as a Theater,* Bulletin, 1939, no. 4. Washington, D.C.: Department of the Interior, Office of Education. This indicates many ways of using the auditorium, as well as standards for construction. If your elementary school has an auditorium or is about to build one, note the minimum requirements stated for the stage, which is usually the weak spot in auditorium construction.

20. Stoddard, George D., "What of the Nursery School?" *Progressive Education,* October, 1937, is a good introduction to the subject; excellent illustrations. Discuss this with your P.T.A. and other parents' groups.

21. Born, Esther, *The New Architecture in Mexico.* New York: William Morrow & Co., 1937. First of all, this book is a rude jolt to those Americans who think Mexico is inhabited exclusively by peasants who spend their entire time amusing the tourists. Read the first twenty-one pages and end an illusion. From the standpoint of functional school architecture, Mexico is in general far ahead of the United States, and the photographs of Mexico's new schools on pp. 22–29, 30–32, will repay careful study. A supplemental section on painting and sculpture will be found at the end of the book.

22. *Progressive Education* for April, 1938, has several good articles on

school architecture: Steward Wagner, "School Buildings, Arthurdale, West Virginia"; Richard J. Neutra, "New Elementary Schools for America"; William Lescaze, "Modern Buildings for Modern Education." From these the reader may formulate some general principles which will be useful in any building program in which the teacher may be involved.

23. Reference has been made in this chapter to *Centerville* and *Ten Communities* as examples of school textbooks on American community life. Among other available titles are:

Rugg, Harold Ordway, and Louise Krueger, *Nature Peoples.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936.

Rugg, Harold Ordway, and Louise Krueger, *Communities of Men.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936.

Bruner, Herbert Bascom, and C. M. Smith, *Social Studies.* Chicago: Charles E. Merrill Company. Book I (1936); Book II (1937); Book III (1938).

24. Baruch, Dorothy, *Parents and Children Go to School.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1939. "Delightful first-hand accounts through anecdotes, diaries, and case histories of the daily activities of children, parents, and teachers learning together."

25. Gruenberg, Sidonie M., *We, the Parents.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1939. Awarded the Parents' Magazine book medal for 1939 as the outstanding book on parent education.

CHAPTER THREE

◇

Organizing the School for Effective Learning

A. The Mechanics of Grouping

ONE of the school problems which closely concerns the elementary teacher is the problem of grouping, the classification of pupils into instructional groups. Obviously, the basis of such grouping is the recognition of the fact that children vary greatly in native ability, in environmental backgrounds, and in the depth and variety of experience. Modern society is stratified in social and economic classes because of these differences and no adequate educational plan can fail to make provision for them. A very interesting series of pen pictures of three types of persons, bright, average, and slow, adapted from the *Thirty-Fifth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education,[1] is presented on page 74 in tabular form.

The average teacher is likely to be unduly impressed by the factor of native intelligence, especially as revealed to her through intelligence tests. Two qualifications should be borne in mind as the teacher considers the intelligence of her pupils. First, it is not at all certain that an intelligence test actually measures intelligence. Probably it measures only the

[1] Part One, *The Grouping of Pupils* (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1936). This, and all other references in this chapter to the Yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education, are quoted by permission of the Society.

TABLE IV. PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS ON THREE LEVELS

	A Slow Person	An Average Person	A Bright Person
Learns to walk	later than 12 months	at 12 months	before 12 months
Learns to talk	later than 15 months	at 15 months	before 15 months
Begins 1st grade	at 6 years	at 6 years	at 6 years
Has to repeat	two half-years (1–2, 5–6)	one half-year	none; regarded as lazy
High school	junior high school and 1st year of senior high	graduates	graduates
College	none	freshman year only	graduates (or from technical school)
Job	unskilled or semi-skilled worker, employment variable	skilled mechanic or clerical worker or proprietor of small business	professional or executive; advancement rapid
Annual income	Below $2000	About $2000	$3000 and over
Recognition	Slight and from very small groups; easily led by others	leader of small groups in neighborhood, church, and politics	generous, from important local groups; possibly state and national groups
Reads	"funnies" and ads in newspapers	local newspapers, magazines, fiction books of adventure	widely
Recreations	cheap movies	watching athletic events	active participant along many lines

number and quality of experiences which the child has had, as compared with the experiences upon which the test is based. A child with average native ability and an exceedingly limited environmental and social background is apt to score low on an intelligence test and win the dubious distinction of being "dumb" or "backward" or "retarded." Second, leadership

in the modern world seems to depend on a great variety of factors, of which intelligence is only one.[1]

The classroom teacher needs to be realistic in her attitude toward individual differences in her children and should not sentimentalize over the fact that not all her geese can become swans. Contrariwise, she should have a cheerful and optimistic spirit toward her slow children, should help them to realize themselves to the utmost limit of their powers, and should refuse to maintain a discouraged and defeatist attitude toward her underprivileged boys and girls. Her particular danger will be that in her efforts to do her duty she will give undue attention to the slow child and neglect the bright child who has real capacities for leadership. It will be well for her to read Albert Jay Nock, *The Theory of Education in the United States*,[2] in order to help her see all around her problems. She will appreciate Nock's conception of intelligence as opposed to the popular idea of "pert and ignorant cleverness that current vulgar usage has associated with the word."

> The person of intelligence is the one who always tends to "see things as they are," the one who never permits his view of them to be directed by convention, by the hope of advantage, or by an irrational and arbitrary authoritarianism. He allows the current of his consciousness to flow in perfect freedom over any object that may be presented to it, uncontrolled by prejudice, prepossession or formula; and thus we may say that there are certain integrities at the root of intelligence which give it somewhat the aspect of a moral as well as an intellectual attribute.[3]

Another preliminary consideration for the teacher is the type of administration in the system under which she works. Unless that administration is free, flexible, and unhampered by routine and tradition, any system of grouping to which she is exposed is apt to be unsuccessful.

> The school district organization, the teacher-classroom plan acceptable in a school, the school plant, and the administrative

[1] *Thirty-Fifth Yearbook*, p. 17.

[2] New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1932.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 8–9.

> units devised for the schools are among the factors that are determinants of procedure in pupil classification. Unless the problems relating to these and to other correspondingly important aspects of school administration are adequately solved, corrective and remedial devices that are introduced to make it possible for the schools to serve pupil needs better will fail or become ineffectual because of their cost.[1]

Since the classroom teacher has become increasingly more articulate and important through the organization to which she belongs, she has the opportunity to bring forcibly the point of view stated above to reactionary members of boards of education and to other school executives.

A final consideration which is very important is that, strictly speaking, there is no such thing as homogeneous grouping. Classes of children may be grouped on any given basis desired and *on that basis and on that basis only* be homogeneous, but at the same time the group will be heterogeneous with respect to all the other possible bases of selection. For example, grouping on the basis of chronological age — all the six-year-olds in the first grade, all the seven-year-olds in the second grade, all the eight-year-olds in the third grade, and so on — results in homogeneity with respect to chronological age. In each year-group, however, there will be great variations in intellectual ability and development, social adjustment, and emotional stability. The person who essays the delicate task of grouping children might as well make up his mind, first as last, that irrespective of the basis he selects, he will face a wide range of variation in all the other factors involved.

One of the most complete lists of possible bases for classifying children may be found in a chapter by Turney in the *Thirty-Fifth Yearbook*.[2] In somewhat shortened and simplified form it appears as follows:

I. Physical Development
   1. Chronological Age
   2. Physical Maturity

[1] *Thirty-Fifth Yearbook*, pp. 22–23.

[2] Chapter VI, "The Psychological Basis of Grouping."

3. Physiological Maturity
4. Health
5. Height
6. Weight
7. Anatomical Age

II. Intelligence
1. Intelligence Test Results
2. Teachers' Ratings
3. Probable Learning Rate (expectancy)

III. Achievement
1. Achievement Test Results
2. Teachers' Marks
3. Rank in Class

IV. Social Factors
1. Social Age or Maturity
2. Home Environment

V. Special Abilities and Interests
1. Prognostic or Placement Test Results
2. Special Ability Tests (i.e., Music, etc.)

VI. Special Disabilities
1. Defective Vision
2. Defective Hearing
3. Physical Malformations (crippled, etc.)
4. Speech Defects

With this brief introduction, let us examine more closely some of the accepted methods of grouping children, bearing in mind three things:

1. Children differ widely in abilities, capacities, environment, experience, traits, attitudes, and in many other particulars.

2. In the public school children must be taught in groups as an inevitable accompaniment to our American mass-education.

3. Children should be grouped in the light of their individual differences so as to make learning as easy and effective as possible.

I. Grouping by Chronological Age

This is the oldest and still most widely used method of separating children into instructional groups. It is based upon the idea that most children enter the two-year kindergarten at the chronological (birthday) age of approximately four years; the one-year kindergarten at five years; the first grade at six; and that they progress steadily thereafter at the rate of one grade each year, completing the sixth grade at the age of approximately eleven years and ten months so as to enter the junior high school at the age of twelve years. As we shall see shortly this is a theory which suffers many sea changes in actual practice.

II. Grouping by Mental Age

This method is similar to the one outlined above except that mental age is substituted for physical or chronological age as a basis for grouping. Mental age is to be determined by means of intelligence tests, and as a consequence the homogeneous factor of mental ability soon involves a host of heterogeneous factors. For example, if all entrants to the first grade are to have a mental age of seventy-six months (6 years, 4 months), the children will vary in chronological age according to their several intelligence quotients. A dull child may have a chronological age of seven years, a very dull child of eight years, and each possess a mental age of seventy-six months or thereabouts. Conversely, a very bright child may have a mental age of seventy-six months and a birthday age of a little over five years. Differences in social, emotional, and other growth factors may complicate the matter still more.

III. Grouping by Intelligence Quotients

This is a combination of (I) and (II) above. It involves a primary classification of a school on the basis of chronological

age and a secondary classification within the grade into bright, average, and dull children or X-Y-Z groups, by intelligence and achievement tests checked and modified by the judgment of teachers.

IV. Grouping by Achievement

The subject in which achievement is usually taken as a basis is reading, although in the middle and upper grades arithmetic and spelling achievement receive consideration. Classification on the basis of reading experience and ability is a method likely to appeal to the formal teacher, to whom reading is a prime consideration in the curriculum. That this method of grouping often ignores such other factors as social adjustment, emotional stability, and many other less obvious growth factors, is not always apparent to the teacher enamoured of subject-matter.

V. Grouping by Social Maturity [1]

This method is based on the idea that children grow in many directions and at various rates of growth — physically, intellectually, socially, and emotionally — and that segregation on the basis of social adjustment is likely to be accompanied by a close correlation in growth along other lines. To put it in another way, since the major end to be sought in the classroom is the organizing of a group of children likely to be capable of working and playing together happily and successfully, and likely to possess many common interests and needs, social grouping will more probably reach this objective than classification on any other basis. Further, organizing a school

[1] Pechstein and Munn define social maturity as "that growth and development of the individual, conditioned by both internal and external factors, which enables him to adjust himself successfully to his fellow-men, and to adapt his fellow-men to himself." The source of the quotation will be found in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

on the basis of social maturity tends to make differences in other types of growth of slight significance.

VI. Grouping by Special Abilities and Disabilities

Most modern school systems provide for the education of gifted children in special classes as well as for the separate education of the physically handicapped, the deaf, the blind, the delinquent, and the intellectually subnormal children. Since these classes do not directly concern the regular classroom teacher it is not considered necessary to discuss them here.

Since this book presents a rather definite point of view or predisposition toward the problem of classification of school children, the argument for grouping on the basis of social maturity is presented somewhat fully in the following paragraphs.

It may be well to adapt an indirect approach by calling attention to the fact that American elementary education is facing an administrative revolution in that the graded system with which American education has been familiar for nearly one hundred years is likely to be greatly modified in the next few years, if not abandoned entirely. One reason is that the term "grade" itself has nearly lost its significance. Owing to the wide variation in chronological ages found in the middle and upper elementary school grades, a grade can no longer be identified as a homogeneous collection of seven-year-olds or nine-year-olds. Again, since modern education has adapted the theory and practice involved in reading readiness, a grade can no longer be identified as a definite stage in the development of reading ability. Again, in view of the wide variety and divergence in assigning teaching materials to the several grades, a grade can no longer be regarded as the place where Eskimos or Indians are taught or long division is introduced to the children. Again, the practice of failing or retarding

children who do not accomplish what is laid down for them in the course of study, grade by grade, has nearly destroyed the traditional "six-year-olds in the first grade, eleven-year-olds in the sixth grade" idea. Finally, wide variation in nationality and race, in economic opportunity and social status, makes a fourth grade in a certain location the blood-brother of a second grade in another and dissimilar setting, or of a sixth grade in a less favored situation. Engelhardt [1] states this well:

> Grade groups in elementary schools comprise children of a wide range of ability and of achievement and frequently of chronological age. It is difficult indeed to define a grade if the definition were to be based on typical practices found in elementary schools. In many school systems emphasis has been placed on practices that have resulted in eliminating over-ageness in schools, and grade groups include children of approximately like chronological age yet with noticeable differences in ability. Hence the term "grade" has lost its conventional meaning.

And Reissner [2] makes the same point:

> Most of the instruction before the advent of grading had favored mechanical memorization. In the graded school, with its expanded subject matter, this old fault was continued and became even more serious. Courses of study, graded textbooks, annual stunts to be mastered, passing grades, final examinations — all these were parts of the machine into which the grade system had metamorphosed. It is not too much to say that the defects of this school machine represent a large part of the inadequacy of our public schools today. From the time of the complete setting up of the machine to the present, progressive educators have labored to substitute for its mechanical operation a more creative learning, freer living, and more vital growing experience for children.

It is apparent that one of the impending developments in American elementary education is the inclusion of the Nursery School in the hierarchy of administrative units and the elimination of separate and discrete units. The development of the Lower School which includes children from the age of two years to eight years inclusive has grown apace in many localities.

[1] *Thirty-Fifth Yearbook*, Part One, p. 27. [2] *Ibid.*, p. 34.

Since one of the foundation precepts of the new education is the insistence or the importance of the continuous growth of children, it is apparent that no mechanical obstructions such as grades can be longer tolerated. By organizing children into groups from the two-year level to the eight-year level and by making passage easy and flexible from one group to the next as the child matures, it becomes possible to eliminate such terms as "nursery school," "kindergarten," "first grade," "second grade," "third grade."

Engelhardt [1] speaks on this point:

> The movements under way that are slowly eliminating the kindergarten as a separate unit, adding the nursery school, and struggling with a new division in the school may ultimately emerge in the form of a school of childhood.... Such a development may disrupt the "K–6" elementary school, may help to solve the building program and may produce a school environment that will differ from the old classroom-teacher unit type.

With this background established, let us inquire how social grouping may be accomplished in a "K–6" elementary school.

It is assumed that principal, teachers, and parents are working closely together as members of a professional co-operative group, and that the administration under which they work allows them sufficient freedom to solve the problem of grouping to meet their local needs effectively. Possibly the easiest way to begin the process is to divide the total school enrollment by the number of teachers so as to divide the teaching load equally. The next step is to assign the very youngest children to the former kindergarten teacher, calling her quota "Group One," and so on up through the school, giving each teacher thereafter a group of children increasing in chronological age until the very oldest children are in the top group. The third step is to allow each teacher one month to study her pupils, to observe them closely, to acquaint herself with their respective backgrounds of environment and experience, and to ac-

[1] *Thirty-Fifth Yearbook*, Part One, p. 25.

quire such helpful information as a simple testing program may afford. The fourth step is to devise a program based upon the children's actual needs rather than upon the teacher's desire to fit the children to a teaching scheme of her own. The fifth and last step must be taken in concert with fellow-teachers and the principal, and consists in discovering the right spot in the school to which children may be sent who are obviously out of place in her room. Not out of place because the teacher finds several levels of achievement among her children; not out of place because of differences of intelligence, for a wide range of intellectual development will be found; but out of place because of inability to adjust to the good living in the classroom. There will be a few children who are hopelessly immature as compared with the rest of the group. There will be a few children who will be sophisticated and socially mature as compared to their fellows. There will be a child or two who is allergic to the teacher, and a child or two to whom, in turn, the teacher herself is allergic.

It helps the teacher considerably to think of her class as "seven- and eight-year-olds" rather than as "B2's." There is a great deal of information accessible to teachers about children on various chronological age levels, and hopeless confusion as to what constitutes a grade. Let the teacher remember that the purpose of classification is to bring together a group of children with common interests and common needs who can work and play together happily and successfully, to form a functional social group irrespective of school achievement, intelligence, or probable rate of learning. To protect the teacher it should be assumed that these divergencies should be within reasonable limits.

By the second month of the term, the school should be fairly well organized on the basis of social maturity. From that time on, children should grow in grace and accomplishment, and show themselves adequate and competent members of their respective groups. Occasionally an individual child will spurt forward into a new level of development ahead of his

fellows and should be transferred at that time to a group which has reached approximately the same level.[1]

The principal bears heavy responsibility in managing his school during the transition from the rigidly graded system to the group system. He must study the individual differences among his teachers so that each one is working with the type of child most attractive to her. The "bad boy" in one room may prove to be the "first citizen" under a teacher of different caliber. He must examine the instructional programs devised by the teachers and discuss and evaluate these in frequent faculty meetings to ensure continuity of learning and to avoid duplication and needless repetition.

As far as possible, the teacher of each group should be persuaded to stay with her group for at least an entire school year; better, a year and a half; best, two years. One of the major defects of the conventional graded system which operates on the basis of semi-annual promotions is that a teacher has just become fairly well acquainted with her boys and girls when she must give them up and break in a new batch of recruits. The maintenance of a school family group for ten or twenty or thirty school months permits the teacher to really know something about the growth and development of her children.

Since children are to be "sent on" at any time that they are ready to profit by a transfer to another group, all promotion periods are eliminated and the wear and tear of new assignment of classes, grades, marks, and final examinations which accompany the semi-annual or annual educational orgy is removed.

So much for the mechanics of social grouping. As the school gets under way, results will appear in the form both of assets and liabilities. As the children are shifted around to develop social groups, divergences will appear in intelligence,

[1] For additional light on some of the problems involved, the reader is referred to Robert Hill Lane, *The Progressive Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938), pp. 24–25.

in chronological age, in achievement in the school subjects. In a certain school, a group corresponding approximately to a fourth grade in a traditional elementary school, the chronological age-range extends from 8 years 6 months for the youngest child to 10 years 4 months for the oldest child. The lowest intelligence quotient represented in the room is 88, the highest is 123. The lowest reading ability in the room is a reading grade-placement of 3.4, the highest 6.2. All these divergences from the normal worry the teacher tremendously at first. She complains bitterly that she will have to resort to individual teaching since it is impossible to get all the children together at a common point in the academic program.

With this type of grouping it becomes impossible to predict in advance in just what group the children will have their first experiences in learning to read. It is a great comfort to the traditional primary teacher to have the principal designate one class into which can be herded all the pre-reading children. This procedure allows the regular first grade teacher to roll up her sleeves and hand out reading in large doses to her six-year-olds. In a school organization based upon social maturity, each teacher of small children will be likely to have ten or twelve children who have not attained reading readiness, several more who are willing to flirt with the idea of learning to read, and a third group which is eager, anxious, willing, and competent in mastering the first steps in reading. In a very real sense each teacher of little children will be a teacher of beginning reading.

A correlative problem will be furnished by anxious parents who demand to know (1) why all little six-year-olds are not "put into books"; (2) why the cards labeled A1, A3, B6, etc., which used to ornament the classroom doors have disappeared; (3) "How are we to know what grade our children are in if you haven't any grades?" and (4) "What is it all about anyway?"

All these distressing problems mercifully disappear one by one as the year advances, for time is a great healer. First

of all, the teacher of a room full of happy and socially adjusted boys and girls will find that divergences in intellect, achievement, and birthday age are not very significant. The big boys and the big girls in the room prove elder brothers and sisters to the younger children. The bright child may easily be overshadowed by the "dumb" child who has unexpected social graces which make him a leader in the activities of the classroom. The slow reader "keeps up with the procession" by engaging in the various enterprises of the room through the easier texts and supplemental readers with which he is provided.

The teacher finds that she does not have to resort to individual teaching after all. The room operates as a unit in music, art, rhythms, and the other aspects of aesthetics. It operates as a group in most of the social studies units, since the social living period allows of many voluntary groupings of children. In the skill subjects, the children naturally gravitate into slow, average, and fast groups just as in the traditional classroom.

The teacher who believes time is wasted in not teaching reading to all six-year-olds eventually changes her mind when she sees that deferring reading until children are ready to read pays big dividends. The children avoid all the bad habits and emotional blocs against reading which are built up in unwilling and immature readers. They forge ahead at an amazing speed in reading when their powers are equal to the task, and they read avidly and happily.

The parents come around slowly but surely when they realize the close correlation between school achievement and emotional adjustment. A child who is unhappy in his classroom, who dislikes his teacher and hates his classmates, cannot make a success of school work. Judging from five years' experience in directing elementary schools organized on the basis of social maturity, it can be said that the commonest form of commendation made by parents has been "For the first time in his life, John is happy in school. He loves to get

there early in the morning and he hates to leave it in the afternoon."

The teacher needs to remind herself constantly that a social group holds together because (1) it is made up of like-minded people; (2) it has common aims in view; (3) it has common interests and needs; (4) it has strong emotional bonds of affection and trust; (5) it has a sense of "one-ness," of belonging. The teacher will find many helpful suggestions for maintaining good group living in Mossman's *Teaching and Learning in the Elementary School*,[1] especially in Chapter I, "Classwork As Group Living."

What are the types of unified effort which are carried on in an adequate classroom group? In a later book Mossman[2] suggests that the following types of activity are likely to take place within a group:

1. *Adventuring into the environment and extending it.*
   Adventuring, exploring, trying, finding out, experimenting, investigating, searching, reaching, inquiring, extending, contemplating, collecting, examining, questioning, proving, asking, studying
2. *Creating.*
   Creating, contriving, devising, proposing, constructing, imagining, planning, organizing, thinking, initiating.
3. *Co-operating with Others.*
   Co-operating, pooling, suggesting, helping, contributing, outgiving, discussing, refuting, talking, reporting, proposing, sharing, participating, communicating.
4. *Judging Values.*
   Judging, evaluating, deciding, considering, concluding, forming an opinion, summarizing, formulating.
5. *Consuming.*
   Consuming, enjoying, receiving, accepting, intaking, being affected, depending upon, listening.
6. *Recreating.*
   Recreating, resting, renewing, playing, singing, dancing, relaxing.
7. *Recording.*
   Recording, drawing, writing, expressing, painting, sculpturing.

[1] Lois C. Mossman (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929).

[2] Lois C. Mossman, *The Activity Concept* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938), pp. 54–55.

8. *Practicing.*
   Repeating, reciting, practicing, drilling.
9. *Obeying.*
   Obeying, accepting, following, conforming, submitting.
10. *Controlling.*
   Dictating, controlling, ordering, forcing.

Mrs. Mossman,[1] in commenting upon this list, points out that the school which spends all its time on Nos. 8, 9, and 10 is not a school where good group living is being carried on.

> A wholesome program of group living makes a larger place for processes such as are listed in Groups 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 than is ordinarily included in a school program. The difference between schools that stress these seven groups and those that stress Groups 8, 9, and 10 is a fundamental one. The difference rests upon basic differences in the notion of how one learns, how one becomes a person, how life is made fruitful and good, and what the desired school product is.

Chapin and Conway[2] make the significant observation that the adequate school group resembles very closely the voluntary association that is a familiar phenomenon in American community life.

> The fact that community groups, representing voluntary associations of individuals with common interests and purposes, include all orders of ability has implications for the school. . . . The available evidence in support of the contention that patterns of ability exist among all children regardless of intellectual level suggests the inadequacy of the composite score as a general criterion in the sectioning of pupils.

And again,

> That other factors besides intelligence are necessary concomitants of the personality of the successful individual has also been recognized. The researches of numerous investigators tend to confirm the argument that achievement is a function of interest, persistence, experience and many other factors as well as mentality. But it is in the process of interstimulation and response within the group that such varying innate and acquired characteristics are

[1] Lois C. Mossman, *The Activity Concept*, p. 56.
[2] *Thirty-Fifth Yearbook*, p. 69.

developed and attain significance. In other words, personality integration and adjustment are functions in group life.[1]

To summarize: the traditional methods of grouping and sectioning children which have been in use for the last thirty years appear at the best to be mechanical devices intended to aid and comfort teachers and school administrators. Grouping on the basis of social maturity, on the contrary, is designed to aid and comfort the children themselves. It reflects the implications of organismic psychology. It cares for the needs for the whole child. It closely relates community life and school life. It integrates personality, brings security and recognition, and gives experience in democratic living.

B. Growth Problems in Elementary Education

The child is a living being, moving from birth to maturity. Any particular moment of his life is a point of transition from an earlier to a later level of development. He is moving from the depending of infancy to the independence and self-reliance of adult life by building habits and skills and attitudes that will enable him to get along effectively in the world of his fellows and to meet the strains and stresses of adult living. The test of an educational program lies then, in the effectiveness with which persons who, as children, have moved through that program, meet the problems of adult living. The test of each educational procedure is "Does this experience make the child more dependent upon adults or more independent in solving his own problems?" [2]

This quotation is taken from one of the most valuable recent contributions to education. Many of the suggestions contained in the present section are based upon the findings of the group of distinguished educators who are responsible for Part One of the *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook*. The problem involved in this discussion is well stated by Carleton Washburne [3] in the Introduction:

[1] *Thirty-Fifth Yearbook*, p. 69.

[2] Adapted from "Child Development and the Growth Process" by John E. Anderson in *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook*, Part One, pp. 15–16, National Society for the Study of Education (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1939).

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 3.

> We must know better than we do now what the developing organism is reaching out for at each successive stage. We must know much more than we do now about the experiences, knowledge, and concepts of the child at each level of development. We must learn how to measure at successive levels the child's capacity for adding to his experiences and interpreting them.

There are four major types of growth problems with which the elementary teacher is concerned as she strives to maintain an effective social group in the classroom.

1. The problems which revolve around the child's *physiological* readiness to learn. When does he learn to stand? When does he learn to walk? When does he learn to skip? To use simple tools? To write with pen and ink?

2. The problems which revolve around the child's *intellectual* readiness to learn. When does he learn to speak single words? When does he begin to speak in sentences? When is he able to carry on a conversation? When does he begin to make judgments? To make decisions? To discriminate among dissimilar sounds and shapes? To meet a novel situation and find a solution?

3. The problems which revolve around the child's *experiential* readiness to learn. What types of experience are prerequisite to certain types of learning? For example, what experiences are involved as factors in reading readiness? In reading a book about a dairy farm, about a typical American community, about the postal service?

4. The problems which revolve around the pressures and motives arising out of a child's interests and needs. A lively curiosity is a major factor in the learning situation. These problems may involve the child's *emotional* readiness to learn.

Many teachers are confused over *maturation* as opposed to *learning*. These terms overlap in practice, it must be admitted, but a rough and ready distinction is that maturation refers in general to organic changes which appear at intervals in the child's development regardless of environmental factors. The period of pregnancy lasts nine months, the child begins

to walk at about twelve months, puberty arrives between the ages of twelve and fifteen years, menstruation follows a twenty-eight-day cycle.

Learning, on the other hand, refers to the child's modification of conduct through experiences with the environment in which he lives. His response in learning depends, among other things, on the nature of his environment and the opportunities for experience which it affords. The teacher can do very little about maturation except to allow for it, but she can do a great deal about learning. For example, the teacher can set up a classroom environment which affords desirable experiences for the child, and can help him use the larger environment outside the school for his education. Teachers and parents can see to it that the child's environment is peopled with children and adults who will contribute to his learning.

If the teacher should chart for each of her pupils the various kinds of growth which she observes in her direction of his learning, the list might appear somewhat as follows:

I. Anatomical and Physical Growth

It is assumed that the school in which the teacher is employed has available the services of a physician, a dentist, and a school nurse. It is assumed, further, that a health program is included in the curriculum and that physical education ranks equally in importance with other school subjects. Each child should be checked at intervals by the physician and nurse, not merely from the negative attitude of remedying defects, but from the positive attitude which gives assurance that the child is reaching the various expected developmental levels at the normal time. Height, weight, posture, muscular control, and co-ordination are among the items which should be constantly under observation.

Parents should be enlisted to make similar observations at home so that results may be pooled. The parent's contribution in controlling sleep and diet habits will be of great value, as

these are items over which the teacher has little control beyond providing rest intervals in the school program and supervising the mid-morning and noon luncheons of her pupils. Strang states that health education in the primary grades consists chiefly of providing situations that will favor the development of good health habits and attitudes. The things to be stressed are courage, co-operation, consideration for others, simple habits of cleanliness, prevention of infection, and whole-hearted participation in work and play. A positive, cheerful, matter-of-fact promotion of daily health behavior is preferable to the negative emphasis so often found at home and occasionally at school.[1]

From the nine-year-old period on to the end of the elementary school period (eleven to thirteen years or sixth grade age-level) the health program will be based upon a continuation of the health habits emphasized in the lower grades, with the difference that on this older age-level children may be made responsible in part, at least, for their own health education, and should be encouraged to strive for physical perfection and bodily grace. Adventitious and sentimental aids such as health drives and crusades, health songs and jingles, and health talks by physicians do not appear to have much value on the elementary school level.[2]

II. Intellectual Growth

The teacher is likely to think of intellectual growth in terms of intelligence tests and of achievement in the academic subjects. No one has yet devised a definition of intelligence which will satisfy everybody, but a rough-and-ready attempt at such a definition is "the ability to meet a novel and unexpected life-situation and to find a successful solution." The teacher must not think of a life-situation as something appalling in significance. With a little child it may merely be such a simple

[1] Adapted from "Health and Safety Education," in *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook*, Part One, p. 87.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 91.

problem as is involved in walking down stairs gracefully. With an older child it may be such a common-place dilemma as meeting an older person and introducing him to the teacher. The point is, that life is full of problems, major and minor, wrapped up in the daily round which children must meet and solve. The child's ability to solve these problems is an excellent index of his intelligence.[1]

Most authorities agree that intelligence is largely a matter of heredity, and that as such it is a constant rather than a variable factor, but there is considerable evidence to show that environmental factors can modify native intelligence even to the extent of raising intelligence quotient scores.[2] Certainly, the child who has an adequate home life which gives him security, recognition, and freedom to work out his own ideas, coupled with rich daily experiences, will probably score higher on an intelligence test than the child deprived of these advantages.

Teachers and parents should always be on the alert to discover instances of the child's growing intellectual development. Does the child show a steady progress in speech development? Does he show an increasing ability to memorize easily? Does he grow in ability to draw and represent what he sees? Does he grow in ability in school achievement? Does he grow in ability to solve problems as he grows older?

The child's progress in speech is an excellent measure of his intelligence. The child's first spoken word appears usually at 12–14 months; at the age of two years his vocabulary may have grown to approximately 300 words; at three years, to 900 words; at four years, to 2500 words. Between the four- and five-year level, the normal child should have conquered the

[1] The reader is referred to the *Thirty-Ninth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, *Intelligence — Its Nature and Nurture*, for a full discussion of intelligence.

[2] See Chapter XX, "Some Iowa Studies of the Mental Growth of Children in Relation to Differentials of the Environment," by Harold M. Skeels and Chapter XXVI, "Iowa Studies on the Effects of Schooling," by Beth L. Wellman, both in *Thirty-Ninth Yearbook*.

simple declarative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences in his daily speech.[1]

The teacher should remember that recent studies indicate that there are several kinds of intelligence, which appear to be variations of the general intelligence which we have attempted to define in a preceding paragraph. Certainly, the average classroom teacher is enamoured of what might be irreverently called the *crossword puzzle* type of intelligence. The child who possesses this is quick and apt in the formal school subjects, especially in arithmetic, and shines on all types of standardized tests. Other children have *mechanical intelligence*, as seen in the type of adolescent boy who is a comparative failure in the formal school subjects but is a wizard at taking down and reassembling machines. A third type is *aesthetic intelligence* which is evidenced by the child who has a natural sense of form, line, and rhythm in design, and can paint and model or create dance-forms far beyond the achievement of the average child. Still another form is what may be called *social intelligence*, the ability to meet and handle people and difficult social situations with marked skill. Teachers should train themselves to be observant of the development of intelligence in all these forms and to make careful records for future study.

III. Social and Emotional Growth

It has been well said that every child has three basic personal needs — the need for security, the need for recognition, and the need for satisfactory achievement. The teacher needs constantly to ask herself, "Am I helping my boys and girls to feel safe and confident? Does each child have a sense of belonging to the group in which he lives? Does he feel wanted by the other members of the group and does he, in turn, feel definite responsibilities toward them? Does he have daily

[1] See Anderson, "The Development of Spoken Language," in *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook*, Part One.

tasks which seem worth while to him? Are they within the range of his abilities? Is he able to perform them with success and satisfaction? Is he growing in self-respect because he finds himself equal to the situations which he encounters? Is he slowly but surely emerging as a person?" These questions are at the very heart of any program of social and emotional adjustment which the teacher may devise.

There are certain steps which the teacher can take to make social and emotional adjustment a little less difficult for her pupils.

1. Organizing the school on the basis of social maturity as described in the preceding section assures the child of membership in a congenial group. This situation affords both security and recognition.

2. Setting up the right kind of classroom environment. The *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook*, Part One, has an excellent set of criteria for judging the proper environment. These may be summarized as follows:

(*a*) The environment must be stimulating enough to present the child with new and interesting possibilities that keep him moving ahead with zest and initiative.

(*b*) The environment must afford friendly encouragement for all honest efforts.

(*c*) The environment must allow the child freedom to experiment under wise guidance.

(*d*) The environment must set tasks for the child within his range of ability — tasks hard enough to work him up to the limit of his ability but not so hard as to ensure failure.

(*e*) The environment must set tasks and demands suitable for the growth level at which the child happens to be at the time. A task that is very difficult for a six-year-old child may be very easy for a ten-year-old.

(*f*) The environment should emphasize success rather than failure.

(*g*) The environment must provide motives for action likely to appeal to children.

3. Providing experiences which afford the child many opportunities for social living as a member of his group. The emotional overtones of social experiences are always present. In his early social development the child will act ruthlessly, intent only upon his "rights" as he conceives them. With practice in social living, he learns to control his temper, to subordinate his personal wishes to the general good, to be open-minded and tolerant and thoughtful of others.

4. Guiding the unstable emotional child into better ways of thinking and acting by showing him how to substitute adequate acts for inadequate acts. It has been pointed out that emotional upsets are often caused by the child's inability to meet situations properly, and it is the teacher's task to show the child how to find satisfactory solutions.

We need to know far more than we do about children's interests if we are to guide their social and emotional growth. No one has yet written a complete inventory to guide the teacher but a start can be made with the following list:

1. *Children are interested in people* — in other children and in some adults. Firemen, policemen, airplane pilots, soldiers, and sailors (especially the U.S. Marines), circus performers, movie stars, famous personages, baseball stars, and certain radio artists are usually the objects of interest on the part of elementary children of all ages. Recent motion picture classics have done a great deal to extend the interest of children in personalities: Stanley, Livingstone, Louis Pasteur, and Alexander Graham Bell are familiar examples.

2. *Children are interested in places.* Life in foreign lands, especially in countries which present life on the plane of primitive civilization, is fascinating to children. This is especially true around the troublesome 9–10-year-old age-level. A number of delightful textbooks, illustrated by authentic photographs, are available today on life in primitive communities.

3. *Children are interested in the natural world.* Little children are especially interested in living things, pets and growing

and it is the basic statistical assumption of quantum mechanics, that the probability of discovering the electron at a determinate place is given by the intensity of the corresponding wave at the same place. The contradiction contained in the fact that the particle can traverse only one path and cannot therefore, as the wave picture demands, reach every point of the environment, is avoided through the consideration that the momentum from which the path of the particle could be predicted is unknown and that in consequence I do not know *what* path the particle will traverse. Conversely, wave picture and particle picture can be united only if it is assumed that the momentum of a particle at a given place cannot be known. If we wished to determine the momentum through a second measurement, as we might do without further qualification in classical physics, then, in consequence of the interaction of the electron with the new apparatus, its place—as we can, again, deduce from the simultaneous validity of the wave picture—would be indeterminate to just such an extent, as would make the calculation of the path which would contradict the wave picture impossible because of ignorance of place.

What follows from these laws for the question of the perceptibility in quantum mechanics? The whole of the above discussion is carried through within the framework of perception. We have not assumed that, where experience demands them, particle picture and wave picture are merely approximate presentations. The thesis of quantum mechanics is, rather, the persistence of classical laws; it asserts: when any classically defined quantity is known through measurement, then all the consequences which can be drawn from this knowledge according to classical physics, are exactly correct. That is to say, either picture, where it is demanded by experience, can be applied in all strictness; only we may not assume that the elements not given by the particular experiment in hand, have determinate values. Thus we have not given up the perceptibility of our description of nature, but only the ascription to the perceptible constituents of

of children. The teacher who can lead children successfully from one level of development to another will do so because, among other things, she knows how to appeal to, and how to utilize the interests of children.[1]

Notes on Chapter Three

1. Pechstein, Louis A., and N. D. Munn, "The Measurement of Social Maturity in Children," *The Elementary School Journal*, October, 1939. This excellent article throws considerable light on the nature of social maturity and on techniques of measuring it.

2. The *Thirty-Ninth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1940) is entitled *Intelligence — Its Nature and Nurture.* Part I, *Comparative and Critical Exposition*; Part II, *Original Studies and Experiments.* This imposing publication will constitute one of our best authorities on this difficult and controversial subject until the Society attempts a new revision. Part I is much more understandable to the layman.

3. Three numbers of *Progressive Education*, October, November, and December, 1938, deal with growth problems on three levels: *Early Childhood, Middle Childhood to Early Adolescence*, and *Early and Later Adolescence.* The classroom teacher will find these articles informative and helpful. The January, 1937, number of *Progressive Education* is a special number devoted to health problems of children.

4. *The Child From One to Six.* Children's Bureau Publication, no. 30, U.S. Department of Labor, 1937. This is an exceedingly valuable contribution to the literature of child development, especially the summary section, "Watching Your Child Grow Up," pp. 2–5.

5. Dixon, C. Madeleine, *High, Wide and Deep — Discovering the Preschool Child.* New York: John Day Company, 1938. A liberal education in understanding children. The teacher of older children will discover techniques of studying children which can be profitably adapted to her particular class or age-level. Required reading for all elementary school teachers both in lower and in upper school.

6. Updegraff, Ruth, and others, *Practice in Preschool Education.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938. While this is a comprehensive account of practices and techniques used in the Preschool Laboratories of the University of Iowa, it is an invaluable guide to all

[1] The reader should not overlook Part One, *Understanding the Elementary School Child*, in J. M. and Doris M. Lee, *The Child and His Curriculum* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1940).

teachers in the elementary school in the observation and guidance of children. Required reading.

7. Hockett, John A., and E. W. Jacobsen, *Modern Practices in the Elementary School.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1938. Chapter VII, "Making Discipline Educative," affords considerable light on growth problems as related to behavior. Chapters VIII and IX, "Meeting Individual Needs" and "Meeting the Needs of Unusual Children," are helpful discussions of the problems of individual differences in children.

8. Hopkins, L. Thomas, and others, *Integration — Its Meaning and Application* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937) is pretty stiff reading for the busy classroom teacher. For the reader who has the time and energy to separate really good thinking from unnecessarily obscure language, Chapters V, VI, VII, and IX throw valuable light on the problems of child development.

9. Ruch, Floyd L., *Psychology and Life — A Study of the Thinking, Feeling and Doing of People.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1937. This is one of the most readable and helpful textbooks on psychology which has appeared in recent years, and will help to clarify the teacher's thinking in handling children's behavior problems.

10. Andrus, Ruth, and others, *Curriculum Guides.* New York: John Day Company, 1936. For teachers of children from two to six years of age. This is the only curriculum, so far as the writers of this book know, which attempts to develop a curriculum for little children entirely in terms of experience. Required reading.

11. The classroom teacher should keep among her catalogs a recent price list of the publications of the *Iowa Child Welfare Research Station,* University of Iowa, Iowa City. Of especial interest are: *A Study of Environmental Stimulation* by Harold M. Skeels, and others, and its supplemental record: *Children in Foster Homes* by Marie Skodak. These studies relate the famous experiment which sought to raise the intelligence quotient by improving the environment of underprivileged children.

12. *Educational Method* for November, 1939, is a special issue devoted to a symposium on *Intelligence in a Changing Universe* under the editorial direction of Paul Witty. This is a timely, stimulating, and convenient summary of various viewpoints regarding the nature of intelligence and the variability of the intelligence quotient.

13. *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher.* Joint Yearbook of the American Educational Research Association and the Department of Classroom Teacher, Washington, D.C., 1939. Chapter V, "Child Development"; Chapter VI, "The Organization of Schools and Classes"; Chapter VII, "The Learning Process" afford light on the problems indicated in this chapter.

14. The *Thirty-Fourth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, *Educational Diagnosis*. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1935. An excellent book for browsing by the thoughtful teacher, especially Chapter X, "Maturation as a Factor in Diagnosis." The first half is general, the second half deals with specific difficulties, subject by subject.

15. Reece, Ellen Steele, "An Interesting Age to Teach," *Progressive Education*, April, 1939. This is an excellent analysis of the eight- and nine-year-olds. We need many more studies of this kind.

16. Forest, Ilse, *The School for the Child from Two to Eight*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1935. This educational classic is too well known to warrant extended comment. It is required reading for all persons interested in children.

17. Johnson, Harriet M., "School Begins at Two." New York: New Republic, Inc., 1936. Full of the philosophy which makes successful teachers.

18. Zyve, Claire, *Growth Through Social Living*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood Education, 1940. An excellent monograph for teachers and parents.

19. Meek, Lois Hayden, *Your Child's Development and Guidance Told in Pictures*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1940. While this book was written primarily for parents it will be found invaluable to the teacher of young children. Made delightful by excellent photographs, it is definite, practical, and stimulating.

CHAPTER FOUR



A Practical Approach to a Modern Philosophy of Education

A. The Meaning of Experience

EVERY sensible person needs to have a working philosophy of life, and every teacher needs, in addition, a working philosophy of education. For most people, the phrase "philosophy of education" has a rather horrifying sound. It implies something unreal, abstract, remote, theoretical. On the contrary, a working philosophy of education is simply the answer to the question, "What body of principles shall guide me in my work as a teacher?" A working philosophy of life is simply the answer to the question, "What body of principles shall guide me in meeting the problems of life?"

The reference books do not help us very much. There is a type of mind which loves to compare and analyze the many conflicting philosophies of education which have come down to us through the years, but the process does not appeal very greatly to the harassed classroom teacher faced with the problem of directing the development of forty restless fifth graders. She is a pragmatist. She values a philosophy only if it works.

There are a few modern writers on education who have had the happy faculty of translating their personal philosophies of education into terms which are understandable to the busy

teacher. Let us quote briefly from the writings of two of these.

> 1. A philosophy of education, like any theory, has to be stated in words, in symbols. But so far as it is more than verbal it is a plan for conducting education. Like any plan, it must be framed with reference to what is to be done and how it is to be done. The more definitely and sincerely it is held that education is a development within, by, and for experience, the more important it is that there shall be clear conceptions of what experience is.... A primary responsibility of educators is that they not only be aware of the general principle of the shaping of actual experience by environing conditions, but that they also recognize in the concrete what surroundings are conducive to having experiences that lead to growth. Above all, they should know how to utilize the surroundings, physical and social, that exist so as to extract from them all that they have to contribute to building up experiences that are worth while.[1]
>
> 2. The fundamental fact about education is that "life" is made up of experiences and that all experiences educate — in one way or another. Nothing that ever happens to us is lost. It leaves its trace in the nervous system.
>
> Hence, a true interpretation of education must begin with experience, with all experiences, and with the sources of all experiences, i.e. within the community. Education is a matter of experiences and experience, and every experience, wherever achieved, is educational. All experiences are real — each in its own way — and they all leave their own specific impacts upon the individual and the community. They build up and they tear down; they indurate and they soften; they illusion or they disillusion; they enrich personality or they defeat us.... The task of developing, criticizing, organizing and integrating our experiences into experience, and so into an education is the fundamental task of civilization today. The "salvation" of the individual depends upon it. But more. The very existence of civilization depends upon it.[2]

With these passages as guides, let us outline a basic philosophy of education which will prove meaningful to the busy classroom teacher. Let us begin with a definition of learning.

Learning is the modification of conduct or behavior through

[1] John Dewey, *Experience and Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938), pp. 17, 35.

[2] Joseph K. Hart, *A Social Interpretation of Education* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1929), pp. 212–13, 215.

experiences in an environment. Note the things that learning is not. Learning is not merely the acquisition of skills. Learning is not merely the acquisition of knowledge. Learning is not merely the attainment of a point of view. All these are included in learning, of course, but the basic quality of learning is that someone has an experience and by reason of that experience is, in some degree, a different person forever after.

All children have the blessed quality of being able to grow, to grow physically, mentally, socially, and emotionally. All children live in a natural or physical environment; in a social environment, in some kind of social group. This environment provides the growing child with experiences of one kind or another through every minute of his waking hours. He finds out that he can react to these experiences in such a way as to bring him security, happiness, comfort, and success, or in such a way as to bring him insecurity, unhappiness, discomfort, and failure. As he profits by the lessons of experience, he molds his behavior into those patterns which make life possible for him In short, he learns.

Let the teacher remember that there is only one sure criterion of her success as a teacher. Let her ask herself at the end of every semester: "How far is each of these children a different and a better person by reason of his association with me? Have I set up the kind of environment which would provide desirable experiences for him? Have I helped him to profit by these experiences?"

B. The Meaning of Curriculum

Let us take as a starting point a definition: *The curriculum is that sequence of desirable experiences which we wish children to have.*

From the negative side, this definition implies that the curriculum is not portions of subject-matter to be learned. The curriculum is not assignments of chapters in the textbooks. The curriculum is not a series of units of work.

From the positive side, the curriculum is made up of all the interesting and profitable things that children are to do within a stimulating and controlled environment to the end that they may modify their conduct or behavior as they profit by the lessons of experience.

A distinction should be made at this point between the terms "curriculum" and "course of study." As we have seen, the curriculum is a sequence of desirable child experiences, while a course of study is a teacher-guide containing subject-matter assignments.

In the following paragraphs an attempt is made to block out very roughly an experience curriculum for the elementary school on three age-levels. Specific subject-matter assignments are not attempted, since school systems differ greatly both in the nature of the assignment and in their grade placement. It is assumed that the modern elementary school teacher begins with the child and selects such areas of subject matter as are appropriate to his development. This is a direct reversal of the traditional method which begins with subject matter and forces it upon the children.

What Children Do in School

(5–6–7-Year-Old Level)

This is, to all intents and purposes, a curriculum for all teachers who teach five-, six-, and seven-year-old children. It is an experience curriculum. Under a strictly graded system, a certain number of the experiences listed would be assigned to each grade in the school. Such a procedure would be directly opposed to our philosophy of education. We should say to the teacher, "Provide these experiences for your children in so far as these experiences are appropriate to the children's present development." The kindergarten teacher will utilize many of them, the first grade teacher most of them, the second grade teacher nearly all of them. The point is, *Provide experiences as rapidly as children develop, regardless of grade assignments.*

Finally, the experiences listed are merely types which are used for illustration. The alert and intelligent teacher will provide many other experiences of equal value. The ones given are characteristic of this age-level, but the list is in no sense complete.

I. *In the Field of Social Living*

1. *Dramatic Play*

(*a*) In the Play Corner

We play house, wash dishes, take care of the baby, prepare meals for our family, entertain guests, dress in "grown-up" clothes, use the play telephone, pretend we are fathers, mothers, older brothers and sisters, etc.

(*b*) With Blocks

We build an airport, zoo, farm, harbor, store, circus, trains, boats, busses, etc.

We play that we are the persons who work in the airport, on boats, etc.

(*c*) With Building Materials — lumber, nails, paint, etc.

We build an airport, zoo, farm, harbor, store, circus, trains, boats, busses, etc.

We play that we are the persons who work in the airport, on boats, etc.

(*d*) With Literary Materials

We act out stories that have been told or read to us.

2. *General Experience*

Trips and Excursions

We take walks or go on the bus to see a house under construction; to the pet shop to buy a rabbit; to visit the dairy; to visit a farm; to visit an airport; to visit a railroad station; to see chickens and ducks in the backyard of some neighbor; to visit the branch library; the fire station, an open-air market; a grocery store; to walk around the school building, visiting the principal in his office, other classrooms, the boiler-room, the auditorium, and the cafeteria; we visit the post office and become acquainted with our own mail-man.

3. *Responsibilities*

We keep our playhouse in order; we are responsible for much of the general housekeeping in our classroom; we go on errands; we keep sweaters and coats on racks or hooks; we prepare calcimine for painting; we wash paint brushes; we wash clay trays; we keep the sink clean; we help take charge of games on the

playground; we care for playground materials; we make flower arrangements.

4. *Work Habits*

We help plan the day's work; we help to evaluate our results; we clean up after ourselves; we learn to co-operate; we learn to follow directions; we help each other; we put away tools and blocks; we learn to notice things that need to be done.

5. *Attitudes*

We discuss health habits, respect for the rights of others, behavior in public places, how we can help mother and father at home; we help plan a code of behavior; we discuss kindness to animals; we discuss tattling and the critical attitude toward others; we discuss the need to get over hurt feelings quickly.

II. *In the Field of Nature Study and Science*

1. *Observation*

We walk in our school garden to watch the fish in the pond, to play in the grass and leaves, to look for buds and butterflies, to recognize trees and flowers by name, to hunt for moss, to blow dandelion fluff, to watch for garden friends (sun, rain, toads, etc.) and garden enemies (snails, grasshoppers, weeds, etc.); to watch the older children work in their garden plots; to smell rain and catch rain water; to feed the sea gulls; to walk in the wind and see how strong it is; to watch cloud forms; to look through a magnifying glass, to observe seasonal changes in trees and plants.

We observe the farmer plowing, harrowing, and seeding his farm; we observe bees in our hive, and our ant nest. We invite pigeons to school.

2. *Pets*

We make a bird bath for our garden; we care for our goldfish and turtles; we invite a baby goat to school; we invite a hen and baby chickens; we invite a mother cat and kittens; we care for our birds; we care for our rabbits and white mice; we have a pet show.

3. *Experimentation*

We make a garden, plant it, and care for it; we harvest our vegetables and prepare them for eating; we plant bulbs and seeds in jars and trays in the classroom to learn how light, air, and moisture affect plant growth; we plant seeds to study germination; we hang wet cloths in sunshine and shade to study evaporation; we make simple experiments with magnets and prisms; we experiment with different kinds of soils; we study

chemi-culture; we study the effect of rust on tools; we keep a weather chart; we study the thermometer and the compass.

We set a hen and observe incubation and hatching; we observe length of shadows at various times of day; we raise canaries in the classroom; we raise potato vines from sweet potatoes; we raise silkworms.

4. *Trips*

   We visit a dairy and a farm to observe farm animals; we visit the zoo to observe wild animals; we visit the park to observe plant and insect life.

5. *Collections*

   We collect feathers, acorns, seeds, leaves, shells, trap-door spider's house, petrified wood, wild flowers; we collect gourds.

III. *In the Field of the Language Arts*

1. *Conversation*

   We tell our personal experiences; we discuss our experiences; we exchange opinions as to what we saw and did on trips and excursions; we repeat our home address, telephone numbers, and full names of father and mother; we make plans for the day; we make health rules for our use; we extend birthday greetings and wishes to each other; we ask questions to clarify our understandings; we discuss materials; we acquire new words from our experiences to enlarge our speaking vocabularies; we broadcast our experiences; we bring pictures from home for discussion; we comment on pictures painted by ourselves and other children; we attempt complete replies when questioned; we learn to introduce our parents and other visitors to the class; we introduce new children to the class; we make announcements in other rooms.

2. *Reading*

   (*a*) We read and place labels; we enjoy picture books in our library; we collect pictures; we help dictate experience charts, letters, and notices; we discuss new books; we bring books from home for the teacher to read to the class; we read chart stories based upon our experiences; we write our names in manuscript form; we recognize our names on lunch boxes, coat hangers, and other personal belongings; we help compose a letter to a sick child; we make books out of our typewritten stories; we help compose a behavior code for our use.

   (*b*) We read in pre-primers, primers, and first grade readers with ease and enjoyment; we recognize simple phonic ele-

ments in familiar words; we write legibly and spell correctly words in daily use; we learn the sounds and names of letters of the alphabet; we write simple accounts of our experiences; we check library books in and out; we read manuscript writing readily; we comment intelligently on what we read; we discuss what we read; we compose a room newspaper.

3. *Literature and Dramatization*

We repeat nursery rhymes; we dramatize nursery rhymes; we tell stories we have had read or told to us; we dramatize simple stories; we memorize and repeat simple poems; we recite poems in unison; we make up original plays and act them.

IV. *In the Field of Aesthetics*

1. *Media*

We model with clay; we paint with calcimine and water color; we paint pictures of ourselves and our classmates; we make simple flower arrangements; we sing songs; we play in the rhythm band; we dance, walk, skip, skate to music; we make up original dances; we match tones on our song bells.

2. *Enjoyment*

We arrange our color jars like the rainbow; we smell our garden after the rain; we watch the clouds; we enjoy shadows; we mix pretty colored water; we blow soap bubbles; we play with the prisms; we arrange colored blocks in designs; we look at and discuss pictures in new library books; we listen to the school orchestra; we listen to the music of stories and poems; we look at pictures; we collect pictures for our own use; we compose simple lyrics and melodies; we experiment with the sounds of different metals, woods, and glasses; we learn the names of familiar orchestral instruments; we reproduce our personal experiences in the pictures we paint; we model our pets in clay; we visit upper school classes to hear music and look at paintings; we listen to the piano, radio, and phonograph.

V. *In the Field of the Practical Arts*

1. *Construction*

We build with blocks; we work with simple tools; we make simple furniture; we make animals and people for block play; we paint what we make; we make clay boards from apple boxes; we make cages for our pets; we make a scarecrow for our garden; we build a low stage for our dramatizations; we make wagons out of cheese boxes; we make simple Christmas gifts for our

parents and for each other; we make simple musical instruments; we make scrapbooks with cardboard covers; we learn simple bookbinding; we make bulletin boards.

2. *Sewing and Weaving*

   We weave hot pads on our loom; we weave hats and bags; we upholster our davenport; we make costumes for ourselves and clothes for our dolls; we make oilcloth aprons; we make quilts for our playhouse; we braid rags and weave them; we design wrapping paper; we make sails for our boats.

3. *Cooking*

   We make and care for our school garden; we gather and cook our vegetables; we make artistic arrangements of our vegetables; we arrange our flowers in the classroom; we make butter and serve on crackers; we make jello; we make gingerbread; we make sandwiches and cookies; we make cocoa.

4. *Hospitality*

   We give parties to ourselves, other classes, and our parents, using the things we have made.

VI. *In the Field of the Skills*

1. *Social Skills*

   We share our belongings; we clean up after ourselves; we care for our personal belongings; we are cordial and courteous to visitors; we keep our classroom orderly; we help each other; we play games without quarreling; we introduce people to each other gracefully.

2. *Physical Skills*

   We handle blocks quietly; we walk and skip correctly; we handle books and turn pages properly; we use soft voices; we use garden tools with economy of effort; we master the technique of saw, hammer, paint-brush; we take good care of tools; we learn to paste and mount pictures; we jump rope; we play with bean bags, dominoes, checkers; we learn simple techniques in sewing, cooking, and weaving.

3. *Number Skills*

   We count our lunch money accurately; we tell time by the clock; we measure materials; we recognize small coins in daily use; we make change accurately; we count objects and persons accurately; we solve simple problems; we use the calender daily.

4. *Aesthetic Skills*

   We master the techniques involved in our music and art experiences.

5. *Skills Through the Language Arts*
We master needed techniques in conversation, reading, writing, and spelling.

What Children Do in School
(8–9-Year-Old Level)

This is, in effect, a curriculum for all teachers who teach eight- and nine-year-old children. It is an experience curriculum. The teacher will wish to check back over the experiences listed in the preceding section on five-, six-, and seven-year-old children, and check forward over the experiences listed in the following section on ten-, eleven-, and twelve-year-old children. The major point to be observed is, *Provide experiences as rapidly as your children develop, regardless of grade assignments.*

Let it be remembered that the experiences listed are merely types which are used for illustration. The alert and intelligent teacher will provide many other experiences of equal value. The ones given here are characteristic at this age-level, but the list is in no sense complete. The teacher will wish to check them, however, one by one, to see which are being provided and which have been omitted. There may be good reasons for omissions.

The third grade teacher may say, "How do I know from this list where third grade experiences end?" The answer is that she cannot tell in advance. The third grade child should have every experience listed, if possible, which is appropriate at his present stage of development. The teacher is not to worry over the fear that if this is done, there will not be experiences enough left over for the fourth grade teacher. The children, themselves, will let the teacher know when they have reached the limits of their abilities.

I. *In the Field of Social Living*
We relate and discuss our personal experiences; we bring our pets to school and discuss them; we bring flowers, pictures, pottery

and other contributions to school in order to share our pleasure with others; we study our neighborhood; we take trips to places of interest; we plan a class party and conduct it successfully; we study by means of units of work; we write about our trips and tell about them to the class; we act as hosts to visitors; we join in community singing; we visit another school; we hold a pet show.

We take messages to other rooms; we divide the responsibilities of our classroom among committees; we share the care of physical education equipment and supplies; we maintain an effective room organization; we help care for building and grounds; we help in the office.

Attitudes

We help each other; we use our freedom wisely; we are courteous to strangers and friendly with each other.

II. *In the Field of Science*

We make a garden and care for it; we clean the old annuals out of our garden. We prepare the soil and plant new flowers; we reset flower bulbs; we identify trees on the school ground; we care for white rats; we take care of our canary birds; we take care of our gold fish; we make collections of pictures relating to nature study and science; we read about stars and planets; we maintain an active science table; we make observations regularly on weather and temperature; we read science stories; we study the origins of textiles: wool, cotton, silk, and flax; we publish a science newspaper; we make maps of the school ground and of the neighborhood; we collect shells, leaves, rocks, and other objects reflecting science interests; we collect caterpillars; we collect butterflies and moths; we collect trap-door spiders; we collect seeds from our garden, dry them and use them for replanting; we follow the life cycle of frogs; we make a tropical fish aquarium; we learn about electrical devices to heat aquaria; we learn to read water thermometers; we make simple experiments in ventilation, and control the ventilation in our classrooms.

III. *In the Field of the Language Arts*

1. *Reading*

We read freely in the class library; we read orally to give pleasure to others; we read easily in work-type readers suited to our ability; we read for our own enjoyment; we classify the stories we read as fanciful, animal, informational, adventure, etc.; we conduct a Book Club; we discuss what we have read.

2. *Form and Substance*

We participate in a verse-speaking choir; we learn poems individually; we use the dictionary to add to our vocabularies; we use the dictionary to check our spelling; we write simple stories, one paragraph long, on current class interests; we reply to letters received from other schools; we learn correct letter forms; we learn to distinguish between and to use correctly "in — into," "may — can," etc.; we select factual material from many sources for our discussions; we select pictures to illustrate our newly-learned words; we learn to use noun and verb; we learn to make effective sentences; we use soft voices; we dramatize stories; we enjoy listening to poems read to us; we write stories and poems for our school newspaper; we write plays for our puppet theater; we dramatize stories of the Pueblo Indians.

IV. *In the Field of Aesthetics*

We draw and paint pictures with calcimine, water color, and colored chalk; we model with clay; we create original designs; we sing for pleasure; we learn the elements of notation from our music readers; we create new songs; we play the tone bells; we make and use a puppet theater; we dance for pleasure, we create new dance forms; we construct and use a stage for dramatic play and dramatization; we make masks and shields for our dances and plays; we make representations of Indian pottery; we step to music; we join in community singing; we listen to phonograph records; we sketch out-of-doors; we watch older children in finger-painting; we take walks in the neighborhood to discover subjects for study in form and color.

V. *In the Field of the Practical Arts*

We weave scarfs, Indian rugs, and belts; we make hot pads for dishes; we make toys for Christmas gifts; we make tea towels involving simple stitchery; we learn to cover books; we make nut bowls; we make simple objects out of wood; we make drums for our rhythms; we learn the use of garden tools; we make yarn dolls; we learn to sew by hand and by hand-operated sewing machines; we make simple costumes; we make clothes for our dolls.

VI. *In the Field of the Skills*

We play familiar games; we learn new games; we take care of physical education equipment; we deliver and collect playground material; we learn to operate the duplicator; we keep ourselves

neat and clean; we decide on a code of behavior in visiting the branch library and live up to it; we master the business of keeping a bank account; we care for classroom equipment and supplies; we make flower arrangements; we check cafeteria money; we practice the simple skills needed in reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic; we learn to conduct a class meeting; we use simple tools carefully and accurately; we take good care of our personal belongings; we keep order in classroom supplies and equipment.

What Children Do in School

(10–11–12-Year-Old Level)

This is, in effect, a curriculum for all teachers of ten-, eleven-, and twelve-year-old children. It is an experience curriculum. The teacher will wish to check back over the experiences listed in the preceding section on the eight- and nine-year-old children, as some of her children may be immature. The major point to be observed is, *Provide experiences as rapidly as your children develop, regardless of grade assignments.*

Let it be remembered that the experiences listed are merely types which are used for illustration. The alert and intelligent teacher will provide many other experiences of equal value. The ones given herewith are characteristic at this age-level, but the list is in no sense complete. The teacher will wish to check them over, however, one by one, to see which are being provided and which have been omitted. There may be good reasons for omissions.

The fourth grade teacher may say, "How do I know from this list where fourth grade experiences end?" The answer is that she cannot tell in advance. The fourth grade child should have every experience listed, if possible, which is appropriate to his present stage of development. The teacher is not to worry over the fear that if this is done there will not be experiences enough left over for the fifth and sixth grade teachers. The children, themselves, will let the teacher know when they have reached the limit of their abilities.

I. *In the Field of the Social Studies*

1. *The Morning Conference*

We manage the conference period; we plan the day's work; we make news reports; we record attendance; we inspect for cleanliness; we plan for our trips; we discuss, evaluate, and record the results of our trips, visits, and excursions; we maintain an effective room organization; we elect officers; we divide responsibilities among ourselves; we follow rules of order; we keep minutes of our meetings; we plan ways to make our school attractive; we discuss ways and means for maintaining a democratic spirit in our classroom; we plan the seating of our classroom.

2. *Trips and Excursions*

We take walking trips through the neighborhood; we take bus field trips; we visit and use the branch library; we use the telephone in planning our trips; we interview people and take notes; we visit and use the neighborhood playground; we study and list the activities of the neighborhood playground.

3. *Knowledge and Techniques*

We organize needed subject matter through units of work; we read maps, make and use them; we make a survey of our neighborhood; we make plans, charts, and graphs; we bring books from home and from the branch library to share with each other; we keep attractive bulletin boards; we master the outlines of the history of our country; we compare our American culture with the cultures of other lands; we make maps of the United States to help us in our studies; we listen to recommended radio programs; we learn the principal physical and economic facts about the United States appropriate to our age-level; we visit a housing exhibit; we make stamp collections, discuss, and exchange stamps; we conduct a Hobby Club.

4. *Helping the School*

We help the clerk receive visitors; we help the school nurse; we fill requisitions for classroom supplies and deliver them; we check library books in and out of classroom and school libraries; we stamp state textbooks and deliver them; we run the school Balopticon; we check visual education material; we act as hosts and hostesses in the school cafeteria; we set the cafeteria tables and arrange flowers; we entertain our parents at luncheon in the cafeteria; we take care of younger children in the cafeteria; we help on the school paper drive; we help organize games on the playground; we demonstrate new games in other classes; we assist the teachers in kindergarten and first

grade; we arrange the auditorium for the orchestra; we arrange and number seats in the lunch pavilion; we take charge of the school assembly; we help in P.T.A. meetings; we landscape part of the school yard.

II. *In the Field of Science*

1. *Instruments*

We read and discuss thermometer readings; we use magnifying glass and microscope; we make and use a sundial; we experiment with a magnet; we keep weather reports; we make and use a simple telescope; we use the siphon.

2. *Gardens*

We make a garden on the school grounds, raise flowers, and vegetables, harvest them; we make a rock garden in the classroom on sand table or window shelf; we propagate plants by seed, bulb, cutting, and leaf; we learn the names of common flowers and vegetables; we take home seeds, plants, and cuttings; we learn how to transplant plants; we raise plants by chemi-culture.

3. *Live Things*

We bring our pets to school; we maintain and observe an ant nest; we collect caterpillars and observe them; we raise silkworms and reel off the silk; we raise baby birds; we observe and record bird life in our neighborhood; we observe frogs and toads.

4. *Miscellaneous*

We collect materials having a science interest for us — rocks, minerals, leaves, feathers, shells, seeds, woods — and make containers to hold them; we label our specimens; we visit the planetarium and make sky graphs and charts; we visit museums; we read science magazines; we study cloud forms; we study water — its constructive and destructive effects; we study the seasons; we make bird baths and feed birds; we make bird books; we experiment with different kinds of soils; we maintain an effective (not static) science table.

III. *In the Field of the Language Arts*

1. *Reading*

We read to gather information for ourselves or others; we read for our own enjoyment; we read to an audience; we read with ease and understanding fourth, fifth, and sixth grade readers; we use the dictionary to enlarge our vocabularies and to check our spelling; we give book reviews; we try to find new

ways to enlarge our vocabularies; we listen to, read, and retell stories from good literature; we study the mechanical makeup (format) of many recent books; we collect and study newspapers.

2. *Form and Substance*

We make our reports in writing; we make oral reports; we broadcast our reports; we organize a verse-choir; we dramatize stories and current events; we learn basic words in the speller; we spell correctly the words used in our daily work; we stand with poise and speak clearly in giving reports; we write about our personal experiences; we write original stories and verse; we write letters to absent classmates; we write business letters arranging trips or asking for information; we write letters of invitation; we cut want-ads from the daily paper and write imaginary answers; we learn the use of synonyms and antonyms; we learn rules for punctuation; we listen to good poetry; we publish a classroom magazine; we correspond with school children in our own and other cities; we study the mechanics of writing correctly letters and reports; we collect and study newspapers; we study sentences; we study paragraphs; we cultivate a good writing style; we learn to use the typewriter; we recite poems in unison; we study the techniques of good conversation; we hold debates on subjects suitable for our age-level; we study the techniques of introducing persons; we list and study errors we have made in usage; we keep a file of good newspaper and magazine articles; we make our own report cards; we discuss personal conduct in the school.

IV. *In the Field of Aesthetics*

1. *Media*

We model figures and pottery in clay; we paint pictures in calcimine, water color, chalk; we sketch with pencil, crayon, chalk, and charcoal; we make flower arrangements; we mix paints; we make block prints; we dye cloth; we paint murals; we make posters; we sing two- and three-part songs; we sing in unison; we play in the school orchestra; we sing in the school chorus; we join in community singing; we play in the rhythm band; we learn folk dances; we learn simple social dances; we make sketchbooks for rapid sketching; we play in the harmonica band; we collect, mount, and file pictures.

2. *General*

We develop art principles through discussion; we study the work of famous artists and musicians; we list the places in our

city where good music can be heard and where good art can be seen; we take trips to public buildings to see murals; we visit buildings to study architecture; we discuss art in clothing — color, design, suitability, wearing qualities, materials; we bring orchestral instruments to school, and explain, discuss, and play them; we plan and carry out artistic arrangements in our classroom; we plan good bulletin boards; we make block print panels for classroom and halls.

V. *In the Field of the Practical Arts*

1. *Construction*

We use our workbench to make simple furniture; we paint our furniture; we make models for our social studies units; we make bird baths; we make models with Erector sets; we make silhouettes; we make cardboard dolls; we make puppets and a puppet theater; we carve wood; we make peep-shows; we use the coping saw and other simple tools; we make wind vanes; and weather gauges; we make scenery for school plays; we make simple designs in hammered copper; we build cupboards for our cloakroom; we make filing cabinets; we build a model home; we make game boards; we bind books.

2. *Sewing*

We sew, embroider, and crochet; we make aprons; we make costumes; we weave caps, dish pads, and purses; we make needle-point purses; we make samplers of stitches for our own use; we learn to braid; we make quilts; we knit scarfs; we make rag dolls; we make yarn flowers.

3. *Cooking*

We prepare a simple luncheon; we learn to set a luncheon table; we learn table etiquette; we make table decorations.

VI. *In the Field of the Skills*

We lay out the school yard into game areas; we weigh and measure each other; we keep growth records; we make health rules; we collect and discuss menus; we organize teams in physical education; we act as umpires at games of other classes; we prepare a map of the school yard for the principal; we take good care of physical education equipment and of all tools in daily use.

We draw maps and floor plans to scale; we solve arithmetic problems arising in our units of work; we review number combinations; fundamental processes and simple fractions; we learn to use decimals and simple denominate numbers; we solve number problems within our experience; we learn to use the ruler; we make change accurately.

We use the map of the United States quickly and accurately; we draw maps and floor plans; we make index cards; we learn to use the card file at the branch library.

Practical Steps

The proper background having been established, what practical steps may the teacher take to develop and clarify her philosophy of education? Lovers of Charles Dickens will remember Mr. Wackford Squeers, the Master of Dotheboys Hall, as a practical psychologist. Mr. Squeers was fond of saying that his boys were taught to spell "winder" w-i-n, win; d-e-r, der; winder, and then go out and clean 'em. Let the teacher, therefore, who wishes to evolve a philosophy of education do something about it. Let her start with the two basic concepts, *environment* and *experience.*

I. Is not the teacher's first task to set up in her classroom the best *environment* possible and out of that environment to provide good experiences for her children? Let us consider the following problem:

1. *A primary teacher has a classroom 23 feet wide and 34 feet long. Her room is equipped with 16 primary tables and 32 primary chairs, allowing two children to each table.* How can she seat her room to provide for the maximum growth of her children? She must keep in mind that the criterion to be observed is that she must so arrange tables and chairs as to provide the maximum amount of free floor space. Children must have room to move around freely. The teacher must have room in which to provide the work-centers which will afford the maximum number of experiences she considers desirable for children. At once the teacher is confused by the classic rule that "light must always fall over the left shoulder." She needs to remember that this rule was made when desks were arranged in fixed rows parallel to the windows of the classroom and when children were required to sit still in their desks nearly all day long. In the modern school children move around very frequently, and the "left shoulder" is now

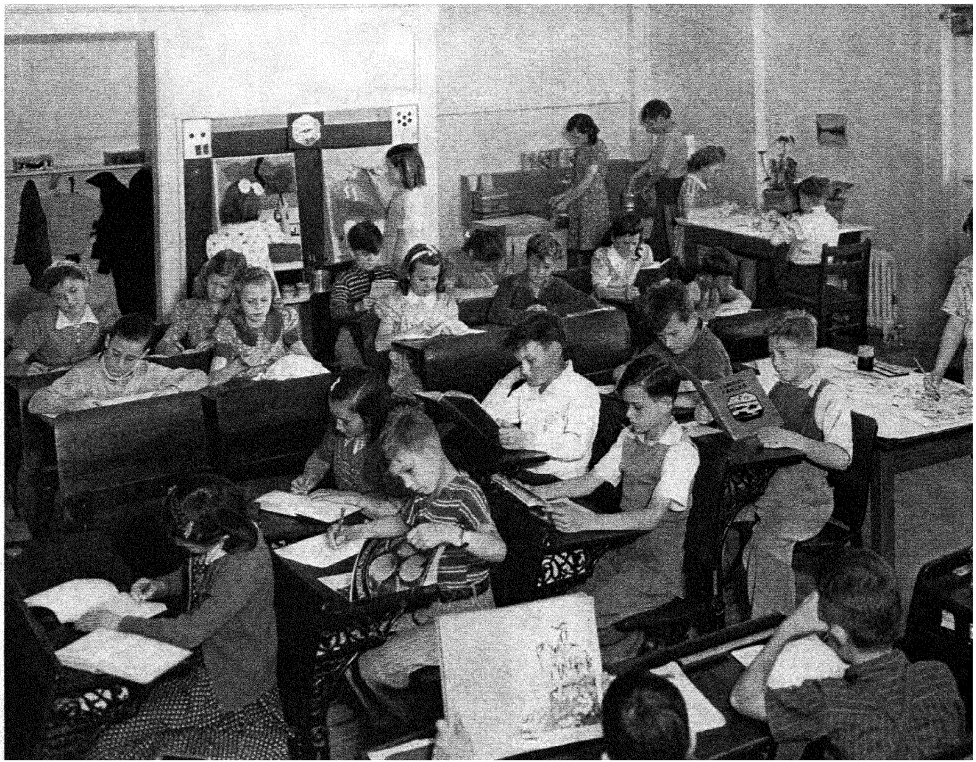


PLATE 9. Upper School Classroom, Corona Avenue School

Note arrangement of desks, a center block flanked by two facing blocks.



PLATE 10. South Half of Classroom Shown in PLATE 9



PLATE 11. An Upper School Classroom

Note central block of desks flanked by block set on an angle.

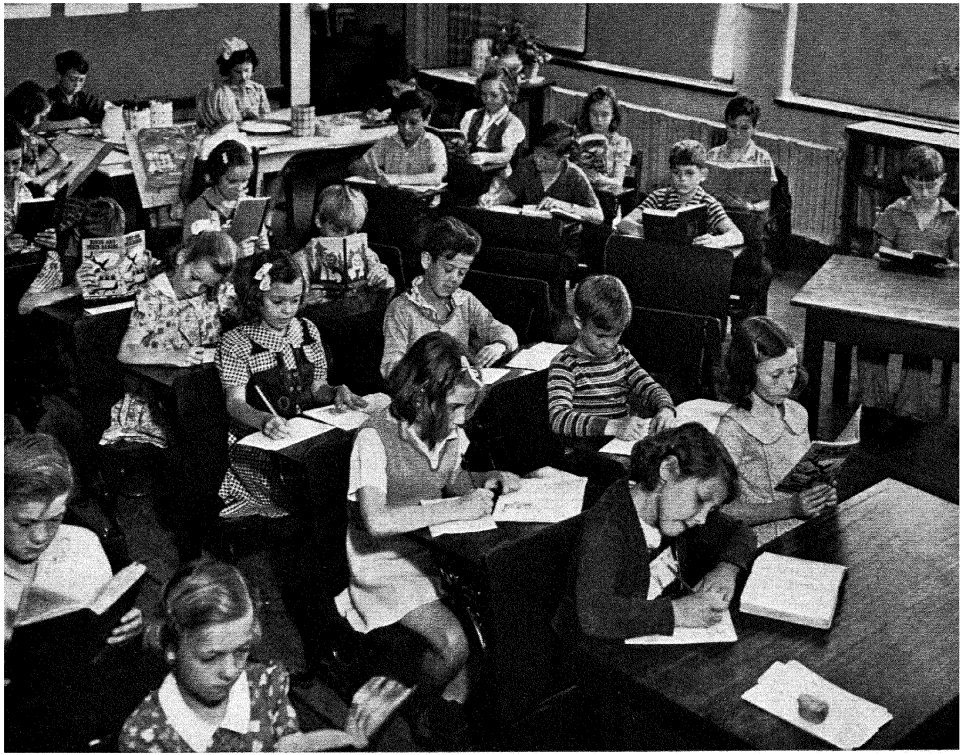


PLATE 12. North Half of Classroom Shown in PLATE 11

Note worktable at rear of room.

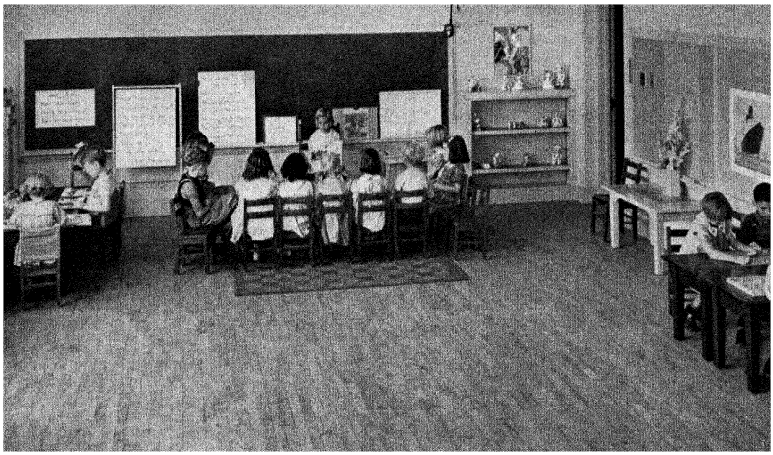


PLATE 13. A Primary Classroom

PLATE 14. South Half of Classroom Shown in PLATE 13



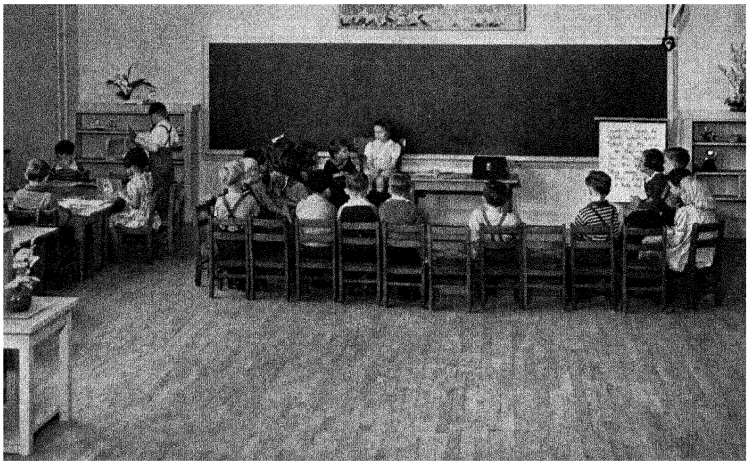


PLATE 15. A Primary Reading Group

PLATE 16. Rear of Classroom Shown in PLATE 15





PLATE 17. Upper School Classroom, Corona Avenue School

Note sink, an essential in the modern schoolroom.



PLATE 18. West Half of Classroom Shown in PLATE 17

The main block of seats is shown in PLATE 17. Note small facing blocks above.

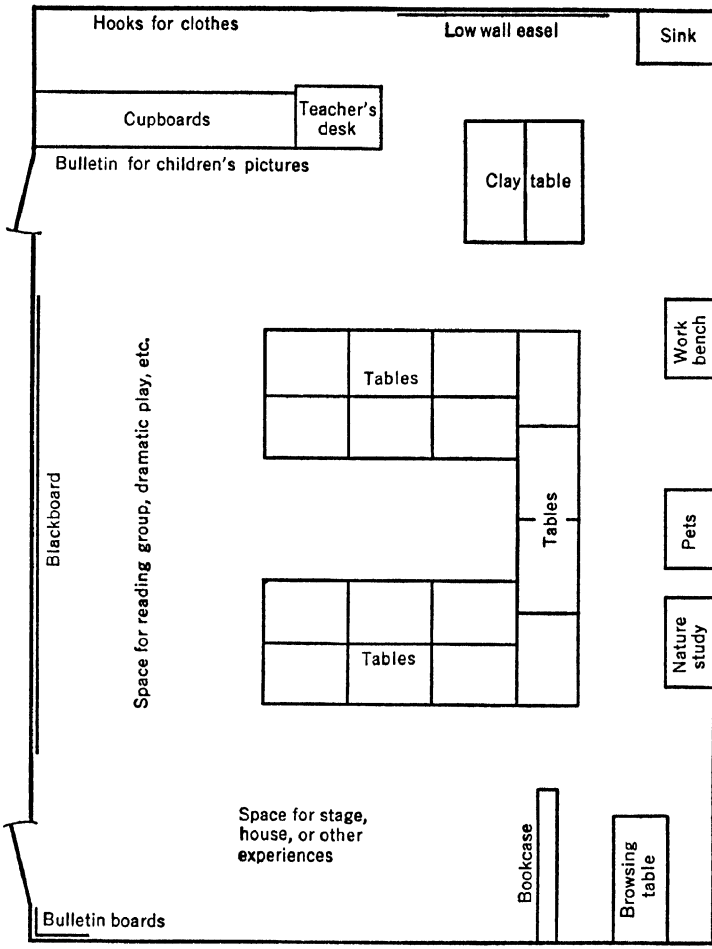
a variable rather than a fixed quantity. There is no "best way" to seat a primary room equipped with tables and chairs. The lighting in each room is always different in some degree from the lighting in all other rooms, depending upon the orientation of the building to the points of the compass, upon the finish of the walls, upon the color scheme, upon the lightness or darkness of the woodwork, upon the presence or absence of Venetian blinds, upon the presence or absence of near-by buildings which may either cast shade or reflect glare, together with a host of other unpredictable factors. Certainly no child should be made to sit facing the windows if there is strong sunlight coming through, but even this sensible rule goes by the board if the windows are adequately protected by Venetian blinds. There are two possible answers to our original problem in the floor plans shown on pages 120 and 121.

2. *A primary teacher has a classroom equipped with 36 primary desks arranged in six rows of six desks each, all screwed to the floor.* How shall she provide free floor space in a primary room in which nearly all the available floor space is filled with furniture? The answer is very simple. Let her ask her principal to set her desks on parallel strips of wood, three or four desks to each pair of strips, and she will then have nine to twelve units which will permit of almost endless rearrangement. There are two suggestive plans for reseating such a situation on pages 122 and 123.

3. *An upper grade teacher has 36 large desks screwed to the floor.* Let her mount her desks in units of four desks to each pair of strips and experiment with the new units until a solution is found. Two plans which may prove helpful are shown on pages 124 and 125.

4. *An upper grade teacher has a mixture of tables, chairs, and desks.* How may she reseat her room to provide free floor space? There are some suggestions in the plans shown on pages 126 and 127.

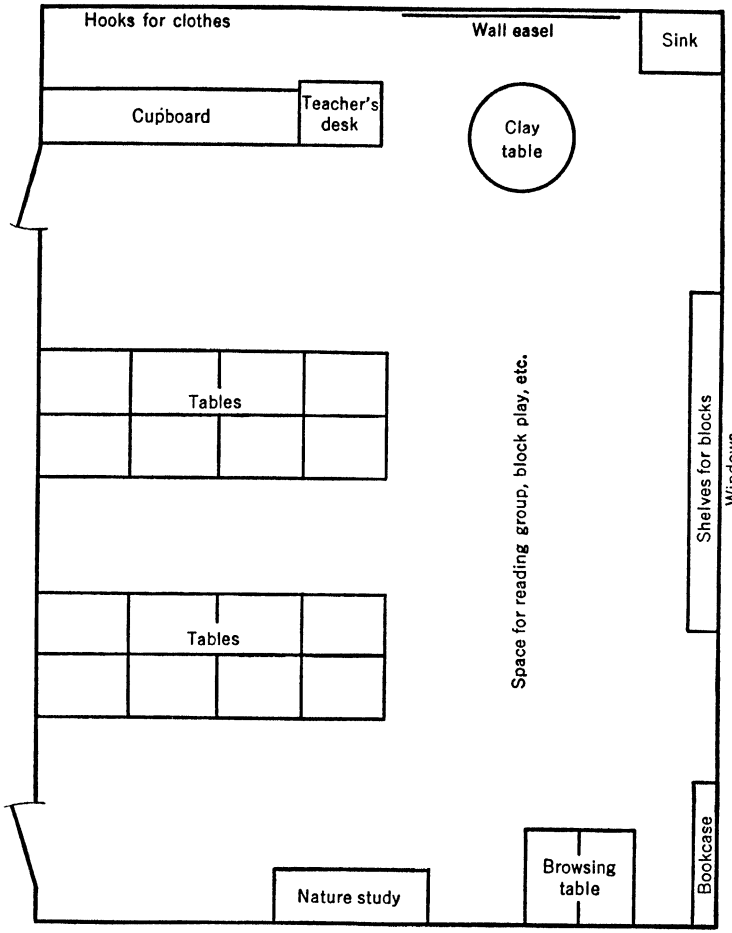
In solving the problem of reseating the classroom, which is of the greatest importance if the children are to have good experiences, there are some general principles to be observed:



FLOOR PLAN WITH TABLES

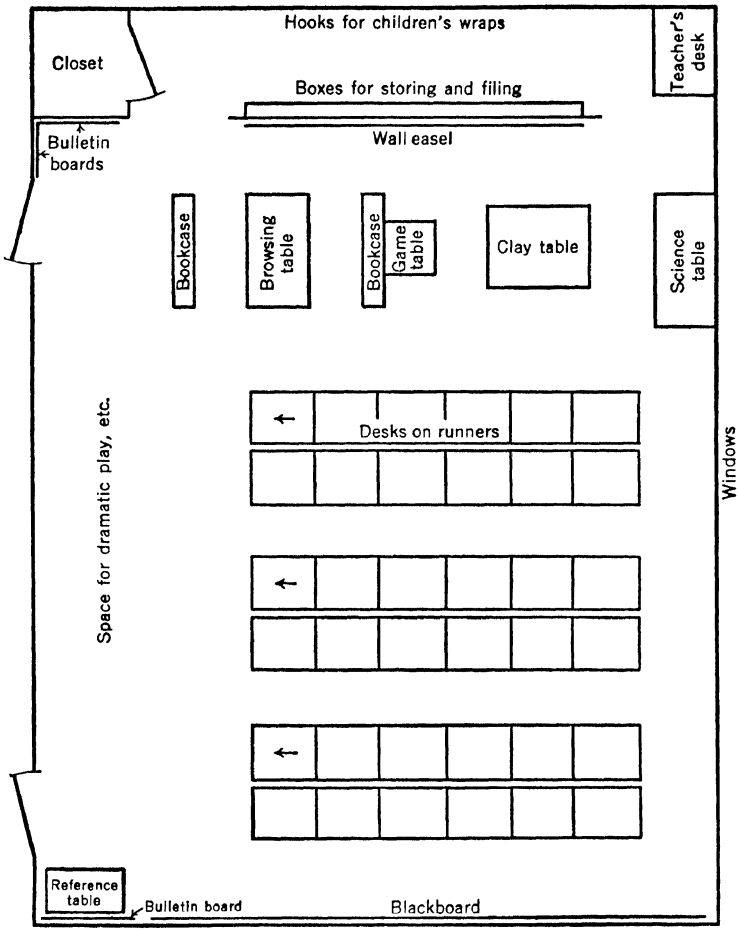
1. To repeat, there is no "best" way to seat a room. Trial and error is the accepted method. Try everything until a satisfactory solution is found.

2. When a seating plan is decided upon, it should not be regarded as permanent. A fair trial of an apparently ideal



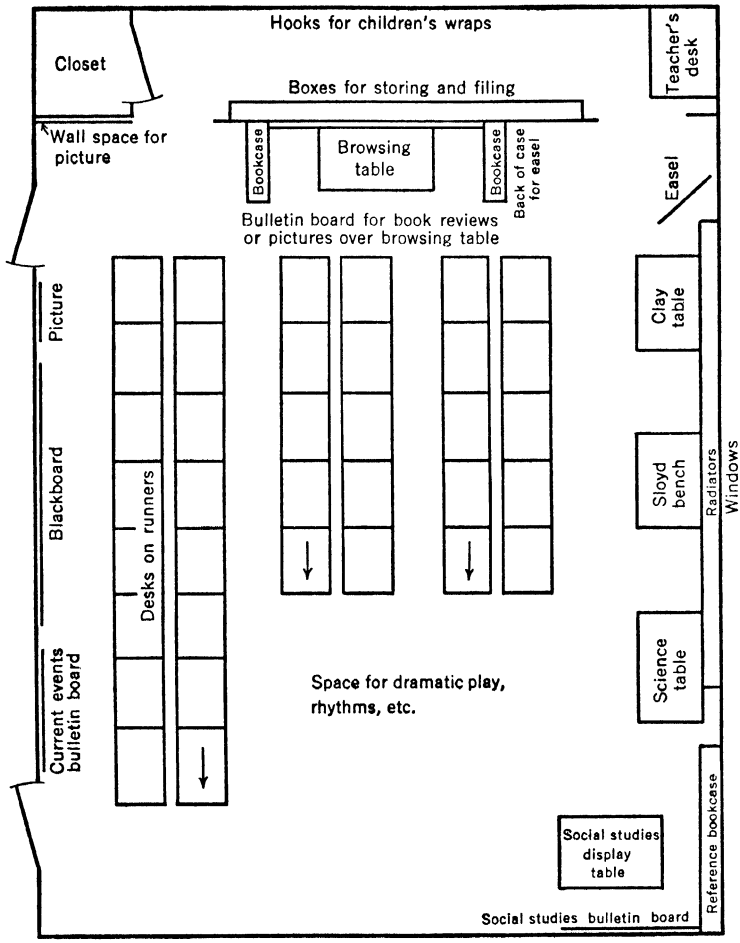
FLOOR PLAN WITH TABLES

plan may reveal weaknesses, and in that event, a new plan should be devised. Even if a plan proves satisfactory, the children may tire of it after several months, and may want to change it merely for the sake of change. In our own homes, we often tire of a familiar arrangement and rearrange our living-room furniture merely to rest our eyes.



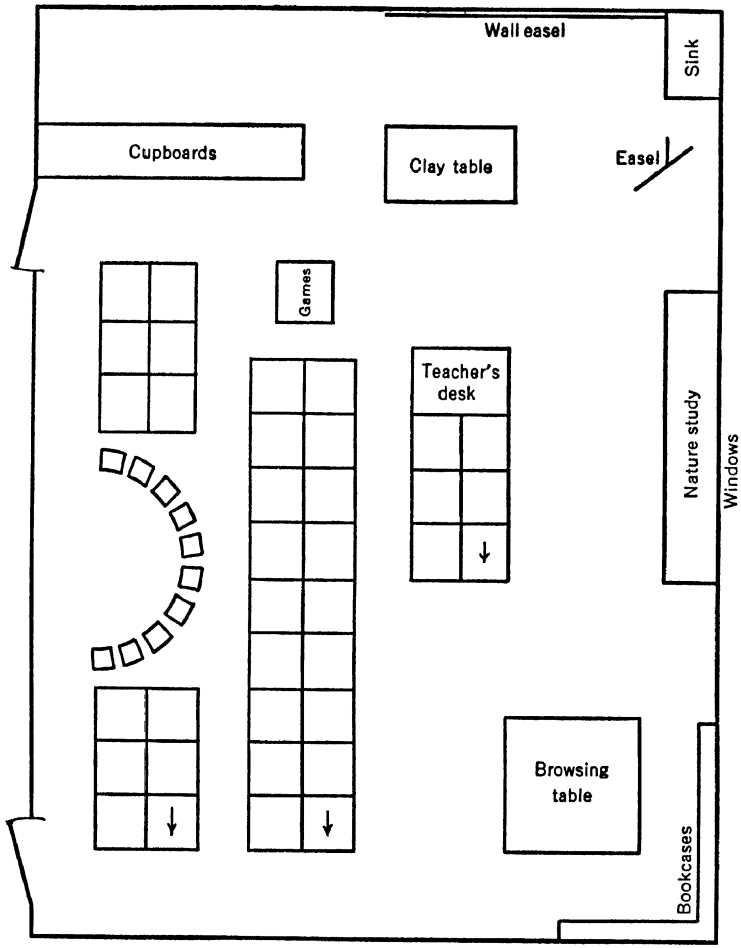
FLOOR PLAN WITH DESKS

3. The children should always be taken in partnership before a room is reseated. After all, the classroom is the children's home and not the personal property of the teacher. Reseating will proceed far more quickly and successfully if the children have a voice in the matter. Often children will have decided and astonishingly sensible opinions to offer.



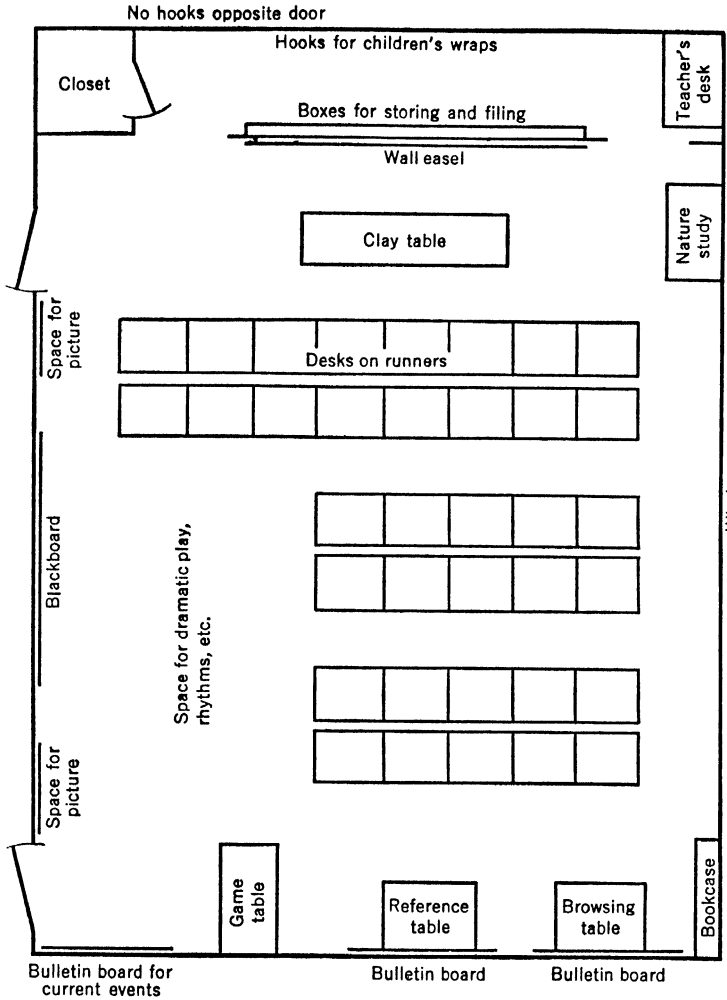
FLOOR PLAN WITH DESKS

4. In this connection the teacher should remember that her job is, primarily, to provide for the children's comfort rather than for her own. The teacher who will not permit tables and chairs in a primary room because the squeaking of the chairs, when they are moved, "gets on her nerves," should not be



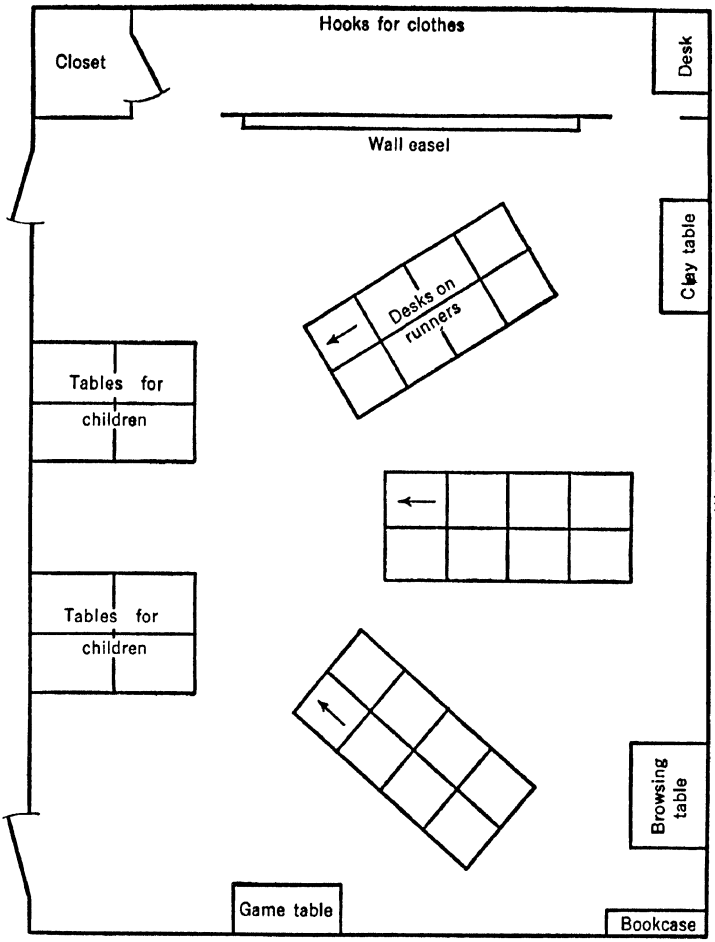
FLOOR PLAN WITH DESKS

allowed to live with small children. Again, teachers often object to two rows of desks being placed closely together on the ground that children will whisper to each other or that one may copy another's work. These problems are not met by separation; they should be faced and met as problems of



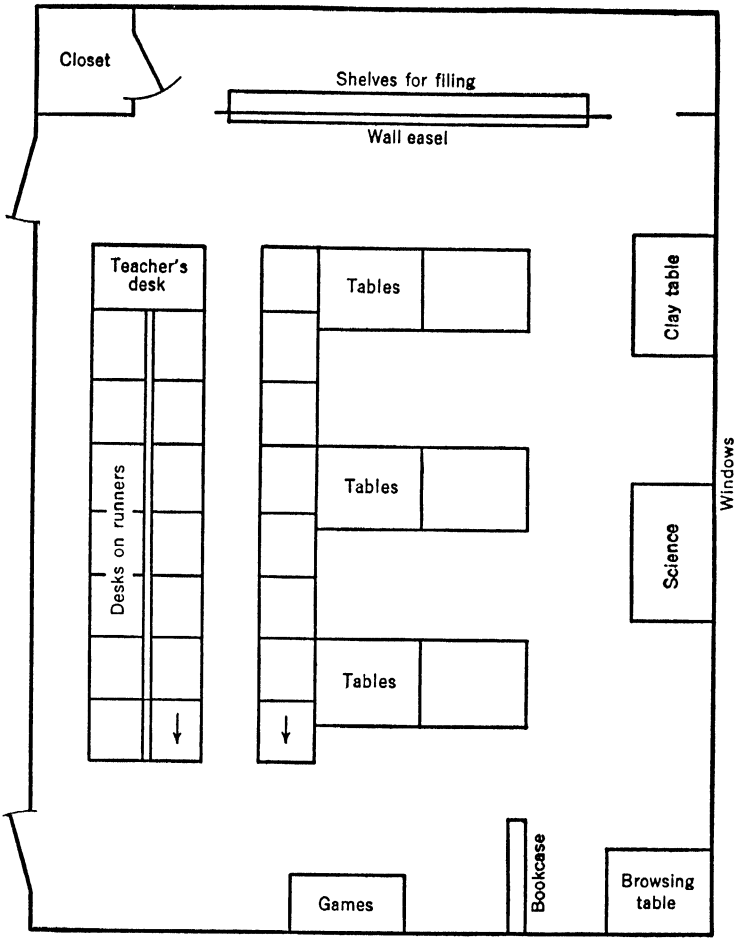
FLOOR PLAN WITH DESKS

social living. In the modern school, children do not whisper, because (1) whispering is bad form, and (2) because children are encouraged to speak freely and openly to each other within the bounds of good taste and regard for others. As far as



FLOOR PLAN WITH DESKS AND TABLES

copying is concerned, the child who copies the work of a neighbor is not a victim of original sin but a child who needs help. Far better to let his neighbor help him openly and freely until he can proceed under his own power. Finally, the fear of contagion from common colds and other forms of juvenile



FLOOR PLAN WITH DESKS AND TABLES

illness is grossly exaggerated by the fussy teacher. People do sit by each other at church and in the theater without worry, and the danger is slight.

5. Children will frequently suggest grouping desks or tables so that small compact groups of four to six children occupy

different corners of the room. This practice should be encouraged as it gives children security and confidence through the sense of belonging to a rather intimate circle of friends. It is highly desirable, also, from the teacher's standpoint, since it allows her to seat her reading and arithmetic groups to maximum advantage.

6. The teacher's desk should be relegated to as inconspicuous a corner of the classroom as possible. Certainly in a democratic classroom the teacher's desk should not be in a commanding position of authority in the very front of the room. On the other hand, the teacher has some rights which should be recognized. Her desk should be placed where it has good light and some privacy, and should not be banished to a dark corner of the cloakroom. After all, in a democratic classroom, the teacher is a member of the family, and as such has some claims to consideration.

II. So much for *environment.* How about *the sources of experiences*? The initial point of departure here lies in the teacher's conception of what is meant by a good daily program. She may be in the unfortunate position where she has to follow a meticulous time-schedule set for her by her principal or superintendent, in which case her hands are hopelessly tied. A modern philosophy of education does not countenance either a rigid allowance of so many minutes a week to each of the "school subjects" or that kind of daily program which begins:

9:00– 9:10 A.M. Opening Exercises
9:10– 9:40 A.M. Arithmetic
9:40–10:00 A.M. Language, etc.

The beginning teacher or the hopelessly mediocre teacher may need crutches of this kind, but they are intolerable to the teacher who is striving to develop the "good life" through experience. Let the teacher, therefore, solve her program problems as follows. Let her say — "Each day I will try to provide

my children with good experiences from each of these six major experience fields":

1. Social Living. (Dramatic play, history, geography, civics, conference, discussion, reports, etc.)
2. Nature Study and Science.
3. The Language Arts. (Conversation, discussion, conference, debate, reading, writing, spelling, dramatization, literature, usage, grammar, etc.)
4. The Aesthetics. (Music, dancing, rhythms, the fine arts, crafts, etc.)
5. The Practical Arts. (Manual education, cooking, sewing, gardening, etc.)
6. The Skills. (Work-type experiences involving the techniques needed in doing *well* all the things implied in Nos. 1–5 above.)

It is essential that while the teacher must strive for a balanced program of experiences from all of these fields, she should not immediately tie her hands by writing a program beginning

1. Social Living 9:00–10:00 A.M.
2. Nature Study and Science 10:00–10:40 A.M., etc.

Let her daily program, to be put in her school register or on her classroom door, be confined to the list given above minus all time allotments. The reason for this is obvious: the interest in the Social Living period, for example, may occasionally make it necessary for the class to devote more than the usual time allowed for it. On the other hand the skills may be so well in hand that occasionally the time usually estimated for them may be lessened. Again, any major experience for children may cut across and draw from several experience fields. A unit of work on communication, for example, will involve all six. In other words, the teacher and children should be allowed to adjust the program to their needs rather than to adjust themselves to the program.

The second point of departure in providing good experience is to set up in the classroom such work-centers as will help to

provide desirable experiences. Again, there is no "best" way to set up work-centers and no "best" number of centers. The teacher will need to be guided by the needs of her children. In general, however, work-centers tend to be of the following types in all rooms regardless of age or grade:

1. An *Art Center* — easels, calcimine, brushes, etc.
2. A *Clay Table* — an oilcloth-covered table equipped with clay jar and tools for making pottery, for sculpture, etc.
3. A *Music Table* — materials for the rhythm band in primary grades and for home-made musical instruments in upper grades.
4. A *Library Corner* — a table generously equipped for free reading, adjacent to well-stocked bookshelves.
5. A *Workbench* — equipped with simple tools for use on wood and metal.
6. A *Gas Plate, Sink, and Cupboard* for simple cooking experiences.
7. A *Science Table* — room for growing plants, for plant experiments, for collections and other museum materials.
8. A *Games Table* — equipped with checkerboards and other simple table games for relaxation and pleasure.
9. A *Small Portable Stage* for oral English, simple dramatization, and radio broadcasts.
10. A *Typing Table* — equipped with one or more portable or standard typewriters.
11. A *Bulletin Board* — in all primary rooms, for room notices, exhibits, world events, items, etc.
12. A *Simple Playhouse* — which will permit children to rearrange the several rooms quickly and easily.
13. Provision for *Block Play* — blocks and storage space when blocks are not needed.[1]

Suggestions as to the proper use of these work-centers will appear in a later chapter.

[1] In her enthusiasm, the teacher will at first set up far more centers than she can profitably use. She will need to have considerable patience through this "cluttery" stage until she reduces the number of work-centers and uses the remainder more effectively.

III. The third point of departure is for the teacher to ask herself, "*What experiences shall I select for my children, from the major fields of child interest?*"

At first, she will be at a loss, because the old familiar landmarks of subject-matter assignments, of chapters in the textbooks, and of lists of minimum essentials have been pushed into the background. Let her remember, first of all, that any curriculum which really functions is the resultant of two forces: the needs and interests of children and the needs and interests of society. Too often these are regarded as mutually exclusive, whereas there need be no actual conflict between them. Society (fathers and mothers, for example) wishes children, among other things, to be able to read books easily, rapidly, and with a satisfactory degree of comprehension. Society wishes children to be able to write a legible hand, to spell accurately, to know the outline of the story of our nation, to know something about the country in which we live, and to grow in appreciation of American cultural ideals. Often, these adult wishes are regarded as opposed to the needs and interests of children; whereas if the experiences developed by the good teacher within an adequate classroom environment are selected in terms of children's interests and needs, the outcomes desired by society may become, under the skillful teacher, the interests and needs of children as well.

Let us go back now over the foregoing suggestions and see if a working philosophy of education is being evolved.

1. We have set up a physical environment which will call for many varied responses from the children.

2. We have set up an effective *social* environment by classifying our children on the basis of social maturity, by rearranging the classroom furniture, and by installing work-centers which will draw children together through the pursuit of a common interest.

3. We have provided many opportunities for desirable *experiences* on the part of the children.

4. We have set up situations in which children under the

right sort of guidance will be continually *readjusting* themselves to the environment, continually building up the right kind of social habits, continually practicing group living, continually modifying their behavior or conduct through experience.

In short, we have set the stage for effective *learning.*

Notes on Chapter Four

1. Dewey, John, *Democracy and Education — An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933. The first twelve chapters are required reading for all teachers. Until one knows these chapters almost by heart, he has not laid a proper foundation for his own philosophy of education.

2. Dewey, John, *The School and Society.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1900. Written forty years ago, it might have been written yesterday. The reader who masters the content of this little book will be the possessor of a sound philosophy of education. Required reading.

3. Dewey, John, *Experience and Education.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938. A brief, simple, clear statement of the philosophy of the modern school. Fine material for discussion in teachers' and parents' conferences. Required reading.

4. Woelfel, Norman, *Molders of the American Mind.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1933. The subtitle, *A Critical Review of the Social Attitudes of Seventeen Leaders in American Education,* indicates the nature of this important book. As a background for establishing one's own personal philosophy of education it is unexcelled. Not easy reading but worth the effort.

5. *Twelfth Yearbook, Newer Instructional Practices of Promise.* Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1939. A delightful and helpful account of good classroom practice with experience curricula.

6. Melvin, A. Gordon, *The Technique of Progressive Education.* New York: John Day Company, 1932. One of the classics in the literature of progressive education. Required reading.

7. Smith, Donnal V., and Robert W. Frederick, *Live and Learn.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1938. A simple, practical, helpful book for the classroom teacher, showing how the modern philosophy of education is being effectively carried out in the classroom. Required reading.

8. Lewis, Mary H., *An Adventure with Children.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929. A book which has converted many teachers to a modern philosophy of education. A moving record of "twelve years of work and play with children." Required reading.

9. Hartman, Gertrude, *Finding Wisdom.* New York: John Day Company, 1938. This is the best available expression of John Dewey's philosophy of education as carried out in practice on the elementary school level. The Avery Coonley School at Downers Grove, Illinois, is the subject of this sumptuous book which is beautifully illustrated by photographs and pictures drawn or painted by the children. Required reading.

10. Horrall, Albion H., and others, *Let's Go to School.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938. The application of Dewey's philosophy in Lincoln Elementary School, San Jose, California. One of the best books in recent years, abounding in those details which appeal to the classroom teacher. The photographic illustrations by George E. Stone are excellent.

11. Sherer, Lorraine, *Their First Years in School.* Los Angeles County, California: County Board of Education, 1939. A course of study for kindergarten and grades one and two based upon a modern philosophy of education. This handsomely printed and beautifully illustrated book is a pioneer among the professional books of tomorrow. Required reading.

12. Lee, J. M., and Doris M. Lee, *The Child and His Curriculum.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1940. This is one of the best books in recent educational literature. Part I, *Understanding the Elementary School Child*; Part II, *Experiences as the Curriculum.* Required reading.

13. Fallis, Edwina, *The Child and Things.* Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1940. "A wealth and variety of suggestions for schoolroom furnishings, play equipment, materials and tools." This very recent book will greatly assist the teacher in enriching the classroom environment.

CHAPTER FIVE

◇

Social Living in the Classroom and Elsewhere

SINCE social living is one of the major experience fields from which the elementary teacher will select experiences for her children, it may be wise to define our terms. Just what is meant by the term "social living"? It should include six elements:

(1) the building of good social habits such as responsibility, initiative, self-reliance, honesty

(2) practice in good group living — an increasing desire and ability to get along peaceably and happily with others

(3) the widening of horizons — an increasing knowledge and appreciation of human life outside our immediate neighborhood and outside the particular era in which we live; an increasing "space-sense" and "time-sense"

(4) growth in ability to learn through experience — the ability to consolidate gains and to profit by mistakes

(5) increasing knowledge of the subject-matter field known as "the social studies"

(6) rich experience in dramatic play in the primary grades and dramatization in the upper grades as a means of interpreting the social life of our own and of other times.

The teacher needs to bear in mind constantly that as a child

grows from infancy to maturity, he seeks to satisfy his personal needs for security, recognition, a sense of belonging to the social group in which he lives (it is a dreadful thing to be unwanted!), and a sense of achievement. In general, needs fall into four great groups: (*a*) personal needs, as indicated above, (*b*) social needs, (*c*) civic needs, and (*d*) vocational needs. The elementary school is seriously concerned with (*a*) and (*b*) and, in part, with (*c*) in so far as the growing child begins to feel an interest in and a responsibility to the larger community, the state, and the nation of which he is a member.

In order to make this discussion as helpful as possible to the classroom teacher, let us examine more closely the social living period in the day's program. In general, the time is devoted to two types of experience.

(1) *The corporate business of the social group we call "the class,"* including, of course, the teacher as a member of the group. Part of the period is devoted to such group problems as demand attention, the classroom equivalent of the New England Town Meeting. Typical items of business during this part of the social living period are: making plans for the day's work; discussing ways and means for financing a school excursion; hearing committee reports; finding a solution to certain disciplinary problems; discussing the advisability of painting murals on the walls of the school halls; electing officers. In the middle and upper grades where the age-levels involved permit placing the Town Meeting in the hands of the children themselves, good practice is secured in democratic ways of living. The teacher does not sit idly by while all this is going on. She is constantly alert and takes part in the proceedings when adult suggestion, advice, and control appear necessary.

(2) *The use of organized materials from the subject-matter fields of geography, history, sociology, economics, and civics.* Older children can be taught the meaning of the above terms and even small children can grasp the essential meanings if they are expressed in language which the small child can understand. He lives somewhere: in a city, in a town, in a village,

on a farm, in a dwelling-house, in an apartment house, in a tenement, on a hillside, on the desert, in the mountains; this is geography. He lives in the year 1940, in a culture we call "American," replete with traditions, folkways, and customs. He lives in a land blessed with peace while across the water women and children are being bombed and nations are being destroyed; this is history. He lives in or with institutions. He lives in one of the oldest institutions in the world, the family. He attends another institution, the school. Possibly he comes under the influence of a church; all this is sociology. He and the other members of his family have to be fed, clothed, and sheltered, and to meet these human needs his father (and possibly his mother) has to work and earn money; this is economics. He lives under controls. He obeys the traffic officers at intersections, he observes the fireman inspect the incinerator in his back yard and the sanitary inspector watch the family garbage pail; this is civics.

The competent classroom teacher presents social studies materials to her children through direct observation and participation in trips, visits, and excursions; through the vicarious experiences of others as when the manager of the near-by Safeway Store speaks to the children on chain-store operation; through exposure to the printed page — newspapers, magazines, books, charts, and graphs — and through visual aids. Out of social studies experiences, the teacher hopes to arrive at several types of outcomes: knowledge, understandings, generalizations, work habits, and attitudes.

What is the subject-matter content of the social studies as applied to the elementary school? A recent pamphlet prepared by the National Council for the Social Studies, entitled *The Future of the Social Studies*, calls attention to the great diversity of opinion on this subject throughout the country. Mary G. Kelty,[1] one of the contributors, calls attention in her article, "Social Studies and the Elementary School" to the fact that there is general agreement at certain age-levels, partial agreement on others, and little agreement on still others.

[1] *Progressive Education*, February, 1940.

> The "rightness" of curriculum-content is not a matter to be decided by majority vote. Nevertheless, it is interesting and somewhat surprising to discover, among authors who think that they differ so widely, such a large measure of agreement for certain levels.
>
> In descending order, beginning with the grades at which agreement is greatest and proceeding to the point at which it is almost non-existent, are found Grade One, Grade Two, Grade Three, Grade Six, Grade Five, Grade Four....
>
> This difference has grown to such proportions in the fourth grade that no central tendency whatever can be discussed. The fourth grade is the nadir in agreement, as it was ten years ago. We seem to have come no nearer a solution in spite of all the work done during the last decade.[1]

Beginning at the point of most agreement, the lower school — kindergarten, first, and second grades, or ages 5 to 8 — it is obvious that social studies content revolves around, or better, evolves from (*a*) family, (*b*) school, (*c*) neighborhood. If the reader will think of the small child trudging each day from home to school and back again through the neighborhood, the field of social studies in the lower school is easily visualized. To the eye-minded reader, a small square labeled "home" connected by a straight line to another small square labeled "school," and the whole placed in a circle labeled "neighborhood," will clarify the matter.

The teacher seeking guidance in selecting social studies experiences in the lower school will find many good suggestions in the *Everyday-Life Stories* by Paul Hanna, and others.[2] In the primer, *Peter's Family*, we visit our relatives; we acquire a new baby; we move to a new house; we help mother; we learn how father and mother help us; we learn about the work which fathers do; we learn about the men who help to build houses and other men who supply our household needs. In the first reader, *David's Friends at School*, the teacher will be helped to see the possibilities in school life which can be used to enrich meanings and clarify understandings.

[1] *The Future of Social Studies*, pp. 101–02.

[2] Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company.

The neighborhood is presented in the second reader, *Susan's Neighbors.* We learn about the workers who protect us; the workers who carry messages; the workers who provide us with food; the workers who help us play; and the workers who help us travel. We take our first steps in map reading and map making. *The Community Life Series*[1] to which reference has been made in a preceding chapter offers excellent material in the social studies in the primary grades — *Jimmy the Groceryman, To Market We Go, Dean and Don at the Dairy, Here Comes the Postman,* and *Pets Are Fun.*

There seems to be general and joyous agreement among children around the eight- and nine-year level (third grade and early fourth grade) as to the pleasure and profit attained in learning about children in other lands. This is reflected rather generally in best present practice in curriculum-making. There are two qualifications or reservations which the teacher should bear in mind in treating this phase of the social studies program.

(1) *Avoid the sentimental and the bizarre.* There is at present overemphasis in the elementary classroom on Dutch shoes, ornamental headdresses, Chinese pig-tails, and Japanese fans. What the teacher needs to emphasize in the children-in-other-lands sequence is the fact that the foreign child, like us, lives in a neighborhood to which he must adjust himself and which conditions his way of life. The essential understanding we are aiming at is that the child in the primitive community is living in a hand-tool culture whereas we are living in a culture dominated by the machine. A good book to help the teacher to orient herself in this respect is *Mexico* by Stuart Chase,[2] in which he describes daily life in what he calls a "handicraft" or "machineless" culture. In these ways, understandings and generalizations are built. At present, much of the time devoted to the children-of-other-lands sequence is time wasted, and occasionally it is time spent in creating erroneous impres-

[1] Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934, 1935, 1936, 1936, and 1939.

[2] New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931.

sions. An excellent book for children on handicraft culture is *Mateo and Lolita*[1] by Burr Durfee and Helen and John McMorris, a story of village life in Mexico.

(2) *Expose the children to several primitive cultures rather than spend an entire term upon one culture.* Jane Andrews had the right idea in her historic *Seven Little Sisters.* One of the positive understandings that is to be built up at this point is "around-the-worldness," the idea of the "big ball on which we live." Here the school globe is an invaluable companion as we locate the homes of our friends across the water. We learn about oceans, continents, zones, and other simple elements of terrestrial geography. Why must this sequence be so wishy-washy and so superficial as it is in so many instances? Why should it not be so handled as to produce sturdy thinking and positive knowledge and good study habits? There seems to be no good reason for spending five months on a unit of work on Indians or China or Switzerland when there are so many interesting other things to be learned. In the third reader of *Everyday-Life Stories, Without Machinery,*[2] the authors present materials on five primitive cultures: those of Samoa, Lapland, Egypt, China, and the Zuñi Indian of our own land. Harold Rugg in his book *Nature Peoples* discusses "eight simple ways of living in four continents," of which the section on equatorial Africa is one of the best.[3] *Meeting Our Neighbors* and *Exploring New Fields* in the *Child Development Readers*[4] by Hahn are exceedingly good in this field. Children will enjoy the excellent photographic illustrations.

Such, in general, is the social studies program for the lower school. It leaves us somewhere in the fourth grade, early or middle fourth grade, depending upon the particular class, or around the eight-year-old and early nine-year-old levels. What about the social studies program in the upper school?

[1] Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940.

[2] Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1939.

[3] Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936.

[4] Julia Letheld Hahn, editor; Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938 and 1939.

May we suggest as the general social studies theme for the upper school, *American Life in the Power Age*, and as a mode of entry into the theme, a study of the Community. Let us begin by clarifying two points. As a matter of convenience, we can term the period in American history from 1865 to 1890 the Industrial Age, the period from 1890 to 1920 the Machine Age, and the period from 1920 to the present, the Power Age. There is no magic in the terms nor accuracy in the limiting dates; the division is simply an attempt to point out that the years between the close of the Civil War and our first adventures in imperialism saw the transformation of the United States from an agrarian civilization to an industrial civilization; the rise of the great industrialists like Carnegie, Ford, Rockefeller, and their competitors; and the development of the corporation. The period from the Spanish War to the close of the first World War saw the improvement and extension of the machine in American life, while the period from 1920 saw the transformation in our culture which the development of electric power made possible.

The fourth grade (8–9-year level) appears to be an excellent place for a serious study of community life. Let us begin by pointing out the essential differences between the *neighborhood* (which has been studied in the lower school) and the new concept, the *community*. The neighborhood is an unorganized, voluntary association of people living in a specific area. It is held together rather loosely by sentimental and economic ties and bonds. The neighborhood in which the writer lives is quite typical of many American neighborhoods. Years ago, when his part of the city was given over to open fields or small farms, pioneer families bought land, built houses, moved in, raised families, and built up a neighborhood. At the present time, this neighborhood is still dominated by the old families although most of the children have moved to other parts of the city. The yard space once needed by a large family is utilized by building small houses on the rear of the lot and cheap rental property is being developed while the aged father

and mother occupy the original home dwelling. A small shopping district serves the neighborhood, together with an elementary school and a community church. The newcomer is put on probation by the dominant families, and if accepted socially, is allowed to enter the society of the elect. If rejected, life is made uncomfortable for him in various subtle ways until he is forced to move on to a new location elsewhere.

The community, on the other hand, is highly organized.

(1) It has definite *physical* boundaries set by statute.

(2) It is a *political* unit governed by mayor, councilman, various city officers, policemen, firemen, and other persons to whom the citizens have delegated authority.

(3) It is an *economic* unit. There is reason for its being. It may be an industrial community, or a sea- or lake-port; it may serve as distributing point for an agricultural region or it may serve the holiday-making tourist.

(4) It is a *sociological* unit. It may be composed almost entirely of native-born whites of Anglo-Saxon descent or it may include well-developed minority groups (over two hundred thousand Poles in Buffalo, one hundred thousand Mexicans in Los Angeles, for example).

(5) It is a *cultural* unit. The community provides, to a greater or less degree, art galleries, museums, schools, colleges or universities, libraries, recreation facilities, a symphony orchestra, or the equivalent. It maintains on various levels opportunities for the citizen in his search for beauty and for self-development.

(6) It is a *social* unit. It provides for various kinds of social intercourse on various levels from the Bankers' Club at one end to "Tropical Gardens with One Hundred Lovely Hostesses" at the other.

The job, therefore, of the teacher in the upper school is to take the children through three years of experiences in community life composed of (*a*) direct observations, (*b*) vicarious observation, and (*c*) use of the printed page — newspapers, magazines, books, graphs, and charts — and many visual aids.

Again, as in the lower school, the teacher's task is to help the children attain knowledge, understandings, generalizations, good work habits, and desirable attitudes. She must constantly interpret community life to the children and help to raise the level of community living and community participation in the children's daily lives. Life in the community goes on anyway: let us make it as rich and varied and effective as possible.

Looking ahead through the three years (grades four, five, and six), how shall we begin?

Step I. Theme for the Year — *Our Own Community*: (Grade Four, Nine-Year-Old Level)

Paul Hanna, in the series referred to on previous pages, approaches the problem in his book, *Centerville*,[1] by analyzing a small Midwest community. In it he discusses several aspects of community life, business in Centerville; Centerville highway; food and clothes for Centerville; Centerville farming. In this last section, the generalization is fixed that every community has a back country or sphere of influence which spreads far beyond its political boundaries, supplies it, and in return receives supplies from it. The book concludes with an account of Centerville's school and of Community Day. This book is helpful to the teacher, not so much for its actual content, which may prove entirely inapplicable to the teacher's particular school situation, as for its suggestion of desirable techniques in community study.

Trips, excursions, visits, study of local newspapers and reading of books appropriate to the age-level involved, are the obvious methods to be used in daily work. Good geographic and historical backgrounds for community study will be found in *Ways of Living in Many Lands* and *Where Our Ways of Living Come From* by Howard E. and Florence H. Wilson and Bessie P. Erb.[2]

[1] Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1938.

[2] New York: American Book Company, 1937.

Step II. Theme for the Year — *Other American Communities*: (Grade Five, Ten-Year-Old Level)

Harold Rugg's approach is geographic and historical on this particular level and has much to commend it, leading as it does into a general study of American life. In his *Communities of Men*,[1] after laying a foundation by a brief survey of typical communities abroad, he begins by the analysis of an Eastern gateway to the United States, New York City. This is followed by a Southern gateway, New Orleans; a Western gateway, San Francisco; a river port, Pittsburgh; and a lake port, Chicago. Throughout the discussion, children are given the geographic and historical backgrounds necessary to full understanding of the problem involved. Any one of the modern textbooks on the geography and history of the United States will afford similar materials for the resourceful teacher.

During the study of community life in the United States, continuous attention should be paid to local community study through trips, excursions, and study of the local newspapers, laying especial emphasis on the two problems: Why is my community located where it is? How does my community support its people? By the time the year's work is completed, the children should have adequate working knowledge of the basic facts and understandings of the geography and history of our country.

Step III. Theme for the Year — *Meeting Human Needs in the Power Age*

We wish to build up in the minds of the children at this age-level, a clear picture of American life in our technical civilization with particular emphasis upon our efforts to use the machine to provide us with food, clothing, and housing. The three phases of production, distribution, and consumption need to be kept constantly in mind as we see Americans producing raw materials, see other Americans processing them into mar-

[1] Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936.

ketable commodities, see other Americans transporting the manufactured products across the country by trains and trucks, see other Americans distributing these goods from wholesaler to retailer, and finally see how merchandising places goods in the hands of the ultimate consumer.

Again, local community contacts must be constantly kept alive through the application of the facts and techniques which have been learned to local community life. The classroom teacher will find ample material for this purpose in the many delightful supplementary books which are now available in the social studies field. Especially helpful are two books in the series, *Our Ways of Living*: Book Three — *Living in the Age of Machines* and Book Four — *Richer Ways of Living.*[1] Rugg presents two parallel books: *Man At Work — His Industries* and *Man At Work — His Arts and Crafts.*[2] *The Social Studies Readers* by Bruner and Smith[3] offer much to the juvenile reader, especially the sections, "The Growth of the City" in Book II and "The Story of Tools and Machines" in Book III.

Two cautions are offered the teacher at this point. First, human needs include needs of the mind and of the spirit as well as of the body. No picture of modern America is complete which does not stress America's search for beauty and for the satisfactions which make the good life. Second, since each town or city presents its own pattern, the teacher must lead her children to see likenesses in their particular situation to the pattern which is general throughout the country, and to see the differences from that pattern which have been imposed by physiographic, economic, and cultural conditions.

Interest Centers

In a previous chapter, stress was laid upon the great importance of creating a classroom environment which stimulates

[1] By Howard E. and F. H. Wilson and B. P. Erb (New York: American Book Company, 1937).

[2] Boston: Ginn and Company, 1937.

[3] Chicago: Charles E. Merrill Company, 1936, 1937, and 1938.

good living through providing desirable experiences. It seems wise at this point to suggest how interest centers contribute good experiences in social living.

The Lower School

(5–8-Year-Olds)

1. *Making the Best Use of Classroom Furniture*

In order to allow for the maximum growth of children, and to meet their needs and interests, both in groups and as individuals, we must plan adequate space. This necessitates arrangement of the traditional furniture and addition of newer furniture. We need to change our planning for the room set-up so that we have areas for work and play. Obviously, a classroom with many articles must be well arranged. Everything needs to show a state of cleanliness and organization, and yet be usable. Unless the materials are functioning, they should be discarded or stored so that the room is neat and orderly, rather than "cluttery." A room containing too many things tends to make the atmosphere confusing rather than restful.

The wise teacher encourages children to assist in planning centers of interest to meet their needs. Their planning for the various art, construction, library, science, social studies, radio, newspaper, current events, seasonal happenings, language arts, or drills centers, may not be regarded by them as definite planning from the adult standpoint, but they know it is expedient "to have a place for everything" and "to put everything in its place," because related objects "go together." As they plan and construct these centers, the children acquire and organize information and develop interest in the experiences which the centers provide.

Among the newer practices of school furniture arrangement, we find the desire for mobility in order to meet the changing needs of those concerned. That is, a class may need space in the front of the room one week for dramatic play, or at the side of the room near the windows for science experiments the next

week. Desks placed on runners by two's, three's, or four's, begin to take their place with the tables and chairs in the class room. Where only a few tables are available, a very usable arrangement of desks on strips, plus the tables, can be made. Many desirable arrangements of desks alone can be made with movable equipment, and an arrangement found satisfactory may be more or less permanent, or may be changed from time to time both for the sake of improvement and for the sake of novelty. One tires of the same arrangement if it is kept too long. If children can help plan and place this furniture, they will be satisfied to a greater degree than if they have no share in its moving. The teacher and children together can plan to make their room functional so that all will develop good taste and high standards in the appreciation of beauty and of art, as well as in initiative and resourcefulness.

While it may seem desirable for each child in the lower school to have a place for his own possessions, it does not mean that each one must have his own desk or table. The size of the room and the needs of the children will determine the procedure.

2. *Provision for Dramatic Play*

Dramatic play, or make-believe play, is a form of creative expression in which children re-live their own experiences. Dramatic play is natural and spontaneous with children, and, if not suppressed, will be entered into regardless of equipment. However, a wise selection of play materials will greatly assist and extend this very important means of growth. Blocks are of great value in dramatic play as they make it possible for ideas to take concrete form quickly, thus encouraging originality and versatility. Toys such as cars, animals, trains, boats, airplanes, dolls, and clothespin people add to the fun in playing house, playing train, playing school, etc. Some of these objects may be brought in but many of them will be made by the children as the need arises. Blocks should be stored in low open cupboards, close to the floor space to be used for block

play. A costume box of assorted "dress-up" clothes helps the children play the part. In rooms where the children's interests are more highly organized, much of the creative play will occur in the bakery, the airport, or the public market. The playhouse is one of the natural interests of little children. It offers many possibilities for dramatic play. The play may be enriched when the "housekeepers" invite and entertain guests from other rooms in the school. This interest provides ample opportunities for group living.

3. *Provision for Nature Study*

One or two tables, racks, shelves, or even a window ledge, will serve as a basis for an inside science center. The location will be determined from the standpoint of ready use, accessibility to the sink, proper lighting, attractiveness, and available floor space. An outside science center may be a garden, a chicken pen, a bird bath, or a rabbit hutch.

The equipment of the indoor science center may be very simple at the beginning, but may be increased as interests expand. An aquarium for live specimens is essential, for which a large candy or battery jar will serve if necessary. Rocks, shells, and sand should be available for daily use in caring for specimens that have been brought in. Science interests are not static, and a functional science corner will be ever-changing.

A few pans, lids, jars, and cans of different sizes can be collected by the children and teacher and kept in a cupboard for use in planting seeds, bulbs, slips, setting up rock gardens, etc. Supplies of blotting paper, pins, cardboard for mounting purposes and labels should be available. A magnifying glass, compass, various types of magnets and a prism offer extended possibilities for the children.

Easy books and magazines with information related to the current science interests may be kept on the science table or in shelves near it. Books made by the children will be an important part of this reference material. The experience stories of the children, information gathered and questions asked by them, may be written on wall charts or on small placards.

Pictures of animals, trees, insects, flowers, and the like kept in the science center will help the children to identify and to interpret what they observe. Pictures mounted on tagboard and loose pictures neatly kept in manila envelopes or portfolios will serve as good reference material. Publishers' library catalogues occasionally offer valuable help to the teacher in selecting readings that bear upon particular school topics: for example, the elementary school catalogues distributed by Houghton Mifflin Company and The Macmillan Company.

4. *Provision for the Language Arts*

There should be an inviting library center. The table, chairs, and bookcase will vary but this center should be located close to the light and away from the noisier activities in the room. Picture books, scrapbooks, envelopes of pictures, as well as story books, are needed.[1]

The children may contribute some bit of interesting news which the teacher prints and uses for a record or for reading experience charts. The older children may wish to combine the daily news into a "real" newspaper, which can be typed and placed on the bulletin board. Nature study materials furnish an incentive for labeling and writing. Children's stories about their own pictures are often printed or typed.

Dramatization involves an audience situation. It is the type of expression which follows a pattern (playing a story and giving a play). The same type of equipment used in dramatic play will be used in dramatization. A light portable curtain arrangement simulating a stage may be moved at will and will serve a manifold purpose. A box placed behind the stage turns it into a very satisfactory puppet stage. In many rooms, simple stages built on casters add interest and stimulation to

[1] Pictures and book jackets are occasionally offered without charge by publishers. For example, some of the Kodachrome illustrations from M. I. Curtis, *From Robin to Junco* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940), a book of bird stories for children of grades three and four, are offered gratis, as long as the supply lasts, by the publishers.

the play experiences. Adequate space is necessary for free play or the children will feel hampered.

5. *Provision for Experiences in the Practical Arts*

As the children in the lower school relive varied experiences through dramatic play with blocks and other materials, they feel a real need for such objects as boats, trains, busses, cars, airplanes, small furniture, animals, and people. Some suggestive material may be brought in; some things may be made by the children. Needs such as furniture for the playhouse, cages for pets, garden trellises, etc., afford opportunity for valuable constructive experiences. Other objects such as markets, houses, shops, airports, call for more careful planning by the more mature children.

Primary workbenches, which may even be discarded tables or small sawhorses, are necessary for the construction center. The workbench should be equipped with simple tools, nails, paints, brushes, and a box of miscellaneous materials (scraps of leather, hinges, spools, button molds, etc.). A wooden box on casters containing a supply of primary lumber may hold discarded materials contributed by the children and the teacher. Some schools have movable tool containers which may be shared by several rooms. This gives opportunity for the added use of more complex tools, such as planes, screw drivers, braces and bits.

Immature children will do very little sewing, although they may want to make curtains for the playhouse, a mattress for the bed, or cushions to be used for upholstering. Large needles and coarse thread should be used. Finely finished work is not desirable. A simple weaving loom may add interest to this center.

Simple cooking experiences which involve co-operative planning are interesting and worth while. Making cookies for a party, and the preparation of vegetables from the school garden, are typical experiences.

6. *Provision for Aesthetic Experiences*

Responsibility for distribution and checking of the condition of materials will be delegated to committees. Responsibility for cleaning of materials will be shared by each member of the class.

Easels should be provided; many different types are possible, depending upon available space and equipment:

(*a*) Large individual easels built of wood, pressed wood, or wallboard
(*b*) Cardboard easels to place on top of tables
(*c*) Cardboards propped against chairs tipped up on top of tables
(*d*) Cardboards placed on chalk tray
(*e*) Blackboard covered with oilcloth or wrapping paper for use as easel where many children may work at a time. A strip of wood nailed to chalk tray makes a good shelf for bottles of paint
(*f*) A piece of wallboard nailed over the blackboard at a slight angle makes an excellent easel
(*g*) Two small easels connected by a piece of wallboard makes a good large easel where several children may work on individual papers or a large mural.

When many easels are in use at the same time, it simplifies matters to prepare large quantities of various colors in large containers. The mixture may then be poured into paper cups, tin cans, or glass jars. The paper cups or tin cups may be easily disposed of at the end of each week without any great loss. Calcimine that is left standing more than one week takes on peculiar odors that neither oil of cloves nor perfume eradicates.

Painting may also be done on any flat surface—e.g., newspaper-covered floor, newspaper-covered tables. Any brush in good condition will answer the purpose, but large brushes seem to result in freer, more spontaneous painting, and enable the child to finish his painting with less strain and more pleasure before his interest wanes. Especially is this true at the easel. After each child has painted he should, as part of his painting experiences, have the opportunity and responsibility for cleaning his brushes carefully and preparing the easel for the next

artist. At the close of the day, if traffic at the easel has been heavy, it may be necessary for a cleaning committee to give the easels a thorough cleaning. Untidy paint boxes result in poorly organized pictures. Paint boxes should be cleaned carefully by the artist who used them before the painting period is over. Portfolios for finished and unfinished work should be kept, neatly labeled and accessible to the children, so that they may learn to put away their materials in an orderly manner.

An ample supply of soft clay should be mixed, ready for use at all times. A few small tables or one large table covered neatly with oilcloth so that it may be easily washed should be available, where things may be kept and where a few children may work at any time during the school day. Materials needed for clay work are:

Tin trays or boards on which to model
Soft rags for wrapping clay forms when left unfinished
A container for rags
Modeling sticks and container for sticks
A shelf or case in which to place finished models to dry
Crocks — containers for clay.

Materials available for drawing are chalk and crayolas. Cheese boxes of uniform size serve as excellent containers for these materials. Portfolios should be provided for finished and unfinished work. One set for the class has proven more satisfactory than individual portfolios in rooms where room space is limited.

7. *Provision for Musical Experiences*

(*a*) Musical equipment for general class use:
Phonograph and records suitable to the interests of the varying age-levels.
Radio or radio-phonograph combination.
Microphone (real or imitation) for broadcasting and recording experiences.
Piano for accompaniment of singing, creative rhythms, rhythm bands, and other rhythmic activities.
Song-bells, one or more sets, for class and individual use.
Rhythm band instruments, including a chest to hold them.

(*b*) Additional material of musical value:
Large tagboard or paper for recording original creative music.
Community songbooks of old-time favorites.
Words of current popular songs of fairly lasting worth.
New illustrated books of songs for additional rote song materials.
Pictures that illustrate songs or records.
Pictures drawn by children to express their idea of the meaning of a song or record.
Books and charts of children's own creative songs.

(*c*) Extra equipment that enriches the child's enjoyment through vicarious interest:
Music boxes.
A canary or other song bird.
Chinese wind chimes.
Toy xylophones.
Musical glasses or bottles.
Flower pots or pottery bowls that have clear tones.
Sets of pipes that give chime effect.

(*d*) Musical equipment for rhythmic activities:
Space for free rhythmic expression.
Records, songs, instrumental accompaniments that can be used as fitting musical backgrounds for dramatic play.
Accessories that add to the enjoyment of rhythmic play, such as: jump ropes, balls, sticks, tone blocks, castanets, tambourines, rattles, drums, gourds, or other instruments which the children may bring in.

8. *Provision for Learning and Practicing Various Bodily Skills, Games, and the Like*

The use of the body as a medium for creative expression is natural to small children, as is evidenced by their constant hopping, skipping, jumping, and running. Movable equipment will afford space for this type of activity. A portable phonograph placed in a convenient location is essential if there is no piano in the room. Drums, rattles, and other musical instruments made by the children will function here. Jump ropes, beanbags, balls for bouncing, hoops, etc., should be easily accessible or placed in a container in the room.

The Upper School

(8–12-Year-Olds)

The general principles which apply to the lower school classroom equipment also apply to the upper school. Here, too, there is need for:

(*a*) clean, orderly arrangement
(*b*) space in which to play
(*c*) organization of interest centers

1. *Materials for Social Living*

The children should be taught how to take care of the bulletin board. The class needs to work out such standards as the following:

(*a*) We will choose materials carefully.
(*b*) Materials will be centered around one object.
(*c*) We will cut and mount them evenly.
(*d*) We will use straight pins to fasten them up.
(*e*) They will be placed in a "blocked design" following the shape of the bulletin board, so as to give the appearance of order.
(*f*) We will cut letters for titles to help organize the bulletin board.
(*g*) We will change our bulletin boards frequently so we will have materials.

A committee can be appointed by the teacher and children to care for illustrative materials. A table or set of shelves with exhibit materials can be placed under a bulletin board or under related pictures. These may be used to house commercial materials, or articles made by the children to clarify ideas.

Children are adept at making usable classroom furniture when the need arises. Adequate cases for housing social studies and science materials can be made of boxes. Salvage boxes can become storage shelves, cases, or lockers with a little imaginative planning, cleaning, sandpapering, and painting.

The social studies work-center may be a workbench, a general utility table covered with oilcloth for protection, painting equipment, a clay table, or a combination of several of these. The development of such a work-center should become an edu-

cational experience for the children. Tools may be kept with the sloyd bench or in the supply cupboards of the classroom.

Materials for dramatic play depend upon the interests of the class. Simple costumes made to clarify ideas, with a few illustrative tools, utensils, and crafts, help to make the child lose himself in the play. It is wise to keep in mind that social behavior and character development are by far the most important elements in dramatic play, rather than the production of costumes, or the information gained on some assigned subject.

It is simple to teach classification of books to children by keeping the social studies books separated from their other reading materials. Generally speaking, the social studies bookcase, exhibit materials, and bulletin boards complete an adequate center together with pictures, charts, exhibits, slides, and stereoscopes with accompanying stereographs on science or social studies.

2. *Materials for Sciences*

Books, bulletin boards, exhibit materials, work-centers, and experimental materials are subject to the same criteria as the materials for the social studies. These depend upon the types of work going on and the amount of interest involved.

3. *Materials for the Language Arts*

The same standards as for the social studies bulletin board apply to the current events bulletin board. Such a bulletin board is a center in itself. Often clippings can be pinned to a large world map so that locations become a part of the interest.

Ordinarily, supplemental readers, social studies unit books (sets and single copies), science units, encyclopedias and books for general reference, and browsing or free-reading books and magazines need to be considered. Sometimes it seems expedient to make up a complete library, in one corner, built around a table surrounded by chairs attractively covered. At other times, it is wise to keep the library corner for recreational books

and to place other types of books with their appropriate center, depending upon the type of classroom organization upon which the teacher and children have agreed. Individual reading records in booklets or card files become a part of this center. Poetry writing or materials for the verse choir may belong to this part of the room as does the bulletin board advertising new or interesting books, simple book reports or children's illustrations of books.[1]

The desk of the editor of the room or school newspaper may be expressly designed by the children or may be simply a table. Envelopes for contributions from other rooms or from classroom reports can be pinned under a chalk tray or at some other convenient place. The class typewriter needs a specific place in the room, usually on the editor's desk.

4. *Materials for the Practical Arts*

Much material is likely to have been stored away in closets and occupies space needed for more active paraphernalia. This material should be evaluated in the light of the current interest of the classroom and should be discarded, or with a little creative thought worked into some purposeful activity. Sewing machines, workbenches, enamel-top cooking tables, gas plates, dining tables, bookcases, and typewriting tables are often available but unused.

It will be necessary to have on hand many materials such as thread, needles, cambric, unbleached muslin, cheesecloth, oilcloth, tape for sewing, yarn, string, looms for weaving, linen, tape, glue, paste, paste brushes for bookbinding, brayers, muslin, printer's ink, carving tools, benzine, rags, and glass for blockprinting. These materials should be kept in the classroom close to the space allotted to these various activities. Boxes painted uniformly in one color with enamel or wagon paint afford an orderly way of disposing of many of these supplies.

[1] The reader is referred to the note on publishers' catalogues, page 148.

5. *Materials for Aesthetic Experiences*

The suggestions made for the lower school also apply to the upper school. The level of accomplishment necessarily becomes higher for these experiences.

6. *Materials for Skills*

Charts of various kinds should indicate the individual progress of each child as he is competing with his own record, rather than in competing with the other members of his class. Spelling progress is shown best where each child has his own individual piece of graph paper, on which he marks his own achievement and checks it against his own standard or that of his group. The vertical barograph, or the vertical line, works well with upper school children.[1]

Since a child, of necessity, will have a number of progress sheets, simple folders of 12″ × 18″ bogus paper can be made to hold them. Individual booklets for spelling, arithmetic and book reports are quite satisfactory. These need not be on display at all times, and a file for the class or the child's desk may be found adequate.

Folders made of heavy cardboard and artistically designed may contain "Songs We Know" (or other musical interests) "Games We Play" or "Room Committees." These can stand in the chalk tray, or become part of the library corner.

Checkers, anagrams, dominoes, Chinese checkers, puzzles, and other marginal games may be part of the room's interests. A table upon which to play, or extra desks, will accommodate the players on rainy days, or during the intervals when a child has marginal time. Records, sheet music, rhythm instruments, the phonograph, radio, and a piano are often available and may be borrowed.

Balls, bats, beanbags, jump ropes, hoops, and the like,

[1] Textbook publishers are well aware of the value of the individual spelling record. For example, the *Newlon-Hanna Textbook-Notebook Spellers* and *Spellers* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company) supply a table on the inside book cover of each book to assist the user to plot his own progress.

usually have to be kept in a central location in a building, but some of these may belong to individual classrooms and find a place in the cloakroom.[1]

So much, then, for the formal approach to the social living program. The following experiences are taken from actual classroom situations.

1. *Excursions*

There is no type of experience more valuable to children than a trip into the big world outside the classroom provided that, (*a*) proper preparation is made in advance, (*b*) actual observation during the visit is properly guided and controlled, and (*c*) an evaluation is made after the trip to clarify meanings and to establish those generalizations and understandings which are implicit in the situation.

A. A Visit to the Airport

(6–8-Year-Olds)

Several lower school rooms in one school planned a trip to an airport. The children in one room made up this chart:

We are going to the airport.
We are going in a bus.
We are going March 14th.
We will take our lunch.
It will cost 15¢.

In the middle of the bulletin board was a big poster of a plane, on one side was an air-mail envelope with a cancelled air-mail stamp, and a sign saying:

How much does an air-mail stamp cost?
Have you brought your bus fare?

A chart, made up by the children, was on a wall in the front of the room.

[1] Excellent suggestions for organizing work-centers may be found in Margaret L. Gustin and M. L. Hayes, *Activities in the Public Schools* (Chapel Hill, North Carolina: University of North Carolina Press, 1934).

We want to see:

1. The beacon lights.
2. The pilot's parachute.
3. The stewardess.
4. The sock (flag which tells which way the wind is blowing).
5. Blackboard telling the time of incoming and outgoing planes.
6. The stairway to the airplanes.

In preparing for the trip the boys and girls in another room had developed an "aviation vocabulary." They discussed the following terms:

1. air	9. gear	17. tail
2. plane	10. land	18. rudder
3. ship	11. pilot	19. nose
4. port	12. co-pilot	20. motor
5. fly	13. mechanic	21. field
6. sky	14. steward	22. fuselage
7. fog	15. porter	23. elevator
8. clear	16. wings	24. hangar

The day of the trip the children talked about how to take care of themselves. Some of the things they decided were:

Keep seats in the bus.
Look for things on the way.
Be thoughtful of others.
Stay with the teachers at the airport.
Always be careful.

The kindergarten children came to see the children get into the busses. Much good conversation took place in the bus on the way to the airport. Songs were sung, and some of the children talked about other trips they had taken. As they came close to the Airport, Billy said, "I am going to look at signs and see if I can see one that says 'Burbank.' " The children saw the sign, "*Burbank Union Air Terminal.*"

First, the children visited a private hangar. They saw a big passenger plane and some smaller planes. Some of the remarks were:

"I see a passenger plane."
"Oh, boy! Look at that two-seater plane."
"Look at the red plane."

Planes were landing, taxiing around on the landing field or taking off. Eyes were busy. A mail truck was observed.

W. — "They load the mail on the planes."

A teacher explained types of planes. Ray and a few others got down on all fours to sketch the transport plane. The children next saw the gasoline trucks. They then went out on the field to look at the government planes and a big passenger liner being tested. They were too young to be allowed inside the air-line hangars, so had to be content with explanations by the teachers.

A pilot started the passenger plane for the children. They saw the two propellers move. A few imitated the movement with their arms.

E. — "That scares me. When will it take off?"

A mechanic came out of the door. Some of the children decided to get down on their stomachs on the ground and sketch the mechanic standing on the ladder and working on engines.

E. — "If you get near propellers, they will hurt you."

Teachers helped children read the numbers, U.S. Mail, etc., on planes. The children noticed the star on the wing of the army planes.

By that time it was lunch time. The class went to the busses for their lunches and took them to a little park in front of the station. After lunch was finished, and every bit of paper was picked up, they started toward the station.

The children then went upstairs to watch the plane from San Diego, which was to arrive at 12.15. They saw baggage being loaded on an outgoing plane.

B. — "Here comes the plane from San Diego."
M. — "Here she comes."
S. — "There's the stewardess."
J. — "Mrs. P., I saw the co-pilot."
B. — "I see the pilot."

They saw the plane taxi toward the hangar. The children waved good-bye.

One boy had sketched the weather-vane and signal lights. Others had sketched types of planes. They were showing their sketches to each other:

R. — "Can you draw good?"
Teacher. — "Not such good airplanes."
A. — "He draws airplanes even when he should be writing."

R. wrote "airport" on his picture, also "airplane."

W. — "R. doesn't sketch. He draws the same plane over and over. We sketch what's really there."

There were discussions about what they had seen at the airport. They noticed the cannon in front of the Hollywood American Legion Club House, picture shows, sweet peas in a yard, movie studios, etc. The children had gained enough information to stimulate their work for days.

B. A Ride on the Train

(7–8-Year-Olds)

Thirty-four second grade children of the Sherman Oaks School, who are interested in transportation, experienced all the thrills of train travel on Wednesday, January 25, when they boarded the Daylight Limited [1] at Glendale and rode the twenty-six miles to Saugus.

This was the day they had so eagerly awaited. This was the trip they had so carefully planned and prepared for. At seven o'clock they gathered at school, thirty-four excited children, seventeen interested and enthusiastic parents, and one equally thrilled teacher. They were soon off to Glendale in the parents' cars. Before 7.45 they were at the station where they were met by Mr. Pierson, the guide for the trip, and Mr. Swain, the principal, who had come to see the travelers off.

The children wasted no time in obtaining tickets (a most necessary item). Quickly they lined up at the ticket windows where each one had to state his destination, indicate whether

[1] Streamliner running between Los Angeles and San Francisco.

one way or round trip, and handle his own change. Then the baggage had to be checked properly, the children having suitcases being entirely responsible for the tags. After the procedure was thoroughly explained by the baggage man they were not quite so reluctant to leave their precious bags. There was still time before train time to inspect the station. This they did and took special note of the ticket office, waiting room, baggage room, mail and baggage trucks, safety lines, red caps, time schedules. The train from the north came in, and the children watched every detail of unloading passengers and baggage. Now, as the southbound train started off down the tracks, the Daylight came in sight. Before boarding the train they made sure that their baggage was safely stowed away on the baggage car and bade a fond but hasty farewell to parents and friends.

After waving good-bye to all the well-wishers and as soon as the station was out of sight, the children settled themselves in the beautiful streamlined car and waited for the conductor to collect the tickets. This done, Mr. Pierson conducted the children (in three different groups) on an inspection tour of the train, into the other coaches, into the parlor car, into the dining car and kitchen, explaining in terms intelligible to them all the uses and features of each. That particular day the superintendent of the road was on the train and invited them all into his private car, showing them his kitchen, bedrooms, living room, and porch. Some even got to go out on the observation platform. The inspection was over in time to enjoy and revel in the ride through the tunnel — a highlight of the trip.

As the children waited for their turns to make the inspection tour, nothing the train passed escaped their notice and comment. They discovered how the seats could be made to recline and turn. They bought some candy and gum from the vendor with their spending money.

All too soon the train came to Saugus. There they saw their baggage put off and later claimed it in the usual way. As the

train disappeared around the curve, they watched with rapt attention for the signals to change and show "clear track ahead." Then they were ready to investigate the equipment here — the water tank, the oil tanks, the fire tank car, the derailing switches, stock pen, gravel chute, boxcars, flatcars, and many other things. They actually saw how couplings work and clambered under a boxcar to see the brakes. The telegraph operator at the station invited the children in and told how dispatch orders are received and sent, and let all of them listen to messages.

At this point, Mr. Pierson and the three mothers who had accompanied the group left the party, for they could not be accommodated on the school bus. The children picked up their bags and walked down the road with their teacher to the Saugus School. There they went to the rest rooms and played a few minutes on the playground equipment until the school bus arrived to pick them up for the return trip. The Saugus School children made gracious hosts.

The trip back home was full of interest. In retracing their trip part way, they saw things they had missed from the train, or got a better look at things which had simply flown by — the flock of sheep and the emergency landing field.

Because it was just on the way, a stop was made at the San Fernando Dam to see where their pure drinking water comes from. The big pipes, the dam, the reservoir, the towers, gauges, and all were very fascinating to the children and were another highlight of the trip.

They were back at school by 11.45 — all thirty-four starry-eyed, happy, and hungry.

The children got the maximum from their trip, for they went well prepared for all they saw and experienced. They had made a list of all things they wanted to find out, and made certain ones responsible to get the information; they had made a map of the trip and speculated as to what they might see. The trip had been the constant topic of conversation at home, the parents said. All information possible was obtained. Fred

had come to school one morning about a week before the trip with the thrilling news that his dad ("who had been engineer and knows") said that the train would go through a tunnel 6225 feet long! The children learned through talking together that it was more than a mile long! There followed a discussion of where the train went "in the old times" before the tunnel, and how tunnels are constructed. There was so much interest in tunnels that many valuable sand box plays of "Newhall Mountain" followed. Hence, the thrills when actually passing through the tunnel on the trip.

Not only was this a real, educative experience for the children, but the parents were most enthusiastic over the whole trip and saw clearly the value of *real* experience. These are a few of the comments made the following morning:

> "I am astonished at what Arthur got out of the trip."
>
> "You should hear Bert give us all the information he gathered on his trip."
>
> "Douglas told me very solemnly that it was the most wonderful day he ever had."
>
> "Marie learned more in that one day than she could have in weeks of just reading about it — and it was a big thrill for her. She'll never forget it."

C. A Trip to the Lumber Yard

(9–10-Year-Olds)

At the beginning of this term of school, our room opened its door to a workbench, but there were no tools. The key of the supply room turned, and we received a boxful of queer-looking tools. Of what use were these? They had edges and points, but many of them none of us had ever seen before. Others needed adjusting, and when some of us tried, we turned screws only to find parts fall apart.

After taking counsel, we invited another sixth grade teacher, a gentleman who had just come to teach in our building, to come to our room and explain these tools to us. Having been

a shop teacher, he was only too glad to name the tools and tell us some of their uses and how they could be adjusted.

Next, the question of wood came up for discussion. We found we knew so little about it. The children told of a number of lumber mills within walking distance of the school. Then came the making of plans. Our principal was interviewed and gave consent for us to take a field trip. A committee agreed to call upon the owner of the lumber yards and ask permission for our class to visit them. Then slips were taken home for the parents' signatures of approval.

Before the trip, the pupils made ready by discussion of what they expected to see, what they wanted to learn, and what would be the best questions to ask. They found out they could look up the answers to some of their questions for themselves in the encyclopedia and other classroom reference books.

Courtesy on the trip came in for serious consideration next. The children agreed that they could ask for small scraps of sample wood they might find, but warned each other about being greedy. While they did not wish to march along the street, they knew the sidewalk was not wide enough for too many in one group, lawns were not planted to be tramped down, nor hedges to be hurdled. The two things tabooed were yelling and playing tag, for such behavior is not considered good form on the street.

At last the hour came and thirty-one boys and girls and one teacher started forth to learn about wood. The laughter of the children had announced us as we turned the last corner, and we were met at the gate by our guide. He was one of the workmen, but by appearance he would have been as much at home in the forest as at the mill.

His, "Where do we go first?" was met by a chorus, "The saws." Over to the shed we charged. We found a big rip saw, a huge crosscut saw, and a plane. Larger grew the eyes as the wheels went around. "Look at the speed!" "Does the dust go up that pipe?" "Oh, is that the way you make the

grooves?" "Here is the way to make a molding!" The size of the motors was compared although they held but slight interest when there was a chance to watch the swift teeth of the machines.

Next we visited the cabinet shop. While a little crowded for such an eager group, it never had closer inspection. Here were a smaller planing machine, a band saw, and both huge and small sanders. Smilingly, our guide made all of the machines work, patiently answered questions, and generously handed out samples of wood. In the paint shop, the small revolving table used in painting was quite eagerly inspected. Seeing this interest our guide brought out the spray gun and the filters used in painting.

The enthusiasm could not long be held within four walls, so we forged forth to watch the men piling lumber. Our guide got the big truck just to show us how they loaded without the use of a crane.

Then came the walk through the yards, inspecting the rough lumber, learning about "two-by-fours," dangers from termites, white pine, redwood, and on through the lanes of piled lumber. Some of the lumber lay flat on the ground and some was piled on end.

With arms already full of specimen material, we came to the shed where finished lumber was stored. Here the interest seemed to center on knotty pine and fancy moldings. Plywood caught the attention of all. The children were used to three-ply, but six- and nine-ply material was something new to them. A one-inch square of it was treasured "because it was so pretty."

The next door opened to us was the storeroom with its boxes of nails, screws, staples, and bolts. Upon the shelves were cans of paint of almost every color. In a big frame stood pieces of glass. We learned the difference between plasterboard and beaverboard. There were also rolls of insulating paper and black roofing paper.

On through the office we went past the desks where three

clerks stopped their work long enough to chat with the children. Interest was shown in the safe and ledger.

Outside the door we halted long enough to thank our new friend, the guide, and we started on our way down the street.

We made another stop to visit a new home under process of construction. In fact, the rafters were just being placed. Here the contractor seemed pleased to explain the skeleton of the house. We were told of the mixture of cement and the use of reinforcing steel rods. Then the house took form. No longer was it just logs and boards, but now it became "mud sills," "studding," and "headers." A whole new vocabulary had been found this afternoon.

The children rambled slowly along, now reluctant to end their field trip. The conversation was filled with plans for using this piece of wood in their dog house, or that one in a bird house. Returning to the room, choice bits were added to the room collection of sample wood. The first rough drawings of the afternoon were being shown as the dismissal bell rang.

The next day the trip was discussed for the benefit of two of the children who could not go with us. Letters of thanks were written and delivered to the lumber yard, the contractor, and the principal. During the creative expression period, some drew pictures, but the workbench proved to be the most popular spot in the room.

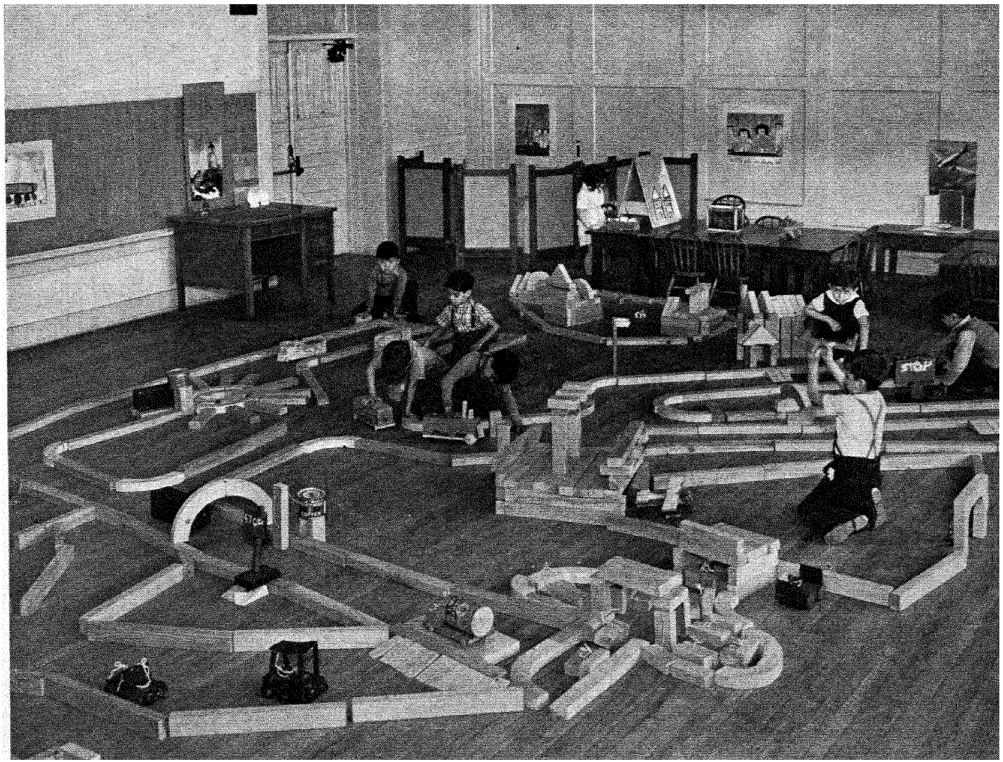
2. *Holidays*

Our holidays afford many opportunities for good experiences. Here is an instance on the primary level:

A Valentine Party

A neatly printed placard on the door of the third grade room reads:

> CHILDREN, YOU NEED NOT REMOVE YOUR WRAPS WHEN YOU COME INTO THE ROOM THIS MORNING. WE ARE GOING TO THE MARKET IN A FEW MINUTES.



LATE 19. Block Play
Free floor space allows complete development of a unit on transportation.



PLATE 20. The Play Corner in a Primary Classroom

Low beaver-board partitions allow frequent changes.

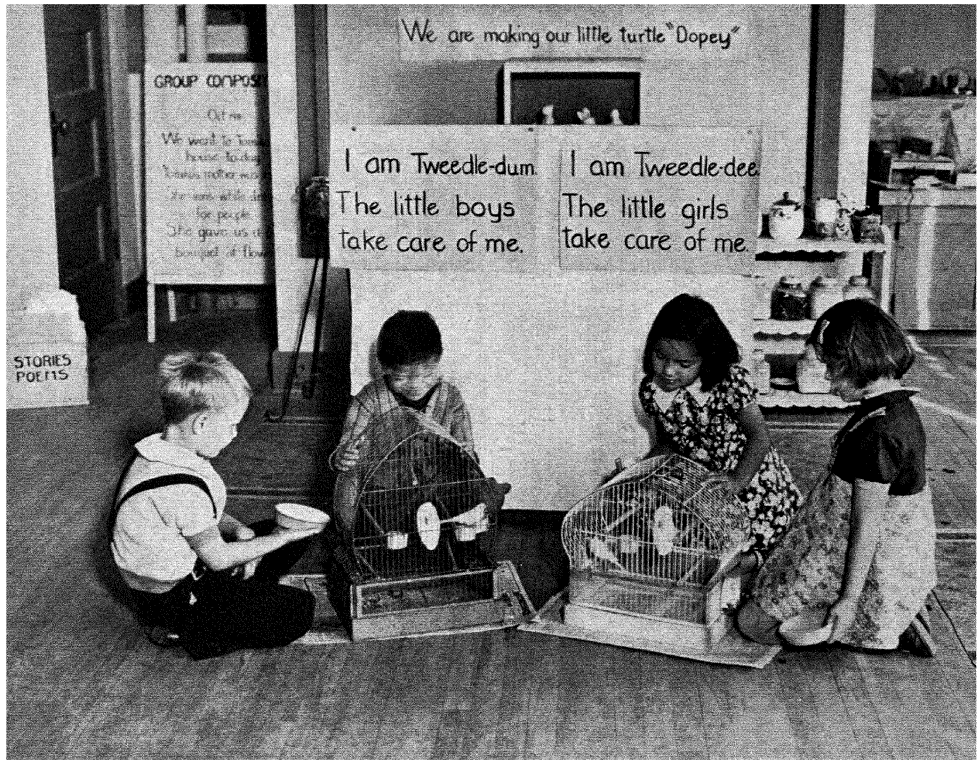


PLATE 21. Elementary Science and Reading in the Lower School

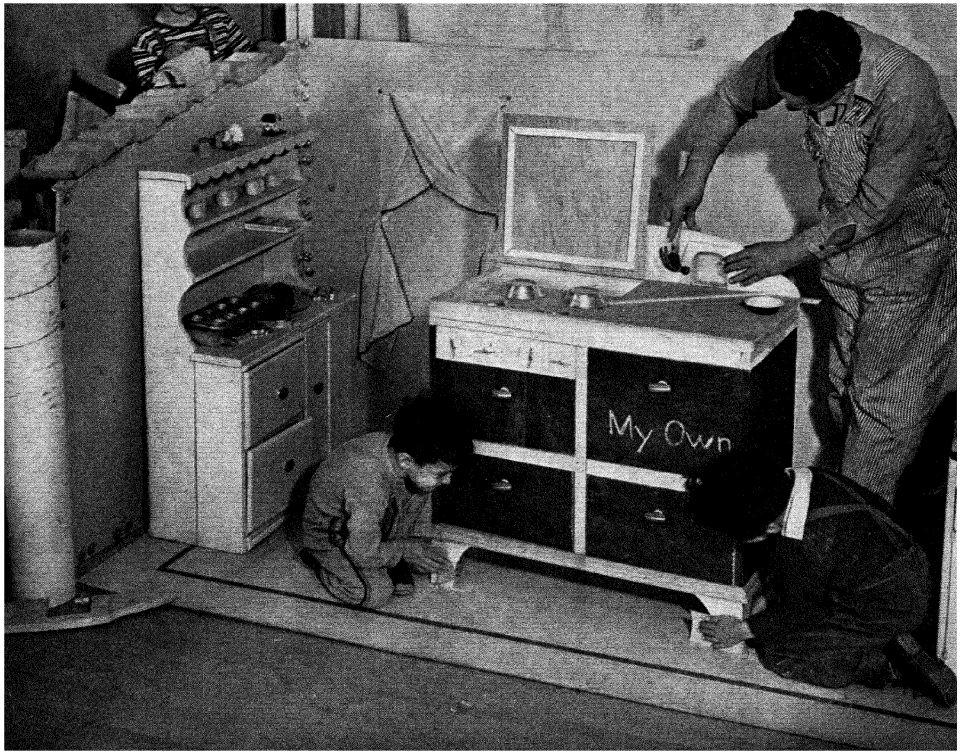


PLATE 22. The Custodian is an Ever-Present Help in Time of Trouble



PLATE 23. Practical Arts in the Middle School

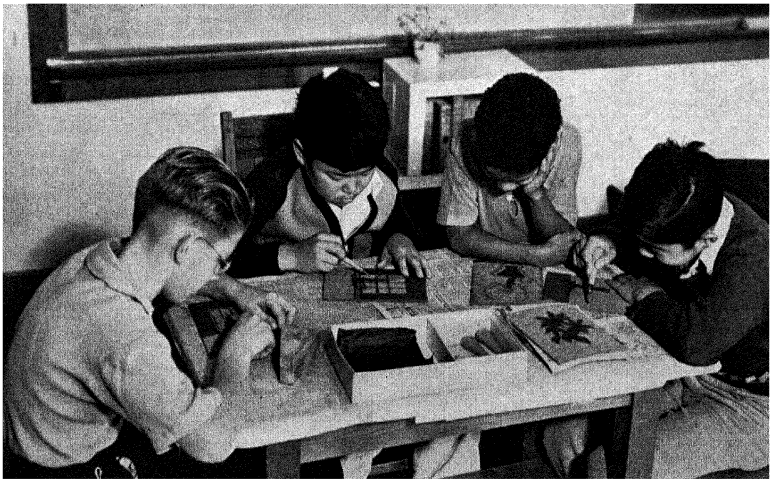


PLATE 24. Another View of the Classroom Shown in PLATE 23



PLATE 25. Science Table and Playhouse in the Lower School

PLATE 26. Cutting Linoleum Blocks in the Middle School



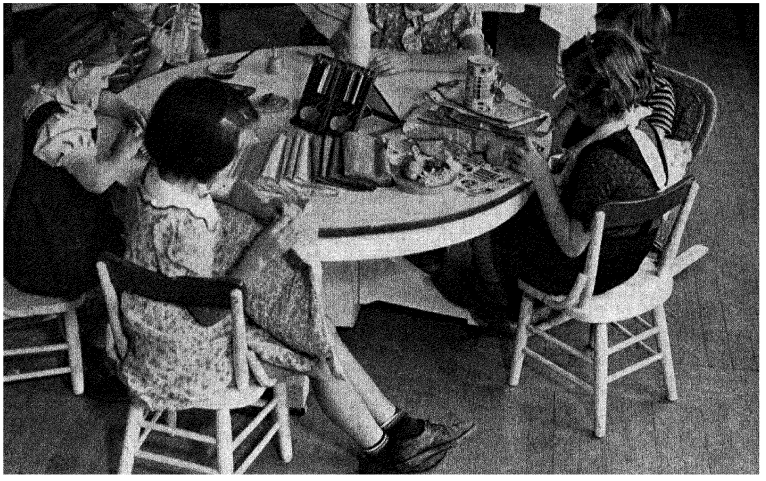
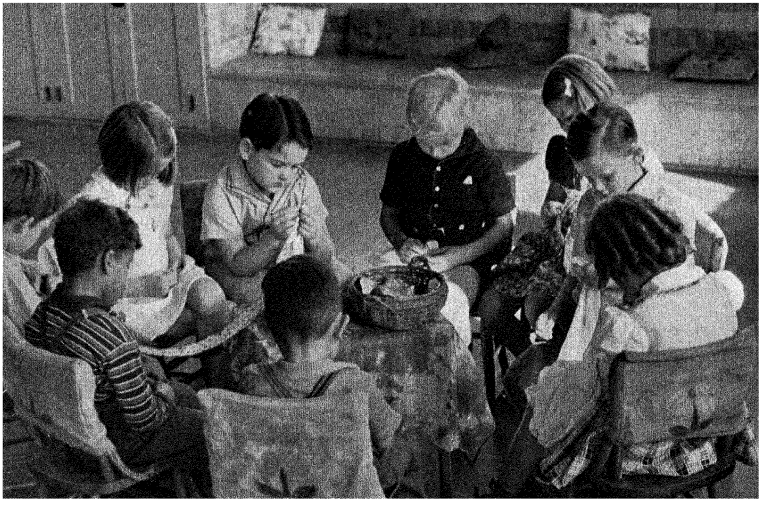


PLATE 27. A Round Table Makes Good Living Possible

PLATE 28. Boys like to sew, too!



Preparations for a Valentine Party were under way. On the bulletin board was the caption:

"WHAT WE WANT TO DO"

with the statement:

"WE WANT TO HAVE A VALENTINE PARTY"

and below this was ample evidence to prove that the "having" followed closely upon the "wanting." A letter written by one of the children to Miss Marion Manners, Director of the Home Economics Department of a local newspaper, asked for the recipe for candy-coated apples. The letter, incidentally, stated that a self-addressed stamped envelope was enclosed; and directly beneath this request was the neatly typed response and a copy of the desired recipe.

On the blackboard the teacher had copied the recipe:

RECIPE FOR APPLE LOLLIPOP

4½ cups of corn syrup
4 cups sugar
4 tablespoons butter
This amount will dip 32 apples.
This is a tested recipe.
Boil syrup, sugar, and butter together.
Cook until brittle when tested in cold water.
Put in red coloring and flavoring.
Put wooden skewers in apples and dip them into the syrup.

And directly under this:

MARKET LIST

32 apples (uniform size)
32 wooden skewers
1 large can white corn syrup
4 pounds sugar
1 can popcorn

When the children arrived in the room, they remained in their wraps. When all had arrived and greetings had been exchanged, Miss G., the teacher, handed Willard a purse, asking him to count the nickels which the children had brought and with which the purchases were to be made. It was discovered that there was $2.00 to be spent on the party. Then followed a check-up on the permission notes from home, and the discovery was made that everyone had returned the letter written two days previously. So, armed with a few suggestions for marketing etiquette, with a market list, and with an ample purse, the class of thirty-two started down the walk toward the grocery store. The children had written their own permission notes. One said:

> MOTHER, DEAR,
> MAY I GO TO THE MARKET WITH MY TEACHER AND CLASS TO SHOP FOR OUR VALENTINE PARTY? IF I MAY GO PLEASE SIGN YOUR NAME BELOW.
> WE ARE VERY BUSY.
> ANNETTE

and below this mother had written

> YES, ANNETTE, YOU MAY GO.

Each note was different, the child's own expression of what needed to be said in order to secure the necessary permission.

In about thirty minutes, the procession of shoppers returned from the market. All afternoon the spicy fragrance of thick peppermint syrup bubbling over electric plates filled the halls.

And while the syrup bubbled, plans such as these were made and executed:

> OUR HANDS AND FINGERNAILS MUST BE VERY CLEAN.
> THE APPLES MUST BE THOROUGHLY WASHED.

When the syrup reached the brittle consistency, the actual dipping began. In a circle around the syrup pan and with apples firmly fastened on to wooden skewers, they were dipped, one by one, and placed on wax-paper-covered trays.

At different tables around the room were stocks of materials from which valentines could be made, and on the bulletin boards were some beautiful valentines suggesting ways in which this material could be artistically used. At another table a stock of crepe-paper napkins was in readiness for whatever artistic treatment the boxes of crayolas and small glued paper cutouts might suggest.

Later in the day, a note in the shape of a valentine was sent to the principal:

> WON'T YOU PLEASE COME TO OUR VALENTINE PARTY TOMORROW AT ONE-THIRTY? WE ARE PLANNING FOR A VERY NICE TIME AND WE HAVE DONE THE COOKING OURSELVES.
>
> GROUP THREE

3. *Capitalizing on the Unexpected*

Here is an example of a clever teacher seizing an unforeseen interest which arose on the spur of the moment and using it to develop new learnings:

The Postman Comes to School

(6–7-Year-Olds)

Mrs. M. ordered Dolly Lee dolls and animals. They arrived on Wednesday. The little package of family dolls arrived in the morning brought by the regular postman. The package was brought into the room.

"What is it?" asked one of the children.

"Maybe it is something for our block play," suggested Mrs. M.

The children looked at the package, noticed the stamp, discussed it, noticed the stamping on the stamp, and appeared to be more interested in these than in the contents of the package.

Before noon a big package arrived. Mrs. M. had it in the room when the children came in.

S. was excited. "I saw a big truck come to school this noon."

Mrs. M. — "Why did that truck come to school?"

J. — "It had a package. The man took it into school."

Mrs. M. explained that the regular postman could not bring big packages, hence the truck.

One of the children opened the package. They took out:

2 wooden cows	1 big pig
2 calves	2 baby pigs
2 horses	1 hen
	2 baby chickens

They liked the animals, but were still excited about the mail truck and the postman. They made a chart to read:

> The postmen came.
> They brought two packages.
> One was little.
> One was big.
> Guess!

The next day the conversation about postmen continued. Some drew pictures of the postman. Others played the postman, bringing the packages.

4. *A Center of Interest*

This approach, which is often used interchangeably with the term "unit of work" is the usual form in which social studies are organized in the modern school. In the following instance, an assignment in arithmetic carried over into the social living period.

Modern Housing

(11–12-Year-Olds)

Picture a group of eleven-, twelve-, and thirteen-year-old boys and girls, all keenly interested in the model homes they had been visiting and discussing. They came to class on a certain Monday bubbling over with both information and questions that brought out all their ability and knowledge in working arithmetical problems. Much to their delight they found that this kind of number work was really fun.

By a consensus of opinion they had agreed that the colonial type of house was the most popular in and near their community. Of the many houses being built or newly constructed, varieties of colonial architecture were to be seen on every hand. The teacher had already prepared the scene by putting up pictures where the children could see illustrations of the following: Cape Cod colonial, real New England colonial, Georgian, and the French colonial types. These pictures, culled from current magazines, home builders' folders, and the newspapers were very attractive colored plates and had been examined and admired by the students for a few days previous to the recorded discussion.

Teacher: "Boys and girls, Priscilla has told me of a most interesting model home she visited yesterday. I feel this description will be something you all would like to hear."

Priscilla: "I'm not sure I can tell you everything I saw, it was all so pretty and different, but I'll try my best. Anyway, it was the kind of house like the one on the bulletin board called real New England colonial."

(All eyes turned to the picture the teacher took from its place on the board and held up in front of the room so the pupils could look at it while Priscilla went on.)

"The outside of the house was of wood, but there was more glass in it than the house in which George Washington lived." (For purposes of contrast and comparison the teacher had placed a picture of Mt. Vernon in winter dress next to the model colonial on the bulletin board.) "There were seven rooms," etc., etc.

The rest of the description included arrangement of the rooms, color scheme, kinds of furniture, drapes, and all the interior details. When she stopped, she asked if anyone had any questions.

Bill: "You can always tell a colonial house by the columns in front."

Norman: "Anyone knows these houses are copied from the Southern colonials we see in the movies."

Mary: "I saw that kind of house in the motion picture *Kentucky*."

Maybell: "And in *Jezebel*, too."

Teacher: "Can anyone think of any public buildings he has seen, or pictures of buildings that have similar styles of architecture?"

Herman: "The Capitol looks like that, I mean the Capitol of the United States in Washington, D.C. I guess our own Capitol building in Sacramento is very much like that, too."

Lois: "We have the pictures of the Lincoln Memorial and the government buildings in Washington here in the *Book of Marvels* on the teacher's desk." (She took the book from its place and turned to the pictures. Sure enough, there were the columns repeated in our government buildings and memorials.) "I think these were copies from some other country. We learned about the Greek Parthenon: that was the first building using that kind of architecture and here is another picture showing the ruins of that Greek temple as it looks today."

At this point the teacher explained what the three basic forms of Greek columns looked like, and gave the name of each. Some of the boys asked to be allowed to draw these columns. All decided that this would be interesting to do a little later, and to contrast these with drawings of American colonial exteriors.

"Why can't we build a small modern house here in the classroom?" several of the children asked.

It is necessary to explain here that this class was learning to draw to scale, and had spent a short time measuring maps and airway routes to determine distances, using the scale to which

the maps were drawn; but to date the class had not had opportunity for meaningful constructive work of this type. Here was the opportunity, then, since the interest was at its height.

"That sounds like a good idea," said the teacher, "but it means considerable work and a great many arithmetic problems to be worked out in order to build accurately such a house to scale. What do you suggest, class?"

The decision was made to draw plans to scale for a six-room colonial house. The class was divided into groups and each group was assigned a definite working part in the construction of the house. For instance, five were to be carpenters for the exterior; another group had to build the windows; another had charge of the roofing; another larger group, of the furniture; another of floor coverings. Now, drawing to scale meant something to these children and they were eager to begin. The teacher asked some boys to measure the classroom with yardsticks, marking off certain distances like ten feet, fifteen feet, etc. In this way the class could more readily visualize the dimensions when they were spoken of; and could see that if a living room was to be eleven feet by thirteen feet, four inches, it would mean a distance from the clock to the second window in the classroom.

Since most of the children had visited model homes, and had very definite ideas, the arrangement of the floor plan was left to their discretion. From the forty-four plans, the class would choose one that would be used as the basis for constructing the house. Drawing to scale began in earnest and pencils were busy, rulers were brought into play and the originality and initiative of most of the pupils began to assert itself.

5. *Individual Interests Leading into a Class Unit*

Occasionally a single child or a small group of children is able to lead the entire class into sharing their interest in a community problem, as in the following illustration:

Some Experiences Connected with a Unit on Oil

(10–11-Year-Olds)

Lomita School is within a few blocks of the Torrance-Lomita oil fields. The boys are inclined to wander into the fields, after school, to talk to the men. One day John brought a model oil well (made at home) to show the class. Ralph and Floyd brought specimens of crude and refined oil. The boys took individual trips to the oil fields for specimens and the oil unit was initiated.

a. Collecting Specimens

Ralph went to the owner of five or six wells in the near-by field. He said, "We are studying oil at school and would like some specimens." The owner and his employees were very much interested and anxious to be of assistance.

The boys collected information about each specimen. They collected a used mud hose, a helmet of varnished cloth (worn by men in the field), samples of oil sands in alcohol, and samples of core (if core contains mica, there is oil). All were labeled, placed on display, and explained by various members of the class.

b. Posters and Charts on Oil

Floyd, Walter, John, and Emory made a poster of the Torrance-Lomita oil field. The oil derricks and buildings, drawn according to the plan of the near-by field, were painted on wrapping paper, placed on one of the blackboards in the back of the room, and shellacked to preserve the color. Another poster of men working in an actual oil well was made. The men, wearing their cloth helmets, are shown drilling. The inside of the oil derrick is shown. On the bulletin board are charts showing the diagrams of the refining of the oil and maps of the oil producing countries.

c. A Replica of the Torrance-Lomita Oil Field

John made a model oil well at home and brought it to school, inspiring the children to make derricks also. They decided on an exact replica of the neighboring oil field.

A huge platform was built in the front of the room and a plan of the field was laid out. Among the buildings were houses, offices, warehouses, fish market, hospital with clay figures of nurse, doctor, and an injured person on a stretcher. The derricks and tanks and other buildings were laid out exactly like those in the actual field. Ambulances, trucks, cars, and clay people provided the atmosphere of a real oil field.

The boys made machinery out of a Meccano set, and by means of a battery connected electric lights to one of the oil derricks. The girls made clothespin doll figures of carpenters and painters working on an unfinished derrick.

d. A Song about Oil

One girl in the room composed the words and music of the first line of the following verse:

"Oil wells, oil wells,
In the air so high
You look like giant forests
As you tower toward the sky;
Your lights glisten like twinkling stars
When night sheds its dark shadows round —
All is still except for the voice of the drill
As it bores down deep in the ground."

The words were written first; then different children took turns standing and singing a line. Mrs. T. sang it back to them. Then notes were written and the whole song learned by the class.

6. *The Child's Day Should Be Made Up of a Variety of Experiences*

At the beginning of this chapter it was implied that the term "social living" means more than geography plus history plus

civics. There are many minor experiences in the day's work which, joined together, contribute materially to the strength and richness of the social living hour. The following accounts show how many aspects social living may assume in the hands of an alert and intelligent teacher.

A. The Day's Work

(6–8-Year-Olds)

Introduction

I am glad to be at the beginning end of the educating process of these Mexican children, for I feel it more important to give them a background from which they can build for themselves a useful, happy, socialized life than it is to pour on academic work to the saturation point. In this viewpoint, I may be wrong, but every day I feel it more and more strongly as I observe our school children.

In our room we are happy. We have blocks, clay, painting, many toys, many games, a tea table, a dressing table at which we beautify ourselves, live fish, turtles, plants, occasional live pets, moth cocoons, construction equipment, and a garden. We read only when we have something about which we want to write a story.

We take frequent walks, cook often as we can, and we had an excursion to the harbor last semester.

I know there are many situations of which I do not make the most, and experiences of which I do not think, but I am conscious of the fact that all that those little people get in both school and home are the experiences we bring to them or create for them.

Our children do not notice the things about them unless their attention is called to them, because they have not been taught to observe. On a walk last semester, several children called a sheep a goat, as a goat and a sheep stood side by side in the field. They did not notice the physical differences until these were brought to their attention. In these children's lives either

the teacher gives them all they need and desire, or they go without.

A Short Excursion on Our Own School Grounds

The entire school was buzzing with the news! "The big, beautiful, white mother rabbit of Mrs. Thornton's fourth grade had some babies this morning. Could we go to see them right away?"

During our physical education period, we chose partners and walked over to see these wonderful babies. With the class's permission we stood in line, and one by one looked at the mass of fluff. There was something white wriggling beneath it. We had pushed just a little of that soft fluff aside, for we did want to count them.

When we arrived back in our room, the children asked me which one of them had counted correctly. I had counted seven. Some children were sure there had been six while others saw more than seven. We decided it was very hard to count the tiny things because they lay so close together and were partially covered with fur. We had a wonderful discussion about the mother and babies until the noon bell told us it was time to go home to lunch.

No one had calmed down enough to suggest that we have a story to read about the rabbits. That afternoon they told me the following story, which I printed and read back to them the following day.

> We went to see the rabbits.
> They were little.
> They were so cute!

This short excursion was of sound educational value because the children gained the following:

I. Social habits
   (*a*) shy children contribute to discussion and conversation
   (*b*) use sentences in speaking

(*c*) listeners used self-control in waiting for turn to speak
(*d*) courteous and interested
(*e*) walking quietly yet informally through the school yard

II. Gained knowledge of
(*a*) counting
(*b*) habits of rabbits in caring for young
(*c*) needs of rabbits (food, warmth, etc.)
(*d*) kinds of rabbits — wild and pets

III. Reading
developed interest in chart stories

Toy Experiences

At the beginning of this semester, I brought a considerable number of games and toys to school. Even though I realized the reason, I was disappointed and upset when, one after another, the games or toys were broken or became too soiled to be used. It was a subject of much discussion and future planning.

Our generous sponsors, Forty-Second Street School, brought a toy or game to each child at Christmas time. They arrived after Christmas.

On Tuesday morning after New Year's holiday, every child found a beautifully wrapped package on his chair in the circle. We opened them one at a time, demonstrating or showing each one to all the children. It was a very lovely morning for all of us, for Forty-Second Street School had remembered us all.

When the gifts were opened and were on the floor in the center of the circle, I asked the children this question, "Which do you prefer to do, each to take home the one toy or game you found on your chair, or to keep them all at school and have thirty-three toys with which to play?" They all heartily accepted the latter plan. I will admit we did some very, very serious discussing about these lovely toys — their care, sharing, waiting for turns, and appreciation of them.

I told my principal last week that, strange as it might sound, I felt that the toys and games are the most educational interest center in my room today. These children, starved for want

of playthings, are caring for their toys and learning these things:

I. Social habits
  (*a*) cleanliness of hands before using toys — keeping certain toys and games off floor
  (*b*) sharing with others
  (*c*) obedience
  (*d*) persistence in working out puzzles and games
  (*e*) honesty in not hiding or stealing toys
  (*f*) to play in groups
  (*g*) kindness to one another
  (*h*) patience in playing games and waiting for them
  (*i*) promptness — to stop play at signal
  (*j*) respect for property
  (*k*) generosity
  (*l*) self-control
  (*m*) courtesy to other players of game
  (*n*) thankfulness to the givers
II. Abilities
  (*a*) counting scores in games
  (*b*) building co-ordination
  (*c*) counting for tenpins set up
  (*d*) refinishing of scuffed toys
  (*e*) keeping physically clean — when once clean
  (*f*) mending of boxes and games
III. Appreciations of
  (*a*) good toys and games
  (*b*) kindness to others
  (*c*) rights of others

An Experience in Clay Modeling

A pet kitten brought into the classroom one afternoon launched the class into a discussion of their various pets. The high light of the discussion was, "Frank has some baby pigs at his house, and couldn't we go to see them now, this very afternoon?"

Off we went to see the pigs, and a cute bunch of pigs they were! We leaned on the wire fence and enjoyed them for many minutes, having a lively discussion about their actions and habits as we did so. Freddie wished we could take one

back to school, and when we learned that Mrs. Lopez asked $6.00 for each baby pig, we decided that was a little high. However, we did hope we might get some pet to take back with us.

We visited several of the children's homes and saw their various pets which each child displayed with much pride. At Jennie's home there were chickens and as we walked into the yard a small black hen came toward us and squatted down to be patted. We all loved "Blackie" at once, and Jennie promised to bring her to school the following morning.

How much fun it was the next morning to have a coal black hen walking around in our room. Jennie had brought her breakfast, so Blackie ate her grain and drank water before the delighted children. How much more interesting it was and how much more they noticed the different little habits of the hen now that she was in the schoolroom.

Blackie looked over the room while we planned our morning's work. She finally decided upon the clay table. Up she hopped and there she sat as if this had always been her home. Six excited children went to the clay table. They knew and I knew without an exchange of words or glances that they at last had a real live model from which to model. It was one of the most natural situations I have ever had. All six children immediately went to work with a zest. Each child had a lump of clay the size of a cantaloupe. Blackie sat in her original position throughout the next half hour, eyeing the children and apparently enjoying the attention she was being shown.

During the next several minutes I purposely busied myself with the children at other interest centers. Since there was no outstanding child at the clay table I was very interested in seeing the results of the day's work. It was not long until a great commotion at the clay table sent us all hurrying over. Sammy was the cause — all were standing around Sammy and his work. The children were delighted for he had made an almost perfect hen. Then he held it upside down before us.

We all gasped, the entire cavity was filled with small eggs. It was no wonder the children were so excited. They praised Sammy whole-heartedly while he hung his beaming, embarrassed head. We all realized what a feat this was for Sammy. For it was Sammy, who was shy and backward, never seeming to work, that completely pleased the children and himself.

On this day there was no question as to whose work would be saved even though the other five children had made excellent attempts to reproduce Blackie.

The children and teachers from other rooms came to see Sammy's hen. She was so nice and big — and the eggs were astounding! Sammy today is a different boy. He walks with a swagger and is confident as he builds with blocks, constructs an aeroplane, or paints a picture.

Just what the educational significance of this experience would mean to others in the field, I do not know, but it was something very fine to me, for Sammy and the children for the following reasons:

I. Abilities
   (*a*) to use live models in clay modeling
   (*b*) to study proportions of model
   (*c*) to enjoy and care for pets in room
   (*d*) to distinguish between good and poor work
   (*e*) to use large lumps of clay
II. Social habits
   (*a*) appreciation for another's work
   (*b*) unselfish enjoyment of another's work
   (*c*) appreciation of one's best effort in any work
   (*d*) to take praise gracefully without being spoiled by it

A Waffle Party

In our room we cook and have a party once a week if possible and, if not, at least twice a month. We have these experiences for two basic reasons:

1. Educational growth and social behavior
2. Physical needs of the children for extra food

Our standard party menu is soup, cereal, various beans, or

candy if we need to sell it to purchase something for our dramatic play.

When Thanksgiving came, I asked the children what kind of a party they wished. Their wish was to cook something. We had been discussing the Pilgrims having dinner with the Indians, so I guessed that perhaps this was the reason for a cooking party.

The above menus were discussed at length. Then I asked, "How many have eaten waffles?" I, of course, was not surprised when only one hand went up. The other thirty-two children had never seen a waffle iron. The very word had a wonderful sound to them, and they were thrilled to think they might have "waccles" as they called them. The children agreed to bring a plate and fork.

Being a special holiday party, I had a long party table ready when the children came into the room. True, they could have, as before, set the table, made their place mats and decorated the table, but this time I was giving the party. So there were turkeys and flowers all down the center of the long table on brilliant orange decorated paper tablecloths, napkins, and place cards. Only a teacher of underprivileged children knows the meaning to them of such a party table.

A more courteous group of children could not be found. The electric waffle iron and pancake grill were about the most exciting things they had ever seen. The children all wanted to work, and all that could possibly be accommodated measured, stirred, baked waffles, and flipped pancakes. We even made our own syrup on an electric grill.

As the waffles and pancakes were prepared and baked by ever changing groups, the other children sat in their places at the pretty table chatting in their gayest, most courteous party fashion. Boys sat beside girls and forgot they were of different sexes for the first time. As we cooked, we discussed Thanksgiving and its meaning to us.

Each child waited with extreme self-control until a quarter of a waffle or a pancake was served to him. Not once did I

hear, "I haven't got any yet." After every child had all he could possibly eat we still had batter left. What to do with it? "Send waffles to the principal, all the teachers, the painters, the custodians." Every teacher and worker had a waffle or pancake and then came in to see what was going on.

That afternoon we wrote this story:

> It is Thanksgiving!
> We had a breakfast.
> We ate waffles.
> We ate pancakes.

I am sure all of my aims were accomplished. They were:

I. Abilities
   (*a*) to measure ingredients
   (*b*) increase vocabulary
   (*c*) learn to enjoy American foods
   (*d*) cook simple foods
   (*e*) clean up after a party and cooking
II. Social habits
   (*a*) cleanliness in preparation of food
   (*b*) courtesy in waiting until served
   (*c*) using proper table manners
   (*d*) self-control in waiting to be served
   (*e*) work together in preparation of food
   (*f*) patience in waiting for turn to help or eat
   (*g*) to work without constant help from teacher
   (*h*) how to act at a party table
III. Gain knowledge of
   (*a*) American holidays
   (*b*) American foods
   (*c*) table manners

B. Some Adventures of the Nine-Year-Olds

Nine-year-olds are eager to find answers to their questions about the world in which they live. *It takes a number of varied experiences to care for these felt needs of the children.* The experiences given here are ones that a group of nine-year-olds has worked upon since school started last fall.

(*a*) The principal of our school brought a very sick-looking plant into our room and said, "This plant is a disgrace to our halls. Do you think you can do something to make it live?" This led to a discussion of the ways this plant might be treated to bring it back to normal life. Questions were asked of gardeners and books were consulted. The plant was trimmed, transplanted, new soil was added and the plant was placed in the sun and fresh air. The plant is improving very slowly, but the children have gained much through observing, reading, discussing, experimenting, and keeping records.

(*b*) When the teacher attempted to interest the children in some new books, she discussed them from the standpoint of their illustrations. The Caldecott award was explained and the children's book that was chosen in 1937 for this prize was shown. Some interesting bits of information about Dorothy Lathrop, the illustrator, were related.

This interest grew rapidly. The children now know a great deal about some of the present-day artists who illustrate their books. They search in the community library for the books that have been illustrated by their favorite artists. They are reading as many 1939 books as possible on their reading level. Then, as a group, we discuss them and vote upon them. A record is being kept of the votes each book received for the Caldecott award and the Newbery prize. These awards are made in the late spring. The children will compare the votes to see if the members of the class are in agreement with the real judges. This interest has been a lively one. It has made the group conscious of books as has no other method. The children have a very great appreciation of their books and they read them eagerly.

(*c*) Frequent visits are made by the group to the community library. On one trip, the children's librarian asked the children if there was some way in which they could help her to make the library an especially interesting place for Book Week. After much discussion, they decided to write riddles which were based upon their pleasure-reading books. These

were read and discussed for several days. The riddles were written and posted in the library. The children went to the library after school and saw crowds of other children around their riddles.

(*d*) This group writes accounts of our experiences and imaginative stories for the school newspaper, thus providing a substantial motive for composition.

(*e*) Discussions brought out the facts that the children wondered about such things as:

What is the inside of the earth?
How did the earth get here?
How big is the sun?
Of what is the sun made?

The list of questions was so long that much time was spent in reading and answering them. (It might be added that the question: "Is there really a hell and a heaven?" has been asked by many groups of children.) Every question was answered to the best of our ability. Where there isn't a known answer the children are told so. It is good for them to know that there is much yet to be found out and that opinions differ.

(*f*) Another similar need that the children feel is for help in some of their social problems. These cannot always be answered but a list is kept and each child is answered in some way. These are typical:

Should I talk to strange people who sit at the same table as I do in a cafeteria?

What should I say and do when I'm left alone in the living room with my mother's friends?

Should I accept an invitation to have a malted milk with a friend or relative when I know he is very poor?

How should I introduce people?

What should I say to people who compliment me upon something?

Usually, we follow our discussions with dramatizations.

(*g*) This same group of children listened to a radio program on the founding of Los Angeles. We learned that most of the

children had not seen the places mentioned (San Gabriel Mission, the Los Angeles River, the Plaza, the Plaza Church). A discussion concerning this section of Los Angeles followed. The teacher arranged for visits to these places. As a result, an historical study of Los Angeles was made. Such questions as these arose and were answered:

How did Los Angeles become such a large city?
Which people came first?
How did each group of people happen to come here?

The children dramatized many of the events about which they had learned.

A program, planned and given for the parents, included the following:

Talks:
"Our Trips," using a map of Los Angeles
"Interesting and Amusing Facts about Early Los Angeles"
"Our School District in Early Los Angeles Times"
"Why Our Streets are so Crooked"
Rhythms:
Mexican Dances
Original Dances, based upon Mexican music
Dramatization:
Spanish and Mexican Songs
Accordion and Clarinet Music

The children had the experience of clarifying ideas and organizing material, as well as of presenting the program. From this has grown a desire to visit other places, so we plan to do much visiting and to take many trips.

(*h*) Just at present, much interest is being shown in the baby goat that we are learning to care for. This, we hope, will lead to a study of health.

(*i*) At Christmas the children spent much time making presents for their parents. They decided what to make, made them, made cards and decorated wrapping paper. There were many very valuable manual experiences.

(*j*) Sometimes, time is set aside for just fun. Such a period

usually includes skipping, marching, jumping rope, and bouncing balls to music. It ends with quiet games such as dominoes, puzzles, and contest games.

(*k*) One of the most valuable experiences to the children was the one in which they prepared for and took care of Open House. Many problems had to be solved in planning for Open House. Shifts had to be planned so everyone could help. The children planned talks to give as they guided guests from one interest to another. They planned a short program of dancing and music that could be given every little while as people filed through the classroom. Pleasant ways of greeting were decided upon. Dramatizations followed to give practice.

From 6.30 to 9.00 of Open House evening, many visitors walked through the room. The teacher was free at all times to talk with the visitors. Not once did the children fail to discharge their allotted tasks, and at no time were they at a loss as to what to do. They carried on well with as many as ninety people in the room.

7. *Introducing a Textbook*

It is a grave mistake to conclude that all desirable experiences must arise apart from formal phases of instruction. Many teachers are actually fearful of being found with texts in the hands of the children. In view of the many delightful texts now available, this point of view has no foundation in fact and many worthwhile experiences can be afforded children through intelligent use of good textbooks.

A fourth grade class was recently introduced to an attractive textbook, *Living in Country and City*.[1] Each member of the group, including the teacher, had a copy of his own. The teacher took the class rapidly through the entire book calling attention to its division into units — Living on the Farm; Your Everyday Food; Animals That Give You Food; Where We Get Our Clothing; How Houses Are Made, etc. Time was taken to enjoy the colored plates scattered throughout the text.

[1] By W. R. McConnel (Chicago: Rand, McNally Company, 1937).

Then the class turned back to Unit One, Living on the Farm, and discussed each of the illustrations. Finally, teacher and children took turns in reading the introductory statement "To the Pupil." The teacher suggested to the children that one interesting way to read the first unit was to begin by looking at the true-false statements at the end of the chapter and then try to find statements in the text which would help decide which statements were correct and which were incorrect.

In the preceding pages types of social living have been illustrated through excursions, the observance of national holidays, the capitalization of the unforeseen event in school, centers of interest or units of work, the interests of individual children, the whole gamut of the day's work, and through intelligent use of modern school textbooks. This does not exhaust the list of possibilities. Recent educational literature, of which Albion Horrall's *Let's Go to School* (see bibliography, page 133), is an excellent example, contains many additional instances of good social living.

Notes on Chapter Five

1. Hartman, Gertrude, *Finding Wisdom.* The social studies curriculum followed at the Avery Coonley School is described in Chapters I–VI, inclusive. The sequence of topics is rather unusual. The five- to seven-year-olds study the neighborhood and community; the eight- and nine-year-olds, the natural world; the ten-year-olds, primitive life; the eleven- and twelve-year-olds, man's advancing civilization (European backgrounds). Required reading.

2. Horrall, Albion H., and others, *Let's Go to School.* Three units — animals, the community, and architecture — are fully described, pp. 147–429.

3. Hockett, John A., and E. W. Jacobsen, *Modern Practices in the Elementary School.* Chapter II, "Organizing the Class for Living and Learning," is a delightful chapter in a most delightful book. Chapter III, "Developing a Unit of Work," is a conventional treatment of an over-stressed technique, but helpful to teachers who have not yet evolved out of the "unit" stage.

4. Tippett, James, *Schools for a Growing Democracy.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936. Mr. Tippett and the teachers of the Parker

School District, South Carolina, had sufficient faith in a modern philosophy of education to do something about it. This book tells the story, and, because it deals with procedure rather than platitudes, it is one of the best available books for the teacher who "wants to know what to do and how to do it." Especial attention is called to Chapter Four, "Changed Classrooms." Required reading.

5. Garrison, Charlotte Gano, E. D. Sheehy, and Alice Dalgliesh, *The Horace Mann Kindergarten for Five-Year-Old Children.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. This is the best available book on the kindergarten; contains a complete, practical program for the five-year-olds. Excellent photographic illustrations. Required reading.

6. An excellent reference on many phases of good living in the elementary school is *Enriching the Curriculum for the Elementary School Child, Eighteenth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary Principals, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1939. The classroom teacher will find here much usable, practical material.

7. Sherer, Lorraine, *Their First Years in School — A Course of Study for Kindergarten and First Two Years.* A finely printed, beautifully illustrated book for the lower school teacher. Required reading.

8. *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher.* Joint Yearbook, American Educational Research Association and Department of Classroom Teachers, Washington, D.C., 1939. Chapter IX, "Social Studies."

9. Norton, John, and Margaret A. Norton, *Foundations of Curriculum Making.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936. Chapter VI, "Social Studies."

10. E. M. Hale and Company, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, are the publishers of *Picture Scripts*, edited by members of Lincoln School, and of *Building America* (James E. Medenhall, editor; 1936), the attractive picturebooks on housing, conservation, communication, safety, and other aspects of current American life which have been developed by the Society for Curriculum Study. These materials are valuable aids to a modern social living program.

11. The *Fourteenth Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, *The Social Studies Curriculum.* This contains a complete survey of social studies teaching in our public schools up to 1936. An excellent and helpful book for the classroom teacher. Required reading, especially Chapter IX, "The Internal Organization of the Social Studies Program."

12. One of the books which should be always on hand in the upper school classrooms is the current edition of the *Standard Postage and Stamp Catalogue* published by the Scott Stamp and Coin Company,

1 West 47th Street, New York City. Once placed before the children, the teacher will have no further responsibility as the book will be in constant use. Incidentally, it will teach world geography to the class painlessly and effectively.

13. An indispensable book for the classroom library table is the current volume of *The World Almanac and Book of Facts.* New York World-Telegram, 125 Barclay Street, New York City. The need for verifying statements made by children in their discussion and conference groups gives this book its classroom value.

14. Michener, James A., and others, *The Future of the Social Studies.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1939. The subtitle, *Proposals for an Experimental Social Studies Curriculum,* gives a clue to the nature of this book. Invaluable as a summary of grade-by-grade assignments of subject matter in the social studies.

15. Potter, Gladys L., *Exploring Your Community.* A bulletin of the Association for Childhood Education, Washington, D.C., 1940. A very helpful contribution to the literature of the lower school.

16. Reich, Edward, and Carlton Siegler, *Consumer Goods — How to Know and Use Them.* New York: American Book Company, 1937. An excellent book of reference for the social studies teacher on cotton, linen, wool, silk, rayon, fur, leather, wood, paper, rubber, glass, china, metals, gems, oils, paints, varnishes, cosmetics, foods. Helpful charts, tables, and illustrations.

17. Reference has been made on a preceding page to publishers' library catalogues as sources of information in the social studies. Attention is also called to the *Subject Index to Primary Readers* and the *Subject Index to Intermediate Readers* published by the American Library Association.

CHAPTER SIX

◇

Nature Study and Science

ONE of the major fields of child interest is the natural world into which the child is born and which remains around him during his lifetime. The wind, the sun, the stars, growing plants, the changes of seasons, the weather, animals, his feathered friends, the marvels of the seashore — all these and many other manifestations of the physical world have endless fascination for children. The elementary curriculum in American schools has recognized the claims of children for experiences of this kind, and the decades just before and just after the turn of the century were characterized by a lively interest in "nature study" as part of the elementary course of study. In recent years, nature study as conceived in the late 1890's has given way to a greater interest in general science as a less sentimental and more practical approach to the subject. Croxton [1] makes clear the relation between nature study and elementary science:

> The satisfaction of the child's immediate desires growing out of interests in his environment has always been uppermost in the nature study idea. Less consideration has been given to direction of effort toward comprehension of scientific concepts. On the other hand, the elementary science movement as embodied in the *Thirty-First Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Educa-*

[1] W. C. Croxton, *Science in the Elementary School* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937), pp. 13–14.

> *tion*, presents a highly organized set of outcomes. Such outcomes possess great directional value. — It requires an immense number of interactions to develop broad concepts, and through these experiences there is ample opportunity for the satisfaction of the child's immediate interests. Moreover, it seems likely that only through achieving such satisfactions can we ever rise to perspective concepts. Here, then, is the meeting place of the nature study and elementary science movement, which are really emphases on two phases of a well-rounded science program.

The reasons for the failure of the nature study movement to meet the dreams of its proponents are obvious. In many classes, nature study, instead of being based on sound scientific principles, became maudlin and fanciful. The average teacher lacked proper training in elementary science and lacked also an enthusiasm in the subject. Books used were often hastily prepared by authors who were not scientists, and as a result, contained inaccuracies and downright misinformation.

Meanwhile science has transformed the world in which we live and it is incumbent upon the elementary school curriculum maker to realize clearly the possibilities in orienting children to life in the Power Age. Some of the applications of science which the classroom teacher can easily appreciate are:

1. The development of an adequate health-nutrition-rest-physical education program for her children based upon sound scientific principles.

2. Proper adjustment to daily life in the Power Age. Science has transformed the world in which we live and the teacher can easily bring out the science generalizations and concepts which are implicit in the things the children see all around them. The modern home is bountifully supplied with labor-saving machines and devices. Children of the middle and upper elementary school grades can be led to see the *why* of these as well as the *what* and *how*. What, for example, are the comparative merits of the electrically driven refrigerator as compared with one which operates by gas?

3. An awareness toward the problems of the conservation of our natural resources. Granted that we have shamefully

wasted our national inheritance, what can science do to remedy matters and provide for future generations?

4. The creation of new interests, both in school and as outlets for leisure-time activities. Amateur photography, the making of simple telescopes, or experimentation in hydroponics appear to offer more stability in character-building than membership in a neighborhood gang.

5. The cultivation of a scientific attitude toward thinking through the problems of everyday living. A long time ago, Delos Fall noted that the "young scientist" must learn to observe closely, acquire facts, validate them, verify his hypothesis, and keep careful records of his experiments. Above all, he must learn to base his conclusions on accurate knowledge.

Croxton warns the elementary teacher to move slowly in the direction of developing broad concepts and generalizations lest we put a burden upon the children which is beyond their powers of comprehension, but a step can be taken in every elementary science experience through interpretation of the experience leading eventually into the development of the generalizations involved.

Norton and Norton [1] illustrate this point nicely:

> Or take another unit, where the specific objective is to know some of the ways animals have of protecting themselves. This unit is part of the larger subject — the struggle for existence and the survival of the fittest. The essential fact to be developed is that animals have methods of protecting themselves. Pupils observe and make lists of animals which defend themselves with their hoofs; they note also what adaptations animals make to the various seasons. The study will not stop there, however. Pupils will generalize from their observations that each animal has some means of protecting itself from its enemies and from the changes of the seasons; otherwise it would not survive in the struggle for existence.

Another caution to the elementary teacher seems necessary at this point. A great deal of what passes as elementary

[1] John K., and Margaret A. Norton, *Foundations of Curriculum Building* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936), p. 378.

science in the classroom is limited to reading aloud from nature study bulletins and from textbooks. The value of this is very dubious. Unless the child is given something to *do* in his science experiences, they have little value to him. Again, Croxton: [1]

> It seems likely that the child is primarily interested in himself and in his social relations; secondarily and indirectly, in objects, whether animal, plant, or inanimate. His interest is probably proportional to the possibilities that the objects suggest to him for self-expression or for interaction with his associates. The lack of activity, especially of active response to him, on the part of plants thus restricts their appeal to the child unless he engages in growing them or carries on other activities involving them.

Reference has been made in a preceding chapter to work-centers and suggestions were given for the science center. This serves as a nucleus around which to organize science experiences but the resourceful teacher will use the science center as a point of departure into wider experiences. The school garden, for example, affords many experiences in nature study and agriculture. Trips and excursions open up new avenues of discovery and investigation. Typical experiences in science are found in the following instances taken from actual situations.

1. *The Story of a Garden*

(6-Year-Olds)

The Beginning of a Garden

The B1's decided that of all interesting undertakings possible to six-year-olds nothing offered more promise of pleasure than a garden. Flowers or vegetables? Vegetables, of course. Flowers received not even the vote of one small hand.

What luck! The teacher discovered that the school board owned the lot (50 by 150) next but one to the school. Beginning what was to be a daily routine from now till term's end, the thirty-four B1's formed in line, two by two, marched out

[1] *Science in the Elementary School*, p. 97.

of the room, out of the school grounds, and along the street. Neighbors came to the windows.

Upon "our" lot was such an abundant crop of tall grass and shoulder-high mustard that the B1's stared into it, appalled. But two lady neighbors appeared and offered profuse congratulations.

"So you're really going to make a garden of this ugly lot? Splendid! For years it's been an eyesore to the whole street."

The B1's squared their shoulders. When one's public has such unbounded confidence in one's ability, one doesn't let one's public down. Very soberly they marched back to the schoolroom to give the grass-and-mustard problem much discussion and deep thought. At long last, very polite notes were composed and dictated. Teacher took them down. They said: "Dear Father, Would you like to help us? We have decided to make a garden...."

The Garden Idea Grows

It was surprising how busy all the Dear Fathers were during the day. Even those who had no jobs were very, very busy and could not spade the garden. But Mr. Webb, whose early milk route gave him mid-day leisure, and Mr. Harris, who was on borrowing terms with the owner of a small hand plow, came gallantly to the aid of the B1's. Weeds were cut and burned. The lot's virgin soil was turned over, revealing a dark richness in which anything might thrive.

The B1's, however, still had a pocketful of problems, the largest of which was that of water. No water was on the lot! Every drop must be carried from the school. Six of the largest and strongest boys were elected on a "water squad"; and every available watering can and pail which could be conjured from the immediate environment, was conjured.

Because of the water situation, the garden had to be small. We decided on a plot 40 by 40, and of this we made a blackboard map. The plot was divided down the center, from east to west; then subdivided again into sixteen seed beds, with

narrow walks between. A master drawing of this was made by the teacher, and a copy given to each B1 to keep in his or her portfolio.

Spades, rakes, and hoes were borrowed from the next school, were brought from home, were bought by the teacher. Then, with a tool in every small hand, the eager march to the garden work began.

Work Makes Dreams Come True

The B1's decided to place their vegetable plot in the center of the lot. This was far enough back from the street for safety from passers-by, and it gave the plot a border which might turn the fancy of some other class toward thoughts of flower-planting.

At last the ground was worked up, the seed beds set off by walks and ditches, and everything ready for the actual planting. Someone thought of making a large sign and painting on it:

SCHOOL GARDEN PLEASE STAY OUT

When this became a reality, the janitor helped us put it up, facing the street. The janitor also came to our aid in regard to the water situation. He attached a very long hose to a school faucet and then stretched the hose as far as possible toward "our" lot. Thus the watering squad's work was made much easier.

The B1's were now divided into "farmers." There were four carrot farmers, four cabbage farmers, four beet farmers, and so on. We decided to plant potatoes and sweet corn because, even though school would be closed for summer vacation when these were ready to eat, there was a dear old lady down the street who would probably be glad to have them. We paid her a visit and asked her. She said yes, and thanked us very much indeed.

When the radishes, squash, turnips, beans, onions, tomatoes, and so forth, were all planted, someone suggested cucumbers. As it was a little early for these (February) we made a square wooden enclosure for them and covered this with a frame of glass cloth.

Mr. Palmer Visits Our Garden

One day, Mr. Palmer, the Supervisor of Gardening, came out to see our garden. He seemed to think that flowers might have been more artistic than vegetables. He preferred one mixed vegetable plot — a sweet potato, an Irish potato, one of this and one of that, so that the children could see how they grow. But John Dewey says that interest is the life blood of learning; and the B1's are not so interested in an artistic garden of beautiful flowers as they are in things that may eventually be eaten. Time, of course, will lift their ideals.

When Mr. Palmer walked to the garden with us, he certainly opened our eyes. Upon a feathery green plant which had never before been in our environment (though we'd passed it every day) he found tiny black fuzzy caterpillars and fat green and orange ones. He told the B1's and their teacher the names of these.

An ant hill next provided intense excitement. A bee became an untouchable center of interest. Mr. Palmer knew so much about so many crawling, flying things that the children promised to bring to school a turtle, tadpoles, tiny fish, caterpillars. The teacher promised to buy some ants-between-glass.

During the days that followed, the B1's watched a caterpillar wind himself in silk, watched the silk pod spill out a damp, large-winged butterfly. They learned that a new butterfly can easily be lured to walk upon one's finger, one's arm, shoulder, clothes; while a captured butterfly can almost never be taught this trick. They learned that a queen ant, on entering her "new home" immediately pulls off her wings; but were too young to see analogy in this between mother ants and human mothers. They watched a bowl of tadpoles, noticed

that some disappeared while others grew quite fat, but only the teacher imagined a resemblance in this to the capitalistic system. The fat tadpoles, fed upon raw beef, became such active toads that they were carried to the garden.

The B1's now began to make up poems. Ants, caterpillars, butterflies, bees were photographed in words. The mosquito fish proved to be most inspirational of all, because Julian saw them for what they really were:

> Our two mosquito fish
> Are silver submarines;
> Their eyes
> Are the lights.

The Radish Party

While the radishes, squash, turnips, etc., were coming up in neat, green rows, there was a slight lull in actual labor. The B1's had only to hoe, water, measure daily growth and make reports. But as just twenty days are required for planted radishes to reach eating-readiness, a radish party soon became the topic of excited conversation. Bread, butter, salt, and radishes — is anything more delicious?

As we should have so many radishes, why not invite the mothers? and wouldn't the mothers like to see the Garden Books?

Our Garden Books were autobiographical. On the cover was each child's conception of a rainbow garden — flowers of rainbow hue arranged in pleasant color combinations. The teacher printed at the bottom of the first page: "I am a garden. Children dig me." After much practice in drawing children in the act of digging (action is the keynote of modern art!) original illustrations went into the books. At the bottom of page 2, the teacher printed "I need water," and above this went pictures of children with watering cans or hose. The Garden Books should simply daze the mothers with originality and charm.

The great day came, bringing the mothers, bringing a proud trip to the garden and a party at which everyone remembered to pass the radishes first to the mothers and to break his bread before buttering it. The Garden Books were generously praised. And the whole experience was a happy one.

Outcomes of the B1's Gardening Experiences

We had a special party for each vegetable when it was ready to eat. We pulled the beets, carrots, turnips, learned to wash and prepare them for cooking, timed the cooking, sliced each vegetable, with butter, into little paper bowls. There was an actual chorus of: "I used to hate beets (or carrots, or turnips) but now I just love them!"

A taste for vegetables, acquired at the B1 level, may color one's life-long attitude toward them. At any rate, several mothers came to say that Johnny and Susie were now asking for beets or carrots at mealtime.

We had such big squash, and so many of them, that we sold squash to the school cafeteria — first displaying them in shopping bags lugged heavily from room to room. The money went toward tools for next year's garden.

We learned that growing vegetables isn't difficult at all. Anyone can do it.

We were much impressed when the school board sent out men to pipe water to the lot, to lay it out in nice neat plots for us. The lot would surely be a joy forever now to neighbor ladies who had urged us through its last spring crop of weeds.

2. *Our Fish Pond*

(6–7-Year-Olds)

Sally had brought some goldfish to school. We kept them in a small bowl on a table in the classroom. Gene brought a water turtle to school. He told us that the turtle could not live in the bowl with the goldfish unless he had rocks to climb on, so that he could be out of the water some of the time. We

tried to put enough rocks in the fish bowl, but it crowded the fish and it was not successful. We looked around for a larger container to house our water pets. Jack said that he thought he could bring an old tub from his home.

Just at this time the workmen were tearing down an old school building on our grounds. Some of the children saw the discarded tray that goes under the drinking fountain. We all went to see it. We found to our great disappointment that the tray had a hole in it where it had worn through, and also a hole where the drain had connected with it. Bob said that his father could patch the worn place. We didn't want to wait for Bob's father so we asked the custodian to help us. He told us the way to patch the iron tray was to use solder. The custodian soldered over the hole. We decided that we could use a cork to close the drain hole.

The tray was six inches deep, fourteen inches wide, and eight feet long. We put water in the tray to see if it would leak. We were happy to find that it held water. Mary did not like the color of the tray and suggested that we paint it. Joe knew someone that had painted a fish pond and the fish died. Gene said that he had seen fish ponds that were painted and the paint had not hurt the fish. We decided that the man in the paint store could tell us about a paint that would be safe to use. We went to the hardware store and talked to the man about the paint. He told us that it was true that some paints would kill fish. He sold us a can of enamel that was safe to use. We painted the tray light green. We built a frame around the tray and put it up on legs. This made the tray about two feet from the floor. We painted the frame yellow. The pond was large enough for us to put rocks in several places. The rocks were built up so that the top rocks were out of the water. We put our fish and turtle into the pond. Mary said that we should have some plants in the pond.

Our school is near a slough and some of the boys brought water grasses from the slough. Sumi's uncle had a goldfish farm and she brought several kinds of fish and water plants.

We put some sand on the bottom of part of the pond. Some of the plants were planted in the sand.

Bob said that his father told him that we should have some snails to help us keep the water clean. Bob brought some Black Ramshorn snails. I brought some Red snails. Some of the older boys brought in some very tiny silver fish. The boys said that one could see many of these small fish in the slough. We read about these fish and found that they are called Top Minnow because they feed on top of the water. We learned that the Mosquito fish is a Top Minnow and is the most important fish in the world from the standpoint of health, as they eat the mosquito larvae.

We had monitors to feed the fish and care for the plants. We drained the pond once a month and added fresh water every day to make up for evaporation.

Our fish pond really became part of the school. Many times when children secured specimens that lived in fresh water they were brought to our room.

I have used this same fish pond for several terms, and it has always been an interest center for each successive class. It gives us first-hand experiences in our study of fresh water fish and plants.

3. *Tropical Fish*

(7–8-Year-Olds)

The children in Mrs. S.'s room noticed hundreds of bubbles in the top of the aquarium. They thought the water was getting sour, so decided to remove the bubbles.

M. said, "We have tropical fish at home, and when you see the bubbles it means that the mother fish is laying eggs."

Mrs. S. "That is interesting." She got her *Science Guide for Elementary Schools* for May, 1936, and read the article on Tropical Fish to the children. M. was correct. They looked through the magnifying glass and saw baby fish hanging from the bubbles.

Miss D., the principal, came in at that time and they told her the news. She called Mrs. H., a former science teacher, and asked her to come and talk to the children. Mrs. H. agreed to come that afternoon. In the meantime, the whole school, teachers as well as pupils, were interested in the tropical fish.

The children noticed that one of the fish was driving the other into the corner and would not allow it to come near the nest, as the bubbles were called. They were very curious about this and were eager for information. Right after noon the whole lower school assembled in Mrs. S.'s room, where Mrs. H. talked to them. She told them:

Paradise fish originally came from the rice swamps of Africa and Asia.

They are brought over in large tanks of heated water so the fish will not die.

Then they are sold to fish fanciers, who sell them to us.

A tropical fish is different from other fish — it is an air breather. It has gills, but in back of the gills are pockets. It goes up to the top of the aquarium, gets a big gulp of air in these pockets, stays under water until the air is used up.

The father, long tail, blows bubbles which look like cellophane.

The mother, short tail, comes under the nest and lays eggs.

When the eggs are laid and fertilized she is chased away as she becomes cannibalistic and will eat the baby fish.

Baby fish are hatched, hang from bubbles as they have to be near the top of the aquarium to get air between the bubbles.

The father watches them carefully. Whenever a baby fish falls from the bubble, he picks it up in his mouth and spews it out so it will stick to the bubble again. He mends the nest whenever it gets broken, and fights off the mother fish.

The mother fish should be removed from the aquarium as soon as the eggs are laid.

The father takes care of the baby fish for five days. By that time the baby fish can take care of themselves. The father fish then disperses the nest and turns cannibal, too. He then has to be removed from the aquarium.

These little fish can all be together for two years, then have to be paired off as only two paradise fish can live in one aquarium at a time.

The mother and father can be put together in another aquarium, but can never be put back with the baby fish.

Some questions and answers were:

R. "How many can be put in one aquarium?"
Ans. "Only two tropical fish in one aquarium."
L. "What do little fish do when father scatters the nest?"
Ans. "They take care of themselves then, but many are eaten before the father is removed from the aquarium. That is the reason there are so many little fish and not so many survive."
R. "When babies get as big as the mother, will they lay eggs?"
Ans. "Yes."

Some remarks were:

T. "Fish haven't any memories. They can't remember they are their own babies so they eat them."
J. "The father fish is the boss of the whole nest."
L. "I can't understand why the mother and father fish eat their babies. My mother and father don't eat me."

4. *A Broadcast on "Saving the Birds"*

(7–8-Year-Olds)

These two rooms were very much interested in the care of birds. They had built birdhouses and put them up in the trees around the school. Some had taken birdhouses home to put up in their back yards.

A couple of dead birds were found on the school grounds shot by a BB gun. The other birds had been frightened away temporarily. The children in those two rooms were very much upset over this incident. They decided to give a broadcast on "Care of Birds" over the public address system. The whole school assembled on the school grounds. The actual broadcast took place in Miss M.'s room. T. was the announcer. (Each performer had his script to read.)

T. "This is Station M.A.M.I. Good afternoon, boys and girls. The first thing on the program is 'How Birds Help Us.'"
S. Told how the birds eat bugs and worms.
S. "We should take care of the birds so they can help our gardens."

T. "The second thing on the program is 'How Law Protects Birds.'"
M. Gave a short talk on the laws.
T. "R. will talk on 'How We Help the Birds.'"
R. "We made birdhouses. Let the birds build nests in the houses. Don't frighten them."
T. "I will read a little poem about a bird."
I. "I saw a little bird go hop, hop, hop," etc.
T. "F. will now read, 'Two Little Birds.'"
F. .....
T. "We shall now sing two songs: 1. 'The Bird's Return,' and 2. 'The Humming Bird'"
T. "Dr. D. will now give an address."
Dr. D. talked on the laws protecting birds.
T. "This is Station M.A.M.I. signing off."

The teachers at this school are working for:

1. spontaneous conversation
2. vocabulary growth

Every opportunity for oral English is welcomed.

5. *A Pineapple*

(6-7-Year-Olds)

Mrs. R. brought a pineapple to school. She placed it on the science table. Two or three children noticed it immediately.

R. "Is it a pineapple?"
J. "It looks like a palm tree."
M. "I think it looks like a pine cone."
T. "It smells good."
P. "Are we going to eat it?"
Mrs. R. "It isn't quite ripe now."
K. "How do you tell when it is ripe?"

Mrs. R. explained, "When the center leaves pull out quickly, it is ripe. If the pulled-out leaves are yellow, the pineapple is ripe. If the leaves are green the pineapple is not ready to be eaten."

Mrs. R. said they would have a party when the pineapple was

ripe enough to eat. Of course, every morning the first question was, "Is the pineapple ripe?" And every day for four days the answer was, "No." But on the fifth day, Mrs. R. pulled some center leaves out. They pulled out quickly and were brown on the ends, so the answer was, "Yes." Plans for the party were made.

It took the whole first period to make paper napkins and plates. Then Mrs. R. showed them how to cut and prepare the pineapple. They talked about manners at a party, about serving from the left. Then Mrs. R. produced a surprise — some cookies to eat with the pineapple. The refreshments and service were perfect and the party was pronounced a success.

The next day the children decided to dictate a story for reading:

> We had a party.
> We had pineapple at the party.
> We had cookies, too.
> We liked the party.

Four or five of the more mature children wanted to write original stories about the party. They asked for the words needed. Mrs. R. wrote them on the board as requested and the children traced the words until they were able to write them on paper. Each child is making a dictionary box of these words.

As a result of this writing experience, many of the other children are becoming interested in writing.

6. *Pumpkin Seeds*

(5-Year-Olds)

A few days before Halloween, R. brought a pumpkin to school. He said it was for a Jack o' Lantern. The children talked of Jack o' Lanterns they had seen and had had.

M. "My brother made one, once. It was scarey."
J. "Mine made me laugh."
K. "I had a candle in mine. We put the 'punkin' in the window."

The children sat down on a big rug in the front of the room. The pumpkin and a knife were on a table in front of them. Mrs. G. talked to them about the kind of a face a Jack o' Lantern has. "It can either make one laugh or frighten one. Which kind do you want?"

A few wanted the "scarey" kind, but the majority wanted a jolly Jack o' Lantern.

Mrs. E. asked them how the mouth would be if it were laughing. P. offered to demonstrate. He laughed, and the children could see his mouth turned up at the corners. He frowned and looked cross and they saw the mouth turned down. They were glad they had chosen to make a happy face.

Mrs. G. then cut the Jack o' Lantern. When she scooped out the inside, the children saw the seeds.

T. said, "We can plant the seeds and grow our own Jack o' Lanterns."

The children liked that idea very much, so three of them collected the seeds and put them in a jar to dry.

Various other experiences and interests took place; the Halloween party, Thanksgiving, Christmas, came and went. Just before Easter the children became interested in planting and gardens. They thought of planting their pumpkin seeds. They painted little flower pots, filled some of them with dirt and others with peat moss. Pumpkin seeds were planted in both, grew in a comparatively short time, and were taken home.

The rest of the seeds will be planted in the school garden so that the children can have many Jack o' Lanterns next Halloween.

7. *Setting Up the Science Environment*

A. A Science Table

(6-Year-Olds)

There are two signs over this science table. One says:

Things That Live

Under this are: a bowl of goldfish, a bowl of tadpoles, three turtles, and a white rat in a cage. The children take great delight in naming everything, so the fish are named Goldie and Silvertail; the tadpoles are unnamed. The turtles are Dottie, Spottie, and Dopey. Snowflake is the white rat.

Over the other side of the table is this sign:

Things That Grow

Lima beans have been planted in an oblong glass container. A sign says, "Planted April 21, sprouted April 28."

Among other plants are a camel plant, a magic plant — roots from leaf of a plant, a lucky plant, and a coconut. All are labeled.

B. A Weather Chart

(6-Year-Olds)

The sun shines	picture of sun	cards — yes and no
The wind blows	picture of trees blowing in the wind	cards — yes and no
It rains	picture of girl carrying umbrella	cards — yes and no

Each morning the class talks about the weather. If the sun is shining, they put a "Yes" card in the holder. If not, they put a "No" card in that place.

They then discuss the wind. If the wind is blowing they put a card "Yes" in that space, otherwise a "No."

If it is raining a "Yes" goes in the space next to that picture. If not, a "No."

C. A Kindergarten Science Table

(5-Year-Olds)

The science table in this kindergarten room contained the following:

1. Seven jars containing avocado seeds (brought by children)
2. A dish of pine cones — sprays of pine
3. A rock garden
4. A dish containing coal treated with salt and mercurochrome
5. Boxes of shells and starfish
6. Pads of cotton
7. A collection of rocks
8. Two fish bowls (children brought these)
9. One turtle bowl (children brought turtle)
10. Grass growing in a dish (planted by children)
11. Nasturtiums growing in a flower box (Kraft cheese boxes painted green)
12. Moss growing in a flower pot
13. Snapdragons planted in flower boxes
14. Pots of ivy
15. Two cactus gardens
16. A sweet potato in a glass jar
17. Pampas grass in a flower pot
18. Onions in a jar of water
19. Tops of carrots in dishes
20. A canary bird, named Mickey, in a green cage

D. Signs of Spring

(6–7-Year-Olds)

Over a shelf is a sign, "Signs of Spring." On the shelf were

arranged material made and collected by the children, including the following:

1. Clay birds — one an oriole, the other a blackbird
2. A jar of dandelions
3. A jar of green grass
4. A jar of sweet peas
5. A jar of nasturtiums
6. A jar of marigolds
7. A jar of roses

All these were arranged by the children, and labeled by the teacher.

8. *Learning About the Thermometer*

(5–6-Year-Olds)

"I'm too hot," Charles said as he pulled off his slip-on sweater Tuesday morning. Thinking perhaps the room temperature was too high, the teacher said casually, "Let's see how hot it is," as she walked toward the thermometer. Several children, including Charles, asked, "How can you tell how hot it is?" Seizing upon this interest, Mrs. A. took the thermometer down and let all the group examine it, at the same time telling them how it worked. A mark was made to show where the mercury ("red stuff") was at sixty-nine degrees. Another mark was made to show where it should be for all the children to feel the best.

Suggesting that it was cooler outdoors and that they could watch the red line go down, the children went outdoors; however, it was too cold to stand out long so they decided to leave the thermometer outside for a while. Raymond had the idea of driving a nail ("just a little one") into a place on the bungalow where they could hang the thermometer. They decided to leave it one-half hour, which necessitated finding out how long one-half hour was and how we could tell when it was time to look. Harriett, Eddie, and Annie were chosen to be the timekeepers and to tell when to look again. Fortunately for

the experiment, it was a cold and windy day, and when the announcement came that one-half hour was up, the thermometer was down to forty-three degrees. This was marked as the sixty-nine degrees had been marked, and the children were able to recognize the difference.

This interest continued in various directions. The children talked about what made it hot and cold, then put a larger thermometer first in the sun and then in the shade. Another day they watched it at hourly intervals, noticing that it was warmest at lunch time. One day when they were speculating as to when the thermometer went the highest, the reason was asked, and an explanation was given about the sun. Irwin mentioned the wind as another reason, and the children hung some signals out in the yard to tell which way the wind was blowing. By going upstairs and looking out the snow on the mountains could be seen.

This interest in weather carried along in marking their big calendar, on which they put the date each day and marked by "picture code" what the weather was. Any special event that had happened was also recorded.

A large thermometer with glass tubing about eighteen inches long is in the process of construction, the children's part being to measure, saw, sandpaper and paint the board, while the thermometer itself will be put on for them by one of their friends.

Just now, these children are interested in shadows, their why and how. This consciousness is making them alert to many of the interesting ways in which shadows are always about us.

9. *An Experience with Sea Shells*

(6-Year-Olds)

Anita went to the science table to watch the goldfish and snails. The abalone shell attracted her attention. She touched it, picked it up, and looked at it more closely. She picked up a large conch shell and examined it.

T. "Anita, hold the shell to your ear. What do you hear?"
Anita. "A noise."
T. "Does it sound like the ocean to you?"

Listening to the shell each child told what he heard. From twenty-five children about eighteen different responses were given. After all the children had listened each told the group what he thought it sounded like. Some of the interesting expressions were such as these:

"Like the fog on the big wires."
"Like somebody cooking something."
"Like a little breeze."
"Like wind in the trees."
"Like the water at the ocean."
"Like an airplane up high and far, far away."

10. *A Seed Table*

(6-Year-Olds)

The children in this room wanted to have their own garden. Some of the children brought packages of seeds, the school furnished others, and a variety of seeds was collected. The children looked at the pictures on the packages of seeds, and planned to have both a vegetable garden and a flower garden.

The children decided to have a seed table. On the left side a sign said, "Vegetable Seeds." Cups containing the different seeds were attractively arranged. Each envelope with the name and picture of that vegetable was placed in front of its respective cup of seeds. On the other side of the table a sign read, "Flower Seeds." The flower seeds were arranged in the same way.

The children dictated this story:

See the seeds.
Little seeds.
Big seeds.
Seeds for our garden.

Through this experience, the children learned to identify the different seeds which they planned to plant, to pronounce and read their names, and to classify them as vegetable or flower seeds.

11. *The English Sparrow*

(6–7-Year-Olds)

A class of six-year-olds were working in the various interest centers in the room, when a small boy happened to look out of the window and saw an English sparrow holding a large feather in its bill. The teacher asked the rest of the class to come to the window very quietly, so that they would not frighten the bird away before they all saw it. However, in just a few seconds, the sparrow flew upward and was out of sight.

A discussion followed as to what they thought the bird was going to do with the feather. After many suggestions made by the children, the boy, who first saw the bird, said, "Let's go out on the lawn and see if we can find that bird."

When the group went out in front of the building, they could not find the bird with the feather in its bill, but they saw many sparrows busily engaged building nests in the tiles of the roof. The children decided that the bird was going to use the feather in its nest. The teacher mentioned that the father and mother both help to build their nests. This lead to a discussion as to the ways of telling the father sparrow from the mother sparrow. The teacher told them the father sparrow had a black bib under his throat and the mother had only very light brown stripes.

The interest then changed to identifying the father and mother English sparrow. One of the children said, "Oh, look! there are a father and mother sparrow sitting side by side. Maybe they are talking about the nest they are building."

The teacher then asked the children how many knew the different materials birds used in building their nests. With the help of the teacher, many materials were named. One small boy said, "Tomorrow, I will bring some yarn for the birds'

nest." The next morning, the first to come into the classroom was this little boy with a small bag of short lengths of colored yarn. Another child brought a piece of bread for the birds to eat. The yarn was put on a small tree near the classroom window and in a few minutes it disappeared. The bread was put on the window ledge; but it was evidently too near the room, because the birds did not eat it.

The next day, a little girl brought an attractive picture book of birds. She left it at school for three or four days and all the children shared in the experience of enjoying the book.

The interest in birds lasted for some time. Many different shapes of birds were made at the clay table. One child made a peculiar shaped bowl and said it was a "bathtub" for the birds. The teacher told the child that wild birds usually bathed in puddles of water, but maybe the canary in the room would use it.

Just a few days after this experience, the children were working in the school garden, and one child said, "Oh, look! there is a father sparrow taking a bath!" The children and teacher looked over to a corner of the garden, and there was a sparrow bathing in a puddle of water. The children were greatly interested in the way he dried himself by shaking his feathers.

12. *Planting Trees for Arbor Day*

(The Whole School)

This school is divided into four groups of children. Four trees were obtained to be planted for Arbor Day. The ten- to twelve-year group chose a mulberry tree because they wanted to have some mulberry leaves ready for the study of silkworms. The other groups chose eucalyptus trees. They thought it very amusing that the oldest children chose the littlest tree. Big boys dug the four holes and while they were digging, a short Arbor Day program of songs and poems was presented.

Each teacher held a glass jar containing the children's names. The older children wrote their own names, the teachers wrote

for those who couldn't write. The jar of names of each group was planted with the tree of that room. The children watered the trees and then returned to their rooms.

13. *A Windy Day*

(6-Year-Olds)

A wind storm was in progress and the children were eager to talk about it. During group conversation, the following statements were made:

"The wind made me run fast."
"The wind made me jittery."
"The wind whirled me around like a ball."
"I wanted to hide from the wind."
"My dog does not like the wind."
"The wind makes everything rumble."
"The wind pushed me to school."
"I heard the wind whistle."

We looked out the window and watched the wind bend the trees and blow the dust up into the sky. Several children showed us how the trees looked. The teacher read the poem, "The Wind," by Robert Louis Stevenson. The children learned the first verse. Several children illustrated the poem for our class poem book.

Windy day pictures were painted at the easel. During the rhythm period, the children played they were going to school on a windy day. Others played they were trees and leaves in the wind. The children learned the song, "The Wind" in their class music book.

14. *An Interest in Sanitation*

(11–12-Year-Olds)

This class went on an excursion to Terminal Island. The first place visited was a fish cannery which had been under fire by the Bureau of Fish and Game which had complained that

too much oil from the cannery is dumped in the sewers. The class next went to the Sewage Disposal Plant that takes care of sewage disposal for Wilmington, San Pedro, and Terminal Island. Thrift, conservation, and sanitation were discussed. The boys and girls were surprised to find the gases from sewage were used to operate the plant.

When the class came back, the children discussed the maintenance of the plant, the by-products manufactured, and set up a plan of the entire system in the block room based upon drawings made from memory.

Reports were made by the children to children in other rooms. A committee was formed to plan a program on Sanitation for the night of Open House. Talks on the following subjects were presented:

I. Sanitation
   (*a*) Maintenance
   (*b*) Waste Disposal
II. Domestic Hygiene and Sanitation
   (*a*) The Home
      1. Site
      2. Construction
      3. Furnishings
      4. Care
   (*b*) House ventilation
   (*c*) House water supply
   (*d*) House plumbing
   (*e*) Garbage and refuse of home
III. Public Hygiene and Sanitation
   (*a*) Food, water, gas, and public sewage
   (*b*) Communicable diseases
   (*c*) Public conveyances
   (*d*) Public buildings
IV. Personal Sanitation
   (*a*) Use of the handkerchief
   (*b*) Care of the feet
   (*c*) Care of the hands
   (*d*) Keeping clothing clean
V. The Panama Canal
   How sanitation solved the health problem of this great enterprise
VI. Aqueducts
   Supplying water to carry on a sanitation system

VII. Pure Water for a City
  (*a*) How water samples are tested for purity
  (*b*) Care taken to maintain sanitary conditions during floods, earthquakes, and other disasters
VIII. Seeds of Diseases and How They Are Spread
IX. California's Fight for a Plentiful Water Supply to Carry on Sanitation
X. Vacation Sanitation
  (*a*) Preserving the purity of streams
  (*b*) Maintaining a sanitary camp

15. *Two Days' Experience with an Interest Center on Lumbering*

(11–12-Year-Olds)

This interest center grew out of the reading of an article on the General Grant Sequoia. The class was greatly interested in the article and had many questions to ask when it was finished. One boy wished to know, "What kind of a tree is a sequoia?"

A girl who explained that she had just read a story about the big trees of California, gave the following answer, "A sequoia is a great big tree. It has branches like a fir tree. Some sequoias have such large trunks that a roadway can be built through them." She ended by showing a picture of a big tree and its roadway.

Then came the statement, "That is a redwood tree. I've been up in the redwoods and I saw all those big trees."

Someone said, "Maybe a redwood and a sequoia are the same thing." Since no one seemed to be certain, the teacher suggested that one of the boys look up the word "sequoia" in his dictionary. He soon reported the following: "Sequoia is the name of either of two big trees in California. The redwood is one of these. They both belong to the pine family."

A girl wanted to know, "Where do redwoods grow?"

Immediately came the answer, "In northern California."

One of the boys corroborated this by stating that his father

had worked in a lumber camp and had brought home pieces of pine and fir trees from this northern area.

A girl added, "My dad works on a lumber boat. He unloads lumber and he brings home scrap boards of Oregon pine and white pine. I can bring pieces of different kinds of wood. My dad will bring them home to me."

"What could we do with pieces of wood?" came the question.

"We can make a chart and see how many different kinds of wood we can find," was the answer.

The class approved of this idea and several children said that they would bring small pieces of wood next day. This they did and along with them came bark, leaves, and seeds from trees.

The next day one boy began our discussion by telling about a lumber camp he had visited. He told how the logs were floated downstream to the mill. He explained how the big logs were sent into the huge saws; how three- and five-ply wood was made; and how the newly sawed lumber was taken away from the mill to be sent to various parts of the world.

Someone suggested, "It would be fun to build a lumber camp."

Another added, "We could build it on a big table."

"How could we get trees for it?" was asked.

"We could use twigs and branches," was the answer.

Another added, "We could use sand for the ground and stick the twigs in the sand."

Still another said, "We can make rivers in the sand and show logs in the rivers."

Some of the girls offered immediately to make little dolls for the camp. These, they said, would represent the lumber jacks. One girl said, "I have a little doll at home I made out of crepe paper and pipe cleaners. I can make a lumber jack out of pipe cleaners. The other girls can help, I'll show them how."

Our discussion and plans for two days had aroused much

enthusiasm over lumbering. The following day children came with articles about trees, and samples of leaves, wood, bark, and seeds, together with a supply of pipe cleaners. Plans were then begun for books and charts to display the leaves, seeds, bark, and wood. In the afternoon a table was covered with oilcloth; then came the question, "How can we keep the sand on the table?"

After several suggestions had been made, someone said, "Why not build a frame of lath around the table and line it with a bottom to keep the sand in?"

"What can we line it with?" was asked.

We had had a large roll of wrapping paper across the hall, and one of the girls suggested that the frame be lined with wrapping paper.

The lumber camp grew. Another table was drawn into use and another group began an old-fashioned scene of early lumbering methods. The children had fun comparing early and modern pioneer camps, leading to a brief study of forest conservation and reforestation methods.

Throughout this study the teacher supplied the class with many books, pictures, movies, and slides on forests, lumbering, and forest conservation. Interest in the work continued over a period of three months. Much was learned and accomplished. During this time minor centers developed along hobby lines, consisting of shell collections, rocks, and minerals, stamps, old coins, and petrified wood, affording the class a variety of minor experiences along with the major experiences.

16. *Trees*

(9–11-Year-Old Level)

Last year at the beginning of the spring semester, I read a very interesting health story to the class. As I progressed through the first part of the book, we found some fine descriptions of outdoor life. Naturally, there were requests from the children to draw or to paint the mental pictures which they got

from the descriptions. There were no suggestions from the teacher, but full freedom was given for the child's expression. I selected from the drawings certain elements upon which to work which would lay the foundation for the term's work in art. In practically all these pictures I found that the children had incorrect ideas of the way a tree looks. We made a trip around the school grounds just to look at trees. Few of the trees were known to the group as a whole. We talked about size, shape, coloring, and how the trees differed from each other.

Next day there was a general request to go to the yard to see the trees again. We went, and this time included the back yard. The acacia and flowering peach were just coming into blossom. Almost as one person, the children wished to know the names of these. We also discovered that there were specimens of evergreen and deciduous trees.

On the third trip we took sketchbooks and selected our favorite trees to sketch. More names were added to our list of trees because each child wanted to know the name of his particular tree. We listed these names and found that there were ten varieties on our school grounds. Soon we were able to recognize and name the ten trees.

Enthusiasm grew until it was necessary to make neighborhood trips to see some special tree or trees that Mary or Johnny had found and to determine their names. This led us into much research work. The amount of material which arrived from mountain resorts, parks, and other neighborhoods where the children had visited almost swamped us.

We made glass-covered pictures of the leaves of the trees on our grounds. All this time we were getting the size, shape, kind of leaves, blossoms (if any), seed pods, and colorings well in mind. Each child was asked to bring a sketch of his or her home with the natural trees and shrubs around it. A fine group spirit developed because so many children discovered the same kinds of trees in their yards.

Enthusiasm seemed to be increasing rapidly. Could they

please learn more about trees? What were some of the uses of trees? By this time I had put on the shelves some single copies and several sets of books in which they could find answers to some of their questions. They went to the libraries and also searched at home for material. They found fifteen uses for trees.

One day we read the legend of the mulberry tree and immediately the children remembered that we had one in our front yard, which I had asked to have planted several years before when I raised some silk caterpillars. When it was possible to get them, I surprised the children one morning with some silk caterpillars and the eggs of the moth. The life cycle of the silk moth egg was observed for about six weeks to the unwinding and twisting of the thread of the cocoon.

From our geography textbook we learned how valuable the trees in the mountains are for our water supply. A list of native trees given in this book gave a new interest in finding our native trees and our visitors. Locating the original homes of many importations gave us good map drill and developed a feeling of closeness and friendliness toward other countries.

We made individual books containing poems, stories, original drawings, pictures, and magazine and newspaper articles pertaining to trees. Their stories developed from one paragraph of a few sentences to stories of three and four longer paragraphs. These stories covered the uses of trees, what trees give us, how the trees grow, and how to care for them. Each story included information gained from several books.

As a climax we took trips to Griffith Park in the school bus. We wrote letters to make appointments with the bus for a certain day and to the Park foreman asking for permission to visit the Park and for the services of a competent guide.

The children improved their time while on the bus by naming all the trees they knew along the way. We were met at the appointed place by the foreman, who gave us two hours of his time. He said he had never had an experience with a large

group of young children before, but he held them spellbound.

First, we went to a group of redwoods and he explained the difference between Coast and High Sierra Redwoods. He showed the children a very unique sprinkling system which was necessary to keep the High Sierra Redwoods living. As we walked leisurely along, the children felt free to ask questions. He pointed out the native trees, and gave some very interesting points to make the children more familiar with them. He explained the habits of some trees. We saw some of the very oldest trees in the Park. After a short recess we then went to a section where work in tree surgery and in tree supporting had been carried on. As we had read something about sick trees, this subject was familiar to us, but to see actual examples of it and have it explained so carefully made it very real. I think that some future forest rangers and tree surgeons were born on this trip. We were happy to see that the girls were as interested as the boys.

The group sat informally around the foreman and asked him questions which he answered in very simple language, understandable to children. We thanked him and bade him good-bye. Then some of us sketched trees while others took pictures with their cameras. These experiences opened up numerous fields for further investigation; national parks, reforestation, fire protection, and such industries as lumbering and fruit raising.

17. *Ants*

(10–12-Year-Olds)

Friday, December 22, found many presents under our Christmas tree. One large, odd-shaped package had not been there the day before, so everyone was eager to find what it contained. It was Patricia's turn to open the first package, so she took the large box and carefully untied it. To our delight it was an Ant Village.

The ants were very busy running back and forth carrying

small particles of dirt from the bottom of the mine to the gold room. In the weeks which followed Christmas we spent many happy moments watching these busy little fellows. We read the instructions which came with the Ant Village very carefully. As most of the girls and boys had pets, they realized it was necessary to follow the directions in order to keep the ants alive. Mary and Virginia had charge of seeing that the soil was kept moist. They put a drop or two of water into the hole on the side of the mine when needed. Thora Mae put in a few seeds each day and every two weeks a drop of honey. How the ants enjoyed that day! Ants, you know, also enjoy a choice dead insect once every few days, especially winged ones, so the boys were appointed to catch the necessary flies. Many questions had been asked about ants, so several books were found.

As soon as the weather became warmer and the ants came out of their winter quarters, the boys began bringing them into the room. Red ants were everywhere. We couldn't keep them in the cans so the boys decided to make some ant villages. A discussion of what was needed followed. The next morning on the workbench the boys found pieces of wood, with grooves cut in them for holding the glass. We talked over the need for exact measurements and some time was spent explaining the use of the miter box, and the framework was quickly made. During the noon hour we took a walk to the hardware store and bought two panes of glass cut to the proper dimensions. That afternoon the ants found themselves in their new home. With no time to lose, they began tunneling down into the soft earth.

During our experiences with the ants, the children wrote stories and poems about them. In music they learned the song, "The World Owes Me a Living" (The Grasshopper and the Ant). They now wished to tell some of the other girls and boys about the ants, so we invited several groups of children to see our ant villages and hear some interesting stories about these busy people. They really did seem like people

to us now — the queen with her many workers, the nurses to care for the young, and the soldiers to guard the village.

18. *Our Garden*

(11–12-Year-Olds)

This room is responsible for the school garden. It takes charge of the working and planting schedule for the whole school.

A chart on the board reads:

Our Garden

Chairman	Jacqueline
Toolhouse	Jack
Paths	Melvin

Underneath is posted a typewritten notice to this effect:

Path Tender recommends:

Please leave paths clean of leaves, clods, rocks, when going from your plot.

We rake lightly on paths.
We do not drag tools on paths.
Paths should be kept clear.

(Signed) MELVIN

Underneath this notice (which has been sent to all the rooms working in the garden) specimens of plants from the gardens have been mounted and labeled:

1. Violet
2. Pansy
3. Heather
4. Iris
5. Snapdragon
6. Stock
7. Sweet pea
8. Cosmos

19. *An Experience with Silkworms*

(11–12-Year-Olds)

Possibly one of the finest experiences that we have had in the classroom started when a friend gave me a piece of blotting paper upon which were deposited some eggs of the silk moth.

Many of the experiences seemed so worth while that we made motion pictures of them.

After the eggs had been exhibited to all (only the dark ones were kept, others are not fertile), they were placed in a small cardboard box and given time to hatch. In the meantime we set out to locate a food supply for the silkworms. We found four mulberry trees in the district, and what had been just another tree to the children now became a thing of great interest to them.

As the eggs hatched, the tiny caterpillars began to feed upon the mulberry leaves which were supplied each day. After the first week, they were kept in screen cages so that their progress could be readily observed.

The time that it takes the caterpillar to pupate (from the day first hatched) depends on the care given in feeding. In Japan it might not take more than sixteen days, where the caterpillars are given fresh leaves every hour, both day and night. Under adverse conditions it might take from eight to ten weeks. Ours were fed until they were six weeks old, during which time they shed their skins four different times. Then they began to get restless and crawled to a corner of the cage and began to pupate. Accurate records were kept as to time of hatching and time of pupating.

The spinning of the cocoon was a fascinating operation to witness. All outside indication of spinning ceased in from twelve to twenty-four hours. These beautiful cocoons were fastened to many parts of the cage, and one worm, more ambitious than the others, crawled out of the cage and found a cozy corner on the window sill where it spun its cocoon.

At the end of fifteen days the moths emerged from the cocoons. After a bit of practice, it was not hard to tell the males from the females by their appearance. After a short time the mating began and usually lasted from four to six hours or longer. The moths were then separated, after which the female began to lay eggs. According to our records one female lays as many as three hundred eggs. The eggs that

were not given away were placed in small cardboard boxes and sealed. These were placed in the lower compartment of an electric refrigerator to keep them from hatching until food became available, or until we were ready to use them.

Only a limited number of the moths were allowed to emerge from the cocoons, and these were used for observation and breeding purposes, due to the fact that the cocoon is of no use for silk production after the threads at the end of the cocoon are broken.

Ten days after the cocoons were spun, all that were not kept for breeding purposes were dipped in boiling water to kill the moth and to soften the silk. By pulling at one end the thread is started and the cocoon unreeled. We wound the silk on cardboard strips one foot long, thus reeling up two feet of silk per revolution. One cocoon that was measured gave twenty-one hundred feet of silk. To speed up the reeling we used an old phonograph motor to rotate the cardboard strips or spindles, unreeling a cocoon in about twelve minutes.

All the children in the building from the kindergarten up have shared in at least a part of this experience. This year as soon as the mulberry trees begin to leaf we will repeat the experience by getting the eggs out of cold storage. We will endeavor to find out things not learned by the experiences we passed through. Each teacher will receive some of the caterpillars when they hatch, and a committee of children will keep the rooms supplied with food for their stock. This seems to be necessary, as so many always fail to keep their pets supplied with food.

As a result of this experience, the children have had a much greater interest in nature. The interest created manifested itself in many ways:

1. Caterpillars, and cocoons of monarch butterfly and of tomato worm, as well as the swallowtail, were collected and brought to the classroom. Many of these came in four months after the experience with the silkworms.
2. Food for caterpillars was brought in, showing the recognition of host plants for various insects.

3. Children experimented with plants as insect food, trying other plants than those the insect usually feeds upon. One child found that silkworms would eat willow leaves.

A motion picture is possibly the most vivid record of our experience. Shots were made of the various stages of the experience, and many of them were made under magnification. The most interesting of these depicts the moth laying the eggs.

Croxton [1] offers 318 pages of very definite suggestions as to worth-while experiences in elementary science. Each experience is described under three heads: Aims, Suggestions, and Contributing Learnings, followed by helpful references. Among the many experiences described, the following show unusual insight and imagination: Exploring the school ground; Establishing a nature trail; Arranging an insect orchestra; Finding what foods the birds like best; Holding a harvest festival; Watching animal athletes perform; Cooking a meal out-of-doors; Making scrapbooks of winter scenes and sports; Holding glider and airplane races; Tracing the activities of animals by tracks in the snow; Comparing ourselves with other animals; Growing tiny plants and animals; Exploring by sound and touch; Keeping a spring diary of a tree; Running an insect hatcher; Rearing toads to protect our gardens; Gardening the (outdoor) playhouse; Tracing the story of a stream valley.

Such experiences as the above are a direct answer to the criticism of the conventional courses in elementary science stated in *A Program for Teaching Science*: [2]

> It is quite likely that the lack of recognition of natural science in the elementary school has been due to the variety of the activities proposed by our courses of study and by the lack of any challenge in the content that has characterized so much of our subject matter.

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[1] W. C. Croxton, *Science in the Elementary School*, pp. 128–446.

[2] *A Program for Teaching Science, Thirty-First Yearbook*, Part One, National Society for the Study of Education (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1932), p. 143. This, and all other references to the Yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education, are quoted by permission of the Society.

Chapter Twelve of this report, by Gerald S. Craig, offers a "Suggested Content for the Grades of the Elementary School" in science which is representative of the modern approach to the subject. The classroom teacher will find in this tentative course of study many topics which will prove workable in her particular grade. A detailed discussion of the general concepts involved in these topics will be found in Chapter Ten, "The Program of Science in the Elementary School."

Notes on Chapter Six

1. *The Scientific Living Series* by Frasier, and others (Syracuse, New York: L. W. Singer Company) include the following books: Pre-Primer, *We See*; Primer, *Sunshine and Rain*; Book I, *Through the Year*; Book II, *Winter Comes and Goes*; Book III, *The Seasons Pass*; Book IV, *The How and Why Club*; Book V, *How and Why Experiments*; Book VI, *How and Why Discoveries.* Beautifully illustrated in color by Guy Brown Wiser, these books afford excellent reading material for the science hour in the modern elementary school.

2. *The Pathways in Science Series* by Gerald Craig, and others (Boston: Ginn and Company) marked the influence of the *Thirty-First Yearbook* on our elementary curriculum. The original series included: *We Look About Us; Out-of-Doors; Our Wide, Wide World; The Earth and Living Things; Learning About Our World; Our Earth and Its Story.*

A revision of this series has been recently made under the title *The New Pathways in Science* including a primer, *We Want to Know*; Book I, *We Find Out*; Book II, *Changes All Around Us*; Book III, *Our Earth and Sky*; Book IV, *The Earth and Life Upon It*; Book V, *From Sun to Earth*; Book VI, *The Earth Then and Now.*

3. In the *Curriculum Foundation Series*, Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago, offer *Science Stories*, Books I, II, and III for primary grades; and *Discovering Our World*, Books I, II, and III for the middle grades. Under the general supervision of Dean W. S. Gray and through the scientific direction of the editor, Wilbur L. Beauchamp, these books present accurate scientific knowledge in a style interesting to children.

4. *The Wonderworld of Science* by Warren Knox and others (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) include Books I, II, and III for primary grades. Illustrated by Alma Froderstrom and Theodore Miller, these delightful books will appeal greatly to small children.

5. *Adventures in Science* by Harry A. Carpenter and others (Boston: Allyn and Bacon) include three books at the present time (1940), *With*

Judy and Joe, With Bob and Don, and *With Jane and Paul.* Mechanical defects in color printing and in type will probably be corrected in later editions. The series will eventually include books for all six grades.

6. Houghton Mifflin Company offers science materials for the grades in several forms — such supplemental material as *Garden Time* by Julia L. Hahn in the *Billy and Frisky* series, a definite health series of which *Aleck and His Friends* by Blanche Dearborn is typical, and several titles for the middle and upper grades such as Mary I. Curtis's *From Robin to Junco.* Colored photography added to excellent text makes this last title an unusually valuable contribution to the classroom library.

7. Norton, John K., and Margaret A. Norton, *The Foundations of Curriculum Making,* Chapter XII, "Science."

8. Jeans, Sir James, and others, *Scientific Progress.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936. The Sir Halley Stewart Lectures for 1935. "A man's reach should exceed his grasp," and the teacher needs to know more about developments in modern science than are contained in the science readers used by her pupils. This is an excellent background book.

9. Haslett, A. W., *Everyday Science.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1937. This is required reading for the teacher who wishes to orient herself to the "brave new world" of science. In fact, Professor Haslett uses the phrase as the title of Chapter IV. Very easy and fascinating reading.

10. The reader who will consult *Progressive Education* for October, 1931, will find many pages of usable ideas on elementary school science. Excellent photographic illustrations.

11. Noll, Victor H., *The Teaching of Science in the Elementary and Secondary Schools.* New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. A recent and helpful discussion.

12. *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher.* Joint Yearbook, American Research Association and Department of Classroom Teachers, Chapter XI, "Science."

CHAPTER SEVEN

◇

The Language Arts— Form and Substance

THE language arts field is one of the richest and most interesting from which the teacher may draw experiences for her children, but in general, "language," as it appears on elementary school time schedules, is probably the most poorly taught and most meagerly implemented of all subjects in the curriculum.

Our earliest schools were reading and writing schools, and our earliest "grammar" schools specialized on grammar because the more able pupils were to spend several years in mastering Latin as a prerequisite to training for professional life. After the Civil War, when Latin became less significant in secondary education, elementary schools retained the formal aspects of language — reading and writing in primary grades and formal grammar in the upper grades — even though the respectable motive which had served for the teaching of grammar in the earlier schools had nearly entirely disappeared.

About the turn of the century (1890–1910), grammar began to give way to "usage" and much of the time given to language was devoted to learning how to speak correctly, how to avoid the common errors of speech, how to punctuate, how to use capital letters, how to put letters and compositions in as nearly correct form as possible. With very few exceptions, this is the

concept of language taught in the elementary schools today. For most children, learning in the language period is entirely unmotivated, and the material presented is dry and uninteresting because it is outside their experience. The poor teacher finds that the rich plantations and lush meadows in which her children might enjoy themselves are surrounded by a stone wall and that she cannot unlock the door to let them in because she does not have the key. The tragedy of it all is that the key is easily accessible, is at hand, is in plain sight, and all the teacher needs to do is to take it and use it and open up to her children a whole world of new and thrilling adventure. The key is in the statement: *Language is a form of social behavior.* In fact we could go a step farther and say that it is *the* form of social behavior, the means whereby people are able to live and work together, and that its absence would make any form of social living impossible.

Language is a form of social behavior. It is interesting to note the revival in recent years of the power of the spoken word. An elementary school system gone mad on the subject of silent reading is now turning back to much oral reading, to discussion and debate, to conferences and panels, to oral reports and broadcasts. We owe a great deal to Hitler and Mussolini for showing us how powerful the spoken word may be in forming the mind of man over the radio. In our own country, the President's "fireside talks" over the air reach forty million listeners or more. Speech may be made a thing of beauty and of power: of power, if something is said that is worth listening to; and of beauty if it is said beautifully. The social behavior of millions of people both here and abroad is being molded daily by the spoken word which reaches them.

Suppose that in your city a dictator took absolute charge of affairs and was able to enforce an edict that, commencing tomorrow morning, no form of language might be used. You could ride down in the elevator of your apartment house but you could not speak to the operator. You could not say "good morning" to the desk clerk or to the mechanic in the

garage. You would reach your favorite café for breakfast but you could not exchange the usual morning greetings with the waitress or ask for the articles of food you desired. When you arrived at school you could not talk to the principal, teachers, or children, you could not give instructions orally or write them on the board, or have a reading lesson. The business man could not use his telephone or send telegrams or confer with his associates or receive callers or write letters or give dictation or see what the morning paper had to say. *Language is a form of social behavior.*

I. The Spoken Word

1. *Incidental Conversation*

We mean by this the nearly continuous informal talking, back and forth, of children when they are living successfully in a social group. First of all, let us have much good conversation for at least five valid reasons: (*a*) Because it adds to the solidarity of the group. Children who are habitually silent find difficulty in getting acquainted. Children who talk freely together find many common interests. (*b*) Because it satisfies the very human need for recognition. If people enjoy talking with us, we have a heightened sense of self-importance. (*c*) Because ability to take part in conversation and continued practice in it gives poise and confidence. (*d*) Because practice in conversation results in increased fluency of expression, and (*e*) Because conversation helps to build vocabulary.

The obstacles to good conversation need to be eliminated. Occasionally, one finds a classroom displaying signs "No whispering" or "Talk only when necessary." Occasionally one finds a corner of the blackboard devoted to lists of "whisperers." Now, whispering should be discouraged but for other reasons than the ones usually given. Whispering is "bad manners" — the person who whispers deliberately excludes all but one person from the conversation. Whispering has something shameful about it, it is a sly and furtive thing. The child

who has something to say in confidence to another child calls far less attention to himself by speaking in a low voice, dispels the impression of secrecy, and actually disturbs other children less. The rule "Talk only when necessary" would be absurd in any social gathering and the class in a modern school is a social group. Often, the unexpected thought, the bright and sparkling idea that flashes into the mind, gives rise to a comment which affords much pleasure to the group. Technically it may be totally unnecessary and actually, perfectly charming.

The members of the class should be helped to formulate sensible rules for the control of casual conversation so that it may be held within the limits of good taste and good judgment. One class made the following rules:

(*a*) Give the other fellow a chance.
(*b*) Be a good listener.
(*c*) Avoid personalities.
(*d*) Respect the opinions of others.
(*e*) Do not let conversation interfere with work.

The teacher may find it advisable to suggest a sixth rule to the children: Let us have occasional conversational "dead spots" when there is no conversation so that we can be quiet and rest.

> And silence like a poultice comes
> To heal the blows of sound.

The teacher who has set up an adequate and enriched environment for the children in her classroom, and out of that environment has provided good experiences for her children, will not need to worry very much over the *quantity* of incidental conversation. There will be a great deal of it. The teacher's job in this connection is to improve the *quality* by indirect suggestion and control. Contrariwise, as Tweedledee, in *Alice in Wonderland*, says, the teacher who works in a meager environment and provides few living experiences will find her children silent most of the time because, literally, they have nothing to talk about.

Two types of conversationalist need special attention, the

subnormal and the abnormal. The former is usually the shy, reticent, timid, fearful child who is oversensitive to the reactions of other children. The teacher's best plan here is to give constant encouragement even to the slightest response. "Children, did you hear what Mary said? Wasn't that nice? We're so proud of you, Mary." The initiative here has to be with the child. Often the teacher with real sympathy and poor judgment will hound a child to speak, whereas the better plan is to let nature take its course until the reticent child begins to feel secure in the social group, then to observe the child carefully and continuously and build on the child's own first halting contributions to the conversation of the group.

The abnormal conversationalist is the child whose "tongue is hinged in the middle and swings at both ends," the child who sticks his conversational oar in at the most inopportune times. The teacher can use group opinion, the public opinion of her little democracy, to curb this type of child, but a more direct way is to say, "Now, George, let's say one thing at a time and say it well. Just one, George. That's very good, indeed. Children, don't you think it is more fun for us when George speaks slowly and quietly? Wasn't George good to let someone else have a chance to speak?"

Let us always talk to children as though they were reasonable human beings — which they are. The grown-ups who address children as "moppets," [1] as "tiny tots," and as the "dear little kiddies" should be made to face a firing squad come next sunrise. The children need to have self-respect built for, with, and into them, and the teacher who talks to her children in the same sensible language she uses with a fellow-teacher (bearing in mind, of course, that she must fit her vocabulary to her hearers), is building poise and self-esteem. On the other hand, the teacher will do well to set both her vocabulary and her conversational style slightly above those of her children so that they may have something to which they may attain by a little added extra effort. The teacher should always be a "model"

[1] The magazines *Life* and *Time*, please take note!

to her children as far as voice quality, articulation, and pronunciation are concerned. Remember what Shakespeare said:

> Her voice was ever soft,
> Gentle, and low — an excellent thing in woman.

and he might have added, excellent in men and children also.

To repeat, let the teacher always strive for the improvement of the quality of incidental conversation by setting an example in style and diction, by helping the children to enrich their personal vocabularies, and by encouraging the child who uses the "right word" and the "felicitous phrase." Let the teacher watch her inflection. Alas, our American spoken language is too often totally uninflected and our monotonous spoken sentences bore the cultured foreigner who speaks a highly inflected and sonorous language. The voice is a musical instrument; let us remember the fact and learn to play on it beautifully and effectively. The teacher will help her children greatly if she always speaks to them slowly and deliberately. After a while the children will unconsciously imitate her, with a rapid increase in speech quality as the result.

2. *Conference and Discussion*

In conference and discussion periods we have a more formal language situation because we are engaged in planning, or observing a plan at work, or in evaluation, or in all three. Here the teacher needs to have a firmer grasp of the resulting conversation. All the rules laid down in the preceding paragraphs apply here with some additions:

(*a*) "Suit the action to the word and the word to the action" — in other words, stick to the point, and don't run down every conversational back alley that presents itself.

(*b*) Encourage good taste and good judgment. In selecting current events for comment, avoid the superficial and the gruesome, as well as items that might offend some child because of reference to race or economic condition.

(*c*) Take advice as well as give advice. Be tolerant and open-minded.

3. *The Report*

Here is an even more formal language situation. All the above rules apply and again, some new ones may be added:

(*a*) Let us have fewer, shorter, and better reports. The report is the curse of the elementary school as the notebook is the curse of the junior high school. The period for oral reports should not exceed fifteen minutes at the most and each speaker should be limited in time. Quantity does not make up for lack of quality.

(*b*) Let every report have an organic unity of its own; in other words, begin at the beginning, go on through the middle, and stop at the end. Here is a good chance to begin serious work on the "form" which is discussed later in this chapter.

(*c*) Vary the formal report occasionally by allowing the teacher to "interview" the reporter, and by question-and-answer and good conversation bring out the desired facts. Children hear this technique over the radio very often and it is familiar to many of them.

(*d*) Use the report period to develop leadership: a good oral report given with brevity and charm often indicates a potential leader.

(*e*) Bring home to the children the idea that in the report, which is a more formal instrument, certain licenses permissible in casual conversation are barred. Eliminate slang and purely vernacular expressions. Here is an opportunity for the children to learn that in America we have many "languages" and that the report is primarily "business language" and only incidentally "social language," although the social element is always present.[1]

(*f*) Let the teacher do the necessary suggesting and criticizing. Often children are harmed by the criticism of other chil-

[1] The reader is referred to an excellent article by R. C. Pooley in *Educational Method* for March, 1937, "The Levels of Language." Doctor Pooley lists six "languages" or language levels in daily use — illiterate, homely, informal, formal, literary, and technical. This book, for example, is written on the "informal standard level" with the exception of quoted material which is on Doctor Pooley's "literary" or "technical" level.

dren. The speaker has a right to the opinion of the expert in preference to the opinion of the amateur.

4. *Social Conventions*

Children should be taught and be given constant practice in those social conventions which require speech: how to be a good host or hostess; how to make introductions; how to be a welcome guest; how to meet adults without losing the charm of childhood by being painfully reticent on the one hand or painfully "fresh" on the other; how to depart gracefully. All these are vital parts of the language arts program. Most teachers neglect this rich field of experience and it is probable that many schools are not visited enough to give children adequate opportunities to acquire the social graces. It is a mistake to conclude that these can be safely relegated to the home, as many homes represented by public school children are lacking in the amenities.

The telephone conventions should be taught: to speak in a clear, distinct voice, to be brief, to be definite and business-like, to be courteous. They are part of the social training of adults and of children alike. The similar conventions necessary in the store, in the market, on the street-car and bus, at the motion-picture theater, at church, and so on should receive attention whenever circumstances can be capitalized to make the teaching effective.

II. Dramatic Play and Dramatization

Dramatic play and dramatization are techniques which are valuable in many respects. From the standpoint of the language arts they are especially valuable in the direction of developing good conversation, both incidental and formal. The teacher who knows how to handle these techniques is in a position to make a fine contribution to the language arts program.

Let us begin by defining our terms. What do we mean by

dramatic play? There is no better definition than that given in Corinne Brown's [1] *Creative Drama in the Lower School.*

> Dramatic play is that form of childish make-believe that centers around a social experience.

Note the three essentials:

It must be childish.

It must be make-believe.

It must be based upon a social experience, i.e., it must be based upon an action familiar to the child in the group life of which he is a part. It reflects some social situation at home or outside the home with which he is thoroughly familiar.

A fourth essential should be added:

It must allow the child to identify himself completely with the character he portrays — he does not act a part, he *is* the person he represents.

Let us notice the following instances of play in which children might participate.

1. A funeral has taken place in the neighborhood and the children hold a funeral in the back yard. It does not represent a desirable form of dramatic play although it is make-believe and is based on a social situation and the mourners "identify" themselves with their parts with great gusto. The point is that this particular play is not *childish* — it represents a social situation into which children should not enter.

2. A little girl goes into the playhouse, sits down before the cardboard fireplace and says to two other little girls: "Now, I am Cinderella and you must be my wicked sisters." This is not dramatic play although it is childish and it is make-believe. It is not based upon a *social situation* in the daily experience of the children. Cinderellas are not common in everyday life, we are glad to say.

3. Two little girls are cleaning the playhouse — washing dishes, sweeping the floor, rearranging the furniture. The dishes need to be washed, the floor needs to be swept and the

[1] New York: Appleton and Company, 1929, p. 3.

furniture needs rearrangement. This is not dramatic play although it is childish and is based upon a very familiar social situation — it is not *make-believe.*

4. The same little girls are in the playhouse. One says to the other, "Oh, dear, I'm so glad the children have gone to school, because the house is a sight and I can't do a thing with the children underfoot all the time. Would you like to help me clean house, Mrs. Jones?"

This is dramatic play — it is make-believe, it is childish, it is based upon real experience and the actors *are* Mrs. Brown and Mrs. Jones, for the moment at least.

To make clear the difference between dramatic play and dramatization, let us analyze what happens when Miss Helen Hayes plays *Victoria Regina.* Unlike "Mrs. Jones" and "Mrs. Brown," Miss Hayes suffers from certain limitations. She is limited by her script which decides what she is to say; she is limited by her part, the personality she is to represent; she is limited by her audience, which expects her to entertain them. The essence of dramatization, then, as opposed to dramatic play is that the former must conform to a pattern-to-be-followed, while the latter is spontaneous and the pattern is made up as one goes along.

Let us take next the situation where a fifth grade class is studying pioneer life and,

> by reading and discussion and by acquiring information,
> by constructing and furnishing a pioneer home,
> by making and wearing pioneer costumes,
> by making and using pioneer tools and weapons,
> by representing events in pioneer life,

add to their knowledge of the period and acquire fresh incentives for acquiring further knowledge.

This is usually called dramatic play, but the use of the term here is questionable. Remember that it was said that the fourth element in dramatic play is the identification of the actor with the part. It is said that these children actually become pioneers for the moment, hence they are engaged in dramatic

or representative play. This is a dubious argument. In the first place, no one of us can ever effect complete identification with another culture. The pioneers were what they were by reason of their birth, their daily experiences, the culture of their time. It is absurd to think that elementary school children can bridge that gap successfully. On the other hand, "Mrs. Jones" and "Mrs. Brown" can achieve identification because they are reliving a culture of which they are daily participants.

In the second place, these fifth graders are limited by the facts they must keep in mind during the representation which they are attempting, by the personalities they represent (one cannot spontaneously conjure Daniel Boone out of a hat!) and by the audience situation in which the players find themselves.

It may be asked, "What difference does it make whether this be dramatic play or dramatization?" The answer is, that attempts to relive an alien culture in the manner described may result in an appalling waste of time. A clever teacher with an adequate textbook may be able to give children in a few lessons what it might take weeks to accomplish by the other method. It seems far better and far more economical to rely upon straight dramatization of those events in pioneer life which are considered desirable to portray, based upon a simple script written by the children.

What, then, is the ideal relationship between dramatic play and dramatization? In general, dramatic play is most effective with small children and becomes increasingly ineffective as children grow older. Dramatization is most effective with children of the nine-year-old level and beyond. In other words, dramatization increases in value as dramatic play decreases in value.

What provision may the primary teacher make for dramatic play? The playhouse, the classroom store, market, post-office, fire station, and airport (among many others) offer delightful experiences in dramatic play because each represents a phase of the culture in which we live. Certain types of

school equipment are invaluable adjuncts to dramatic play: dolls, toy boats, toy railroad trains, toy airplanes, and blocks of all sizes give children many experiences in representative play illustrating familiar phases of current American life.

Through dramatic play the small child finds a great variety of means of self-expression: informal conversation, asking questions, giving information, holding discussions, planning, telling stories, learning and using new words, adding to the richness of sentence structure, practice in the social conventions.

In the middle and upper grades, dramatic play will be found most useful when it is used as an introduction to dramatization. For example, in *Ships and Navigation* by Tompsie Baxter and Bess M. Young,[1] there is a very good account of the way in which dramatic play grows into dramatization. A group of children who had been studying the life of Robert Fulton desired to present a play on the subject. In its earlier stages, the efforts of the children took the form of dramatic play. The children improvised both dialogue and action until the members of the group were able by trial-and-error, to settle upon the script to be followed in its final representation. No scenery was used at first, and the scenery finally decided upon was drawn in chalk on the blackboard. At the end of the period through which the class had worked out the play, dramatic play had crystallized into dramatization.

Another illustration is found in Jessie B. Eakright and Bess M. Young's *Adventuring With Toys*[2] where a fourth grade decided to write a play. This, of course, in its earliest stages was pure dramatization. When it came to writing the actual scenes, however, the children's invention failed, and it was found necessary to fall back upon spontaneous creation of dialogue, gesture, and action until new ideas developed. This phase, then, was almost pure dramatic play rather than dramatization.

[1] New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933.

[2] *Ibid.*

What provision shall the teacher make for dramatization? In the lower grades, the best approach is through pantomime because pantomime centers attention on action rather than on dialogue. For little children the effort to develop "speeches" may prove a burden beyond their strength whereas pantomime is instinctive with them. The essence of a play, anyway, is action, and more plays have failed because of the lack of action than for any other reasons. Shakespeare was a genius as far as literary quality is concerned, but his success as a playwright during his lifetime was due to the fact that something happened in his plays. The raw materials for dramatization with little children may be nursery rhymes, nursery tales, Mother Goose, or familiar classics such as *Peter Rabbit* or *Little Black Sambo.* Set to music, pantomimes may develop into creative rhythms, rather stiff and stilted at first, until practice frees the intractable muscles into something delightful and inspiring.

As facility in language increases, it becomes possible to develop spontaneous dialogue suited to the story in hand, made up "on the spot" to accompany the pantomime until a complete fusion is made of gesture and dialogue.

In these early stages of dramatization it is likely that the sequence of events will be somewhat as follows:

1. The selection of the story through group conferences.
2. The determination of the scenes in the play.
3. Decision as to scenery and properties needed.
4. Running through the story in pantomime.
5. Trying out various children in spontaneous dialogue accompanying the pantomime until the cast of characters is complete.
6. Crystallizing the fluid play into a more or less definite pattern.

The children will be apt to suggest many short scenes in preference to few long scenes, as the interest span of little children is short. Scenery may be merely stated: "This is the house of the old witch"; or it may be indicated on the blackboard. Costumes will be very sketchy. As children grow older, the scenes will decrease in number and increase in length,

and properties, scenery and costumes will receive greater consideration. As children grow still older, the final step is taken when action, dialogue, sequence of scenes, and properties are all reduced to a written script by a small group of playwrights. About the 10–12-year-old level, dramatization becomes functional and the class divides its membership among "authors," "directors," "scenic producers," "stage hands," and, of course, the actual cast of the play.

With children of these upper grades, it is a delightful adventure to attempt Shakespeare. For the sake of the fifth and sixth grade teachers who will raise their hands in holy horror at the idea, reference is made to *The Play Way* by Cook.[1] This is a detailed account of the experiences of a teacher in a private school during his production of Shakespeare's plays by preadolescent and adolescent boys. The writer has seen sixth grade classes in American schools dramatize parts of *Midsummer Night's Dream*, *Julius Caesar*, and the *Merchant of Venice* with gratifying results. Surely it is far better to allow children to experiment with the work of a master playwright than to confine them to the mediocre stuff found in most "dramatic readers."

III. Form and Substance

In most modern classrooms *substance*, or *what* children are to say, almost takes care of itself. The teacher who sets up a rich environment in her classroom, and by means of it provides varied and worth-while experiences for her children finds that the children have much to talk about. The small daily events which happen in the class; social studies and science units; adventures in music, art, and rhythms; practical experiences in shop and garden; world events; trips and excursions — all are sources of much good "substance" in language.

Now, for *form*, or *how* something is said.

Here are some basic principles:

1. The principle of *parsimony* — never say something in

[1] New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1917.

many words if you can say it equally well in few words. There were two orations given one afternoon at Gettysburg. It is the short and simple oration which is remembered today.

Wordsworth sometimes violated this principle but no one could observe it more effectively:

A violet by a mossy stone
  Half hidden from the eye;
Fair as a star when only one
  Is shining in the sky.

2. The principle of *economy* — say as much as you can in as few words as possible. You will remember the opening sentence of a very famous story:

> A man went down from Jerusalem to Jericho and fell among thieves who wounded him and stript him of his raiment and departed, leaving him half dead.

You would have to work hard to write a sentence which tells so much in so few words. And again, the Gettysburg Address on this point.

3. The principle of *unity* — have a beginning, a middle, and an end to what you say or write.

4. The principle of *decoration* or *enrichment* — use the right word and the felicitous phrase. You may remember Wordsworth's poem to the young lady who had been accused by the village gossips of being a tomboy. His advice to her was to do what she pleased and let the gossips talk. Note the last stanza:

Thy thoughts and feelings shall not die
Nor leave thee when old age is nigh
  A melancholy slave;
But an old age, serene and bright
And lovely as a Lapland night
Will bring thee to thy grave.

Does not the next-to-last line bring a picture before you? the steel-blue winter sky shot with all the colors of the Aurora Borealis?

And again Wordsworth:

> And oft when on my couch I lie,
> In vacant or in pensive mood,
> They flash upon that inward eye
> Which is the bliss of solitude.

No one has ever described day-dreaming more effectively.

5. The principle of *austerity* — never use enrichment if you can get the same effect by being simple. Do you recall what Mathew Arnold said in his essay on translating Homer?

> He is eminently rapid; he is eminently *plain* and *direct* both in the evolution of his thought and in the expression of it, that is, both in his syntax and his words. He is eminently *plain* and *direct* in the substance of his thought, that is, in his matter and ideas. And finally, he is eminently noble.

Let us always help children to be plain, simple, and direct in all that they say and write, unless there is real opportunity for enrichment.

Here is an example of austerity from the Greek Anthology.

An Inscription by the Sea

> No dust have I to cover me,
> My grave no man can show;
> My tomb is the unending sea
> And I lie far below.
> My fate, O Stranger, was to drown
> And where it was the ship went down
> Is what the sea-birds know.

And now, how to apply these principles:

1. The first step is to study good sentences so as to teach the children how to master the sentence. Collect good sentences from the oral and written expressions of members of the class, examine them to ascertain what makes them "good," and so build up standards. First, emphasize substance, then begin to refine on form.

> "Children, did you notice what a good sentence John used just now in his report? Let us write it on the board and see if we can find out his secret of a good sentence."

As an alternative method, the teacher may prefer to collect a long list of good sentences and then to devote an entire period to them as a work-shop in English. The fatal mistake here is to select sentences from a language text and use them for building standards. It is the personal touch that counts. On the other hand, the children should be encouraged to look out for unusually felicitous sentences in their reading material.

2. The second step (fifth grade and above) is to see that a sentence has

a beginning — a *subject*
an ending — a *predicate*

and that a sentence is a group of words that tells something about something. The "something" told about is the subject of the sentence. The "something" doing the telling is the predicate. Do not give children definitions to be memorized at this stage. Children can repeat definitions glibly and by the yard, without having the least idea of what they mean. When you begin to help children recognize subject and predicate, do so by many examples taken from the children's daily work. *Definitions are deadly.*

3. The third step is to learn that the vital word in the subject is a *noun* or *pronoun*, the vital word in the predicate is a *verb.* Again, give much practice in recognizing nouns, pronouns, and verbs from the children's own work, and avoid making definitions to be memorized. (Good heavens! Are we teaching grammar? Yes, to this extent. Why not?)

4. The fourth step is to learn how a sentence is strengthened by using modifiers or "enrichers" — the *adjective* and *adverbs.*

"Come in!" the Mayor cried, looking bigger.
And in did come the strangest figure!
His queer long coat, from heel to head
Was half of yellow and half of red;
And he himself was tall and thin,
With sharp blue eyes, each like a pin,
And light loose hair, yet swarthy skin,
But lips where smiles went out and in;

There was no guessing his kith and kin;
And nobody could enough admire
The tall man and his quaint attire.

What about Written Expression? There is just one rule to be observed, with no exceptions!

Don't write unless you have a justifiable motive for writing!

One of the best devices for motivating written language is to have a room newspaper and to broadcast it daily, rather than to mimeograph or print it. Require each child to become a reporter and require one news story a day in written form from each child. Appoint a committee of two children and the teacher to select each day the five best stories and have these "put on the air." From this modest beginning may grow a newspaper in mimeographed or printed form, complete with editors, reporters, and "rewrite men." Try for substance first, then tighten up on form. Have a few simple rules such as these:

1. Writing must be legible. All stories not legibly written will be promptly filed in the waste basket without being read.
2. Spelling must be as good as is humanly possible.
3. Don't let your stories get into the hands of the "rewrite" men any oftener than you can. Cultivate a decent style of your own.

Publicize the good stories elsewhere in the school; children need recognition. Study with your class examples of good newspaper stories; your daily papers have columnists and some of these do admirable work. Read with the children William Allen White's editorial on the death of Mary White, one of the great classics of the newspaper world. Help children to see that there is no thrill comparable to the thrill of getting the creative spirit to work. When the spirit moves one, writing becomes almost automatic, and you sit on top of the world.

A good deal of nonsense has been spoken and written on "creative" writing by children, as if it were something esoteric and intangible and apart from the concerns of everyday life. In the most literal sense of the word, every bit of spoken and

written language which springs from the heart and mind of the person concerned and which is directed toward a definite goal is creative. The enthusiast who overemphasizes the creative aspect of language ends by setting up false standards of work which do far more harm than good to the child. The teacher who seeks guidance on this point will do well to read the monograph by Flora J. Arnstein, *Poetry in the Elementary Grades.*[1]

The following experiences in the language arts taken from actual classroom situations should prove helpful.

1. *Issuing the School Newspaper*

(10–13-Year-Olds)

Initiation:

The children in the room were very much interested in the school newspaper that had been issued the previous semester by their predecessors. Several of them asked if their class might issue the paper this term.

Their interest and background were further enhanced from hearing a book on the subject. The book chosen and read by the teacher was *Waterfront Beat,*[2] an interesting adventure story relating the experiences of Tim Squires, a young cub reporter. The book was filled with newspaper terms which the children unconsciously absorbed.

The children were interested in the news of the day. Many read the newspaper at home each day and were eager to discuss world happenings at school. They decided that their paper, like some of the big metropolitan dailies, might have a broadcasting studio and send out news flashes every morning. This led to the formation of a committee of boys who were interested in making a microphone. These boys held a meeting to plan just how it could be made, and after many wild and impractical schemes had been suggested, it was decided that a very con-

[1] Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1939.

[2] Howard M. Brier (New York: Random House, 1937).

vincing looking microphone could be made from a coffee can, a broom handle, and some boards. The plan was presented to the class for approval, and that very afternoon the necessary materials were brought to school by eager contributors.

These broadcasts brought out the fact that the language used must be of good quality. In a discussion period, the children decided that since broadcasting was very expensive per minute, and if the program was not interesting people would not stay tuned in, they had better set up some standards for their broadcasts. They arrived at the following criteria:

Stand straight.
Speak distinctly.
Know what you are going to say.
Say it in your own words.

The map of the world was in constant use in order to locate the places mentioned in the news articles. It was suggested that it might be a good idea to make a map which would be displayed permanently and to which the news clippings could be pinned, thus showing at a glance the locale of the items. Three children volunteered to work together and produced a very creditable six-foot map of the world.

The teacher provided several books on the subject in which the children were free to browse, and some special reports were assigned to those who wished to make individual contributions to the class. Some of the books were:

Mann, James W., *The Student Editor.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938.

Floherty, John Joseph, *Your Daily Paper.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1938.

Otto, William Naill, and M. E. Marye, *Journalism for High Schools.* New edition; New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937.

Harrington, Harry Franklin and Evaline, *Writing for Print.* Revised edition; Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1929.

Marshak, Ilia I., *Black on White.* Beatrice Kincead, translator; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1932.

Rolt-Wheeler, Francis William, *News-Hunters.* Boston: Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Company, 1926.

Besides these, several different newspapers were available, including some foreign papers in which the students were interested in finding common features.

Subsequent Experiences:

The upper groups at this time were privileged to hear a lecture on termite control by an expert employed by the Board of Education. It was decided that this would be a very good news item for the paper. The members of the class thought they would like to write this first one jointly, the teacher acting as secretary. However, it was soon apparent that the story sounded more like a composition than a professional news item. This led to a discovery of what a news story is, what a lead is, what the most important thing in a news story is, and what the most important place in the lead is. After this had been decided upon, after some research and examination of actual news stories, standards were set up and a second attempt was made to write the news story. This time it was acceptable.

The students then decided that in order to plan the set-up of the paper, they should have a "dummy." A large sheet of paper served for this, and the first news story was placed tentatively in position.

In a discussion period the class then took a mental survey of the sources of news in the school and were amazed to find that a reporter in their school hardly needed a "nose for news" in order to find something interesting to write about. A long list of sources was compiled, and from this each child chose a subject upon which he would like to write. This led to a study of the best methods of interviewing.

The stories that were written were not all of the news-story type, which led the children to become familiar with editorials and special feature articles.

At this time, the supervisor sent the children a copy of a paper that another school had published. The children enjoyed looking over this paper, and thought it might be helpful

to exchange their own paper with other schools. In order that someone would assume responsibility for this, it was suggested that an exchange editor be elected, and a competent girl was chosen. Her first duty was to write a letter thanking the supervisor for the paper she had sent. She brought the first draft of her letter to class, and the class evaluated it according to the instructions for letter writing in their language books. It was finally approved and the editor was instructed to send it. Her next duty was to prepare a letter to be sent to some of the schools that were known to issue papers asking them for copies of their papers, and promising a copy in return. This letter also had to be approved by the class before it was sent.

In order that the classroom should take on the atmosphere of a newspaper office, some of the boys decided to make a pigeon-hole box where reporters might get their assignments, and some of the girls cut out letters so that official-looking signs might be spotted.

Each child tried to think of a suitable name for the paper. In order to make a choice a long list of names of papers was compiled, each child suggesting three names. Each child also suggested a slogan. The name and slogan of the paper were then selected by vote.

At this time, the class carefully examined a metropolitan daily. In sampling it, they found that there were many things the children needed to learn about: headlines, human interest copy, feature articles, editorials, essays, the letter box, contributors' columns, topical verse, critical reviews, sports writing, fashions, home-making sections, and advertisements. It was found that most papers had poems in them, so it was decided that some of the verses written by members of the class and of which the class was very proud should be included.

Some of the goals the children hoped to accomplish through the interest of the class in their room newspaper are:

To organize the staff democratically.
To experience copyreading, proofreading, and rewriting.

To experience visiting the plant of the Los Angeles *Times*.
To express these experiences in a creative way by:
writing;
painting pictures of the rolls of paper, or some other feature that impressed the children on their trip;
composing a song about the paper, or the newsboy;
creating a rhythm depicting presses at work;
writing, acting, and producing a play that depicts the romance of the newspaper.
To experience personal contacts with newspaper people.
To find out how paper is made.
To find out something of the history of printing.
To study the history of records.

2. *A Theater Group*
(11–12-Year-Olds)

A few children expressed a desire to present plays, so they immediately set about searching for material. Some of the questions that arose were:

(*a*) Where were the first plays given?
(*b*) Where was the first theater?
(*c*) Why was the first theater not enclosed?
(*d*) Of what materials was it built?
(*e*) What kind of plays followed the Greek plays?
(*f*) How did we happen to have music?
(*g*) Who first put music in written form?
(*h*) What were the first musical instruments?

A few children decided to make a map showing where musical instruments had their beginnings. A world map was drawn and painted, pictures, $2'' \times 4''$, of musical instruments were pasted around the map, with a string connecting each picture with the country in which it originated.

Seasonal plays were presented by this group. Sometimes the children made simple scenery and costumes. The puppet group, which was making a complete study of puppets from ancient days to the present, constructed their own puppets. Often this group worked with the theater group in the presentation of plays and puppet shows.

3. *A Classroom Radio Broadcast*

(11–12-Year-Olds)

This idea grew out of a unit on communication as an incentive in improving the English of the various members of the class.

The cloakroom has been turned into the office of the Production Manager, Lorin. A sign on the wall of the office reads:

> Radio Station O.S.R. 7 (Orange Street, Room 7)
> Orange and Black Network (colors of the school)
> Production Manager — Lorin
> Office — Please enter

Another sign:

> Reporters
> News — Bill
> Special Events — Webster
> Drama — Phillis
> Music — Charlotte
> Room news — Jack
> — Lois

Another chart is labeled:

> Everyone in this room works with the department heads. All department heads must have their written plans for the program in to Production Manager by Wednesday. The program is given on Friday morning at nine A.M. (in the cloakroom).

A Broadcast of Station O.S.R. 7

Lorin, the announcer:

"This is station O.S.R. 7. The Orange and Black Network. When the gong sounds, it will be 3 minutes after 9 A.M."

(Sound of bell)

"I will now turn the microphone over to Bill who will take charge of the news broadcast."

Bill, the news commentator:

"San Francisco, California. The Pan-American Clipper, in trial flight, flew from Guam to Wake Island in 10 hours 16 minutes."

He called on the following for news bulletins:

Mary Ann. "Museum's Hobby Displays"
Claud. "Crown Prince and Princess of Denmark to make journey to U.S."
Richard. "Airplane crash and burning"
Ernest. "Bobsled accident (humorous)"
Bobbie. "Fisherman captures huge sea spider"
Louis. "Testing landing gear at Metropolitan Airport"
Kenneth. "First flight London to Australia, 1919"

Station announcement — Time and gong, 9.24 A.M.

Special Events

Girl Scouts gave Scout oath and sang "Hiking Song."

George: Health Program

Talked on sleep and rest, bringing out the following points:

Most people need eight hours of sleep.
Plenty of air in home is needed.
Drink plenty of water every day.
Plenty of exercise in sunshine is needed.
Wear comfortable clothing.
Hard work is good for you.

Charlotte: Music Reporter

Gave history of Elgar's *Pomp and Circumstance*, followed by playing of the record.

Station announcement — Time and gong, 9.33 A.M.

Dick: Sports Reporter

Reported on fancy skating at Lake Placid Clubhouse

Room News Reporters gave items.

Station announcement — Time and gong, 9.37 A.M.

An original play by Betty Low — "Adventure in Hawaii"

Characters: Mr. Jones
Mrs. Jones
Their two children

Scene I takes place as two adults and two children watch the volcano erupting.
Children get too near.
Call for help.

Scene II — children are in bedroom.
Wake up to find it was a dream.

Station announcement — Time and gong, 9.45 A.M.

4. *A Trip to Columbia Broadcasting Station*

(10–11-Year-Olds)

The pupils in this room in their study of communication had visited a telephone exchange. They saw the wiring for radio, and as a result greatly desired to visit a broadcasting station, so arrangements were made to make a visit to Columbia Square in Hollywood.

Before the Bus Came

The boys and girls came in quietly, but an air of excitement and expectancy filled the air. Mrs. R. commented on the appearance of the pupils. "I am glad to see my family so nice and clean, and that you didn't feel as if you had to dress up for a party."

Rules of behavior were discussed.

B. "You must do what Mrs. R. or any other teacher or guide wants you to do, so there won't be any trouble."

D. "If they hear us make too much noise, the Studio might not let other children come."

Mrs. R. "Yes, that is a good point. You wouldn't want others deprived of the privilege of these trips because of your conduct. Look carefully and see how much information you can get. Just make mental notes. On the trip you may sit with anyone you especially like so you can enjoy the trip. Now, how are you going to act?"

L. "Let ladies go first."

M. "Is it all right to talk?"

Mrs. R. "Of course, but keep your voices low."

T. "Don't put your hands outside of the bus window."

Mrs. R. "That is a good point."

At the Studio

Guide: "We'll make this very informal. Ask any questions you like." He took them to the sound department, and introduced Mr. Betts, the sound engineer, who discussed the following sound effects with the children:

1. rattlesnake
2. opening bottles
3. elevator door
4. marching men
5. telephone
6. canary
7. raindrops
8. ocean waves
9. breaking windows
10. slamming door
11. tickers for new events
12. horses' hoofs

He explained the recordings used for sound effects:

1. airplane dives
2. crying baby
3. train leaving the station
4. types of cars — crashes, etc.
5. barnyard sounds
6. birds

Some of the questions asked of Mr. Betts were: "How do you imitate the sound of waves? of rifle shots? of breaking glass?"

The boys and girls were taken next to the sound stage where "Calling All Cars" is broadcast. The construction of the rooms was explained. "They are floating rooms, suspended to keep out vibrations of trucks, earthquake disturbances, etc. The walls are slanting. The wall is full of little holes. The sound goes through these holes to the rock wall."

The boys and girls saw a rehearsal of a musical show. They had a demonstration of television. They spoke into a microphone and their voice vibrations were registered as green lines on a machine. Each of the children and teachers had a turn in speaking through the microphone. The record was played back and they heard their voices. It was intensely interesting and amusing, and much laughter resulted.

The class was then taken to see a display of the products advertised by the sponsors and of photographs of actors taking part in the programs. They saw a teletypewriter for news, a sample of the walls, a map of stations, clocks showing Pacific time, Mountain time, Central and Eastern time. They saw an amplifier tube.

The guide asked them to sign the register, so they formed

in line to sign. At this time, the children asked many questions about their favorite programs. They then visited a large theater that seats a thousand people; then the control rooms where the innumerable gadgets inspired many questions.

In the Room After the Trip (10 to 12 minutes)

Mrs. R. "Put your heads down, close your eyes, and concentrate on something you saw about which you'd like to talk. Be sure what you say will interest everyone."

L. "I liked the part where we talked through the microphone and heard the record played back."

R. "I liked the way sounds were made. I didn't know before and now I do."

B. "I liked the first part — sound effects, guns, etc.

T. "I would have liked to find out why the walls are slanting and why the record wouldn't play on the regular machine at home."

E. "Because the record is played slowly."

Mrs. R. "Why are the walls slanting? They told us."

H. "So if there is an earthquake or busses pass, they can't hear them."

M. "I noticed the different clocks showing time in the different states."

The teacher made an outline of the topics discussed, on the blackboard:

1. The recording of our voices
2. Seeing how sound effects are made
3. Seeing the size of the auditorium
4. Seeing the construction of the studio
5. The quiet elevators
6. Seeing the clocks showing different times

5. *A Correspondence Club*

(10–12-Year-Olds)

Just after vacation when the children were telling of their summer experiences, Dick told about his trip from Kansas City, Missouri, to California. The class looked at the map to see the location of Kansas City. They asked him many

questions about what he had seen, how long it took him to drive out, and what states he had crossed.

A few days later he happened to mention the "open-air school" which he had attended in Kansas City. The class was interested in this kind of a school, and he answered their many questions very well. He said he would write a letter to his former teacher there and ask her to send a picture of the school.

The teacher suggested that perhaps he would like to write to some of his school friends there, but Dick thought this would necessitate too much letter writing.

Then some children in the class said they would help him. Perhaps the children in Kansas City would like some California "pen pals," as Patricia signed her first letter, and it was quickly adopted at both schools as a closing on the letters. Miss B., Dick's former teacher in Kansas City, answered Dick's letter by return mail and said the children in her room were glad to co-operate.

Lessons on letter forms, standards for neatness, good penmanship, page arrangement, and content, were enthusiastically enjoyed because there was a real motive for good work. The content of the first letters attempted was more or less in the nature of an introduction. The children wrote of their homes, their hobbies, their school, and in most cases a description of themselves.

The answers came at a most opportune time, the postman arriving during a reading lesson. What a good time we had! First we read our letters to ourselves. Even the teacher received one! Then we read them out loud to the group.

Following letters were longer, more interesting, more personal and friendly. At Christmas time, California and Missouri exchanged Christmas cards. We made ours with linoleum block prints, using original designs; some carried original verses. The day the Christmas cards came from Kansas City was just like Christmas morning, the stocking being in the form of a large manila envelope containing many lovely hand-decorated cards.

The last exchanges were picture postcards of interesting places in Wilmington, San Pedro, Long Beach, Los Angeles, and Yosemite. Other subjects were the California Redwoods and California flowers. These were mounted and a little personal note was written below each picture. A loose-leaf book cover was made and the sheets sent in the book to our friends in the middle west.

These are a few excerpts from their last correspondence:

> Since I have been telling you about our harbor, I am very happy to be able to send you this picture. This part of the harbor is a little farther away from the part where I live.
>
> When they made the breakwater, it took a long time. The rocks that made it came from Catalina Island. The boats loaded the rocks in the hold and dumped them in the ocean and formed a big wall. They are making another breakwater at Redondo Beach, California.
>
> (signed) Ronald
>
> Where the circle is marked with a pencil, is my Daddy's office. However the whole floor is the Customs' floor. Last Saturday we went over to see my Daddy. In the office they have a locker with things they have taken away from people.
>
> (signed) Marguerite
>
> This is a picture of Hollywood Bowl. I went there last year to listen to the Symphony Orchestra. As you see it is very large. It is up on a hill and it is very pretty. I hope you like the card.
>
> (signed) Jacqueline
>
> This is a picture of the mountains of California and this is a sycamore tree in a field. Poppies and lupines grow wild. Sometimes there are white and lavender lupines. The yellow poppy is the state flower of California.
>
> (signed) Owen

6. *A Wonder of the World*

(11–12-Year-Olds)

(A play about the invention of the telegraph)

Two boys in the class were very much interested in electricity and this interest carried over to the telegraph and com-

munication in general. Each of the boys made a telegraph set. Finally, the children decided to have a play. They read to get information and took notes until they had quite a biography on Morse. Some of the boys and girls brought books from home, others were from the school library. The children found in the course of their reading that all the books were not authentic, that much of the information was confusing, so that all information had to be checked with Compton's *Encyclopaedia* to be sure the data was correct.

The pupils followed the careers of some of Samuel Morse's contemporaries. They made a study of personalities and situations. One of the girls wrote scenes to give help in the action of the play and to serve as a guide to conversation. The dialogue was made up as the children went through the action of the play.

Little attention was paid to costuming. Stovepipe hats and stiff white collars satisfied the boys. The girls wore their mothers' clothes. Hats with many feathers and a few sunbonnets were the headgear.

All took part in the play, those not in leading rôles took part in the mob scenes. Dick, the boy chosen for the part of Morse, had been in the Corrective Speech class for stuttering all during his school life. When given the part, his whole personality seemed to change. He entered into the spirit of the part heart and soul.

An outline of the play appears below:

A Wonder of the World

Act I

Time: 1832
Place: On board S.S. Sally
Characters: Samuel F. B. Morse
Benjamin West, Artist

(West gives Morse a good motto which he always remembers.)

Act II

Time:	1832
Place:	On board S.S. Sally
Characters:	Samuel Morse
	Captain of the Sally
	Dr. Jackson

(Dr. Jackson shows Morse one of Ampère's electromagnets and the idea of the telegraph is conceived.)

Act III

Time:	1835
Place:	Morse's workshop in New York
Characters:	Samuel Morse
	His three children
	His pupil

(Hardship and poverty almost to starvation.)

Scene 2

Time:	Three years later
Place:	Morse's workshop in New York
Characters:	Morse
	Visitors
	Alfred Vail
	Mrs. Vail

(Mr. Vail gives financial backing.)

Act IV

Time:	Feb. 23, 1843
Place:	A street in Washington, D.C.
Characters:	Morse
	Annie Ellsworth

(On the last day of Congress, Morse receives word that his bill has been passed.)

Act V

Time:	March 3, 1843
Place:	Room in Supreme Court, Washington, D.C.
Characters:	Morse
	Annie Ellsworth
	Mrs. Ellsworth
	Congressman

(Morse sends his first message to Baltimore — Instruments actually made in the class were used.)

7. *A Session of the City Council*

(10–12-Year-Olds)

On entering this room a sign on the door says, *You are now entering Perfection City.* On leaving, another reads, *You are now leaving Perfection City.*

His Honor, Bill, was presiding at a table in the front of the room. The seats are arranged in four groups of two rows each. Each group comprises a district and has a councilman. There are commissioners of the following:

(*a*) Parks and Gardens (work in garden, in charge of flowers for room)
(*b*) Health (cleanliness — person, desk, room)
(*c*) Water (water, garden)
(*d*) Municipal arts (bulletin board)
(*e*) Library (discuss new books — put up new book jackets every day)
(*f*) Purchasing Agent (orders supplies for room)
(*g*) Museum Commission (collecting material for display)

The Mayor appoints the Commission, but the members must be approved by the Council.

His Honor called the Council meeting to order. The secretary read the minutes. There was a correction of the minutes by R. New business was called for. A discussion of the harmonica band was led by M. It was decided to practice in the yard Tuesday from two to two-thirty. The plans of the orchestra were discussed.

Reports were called for:

Mayor. "Joan, are you ready to make a report on Health?"
J. "No."
Mayor. "Irma Joan, the Library report."
I. J. "We are going to the Library. Hope you will all plan on going. We are going to have a lesson in the use of the Library, also a list of new books."
Mayor. "Any other reports?"
J. "Irma Joan helped me string my puppet (stood on my chair and held it up for children to see). I haven't enough strings yet.

Her head doesn't move." (She works strings to show them the head doesn't move.)

Mrs. E. "What kind of string did you use?"

J. "Just coarse red string we had."

Mrs. E. "How about waxing it so it won't knot? Use paraffin or beeswax."

. . . . . .

Henry, the Garden Commissioner, held up a book with pictures of flowers.

H. "These are flowers for our garden. We went to the Garden Center and got them. I don't know if I can pronounce them."

Mrs. E. "You try, Henry, and I'll help you."

Henry gave his report with some help.

H. "I have another report. We planted beets, turnips, lettuce."

Committee: "We put in two rows of flower seeds."

The children were not sure what flowers had been planted so Mrs. E. suggested that they confer with the garden teacher and find out and report next time.

Mrs. E. "Henry, see the garden teacher about making some slips."

H. "Who wants to help?"

Hands went up and Henry chose Lucille, Alice, and Lois.

H. "We are working at ten o'clock."

Mrs. E. "The girls may go then."

. . . . . .

L. "Are we going to compose a song?" (for the band and the puppet show)

T. "We have to have words first."

L. "I think it's harder to write words first."

R. "I think we need music first."

F. "We found it easier to write words if we have the music."

Mrs. E. "I'd try both methods and see which is better."

L. "At music period may the whole class try to compose music?"

Mrs. E. "Yes, we'll try it today."

. . . . . .

Joan, the Commissioner of Health, was now ready to report.

J. "I think that children who have 4 or 5 zeros should be arrested."

(The members of each district are checked each day on cleanliness of person, desks, and room. If cleanliness is up to standard, the checker places an "X" after that person's name, otherwise a blank space which the children call zeros.)

F. "On what charge would you arrest them?"

J. "For not keeping clean."

L. "In real cities, they don't arrest people for not keeping clean."

Mrs. E. "What about quarantine signs -- what are they for?"

R. "I think it's a good idea to arrest people in Perfection City if not clean."

L. "How about having a Health Court?"

J. "How about fining them and using the money we receive?"

Mayor. "Joan, what do you want to do?"

Mrs. E. "Joan wants suggestions."

R. "Do as we do in Los Angeles — First, the city warns you by sending you a letter, then the city fines you."

A discussion followed as to what a city does to people who do not keep clean homes. Some of the suggestions were:

"Put them out of the city."

"Put them in jail."

"Send an inspector out."

"If they don't clean up, the city cleans up for them."

Mrs. E. "I wonder where we could find out about that?"

J. "Health Center."

Mrs. E. "How about the School Nurse? Maybe she could tell you."

A discussion of cleanliness followed. The subject of quarantine came up.

Mrs. E. "What happened in our jail in Los Angeles?"

R. "Diphtheria broke out."

L. "Mr. Mayor, will we hang quarantine signs on desks not clean?"

Mayor. "Don't ask me, ask the Health Commissioner."

L. "I think a quarantine sign should be put up and no one talk to them until they become clean."

B. "It isn't a question of catching something. We just wouldn't want signs on our desks."

R. "Shouldn't be able to take part in voting, etc."

Mayor. "If a man digs ditches and gets dirty, he doesn't necessarily lose his vote."

Mrs. E. "I think you'll have to appoint a committee. Let them work out ideas."

Mayor. "Shouldn't the Health Commission do that?"

Mrs. E. "All right, Joan, would you like to call a meeting?"

J. "Allen doesn't do anything."

A. "I take care of the windows, and read the thermometer."

Mayor. "How about the checkers? Shouldn't they meet?"

R. "How about the checkers? Who checks on them?"

Mrs. E. "How about depending on their honesty? After all, this is Perfection City."

L. "I would like to resign as a checker. Billy and Tom complain about my checking. I think their desks are messy and they say they are clean."

Bill and Tom insisted that Lois was too strict. A checker's duties were discussed. An orderly desk was defined and members of the Commission decided Billy and Tom did not have orderly desks. The Mayor asked the Health Commission to make a program to decide what is expected in Perfection City.

J. "The meeting will be the last hour this afternoon."

Mayor. "Councilmen, take charge of Lois's resignation."

Councilman. "They didn't complain to me. If you have any complaint, bring it to me."

Mayor. "This matter is finished, then."

L. "We were speaking of the two judges. The other judge complains that I do all the talking. Do you want both or just one to sit on the case?"

Mayor (reads Charter). "In our charter it says both judges must attend all Court meetings unless they have a very good excuse."

C. "How about a jury?"

L. "We decided not to have a jury unless the case is absolutely serious."

R. "How about just one judge on a case?"

L. "The boys would all choose Dickie. There are very few girls arrested."

Mayor. "You chose the judges and decided you would take their decisions, so don't complain now. You selected them."

Mrs. E. "Didn't we choose two because we thought they could discuss the case? Let's settle this."

D. "Either the policeman or Lois is talking. All I ever say is 'The Court is called to order,' but I still think we should have two."

L. "Dickie doesn't talk much, so if I didn't talk nothing would be said."

Mayor. "Lois, I think you should ask Dick if he has anything to say. Give him a chance. You can't vote without a motion."

B. "I move we have two judges on every case."

Mayor. "All in favor?"

The motion carried, the recess bell rang, and Council meeting adjourned.

It will have been noted that the experiences listed above are those of children in the middle and upper grades. Language experiences of younger children are not included since language in the Lower School permeates every minute of the day's work and does not permit of organization into formal language periods. The reader is referred to the curricula given in Chapter Four of this book for typical experiences in language.

Notes on Chapter Seven

1. National Council of Teachers of English, *An Experience Curriculum in English.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1935. This is the standard text for all teachers who wish to present a modern program in the language arts. Required reading.

2. McKee, Paul, *The Teaching of Language in the Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1939), is probably the best available text on method in language teaching. Required reading.

3. Kibbe, Delia, and others, *Handbook of English for Boys and Girls.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1939. This is a publication of the National Conference on Research in English. The preface states the content accurately — "This *Handbook* is really a handy book of information about correct ways to speak and write."

4. *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher.* Joint Yearbook, American Educational Research Association and the Department of Classroom Teachers. Chapter VIII, "The Language Arts — English."

5. Norton, John K., and Margaret A. Norton, *Foundations of Curriculum Making.* Chapter X, "Language — Grammar and Composition."

6. Ward, C. H., *What Is English?* Revised edition; Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1925. While this book is intended for the secondary school teacher, it is full of helpful hints for the elementary school teacher. In addition, it is wise and witty and highly entertaining.

7. Mearns, Hughes, *Creative Power* (1929) and *Creative Youth* (1930), both published by Doubleday, Doran and Company, New York. These are the standard texts on creative writing and have not been excelled in the ten years since their first appearance. Required reading.

8. Roberts, Bertha E., and Aneta T. Beckman, *Children's Voices, Creative Writing of Boys and Girls.* New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1939. "A collection of prose, verse and art composition from boys and girls who have been guided and encouraged to express the thoughts and emotions aroused by personal observations and experience." An excellent handbook for the classroom teacher.

9. *Educational Method* for March, 1937, is a special number on language. It contains excellent articles written from the modern viewpoint. Required reading.

10. An interesting series of supplemental readers in language is *English in Action* by R. W. Bardwell, Ethel Mabie Falk, and J. C Tressler. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1940. *Making Plans* is intended for third grade; *Sharing Interests*, fourth grade; *Exchanging Thoughts*, fifth grade; *Expressing Ideas*, sixth grade.

11. One of the best of the newer books in this field is *How to Speak and Write* by Paul McKee, and others. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. Excellent organization, interesting and entertaining and in language likely to appeal to elementary school children.

12. *The English Experience Series* by Mark A. Neville, Muriel Mae Kelly, and Mary Tucker Thorp (Chicago: Rand, McNally and Company, 1938) is worthy of examination. Book Three, *Fun With English*; Book Four, *Adventures in English*; Book Five, *English Practice*; Book Six, *English at Work.* These are written in unit form and fit in well with an integrated school program.

13. The new series, *Language for Meaning*, by Paul McKee, M. Lucille Harrison, and Annie McCowen (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941), presents language in functional units and, therefore, can be used with any type of school program. The organization is clear-cut, and the presentation is simple and direct. Throughout there is constant emphasis on meaning. The series merits full consideration.

14. *A Modern English Program* reprinted from *School Life*, March, 1940 (Washington, D.C.: United States Office of Education) is excellent for group discussion.

CHAPTER EIGHT

◇

The Language Arts—Reading and Literature

OF ALL the subjects in the elementary school curriculum, reading has always been considered the most important by professional educator and layman alike. The educational literature on reading is voluminous and new materials are constantly being added. A recent and curious development which has taken place in reading is its increasing importance as a subject to be studied in the secondary school and college. The day appears to have passed forever when the high school teacher could hold the elementary teacher responsible for the child's achievement in rate of reading and in comprehension. To a large degree, it has become fashionable for the secondary school teacher to assume her responsibility for the child's development in reading ability and if he comes to her deficient in that respect, to make a valiant attempt to cure the defect.

It has been said in a previous chapter that to define "stages" of educational development by setting dates by way of identification is a dangerous procedure as changes are going on slowly below the surface at all times. If we attempt to define periods in the development of reading in our schools, this reservation should be kept in mind as we suggest the following:

1. *The Stage of Learning-to-Read*
   From the beginnings to 1925

2. *The Stage of Reading-to-Learn*
   From 1925 to 1936
3. *The Stage of Reading-as-Social Interpretation*
   From 1936 to the present.

1. *Learning to Read*

For many years in American elementary schools it was assumed that the beginners in the first grade were to be taught reading regardless of any factors which might seem to interfere with the process. Since reading was the key which was to unlock all the doors of knowledge to the young child, it was assumed that he should get at the job as early in life as possible and keep at it until he could read "orally with expression" and "silently with comprehension." In most cases it was a dull, tedious business, from the early and simple method of memorizing the alphabet, and from making words with individual letters, to the complexities of various "phonic methods" (Ward, Gordon, Beacon and others) which replaced letters by sounds as word-materials. The "entire word method" replaced these earlier styles only to be replaced, in turn, by the "sentence method." In general, the reading materials so developed were synthetic to a large degree — "I see the cat." "The cat sat on the mat." "I see the cat." "Can I see the cat?" All these were chosen not for any intrinsic interest or value of their own, but because they lent themselves to a logical, adult classification of elementary sounds. Once learned, reading became a matter of word recognition; that child was considered a good reader who could recognize instantly from flash cards some one hundred words during his first term in school. That he might not have the slightest idea what the words meant, that he might have missed the experiences which could have made those words meaningful to him, that he might memorize whole pages of sentences made up in the synthetic manner — all this meant little to the primary teacher of the period. Reading was de-

fined as the ability to call words. It is discouraging to note how these erroneous ideas have persisted into our own time. Apparently, many primary teachers today have not progressed very far from the primitive views on reading which were held valid in American elementary schools from the Civil War on. Paul McKee[1] makes no bones of the matter:

> Recent evidence shows that verbalism — mere word recognition and word reproduction — is prevalent in much of the reading that goes on in school, and that teachers are easily misled into accepting the child's oral or written reproduction of word forms as valid measures of satisfactory understanding of what he has read. Additional evidence shows that too many children do not know the meanings of words, that they do not realize their deficiencies, and that they make little, if any, effort to discover the meanings of unknown words.

2. *Reading to Learn*

The publication in 1925 of the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*[2] of the National Society for the Study of Education was a momentous event in the history of the development of reading in American schools. Part One of the Yearbook was entitled *Report of the National Committee on Reading*, and its effect was to revolutionize the teaching of reading wherever intelligent school men and women were in positions to carry out the new ideas. Dr. Guy Whipple,[3] the Secretary of the Society, says:

> It will interest members of the Society to learn that the earlier *Report on Reading* (the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*) is far and away the Society's "best seller"; more than 30,000 copies had been distributed when it celebrated its tenth birthday. It must have been a most potent influence in American educational thinking.

Just what was the essence of the new philosophy of reading?

[1] McKee, Paul, *The Teaching of Reading, Thirty-Sixth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1937), pp. 277–78.

[2] Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company.

[3] From the Editor's Preface to the *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook*.

It may be summed up in the following statements:

From the Adult Standpoint:

1. That reading is nearly universal in the United States.
2. That reading (as a phase of the language arts) is a form of social behavior, permeating most of our daily experiences.
3. That most persons read with definite motives for reading.
4. That the primary motives in adult reading are reading to obtain information and to secure enjoyment.

From the Teacher's Standpoint:

1. That reading should enlarge and enrich the child's experience.
2. That the reading program in school should develop a life-long interest in reading.
3. That the reading program should develop desirable habits, skills, and attitudes.
4. That reading is a complex of many specific abilities, each of which must be taught if success in reading is to be obtained.
5. That reading is not an end in itself, but the means to an end — the realization of increased power and enjoyment in everyday life.

The reading program was conceived of as divided into four major parts:

1. Teaching the art of reading.
2. Using reading to enrich the day's work.
3. Diagnosis of specific difficulties.
4. Remedial measures to remove disabilities.

The Yearbook devoted considerable space to the idea that reading is a complex of many specific abilities. This was revolutionary in itself in view of the fact that even in 1924 there were thousands of American schoolrooms where the prevailing reading instruction consisted solely of requiring each child in the class to rise and read aloud a paragraph from the reader in use in the classroom. In analyzing work-type reading such specific situations as the following were noted:

1. Following directions — reading street signs, consulting the city directory, reading maps, studying travel folders, etc.
2. Understanding and carrying out assignments.
3. Using reference books to verify meanings.

4. Gathering materials from many sources through reading.
5. Keeping up with the times — reading newspapers and current magazines.
6. Meeting new situations — reading advertisements such as "Help Wanted," learning how to meet a prospective employer, studying job specifications.
7. Formulating opinions through reading.

Similar types of leisure-hour reading were stressed: reliving personal experiences by reading about other people in similar situations; reading "just for fun" as in the case of the "funny strips"; reading for release as in fairy tales; reading to learn about other times than ours; reading to learn about life in foreign lands; reading for sensuous enjoyment as in the poetry of Swinburne or Tennyson.

A word should be said here of the "funnies" or "comic strips" which are nearly a universal form of recreational reading for Americans of all ages. The magazine *Life* in its issue of June 5, 1939, has this to say on this important subject:

> The "comic strip" is misnamed. It started that way but today most of the strips are straight serial fiction — shorthand novels. They are read daily by virtually the entire population of the United States.
>
> The strips have enriched our language (foo, twerp, bodacious, discombooberate), our song (Barney Google with his Goo-Goo-Googly Eyes), and our drama (they fathered the movie cartoon). All the strips are aimed at the lowbrows but some have won highbrow acclaim (Krazy Kat, The Bungles, Moon Mullins). A few are admired for their art work (Terry, Skippy, Betty).
>
> The strip is a strictly American art form. American strips are printed all over the world in every language, spreading American humor and their special concept of American life. Spanish warplanes fought under the insignia of Popeye.
>
> Life in the strips bears little relation to reality. But to many of their followers the people of the strips are completely real. Their triumphs and troubles are shared. When Mary Gold died a nation mourned. When little Orphan Annie lost her dog, Henry Ford wired: "Please make every effort to find Sandy." So close do readers feel to their favorites that they write to ask where Tarzan lives. They want to join him.

After its publication, the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook* was generously utilized by textbooks written for the classroom teacher. Possibly the most influential of these was *Reading Objectives*[1] by Charles J. Anderson and Isobel Davidson, largely because it contained practical, sensible applications to classroom situations of the philosophy embodied in the Yearbook. Two chapters, especially, "The Approach to Reading" and "Some Factors Affecting the Formation of Reading Habits," foreshadowed ideas which are commonplaces today: that a child needs experiences to make reading meaningful; and that there are certain prerequisites to reading, the absence of which makes the child's introduction to reading highly problematical.

3. *Reading as Social Interpretation*

The appearance of the *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook* of the National Society in 1937 was another landmark in the history of reading in the United States. Part One, *The Teaching of Reading, A Second Report* is primarily a record of the development of instruction in reading during the twelve years which had elapsed since the appearance of the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook.* It accomplishes, however, a much more important task in setting up standards in reading which will govern instruction in that subject for years to come. For this reason, a discussion of the *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook* appears at the beginning of this section, rather than at the end of the preceding one.

What, then, is the major contribution of the *Second Report* to reading? Simply, that reading is no longer regarded as a school subject to be taught in isolation from all other subjects, but rather as "a necessary accompaniment to nearly all human action." From this standpoint, reading in the schools cuts across all subject-matter lines. The child reads in the social living period to learn about world events; in the science period to learn about the habits of bees; in the language arts period to enjoy a good story or to prepare material for a play; in the

[1] Chicago: Laurel Book Company, 1925.

practical arts period to learn how to make a radio or to learn the best method of making biscuits; in the aesthetic arts period to learn something about Grant Wood, or Sibelius, or the story of Aïda. In other words, reading helps to orient the child to his world; it is a form of social interpretation.

The *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook* lists some of the trends which are discernible in reading in the modern school, for example:

(*a*) That every teacher should be a teacher of reading.

(*b*) That guidance in reading habits and attitude can best be developed in the setting in which guidance is necessary, i.e., guidance in reading in the social studies field should be given as part of the social studies program.

(*c*) That "reading readiness" depends upon many factors for which mental maturity (or "brightness" or "dullness") is only one factor.

(*d*) That reading materials need to be easy to read (that is, not present mechanical difficulties which hinder the child's enjoyment of what he reads); should recognize children's interests and needs; should challenge the child to think; should be available in all subject-matter fields and should be contained in books which are attractive, scientifically designed, and mechanically perfect.

(*e*) That reading materials should be organized around large centers of interest or areas of experience rather than in isolated and unrelated morsels.

(*f*) That school libraries should be extended as major helps to the reading program.

(*g*) That tests should be devised which measure children's attitudes toward reading as well as measure children's achievements in reading, and that personality factors should be seriously considered in adjusting the reading program to individual needs and tastes.

(*h*) That strong motives for reading by children should be provided and stimulated through the administration of the reading program.

(*i*) That definite practice in the various specific reading

skills and abilities should be related to the general reading program and should not be kept in isolation as an end in itself.

The following statement by Emmett A. Betts and Mabel O'Donnell[1] expresses admirably the modern viewpoint toward reading:

> Reading is primarily a thinking process. What shall be done about preparing pupils for reading obviously depends on the teacher's concept of reading.
>
> If reading were a word-calling process, then a readiness program probably would deal entirely with speech production and the visual perception of word forms. On the other hand, if reading were a memorizing process, then the preparatory program would be delayed until the child had a certain definable minimum memory span, and attention would be focused upon effective techniques of memorization. In either of these cases, not all pupils would be ready at a given age.
>
> But reading still remains a complex of abilities, requiring a fairly high degree of mental, emotional, and probably physiological maturity. A concept of reading is outlined briefly in the following statements:
>
> (*a*) Reading calls for specialized types of thinking processes; hence, a certain degree of mental maturity is essential to success with reading activities.
>
> (*b*) Reading necessitates taking experience *to* as well as drawing it *from* the printed page; therefore, a background of pertinent experiences is one prerequisite to achievement.
>
> (*c*) Reading is, in part, an interpretative process, and it is for this reason that one is really reading when understanding is gained from facial expressions, pictures, charts, graphs, diagrams, and blue prints, as well as from word symbols on signs and in books.
>
> (*d*) Reading deals primarily with meanings, not with forms; therefore, the mechanics of visual and auditory discrimination rank well down the scale of relative value.
>
> (*e*) Reading is experiencing, not memorizing; therefore, the learner must develop the ability to apply or relate pertinent past experiences to his immediate ones, and in many instances to arrive at new ideas and concepts on the basis of the past.
>
> (*f*) Reading is a process which calls for integrated actions. As such, it is more than the sum-total of eye movements, visual per-

[1] *Guide Book to Teachers on Initial Stages of Reading* (Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1938), pp. 8, 9.

ception, selecting and using pertinent experiences, perceiving relationships, and the like, because the mental, emotional, and physical responses must be patterned into a purposeful and satisfying total reaction.

(*g*) Reading is a process, not a subject. In view of this, a teacher may be able to help the child to develop basic skills, abilities, and attitudes at times set aside for basal reading instruction; but it is even more important that the teacher at all times should be a teacher of reading, not alone in the period reserved for basal reading instruction.

(*h*) Reading situations vary with the purpose of motive of the reading; therefore, an efficient reader must be versatile in adapting his habits to meet the needs of a given situation. In one situation science material is *studied* to obtain detailed instructions for an experiment, while in another a literary production is *read* for sheer enjoyment. The first situation provides opportunities primarily for intellectual growth; the second, for emotional development.

Again, the accepted philosophy of learning, through experience, is reflected in a modern reading program. The beginner's first reading material is developed through "experience reading," or reading simple accounts made by his classmates and himself of actual group experiences inside and outside of school. His life experiences are discussed and evaluated to the end that they may help him interpret similar experiences of other children of the child's own age as he discovers them on the printed page. The reading program should work out into large and richer experiences in real life:

> If reading is to serve its largest function in social life, teachers face real problems and responsibilities; they must promote clear understanding and discriminating insight in each of the broader phases of contemporary life; familiarize young people with persistent social issues and current problems; — promote greater power in applying the content of what is read, thus contributing to intelligent self-direction and social reconstruction; stimulate interests that will contribute both to the wholesome use of leisure time and to the solution of personal and social problems.[1]

Another development in a modern program in reading appears a swing backward from incidental and fortuitous reading

[1] *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook*, Part One, p. 13.

instruction to a more definite basic course in reading. "Extensive reading" in the sense that many children read many books does not appear to be the panacea for all reading difficulties which its proponents held it to be, and the theory that the reading period as such, i.e., definite planning in the daily program for the teaching of, and practice in, specific reading skills is unnecessary and old-fashioned, is falling rapidly into disrepute. This does not mean that "intensive reading" is to replace "extensive reading"; both types are necessary and both types should be given equal consideration. Miss Bess Goodykoontz[1] gives six very excellent arguments in the *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook* for the preservation of definite reading periods in the daily program.

A related "either-or" problem in reading is whether to use what W. S. Gray calls the "so-called experience-activity approach" or "commercially-prepared materials." Actually, this is not a case of "either-or"; there is a place in the reading program for both. The experience-activity approach appears to be most desirable as a child's first introduction to reading and should be followed as soon as his vocabulary and abilities permit by initiation in a scientifically devised text, probably one of the delightful pre-primers now fortunately available in large numbers. There is a great danger, it must be conceded, in delaying too long a child's introduction to the printed page.

The philosophy of education prevalent in the modern school stresses the fact that the child passes successively through stages of growth which are conditional to his physiological, mental, and emotional development. Sufficient progress has been made in studying growth stages to make it possible to predict certain reading achievements as likely to be reached as the child matures. Gray[2] names five stages of development in reading which are important enough to warrant future study:

[1] *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook*, Part One, pp. 53–54.

[2] *Ibid.*, Chapter IV.

(*a*) The stage at which reading readiness is attained (pre-school years, kindergarten and the early months of the first grade).

(*b*) The initial stage in learning to read (first grade, and for some children, the second grade).

(*c*) The stage of rapid progress in fundamental reading attitudes and habits (second and third grades).

(*d*) The stage of extension of experience and increase in reading efficiency (fourth, fifth, and sixth grades).

(*e*) The stage of refinement of reading attitudes, habits and tastes. (Junior high school, senior high school and junior college).

By setting goals within the ability of the children; by providing scientifically-devised, rich, and varied materials based upon child interests and needs; by the use of proper instructional methods; and by setting standards of achievement at each of these stages, it should be possible to devise a basic course of reading worthy of the modern school.

One of the most interesting trends in the modern reading program is a return to the practice of oral reading, so badly displaced by the emphasis on silent reading prevalent between 1924 and 1936. Oral reading is a significant form of social behavior. Vera Alice Paul[1] notes several typical situations both inside and outside school which are calling for the inclusion of oral reading in the school program.

(*a*) To pool the findings on a subject for which several sources have been consulted by the group.

(*b*) To read reports aloud to the group.

(*c*) To read current events verbatim.

(*d*) To read directions for the rest of the group to follow.

(*e*) To read a problem for the group to solve or to read a riddle for them to answer.

(*f*) To substantiate statements or to prove a point by reading the opinion of an authority.

(*g*) To have pupils in turn read entertaining stories, biography, adventure, travel.

(*h*) To read the minutes of an organization functioning outside the school.

(*i*) To read aloud to an older person unable to read by reason of illness or age.

[1] *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook*, Part One, Chapter X.

Emphasis on adequate oral reading in our schools should do much to improve the diction of the pupils, to develop soft, pleasing voices, and to eliminate the flat, uninflected speech which makes the American suffer by comparison with the cultured foreigner.

Anyone who examines a series of readers which have been written to embody the modern approach to an adequate reading program must be struck by the following characteristics:

(*a*) A scientifically selected vocabulary.
(*b*) Content which meets child interests and needs.
(*c*) Carefully graded instructional steps which allow the child to move along toward achievement slowly and steadily, and within his growing powers.
(*d*) Mechanically perfect and delightfully illustrated books.
(*e*) Ample provision for supplemental reading and practice material to accompany the basic texts.
(*f*) Interpretation of the social world in which the child lives.

One of the most radical changes in preparing textbooks in reading for the primary grades was the presentation by Dr. Julia L. Hahn in 1935 of a "readiness reader" composed almost entirely of pictures as a first step toward the mastery of the printed page. This became the first of a series of excellent modern readers for the elementary school under the title of *The Child Development Readers.*[1] This series is a pioneer in another particular — the carrying through the entire series the idea of reading readiness for each new level of reading accomplishment. Unique photographic illustrations in the readers designed for the middle grades contribute directly to the reading readiness program for older children.

Everyday Doings, the "readiness reader" in the *Child Development* series is made up of pictures relating to home and community life, many of them in the continued story form made familiar to us by the comic strips in the newspapers. Out of these come good experiences for children through richer vocabulary, better sentence sense, and added proficiency in expression.

[1] Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Examination of any one of the popular modern series of elementary school readers now in use indicate clearly the great advance which has been made in textbooks during the last ten years. One company,[1] for example, offers a completely integrated reading program consisting of basic readers accompanied by supplemental series in social studies, elementary science, art, and arithmetic. Another series[2] may be described in detail. It is composed of

(*a*) A "readiness reader" of 28 full page pictures which tell a story, followed by 19 full page pictures each of which carries one or two lines of text or reading matter.

(*b*) A pre-primer of 14 full page pictures followed by 50 pages of pictures accompanied by text and tests. The largest single unit is called *We Go to the Farm.*

(*c*) A second pre-primer of 48 pages with text. The long units are called *We Go to the City, We Go to the Zoo,* and *We Go to the Beach.*

(*d*) A basic primer which deals with birthdays, airplanes, farm life, and first days at school.

(*e*) A supplemental primer which contains a single long story.

(*f*) A first reader which deals with village life, pets, the circus, the seasons, and familiar occupations. Two stories from literature are added to the preceding factual material.

(*g*) A second reader which discusses animal friends, occupations, buildings, outdoor life, Indian stories, and geographical stories.

(*h*) A third reader containing history stories, nature stories, accounts of child life in foreign lands, followed by selected fairy tales.

Two other features found in modern elementary school readers merit notice. Several series of readers accompany each basic textbook in primary reading with a number of short, paper-bound supplementary readers each complete in itself so that the young child may feel the pride of accomplishment in reading several complete "books" during the school term. In other series the same result is obtained by issuing each basic

[1] Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company.

[2] The *New Work-Play Readers* by Arthur I. Gates, and others (New York: The Macmillan Company).

text in sections, each of which represents a slightly different level of reading difficulty.[1] It is apparent, therefore, that modern readers attempt successfully to make the conquest of the mechanics of reading as painless as possible and to provide children with reading materials likely to appeal to them at each age level.

Additional Notes on Primary Reading

Primary teachers are often confused about beginning reading in the First Grade. The following explanation in question-and-answer form may clarify the situation.

1. *Are we to have no reading in the First Grade?*
It depends entirely on your children. Any pupil who fulfills the prerequisites for reading readiness should be allowed to read — but *not before.*

2. *Who is to determine whether these requisites have been met?*
Your principal and yourself. You will base your decision on the facts in the case gained by observation and by such correlative information as your testing program affords.

3. *Are tests to be the sole means of determining reading readiness?*
We sincerely hope not. There are many factors — such as emotional stability — which can be determined only by observation and for which no reliable tests are available.

4. *Should we set up a "transition" or "junior" or "pre-reading" B1 class where reading is forbidden?*
Such action would be making your decision without getting the facts. If you have enough children who fail to qualify for reading to fill an entire room, by all means have a pre-reading or non-reading B1, but not otherwise.

[1] For example, the *Easy Growth in Reading Series* by Gertrude Hildreth, and others (Philadelphia: John C. Winston Company, 1940) includes pre-primers on three levels, and primer, first, second, and third readers, each of which offers two levels of reading achievement.

5. *Should I set up a B1 class where reading is compulsory?*
Not unless every child in that room qualifies under the list of prerequisites.

6. *Then, for Heaven's sake! Where will reading begin?*
Wherever you have a group of children who are ready to read.

7. *In actual practice, will there be entire classes with no children reading and classes with all reading?*
It is possible. After you have transferred the "sore thumbs" — the socially maladjusted children — to classes more suited to their abilities, you may have any one or all of the following situations in your school:
   (*a*) a room where no child is yet ready to read
   (*b*) a room where a small group — say ten or twelve children — is ready to read, and the remaining twenty-five are not ready
   (*c*) a room where half the children are ready to read and half are not ready
   (*d*) a room where most of the children are ready to read and where a small group is not ready to read
   (*e*) a room where all the children are ready to read

8. *In the case of (c) and (d) above should not the non-reading children be transferred to an entirely non-reading room to make it easier for the teacher?*
No, for two very good reasons. If you have grouped your children on various levels of social maturity, taking a child out of the room on account of his lack of reading readiness may thrust him into a group where he will be very badly adjusted socially, probably with children far less socially mature than himself. Second, replacing him by a child who may have ability in reading but who is a stranger to the group may cause new problems which will make the teacher's work more difficult.

9. *If we are not to teach reading to certain children, what shall we do with such children?*

After all, reading is only one of the many delightful experiences which should be enjoyed by children. Please consult the experience curricula in Chapter Four of this book for suggestions.

10. *If a teacher cannot adjust herself to this point of view what should she do?*

Ask for a transfer to a higher grade and to older children. Teachers of little children are born, not made.

11. *Will, then, every teacher in the Lower School be a teacher of beginning reading?*

Probably so, up through the second grade and even into the third grade in certain instances.

12. *If a child expresses no desire to read by the time he is in the second grade, shall we refrain from teaching reading to him?*

By the time a normal child is seven years old chronologically he should be ready for reading, all other things being equal. If we let him go without including him in a reading program his lack of the interests shared by his classmates in their own reading program may put him at such a disadvantage that he will become socially out of place. Try to find the reasons for his lack of interest, and then correct the causes.

There is a distressing tendency among teachers and principals to draw a very definite line of demarcation between the B1 class and the A1 class, as if they were radically different in point of view and procedure. This is probably a hangover from the days when B1 classes were assigned a very definite reading assignment in pre-primers and primers, while A1 classes were assigned to first readers. This point of view has been so radically altered in recent years through our recognition of reading readiness that the implications need to be

thoroughly understood by the Lower School teacher. The following "understandings" may clarify this point:

1. The daily program will be common to all first grades. It requires the teacher to provide and develop good experiences with her children from six experience fields — Social Living (of which "social studies" is a part); Nature Study and Science; the Language Arts; the Practical Arts (sewing, cooking, construction, handcrafts); the Aesthetic Arts (music, art, rhythms, dances); the Skills, which develop out of the preceding five areas. When one realizes that reading as a school subject is merely part of the large language arts area or part of one sixth of the sources available for experience, reading falls into its proper perspective as only one of the many experiences open to the child during his school day. *Reading, as a school subject, is no longer the dominant emphasis in the first grade.*

2. In each first grade (B1 and A1) it is assumed that there will be

(*a*) children who are not interested in reading at all because they are not ready to read.

(*b*) children who are mildly interested in reading and who tend to act as a "gallery" hovering around those children actually reading. Some of these drift gradually into the reading class, some eventually drift away.

(*c*) children who are keenly interested in reading and who possess all the elements which comprise reading readiness.

The proportion of these groups, each to the others, will vary from room to room. In general (but not always), the (*a*) group will be very large around the early six-year level; the (*b*) group will grow larger as the children approach the six-and-a-half-year level; the (*c*) group will grow larger as the children approach the seven-year level. The (*a*) and (*b*) groups may easily persist into the second grade.

3. The common practice of dividing B1 and A1 children into (*a*) slow readers, (*b*) average readers, and (*c*) fast readers

should be discontinued. *The only reading groups which should be allowed in B1 and A1 classes are those in which the children show marked competence in reading.* The presence of slow readers in the first grade is a good sign that reading has been imposed upon children who are, for one reason or another, unable to read. The other children, those who are not reading, will have many other experiences with which to make up their school day in which reading is not involved.

4. All children in B2 classes and above should be placed on a reading program for the very sensible reason that if children are not introduced to reading at the seven-year-old level, they become out of touch with children of their own social age who are having reading experiences. It is assumed that in B2, A2, and in a few B3 classes, the reading groups will be

(*a*) a group being introduced to reading for the first time.

(*b*) a group having considerable reading experience.

Emphatically, the above does not mean "slow" readers, "good" readers, and "fine" readers. Or, to put it in another way, the basis of differentiation is not in the quality of reading ability but in the amount of reading experience.

Obviously the (*a*) and (*b*) groups will disappear eventually as segregated groups.

In general, in B3 classes and above, the children will be divided into reading groups on the basis of reading ability as has been the custom in the past. Individual differences develop about the eight-year-old level to such an extent as to make this practice necessary.

Literature for Small Children

Someone has defined literature as "memorable speech," and it should be remembered that speech preceded writing by thousands of years and that everything that is worth while in literature has had its origin in the spoken word. The story was made to be told; the folk tale was repeated to the circle around the family hearth or the camp fire; the play was acted

before an audience; the poem was declaimed to interested listeners.

Therefore, the teacher of little children must do her teaching in the old immemorial way, by word of mouth. She must be, in turn, the old crone by the chimney corner, the bard, the minstrel, the old man of the tribe, the dancer, the actress. All literature is eloquent with the spoken word. Some of the finest poetry in any language is to be found in the *Iliad*, and much of it is direct discourse, "Thus spoke Agammemnon!" Numberless illustrations are found also in the Bible, "And Jesus, answering said —— " So, the child's first acquintance with literature will be through memorable speech by mother and teacher, memorable speech listened to, declaimed, recited, danced, pantomimed by children and adults together in the social group.

Much of this burden and opportunity and privilege rests upon nursery school and kindergarten teachers. It is a fatal mistake on the part of these teachers to neglect the literary education which may have gone on in the home most effectively before the child begins his formal education. Has the child learned any nursery rhymes or Mother Goose jingles or simple folk stories or childish prayers or simple hymns? Perhaps the learning of "Now I lay me" was the child's first acquaintance with memorable speech. If the child goes to Sunday School, he may have joined in the singing of

> When He cometh, when He cometh
> To make up his jewels.

or

> I think when I read that sweet story of old
> When Jesus was here among men,
> How He called little children like lambs to his fold,
> I should like to have been with Him then.

or

the lovely old Christmas hymns, "Once in David's Royal City," and "Joy to the World," and "O Little Town of Bethlehem."

Therefore, the intelligent teacher who lives with little children will find out what literary treasures the boys and girls have brought from home and will talk kindly and sympathetically with them to find out how far the senses and imaginations of children have been stirred by rhyme, rhythm, cadence, and word-picture.

The beginning with little children is probably the nursery rhyme, either from Mother Goose or from our traditional English poetry. In recent years, the modernists have attacked the Mother Goose rhymes alleging: (1) that the child lives in a real world and can find in it all he needs for his emotional development; (2) that the characters are often vicious and cruel; (3) that a child's experience in the realm of the fanciful is an escape from reality and is likely to lead to serious emotional disturbance. The arguments on the other side seem to be more valid: (1) that nursery rhymes form part of the cultural heritage of every child and have delighted small listeners for generations; (2) that we have no right to deprive children of this heritage; (3) that the nursery rhyme widens the child's horizon in many new and fascinating directions; (4) that nursery rhymes are sayable, dancible, and playable (to coin some new words), and lend themselves to many forms of expression; (5) that the intelligent teacher can easily eliminate any of the rhymes which seem undesirable for little children; (6) that nursery rhymes do not constitute an escape from reality but rather supplement reality. There are more things in life than may be grasped by the five senses, and often the things of the spirit are more real and enduring than the things of the body.

Next after the nursery rhyme in importance for little children is the simple nursery tale. This is not a fairy tale in the accepted sense but rather a fanciful tale revolving around familiar animals who speak and act as do human beings — *Henny Penny, Goldilocks and the Three Bears, Three Billy Goats Gruff, The Bremen Musicians, Peter Rabbit.* The carping critic observes that animals do not talk, but the friend of little

children will retort that to little children, pets are so close and so dear, that the small child sees nothing incongruous in the idea that animals take on human attributes. Perhaps animals actually speak but our poor, dull human ears cannot hear them.

A possible next step is in the direction of that type of nursery tale which emphasizes the human rather than the animal element, the tale which illustrates the power of the human being to overcome obstacles: *Jack and the Bean Stalk, Dick Whittington and His Cat, Ashen Peter.* The teacher should not forget that there are excellent nursery tales in literatures other than English, as for example that delightful Japanese tale, *The Tongue-Cut Sparrow.*

The method to be used in presenting the nursery tale is based on the idea that the teacher will tell it as simply and directly and dramatically as possible until the details are known to all the children. The fatal mistake is to read the tale solemnly from a book. As soon as the children are thoroughly familiar with the nursery tale in hand it should be used for pantomime and only on rare occasions for dramatization, as we do not wish to lay upon small children the burden of inventing dialogue before they are equal to the task.

The conventional fairy tale equipped complete with kings, queens, princes (always handsome), princesses (always beautiful), aunts (always wicked), and relatives (always malicious), have a better chance for success with children around the nine-year-old stage of development. Some of these almost have to be taught because they are an essential of our English literature. *Sleeping Beauty, Brier Rose, Rapunzel, Snow-White,* and *Cinderella* belong to all children. The teacher should exercise some discretion as to the version chosen and should soft-pedal the gruesome and the disagreeable features. Again, the teacher should not neglect the charming fairy stories to be found in Oriental literatures and in the literature of the American Indian.

How about poetry for the small child? There are five simple rules for the teacher to keep in mind:

1. Don't attempt to give poetry to children unless you love poetry yourself. Some people are born blind in this respect, and if you are one of these, leave poetry to your colleague in the next classroom.

2. Don't confine your poetical selections to a few standardized poems which you will attempt to coerce your children into enjoying. Rather, flood the children with all varieties of poems — long and short, easy and difficult — until you begin through observation, to discover the children's poetical tastes.

3. Encourage the children to be honest about their choices. Do not become irritated if the children like poems which do not appeal to you or ignore poems which you admire.

4. Do not be afraid to give children poetry written for people older than themselves. "A man's reach should exceed his grasp" and unfortunately much of the poetry which has been written for children is consciously condescending.

5. Always recite a poem, never read it from a book. Listening to the reading of poetry from the printed page is boring whereas if you are freed from the book you can be interesting, thrilling, and dramatic.

Since we wish to build a love of poetry out of the fabric of the everyday life of the child it is wise to begin with American poets — Carl Sandburg, Vachel Lindsay, Rachael Field, Elizabeth Madox Roberts, and Emily Dickinson, among many others.

The British poets most likely to be successful with little children are A. A. Milne, Rose Fyleman, Walter de la Mare, and Robert Louis Stevenson. Their poems are admirably adapted to British children but are not as popular with American children as some of our snobbish teachers would lead us to believe.

This section may be concluded with the observation that the teacher should not be afraid to recite lovely poetry to children merely for the fun of listening to fine music even though the content of the poems be over the children's heads. Much of the poetry of our American poets, like Mary Austin and

Natalie Curtis, is irresistible to children in spite of the maturity of the subject.

Literature for Older Children

For older children, as for younger ones, literature is "memorable speech." Children need to *hear* the best of literature by means of the spoken word. The teacher is to recite, declaim, and act the poems she wishes her children to learn and the stories she wishes them to hear. Of course, from this point on, children are to read widely for themselves but the initial step is to hear the teacher use the mother tongue as a thing of beauty and of power. A recent study in education suggests that the nine-year-old level appears to be the stage where the interests of the children are the widest, most numerous, and the most varied — the "exploratory" or "cafeteria" stage of later childhood. It is here that interest in the fairy tale comes to a peak, not the simple nursery tale which delights the six- and seven-year-old, but the elaborated and decorated fairy tale replete with ogres, witches, dragons, glass hills, and all the paraphernalia of the sophisticated tale. The teacher will do well in beginning with the Brothers Grimm (whose volume for some esoteric reason is always called, *Grimes Fairy Tales* by children) and the Scandinavian equivalents by Asbjörnsen and Moe because these are simple, direct, obvious, and serve as an introduction to the more subtle tales of Hans Christian Andersen. The next step may be in the direction of the more sophisticated Oriental tales such as *The Wonderful Teakettle* and *The Forty-Seven Ronins*. Finally, turn the children loose into an orgy of reading on their own in all the blue, red, green, and other rainbow-colored books of Andrew Lang. Old favorites such as *Pinocchio*, *The Adventures of a Brownie*, and *The Little Lame Prince* should not be forgotten. Let us call all this *Step One.*

Now for the second step — the *myth* or man's attempt to explain natural phenomena by flights of fancy into the super-

natural. The best introduction is by way of the simple and beautiful myths of the American Indian through the poetry and prose of Mary Austin, Natalie Curtis, and their associates. The factual side of the myths should not be neglected and the intelligent teacher will find many opportunities to develop the natural, geographic, and social background of primitive life. Do not make the myth an excuse for teaching social studies, but rather enrich the myth by painting in the factual background.

The richest body of myths in all literature is derived from the old Greeks, and in comparison, the myths of other cultures seem pale imitations. The teacher will do well to lead off with three simple myths followed by three more sophisticated. The simple ones are *Pandora*, *The Miraculous Pitcher* (Baucis and Philemon), and *The Golden Touch* (Midas). The more difficult myths are *The Golden Apples* (Hercules), *The Story of Theseus*, and *The Story of Jason and the Argonauts*. Hawthorne's version is suggested for the first four of these because Hawthorne is delightful, humorous, and very human, an American writing to American children. When children listen to Hawthorne, they are listening to real literature. For the remaining stories other versions are more desirable; Padraic Colum's *The Golden Fleece*, for example, is an excellent version of the story of Jason and the Argonauts.

Bring out in these stories the fact that the Greek myths were reproduced in less effective form by the Romans with changes of names from Hera to Juno; from Aphrodite to Venus; from Artemis to Diana, so that children will recognize their favorites in either Greek or Latin. Stress lightly but effectively the factual background. The teacher will find Frances Sabin's *Classic Myths That Live Today*[1] an invaluable reference book together with John Ruskin's *The Queen of the Air*.

The teacher will be wise to "connect up" modern life and the Greek myth as often as possible. For example (following Miss Sabin):

[1] New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1927.

Apollo was the Greek ideal of manly grace and bodily skill and hence the patron of all athletes. This concept offers an introduction to the Olympic Games, classic and modern, and to the current physical education program. Where do we get our terms *pentathlon* and *decathlon*?

Aurora was the goddess of the dawn and her son, Phosphor was one of the "light-bringers." Note how Homer refers to Aurora as "the rosy-fingered Dawn," "the child of Morning," "the throned Dawn." What is the Aurora Borealis? phosphorus? What makes a sea-wave phosphorescent?

Is there any myth richer in content than the myth of Demeter (Ceres) and her daughter *Persephone* (Proserpina)? The story which relates how Pluto stole Persephone and imprisoned her in the dark underworld reflects the whole pageant of the seasons from drab fall through black winter to glorious spring and summer harvest.

Or is there any divinity more fascinating than *Athena*, the Queen of the Air — her city, Athens; her birthday on July 28 marked by the great Pan-Athenaic Festival immortalized on the walls of the Parthenon; her gift of the olive-tree to Greece (and incidentally to Southern California).

And the story of Jason! his first teacher Cheiron the Centaur; his companions Castor, Polydeuces, Orpheus, Atalanta, Nestor, Admetus, Theseus; Castor and Polydeuces the twins, whose baby sister Helen was to set the Greek world by the ears; Orpheus, the sweet singer remembered today by our Orpheum Theaters; Atalanta, the forerunner of all women Olympic contenders; Nestor, the wise men recalling some famous Nestors in the Senate of the United States; Admetus, the king who hired a shepherd boy named Apollo. Surely, the teacher will see how much earnest and painstaking scholarship is necessary on her part to bring out all the beauties of these grand myths.

The third and final step is the *hero tale* — adventuring with the adventurers. The hero tale is a wonderfully effective form of literature bridging over as it does the gap between fancy and

fact from the Age of Fable to the Age of Power. Suppose you begin by a link with the nursery tale, retelling the story of *Dick Whittington and His Cat* in a version suitable to the 10–12-year-old level, following it by *King Alfred and the Cakes*, *William Tell*, *Robin Hood*, and *King Arthur*. Here again are many opportunities to develop the factual material behind the hero tales, thereby enriching the social studies program. From this point on, the children should be encouraged to strike out independently for extensive reading in the literature of the hero tale. Do not forget a field of literature often forgotten, often ignored — the great literature found in the Bible. Joseph the dreamer, and David the shepherd boy, are only two of the many heroes whose lives are related in sacred literature. Tell the Bible stories in your own words as simply and effectively as you can, and then do not be afraid to present them again in the original so that children may hear literature which is great in form as well as great in substance.

Bring your hero tales down to date. Modern life is full of heroes, Lindbergh, Louis Pasteur, Alexander Graham Bell, Émile Zola, and Henry M. Stanley have thrilled many a boy and girl through the motion picture, and it is a lasting shame upon our schools that we needed outsiders to bring effectively these treasures home to the children.

Here are a few simple rules for teaching poetry to the preadolescents:

1. Do not attempt to present poetry to children unless you thoroughly enjoy poetry yourself and have the happy gift of imparting your enthusiasm to your classes.

2. Do not command children to like the poems you like. Expose them to many poems, simple and difficult, and encourage the children to tell you frankly how they feel about them. On the other hand, do not surrender your own rights as a person: present the poems you like and the reasons therefore without compulsion or prejudice.

Three fourths of your class will think you mildly insane to like:

But somewhere, beyond Space and Time
Is wetter water, slimier slime!
And there (they trust) there swimmeth One
Who swam ere rivers were begun,
Immense, of fishy form and mind,
Squamous, omnipotent and kind,
And under that Almighty Fin
The littlest fish may enter in.[1]

but, perhaps, among the other quarter of your class will be a boy or girl who responds to the subtle humor of Rupert Brooke. "Many are called but few get up" refers to appreciation of poetry as well as to another situation.

3. Cultivate the extensive rather than the intensive approach; in other words, do not dissect poems. We dissect an object only after it is dead!

4. Do not expect unanimity of opinion. Your children will probably show marked differences in choices and in quality of expression.

5. Keep away from dialect and from "poets" of uncertain quality.

Who are the best poets for the pre-adolescent? There just isn't any answer to this question but here are some suggestions for the trial-and-error method.

1. The simple American Scene poems of Whittier, Longfellow, Holmes, Bryant, and Emerson. Surely, it is part of the child's heritage to come in contact with *The Village Blacksmith*, *The Songs of Labor*, *The Barefoot Boy*, *The Concord Hymn*, *Paul Revere's Ride*. Do not overlook Alice and Phoebe Cary and Celia Thaxter.

2. Make intelligent use of the modern poets likely to appeal to American children — Carl Sandburg, Emily Dickinson, Robert Frost, Edna St. Vincent Millay, Edwin Arlington Robinson, Stephen and Rosemary Benét.

3. Enrich your hero tales by poetry whenever possible. Tennyson, for example, will help immeasurably in your study

[1] "Heaven," from *The Collected Poems of Rupert Brooke*. Copyright, 1915, by Dodd, Mead and Company, Inc.

of King Arthur and His Knights. Do not neglect the greatest hero tale of all times, the *Iliad*, which is rather a whole storehouse of an infinite number of hero tales, whose fascination will never end as long as time itself endures. It is fitting to end this discussion with a free paraphrase from Book 8 which may well be called, *Hector's Glorious Deeds*, using the Lang, Leaf, and Myers version.

So Hector made harangue
And the Trojans clamoured applause.
And they loosed their sweating steeds
And tethered them with thongs,
Each man beside his chariot.

And from the City
They brought kind and goodly sheep
And provided them with honey-hearted
Wine and corn from their houses
And gathered much wood withal
And from the plain
The winds bore into heaven
The sweet savour.

But the blessed gods
Regaled not themselves,
Nor would they aught thereof,
For sore was holy Ilias
Hated of them,
And Priam, and the folk of Priam
Of the good ashen spear.

But these with high hopes
Sate them all night
Along the highways of the battle
And their watch-fires burned in multitude.

But, even, as when in heaven
The stars about the bright moon
Shine clear to see,
When the air is windless

And all the peaks appear
And the tall headlands and glades,

And from Heaven breaketh open
The infinite air
And all the stars are seen,
And the shepherd's heart is glad —

Even in like multitude
Between the ships and the streams of Xanthos
Appeared the watch fires
That the Trojans kindled in front of Ilias.

A thousand fires
Burned in the plain
And by the side of each
Sate fifty in the gleam of blazing fire;
And the horses clamped white barley
And standing by their chariots
Waited for the throned Dawn——

Notes on Chapter Eight

1. A series of monographs on primary reading prepared by Row, Peterson and Company, Evanston, Illinois, will be found exceedingly helpful. The monographs now available include:

(1) *A Suggested Program for Reading Readiness Groups;* (2) *What About a Basic Vocabulary?* (3) *Speech as an Aid in Learning to Read;* (4) *A Program for the Correction of Reading Difficulties;* (5) *Chart Reading in the Modern Reading Program,* (6) *Word Recognition Techniques in a Primary Reading Program;* (7) *Concept Building and Enrichment of a Meaningful Vocabulary;* (8) *Reading Readiness at the Second-Year Level;* (9) *May the Talk Tale Live Again;* (10) *Is It Progressive to Use Basic Reading Materials?* (11) *Lose Not the Nightingale;* (12) *Reading a Form of Living;* (13) *The Initial Stages of Reading Readiness;* (14) *Poetry in the Elementary Grades;* (15) *The Responsibility of the Kindgergarten Toward Reading;* (16) *Everyday Problems in Speech;* (17) *Sense and Nonsense in the Development of the Teaching of Reading;* (18) *Concepts Can't Be Taken for Granted;* (19) *Children's Interests and Reading Instruction;* (20) *Developing Tastes in Reading;* (21) *The Teaching of Reading;* (22) *Guiding Children's Reading, 1940.*

2. Witty, Paul, and David Kopel, *Reading and the Educative Process.* Boston. Ginn and Company, 1939. The best of all recent books on the subject. Required reading.

3. Weeks, Blanche E., *Literature and the Child.* New York: Silver,

Burdett and Company, 1935. One of the best, if not the very best, handbook on the subject for the classroom teachers. Required reading.

4. *The Seventeenth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary Principals, *Newer Practices in Reading in the Elementary School* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938) will repay careful study. *A Study Guide* may be procured for 25 cents.

5. Norton, John K., and Margaret A., *Foundations of Curriculum Making.* Chapter 7 "Reading."

6. *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher.* Joint Yearbook, American Educational Research Association and the Department of Classroom Teachers. Chapter VIII, "The Language Arts — Reading, The Language Arts — Literature."

7. Colum, Padraic, *The Golden Fleece and the Heroes Who Lived Before Achilles.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1921. This is required reading for all ten- to twelve-year-olds. Willy Pogany's illustrations add greatly to the pleasure of the young reader.

P.S. The teacher, too, might read with profit!

8. Lang, Andrew, Walter Leaf, and Ernest Myers, *The Iliad of Homer.* Revised edition; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927. This is a book for the upper school teacher to own, to read, to enjoy, and to comment upon in notes along the margin. A lifetime is all too short to devote to the *Iliad.* Professor Palmer's translation of the *Odyssey* (revised edition; Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1912) is a good companion to the preceding book.

9. A simplified version of the *Iliad* was issued by Macmillan in 1928 under the editorship of Rudolph J. Pelunis. Helpful notes are included.

10. Quennell, Marjorie, and C. H. B., *Everyday Life in Homeric Greece.* New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1930. A fine book for the classroom library table. Especially good chapters on the *Iliad.*

11. Mott, Carolyn, and Leo B. Baisden, *The Children's Book on How to Use Books and Libraries.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. An excellent, practical, helpful manual for elementary school children written in a style which will appeal to their sense of humor.

12. *Progress in Reading,* a new series by Ernest Horn, and others (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1940), include a pre-primer, primer, and six books for the six elementary school grades, especially designed to build specific reading skills such as location of materials, comprehension of problems, organization of ideas, and provision for future use.

13. Standard books on reading which have proved exceedingly helpful to the classroom teacher are:

McKee, Paul, *Reading and Literature in the Elementary School*; Pennell, Mary E., and Alice M. Cusack, *The Teaching of Reading for Better Living*; Harrison, M. Lucille, *Reading Readiness*; and Monroe, Marion,

and Bertie Backus, *Remedial Reading* — all published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

14. A very recent book (1940), beautifully printed, attractively bound, and likely to become a prime favorite with teachers, is *Story and Verse for Children*, selected and edited by Miriam Blanton Huber. New York: The Macmillan Company. Carefully graded book lists inserted at intervals greatly enhance the value of this fine book.

15. Gray, W. S., and others, *Recent Trends in Reading*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, University of Chicago, Number 49, 1939. This is an excellent review of recent developments in the field of reading. Chapter IV, "Basic Reading Problems in the Intermediate Grades," is especially helpful.

16. Durrel, Donald, D. *Improvement of Basic Reading Abilities* (Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1940). This book is revolutionary in that it stresses the value of specific reading skills in a positive reading program for all children as contrasted with the conventional attitude which stresses specific skills in a negative program of merely removing reading disabilities.

17. Johnson, Edna, and Carrie E. Scott. *Anthology of Children's Literature* (Houghton Mifflin Company). The "best buy" among the anthologies of children's literature, this well-known book has more stories and poems than any other collection, carefully grouped by type and chosen to appeal to children from six to sixteen. Those who can afford the "trade" edition will enjoy the beautiful illustrations by N. C. Wyeth, reproduced in full color. A short annotated subject bibliography terminates each section. A graded list of approximately six hundred books, suitable for the first to the ninth grade, is included.

CHAPTER NINE

◇

The Aesthetic and Practical Arts

THE dictionary defines "aesthetic" as "pertaining to the love of beauty," so in this chapter we are dealing with the child's attempts to reach beauty through active experiences in creating beauty, and through passive experience in appreciating beauty. There can be no valid objection to the inclusion of the aesthetic arts in the elementary school program because the inner drive toward the beautiful in life is one of the qualities that is innate in all of us, and is one of the characteristics that differentiates man from the animal. Again, to develop a well-integrated personality, the human organism needs to find self-expression through as many agencies as possible, and the fine arts afford an infinite number of paths to satisfaction and enjoyment.

Any division of the fine arts into subject-matter fields is wooden and mechanical, but for our purpose it may help to clarify our thinking if the aesthetic arts are grouped under (1) *music*, (2) *the graphic and plastic arts*, (3) *drama* (which has been discussed in an earlier chapter), and (4) *the dance.* It may seem strange to the reader to include the aesthetic arts and the practical arts in one chapter, but our position is that the practical arts are worth while for the elementary child not only for the sake of the product which results, but for the more important reason that the thing of use should, at the same time.

be a thing of beauty. It is the failure to recognize this fact which has resulted, for example, in building in the elementary woodshop, furniture which is purely utilitarian in character and devoid of all beauty.

Before discussing each of the aesthetic arts in detail, it may be well to set down some general observations on the subject.

1. Little children are natural and unaffected as regards their adventures in the arts. They value the experience for the sake of the experience itself and not for the end-point or finished product.

2. It has been justly said that the little child represents through art what he feels, while the older and more sophisticated child represents what he thinks.

3. The child's artistic expression becomes less spontaneous about the nine-year-old level when self-consciousness begins to appear and he becomes seriously concerned with the failure of his techniques to keep pace with his ideas.

4. When a child becomes concerned over techniques, he should be given expert guidance. If he fails to show concern, it is the teacher's responsibility to lead him to see that improvement in technique leads to greater satisfaction in achievement.

5. Children should be given aesthetic experiences both as individuals and as members of a group. Each type of experience has its virtues and its defects.

6. The school environment must be so equipped and controlled as to constantly stimulate the child's self-expression without drowning him in materials or restricting him in expressing his own ideas.

I. Music

The school must provide musical experiences at all age-levels with which the school deals, as part of the program of good living in the school, rather than through a solemn determination to recognize a school subject set down in the curricu-

lum. The literature on public school music is so rich and so accessible that it is not the function of the present chapter to discuss it in detail, but a few suggestions may prove welcome. The child's experiences in music are to be both active and passive. He will sing joyfully for pleasure both as an individual soloist and as a member of a chorus, class, or group. He will be a member of a rhythm band and perform with cymbals, drums, and other simple instruments. He will find tones on the piano. He will march to music. He will learn to "hold a part" in part time music. He will make musical instruments and play upon them. He will find that the conquest of notation will open a new musical world to him and make him less dependent upon note singing. He will become a member of a school orchestra and become proficient upon his favorite instrument.

He will listen to fine music — at first for purely sensuous enjoyment, and as he grows older, with an intellectual appreciation of form and structure. Occasionally he will listen to purely adult music as an adventure into a musical world of which someday he may become a citizen. He will be allowed to accept or reject music as he pleases without being compelled to enjoy what the teacher feels he should enjoy.

II. The Dance

One of the finest contributions made to American educational literature may be found in that section of *The Child-Centered School* by Harold Rugg[1] entitled the "Rhythmic Basis of Life" in which he shows that most of the activities of human beings are grouped into rhythmic patterns comparable to the rhythmic patterns which are found in the natural world.

> Thirty years ago Émile Jaques-Dalcroze, a teacher of harmony in the Conservatoire at Geneva, Switzerland, rediscovered the mutual relationship between music and rhythmic bodily development. Education was to be by and in rhythm. Observing

[1] Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1928.

the difficulties of his music pupils, he came eventually to see that musical training could be given only by first awakening the sense, latent though undeveloped, for the "ultimate bases of music: namely, tone and rhythm." He set his students to beating time to their own singing with feet, hands, the whole body, until they had a feeling of being physically in union with the music. He gave their bodies "a training so refined and detailed as to make it sensitive to every rhythmic impulse and able to lose itself in any music. . . ."

So, beginning with the specific training of musicians, Dalcroze has developed the detailed applications of his great idea that music is composed of both sound and movement.[1]

The elementary school teacher who would like to know something of the practical application of the Dalcroze theory is referred to Chapter XII in *The Child-Centered School* entitled, "Rhythm and Bodily Education." Very obviously, the essence of the idea is to secure perfect bodily co-ordination in order to free the body sufficiently to make it an effective instrument for self-expression. The possibilities here extend far beyond the sphere of the dance. Let three homely illustrations suffice. What makes effective handwriting? Is it not the rhythm or "swing" with which perfect co-ordination of mind and muscle allows the written words to flow easily and gracefully under the hand of the writer? What makes effective walking? Is it not the rhythm which unites and co-ordinates arms, legs, hands, feet, head, and torso into a motion which is effortless to the owner and a joy to the beholder? What makes written arithmetic attractive? Is it not the ease with which beautifully formed figures appear on page or blackboard without sense of strain or conscious thought? American children as a rule are terrifically muscle-bound, and their bodily action far from easy or graceful. Perfect co-ordination and control cannot be attained by wishful thinking but only by a scientifically designed series of techniques which are the very heart of any effective physical education program.

[1] Harold Rugg, "Rhythmic Basis of Life," in *The Child-Centered School*, pp. 167–68. It is hoped that the elementary teacher will read this entire chapter. It is both stimulating and practical.

The practical steps in developing the dance in the elementary school grow out naturally from both music, dramatic play, and dramatization. Elizabeth Newman[1] in her article, "A Rational Approach to Music Teaching," traces the evolution of the dance with little children from its simple beginnings in listening to folk songs, through improvised rhythms which fit the music, to the more elaborate representation in dance form of poems, stories, and tales dear to children. One school of thought decrees that the first step toward proficiency in the dance is listening to the tempo of music played to the children, followed by walking, skipping, hopping, and the more intricate dance steps. An opposed point of view is expressed by teachers who feel that the child tends to respond with all his large muscles involving the use of his entire body. Apparently there is a grave danger that dependence upon music which is too strongly marked in accent tends to limit the free expression of the young listener.

The truth lies between these opposed points of view. It is perfectly natural for young children to respond very freely and naturally to music which has a strong appeal to them and the wise teacher will not compel them to conform too closely to a rhythmic pattern in the teacher's mind. On the other hand, as children grow older and more self-conscious they need to acquire a vocabulary (so to speak) of dance steps and techniques which will help them to express themselves with greater freedom and eventually with greater pleasure to themselves. Nothing is more apparent than the absolute integration of education in music and of education in dancing. Each grows out of the other and each reinforces the other. The process is a reciprocal process of constantly taking in and putting forth. Children listen to music and accompany the music with appropriate dance patterns. Conversely they create at times both their own music and the dance forms appropriate to it or compose dance forms and compose music to fit them.

[1] In *Creative Expression.*

As children grow older they reach out more into the fields of literature and the social studies for materials which lend themselves to musical representation, culminating frequently in the festival or the more elaborate and sophisticated pageant. The teacher should be on her guard here against the facile conclusion that all representative dances should be original. There is a wealth of material available in British music alone with which the children should have contact. A child who operates only at his particular level of expression will not evolve as rapidly or as happily as the child who hears and sees those historic dance forms which have come down to us through the centuries. For a more complete discussion of this important point, the reader is referred to the excellent presentation made by Ellen Steele, "Creative Music in the Group Life" in *Creative Expression.*

III. The Graphic or Plastic Arts

Drawing, painting, and sculpture are the trio of arts which appeal to all children irrespective of their natural ability. Every child likes to draw, likes to paint, likes to mold with clay and plasticine, and such experiences are major elements in the daily program of the modern school.

The teacher should constantly encourage her children to adventure farther and still farther into the world of art and not be content with limited vision and poor technique. Creative expression brings needs to the fore, and techniques are always necessary to meet these needs. As the child gains in techniques he finds satisfaction and happiness in new achievement. Nor should he find the road to success made too easy for him. Freda Pepper[1] the gifted director of the *Children's House* in Detroit speaks to this point:

> To do *only* what one likes is to follow the line of least resistance — Many of the children would not paint if they could *only* do

[1] "Creative Expression for All Children," in *Progressive Education*, May 1939, p. 317.

> what they wished, because they would find paints much more difficult to handle than chalks or crayons. — The child is told that he may use chalks or crayons if he wishes, that he may help himself to them, but — "You already can use chalks and crayons; wouldn't it be fun to use something you haven't used before? Yes, paints are hard to use, but there's no use just doing easy things."

Materials are almost infinite in variety. Soap, for example, lends itself admirably to carving within the ability of the elementary school child. A simple loom introduces him to the technique of weaving and he will not have progressed very far in this fascinating art before he feels the need of design, and then the need for a study of textiles to see how other weavers had solved their problems. Blockprinting on linoleums is a favorite mode of self-expression, and the child should be led to see that the mere pulling of prints from his first block is just the beginning of many future possibilities. He should be led onward to experiment with various textiles to see the great variety of handprinted fabrics which yield use and beauty.

Clay is the favorite material for modeling with children, and again, children need to be shown the great variety of experiences open to the person who fully explores this field. The writer picked up recently a simple majolica jar made in Italy and a small Wedgwood vase made in England. Each has behind it a long series of glorious adventures both in modeling and in design. It seems pathetic that so many children are allowed to remain at a low level in technique and artistic appreciation when a little energy expended by the teacher might greatly enlarge their horizons.

Maps, fanciful and realistic, afford real artistic experiences. Lucy Sprague Mitchell has written for several years of the pleasure given her children in making pictorial maps.[1] All maps need not be of actual places. H. Caldwell Cook [2] has a delightful chapter in *The Play Way* entitled "Ilonds and Chap-Books" which discusses the values inherent in making a map

[1] See "Maps as Art Expression" in *Creative Expression*, pp. 40–41.

[2] New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1917.

of that private dream country into which all of us would retreat if we could.

There is no field of school experience which requires more expert guidance on the part of the teacher than the field of the graphic arts. The responsibility of the school in the fine arts is to deal with all children and not the comparative few who at a very early age seem to show a marked aptitude for the arts. Who is to judge whether or not the child at the age of six or twelve, or sixteen, has great talent or the utter lack of it? There is no time-point at which any person can be labeled or at which any person may not become aware of some hidden spark of ability. Art is not the expression of a single moment. It is the product of all that has gone into the being of the artist up to the time he expresses himself. When the child does find himself, or when he recognizes powers within him which perhaps he is not yet aware of, we must let nothing hinder him in the exercise of his strength.

Are not the child's expressions contingent upon his richness of feeling and thinking, and is not this feeling and thinking dependent upon the fullness of living that has been his, the keeping awake of those emotions called wonder and curiosity which so many adults have lost? Where has it gone? Why has it gone? How can we capture it in children and keep it living? How can we help our boys and girls to perceive life more richly? It is requisite that they live with all of their senses sharpened for contact, and essential that we, as their advisors, offer experiences rich in content, variety, and inspiration.

We can learn much of the child from his painting and drawing. One small girl persistently drew an apartment house at night. The house was always painted blue and the sky black. Her teacher noticed that she painted the sky over and over again with black. When questioned, the child said:

> The sky is black. It is thick black. It is night. It is dark. My father has just gone to his work, I am waiting for my mother to come home from hers.

What better lead could be desired as a guide to the type of outlet this lonely child needed?

Hundreds of adults believe they were born without artistic ability, without talent, and without sensitivity to beauty. The fact is they have never been taught how to see or think with imagination. There is a vast difference between surface seeing and creative or adventurous seeing.

The five-year-old boy who aligned himself with a row of tumbleweeds by the side of the road was seeing beneath the surface when he announced, "We are a fine row of tumbleweeds waiting for the wind." Another child saw rhythmically when she said, "I saw the shape of the wind in the olive orchard this morning. It waved green and gray."

Let us not rush the child out of the self he really is into the self he is not yet ready to be. He will try to please the adult and assume the disguise; but disguise is all it can ever be. He must portray what he knows. He cannot portray what we know, or what we assume that he knows. It is highly desirable for the child to understand his own environment that he may express what he knows from first-hand information, but there are environments which offer little of aesthetic inspiration or challenge to the imagination. It is not always possible to take a class to the woods, to the harbor, to the mountains, or to the desert. In this case, first-hand experience must be supplemented by vicarious experiences through extensive reading.

Children's mental concepts are usually far ahead of their ability to express them. We must be tolerant of crude efforts when they are best efforts, and patient with the varied speed children evidence in their growth. Each proceeds at a different tempo. When there is no evidence of continued interest and eagerness to express then we may well be concerned. When the teacher is willing to accept the child where she finds him, but is unwilling to leave him there, she is on her way.

Having given the child adequate materials and opportunity to use them and having encouraged an interest already his or having planted a new interest for him, the teacher may relax

temporarily until the child completes his product in so far as he is capable. His next product will improve according to the growth he makes in between the two efforts. The teacher evaluates the product and gives technical aid appropriate to the age-level of the child.

For the child of kindergarten and first grade, there is danger of too much evaluation after the product is complete. Over-discussion is often more harmful than helpful. A five-year-old boy told his teacher that he wanted to paint if he wouldn't have to tell about it afterward. He first watched magenta trail his brush, then emerald green, then blue and purple and yellow, leaving a glowing result on the paper. It was finished. He had said all he needed to say for that time. What more was there to tell?

When children learn that they must always explain their pictures, they soon follow one of two courses; they lose interest in painting or they sharpen their wits and invent suitable stories to satisfy the occasion although it is true that there is a type of child who feels the need of words to explain what his brush failed to do. This child has something to say of his own volition. He is not being urged to add something to what he considers already complete.

Nearly every community has in it some adult artist — amateur or professional — who may be invited to discuss his work with the children. It is always inspiring to see a real artist at work and few schools have capitalized the human resources of their neighborhoods with respect to talent in the graphic arts. Again, visits, trips, and formal excursions to commercial plants who employ artists as designers may prove greatly stimulating to the children. It is understood, of course, that the teacher will not overlook the obvious opportunities in extending the experience of children which are offered by museums, art galleries, and public buildings.

The large number of delightful books now available in the field of art offer many opportunities for profitable discussion. *Sky Hooks*, the life story of the American artist John Kane, is

an excellent example. Children will enjoy the illustrations — "Winter Day," "Close Friends," and "Squirrel Hill Farm" — all of which have a childlike quality which has real freshness and appeal to elementary school children. They will enjoy having read to them:

> But even at that time, I had my pencil in my hand. I used to like to get down little sketches of things that interested me. I didn't know anything about painting but I could do the drawing all right. The little sketches I made in those days were the same as I make today. I drew the mills and industrial plants as well as the hills and valleys all around. You don't have to go far to find beauty. It is all over, everywhere, even in the street on which you work. All you need is observation. You must look for beauty, and you will find it.[1]

The children will appreciate the account Kane gives of his first attempts at color in painting his little scenes on the sides of boxcars during his lunch period.

> I now became in love with paint. For now I could color the sketches I had made with a pencil. — Oh, it was glorious![2]

An invaluable reference book in art for the browsing table is *Art in America* edited by Cahill and Barr. This contains a brief but excellent history of American art from 1600 to the present. The sections on early American portraits and on sculpture are especially interesting. A book which contains good reading material as well as good art is Geoffrey Holme's *The Children's Art Book.* This small volume illustrates an astonishing number of techniques which will add greatly to a child's appreciation of the media which the artist can use.

A word about murals in the elementary school. There seems to be no good reason why dark dingy halls in elementary school buildings should not blaze with bright color or glow with subdued color, according to the amount of available light. Three elementary school buildings in the district supervised by the author were selected for experimentation with murals to be painted by the children themselves. Each building contained

[1] *Sky Hooks* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1938), p. 82.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 102.

long stretches of suitable hall space which lent themselves easily to mural treatment. The procedure followed in each school was substantially as follows:

1. Proposals to paint the murals were placed before fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children by principal and teachers, and the general theme was decided upon. In *School A* the theme selected was *Fun in Leisure Time*; in *School B*, *Interesting Things Done at School*; and in *School C*, *The Orchestra and the Garden* in the lower hall. In the upper hall the murals were based upon favorite storybooks of the upper grade children.
2. The district supervisor of art was invited to assume general direction of the enterprise. Cartoons (sketches) were submitted by the children, criticized by teachers, principal, children, and supervisor and revised until a creditable showing had been made. All approved cartoons were mounted and each child in fourth grade and above was allowed to vote on his favorite cartoon. Successive elections were held until final choices were made of the best black-and-white sketches. The fifty best sketches were done in color and again voted upon.
3. Technical questions received constant attention — how to fill available space; how to get motion from one part of the mural to another; how to utilize figures and actions to secure desirable results; how to secure proper proportion of figure to space; how to secure roundness of figures; how to balance light and dark.
4. Trips were taken to museums, libraries, and other public buildings to study murals as a basis for discussions on techniques.
5. Artists were selected to do the actual painting on the walls, every attempt being made to include as many children as possible. Approved cartoons were drawn directly (not traced) on the walls in charcoal, necessary corrections being made from children serving as models. The models were usually children with little or no ability in

art, who were included so as to give them an opportunity for participation. After the charcoal drawings were completed, the murals were colored in calcimine as oil paints were not approved by the authorities on the ground of expense.

The school which painted scenes from favorite storybooks found inspiration in *The Story of Ferdinand* (Munro Leaf); *Dancing Cloud* (Conrad and Mary Buff); *You Can't Pet a Possum* (Arna Bontemps); *Tita of Mexico* (Grace Moon); *Little Pear* (Eleanor Lattimore); *Forest Pool* (Laura A. Armour); *One Day with Jambi* (Armstrong Sperry).

It should be emphasized that the resulting murals are not, in themselves, of major significance. The finest outcome of the enterprise is the richness of experience on the part of the children who participated. No one can quite attain the degree of appreciation of mural painting as can the person who has actually taken part in the process of painting murals.

The attention of the reader is called to Plates 29–37, inclusive, which reproduce various phases of the enterprise from preliminary planning to completed mural.

To summarize the discussion of guidance in the fine arts, the teacher must know something about the *child* as a basis of intelligent guidance in art. What kind of individual is he?

Is he imaginative, sensitive?
Is he interested in colorful and beautiful things?
Is he a nervous child, subject to tensions?
Is he an easygoing child needing stimulation?
Can he sing or play?
Does he have other special talents?
Has he a keen sense of humor? is he adventurous?
Is he inventive?
Is he mechanically minded?
Does he like to work with his hands?
Does he love sports?
Does he love to read?

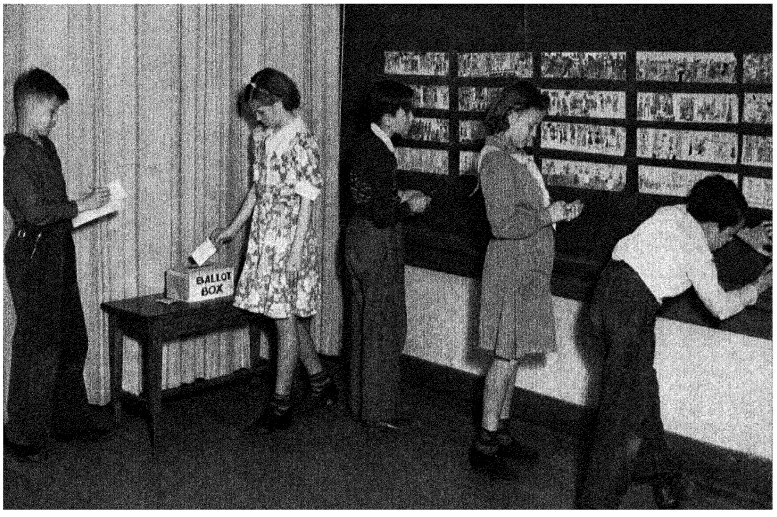


PLATE 29. Murals — Voting on Preliminary Sketches

PLATE 30. Murals — Sketching in Charcoal
Note cartoon below.

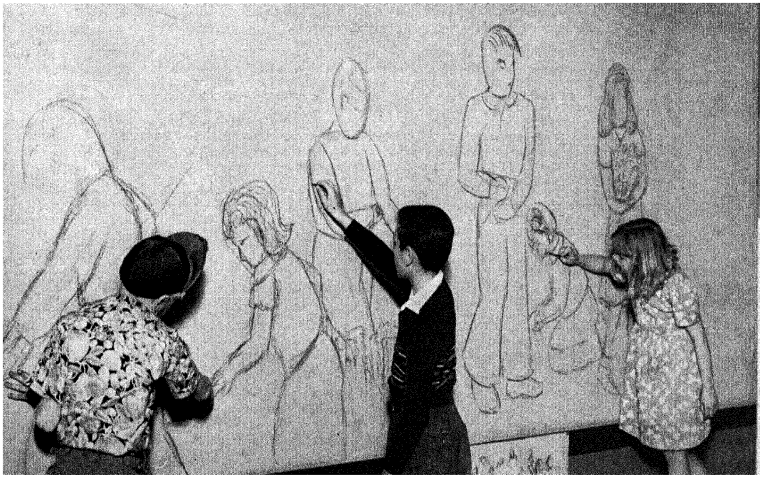


PLATE 31. Murals — Group Criticism of First Sketches

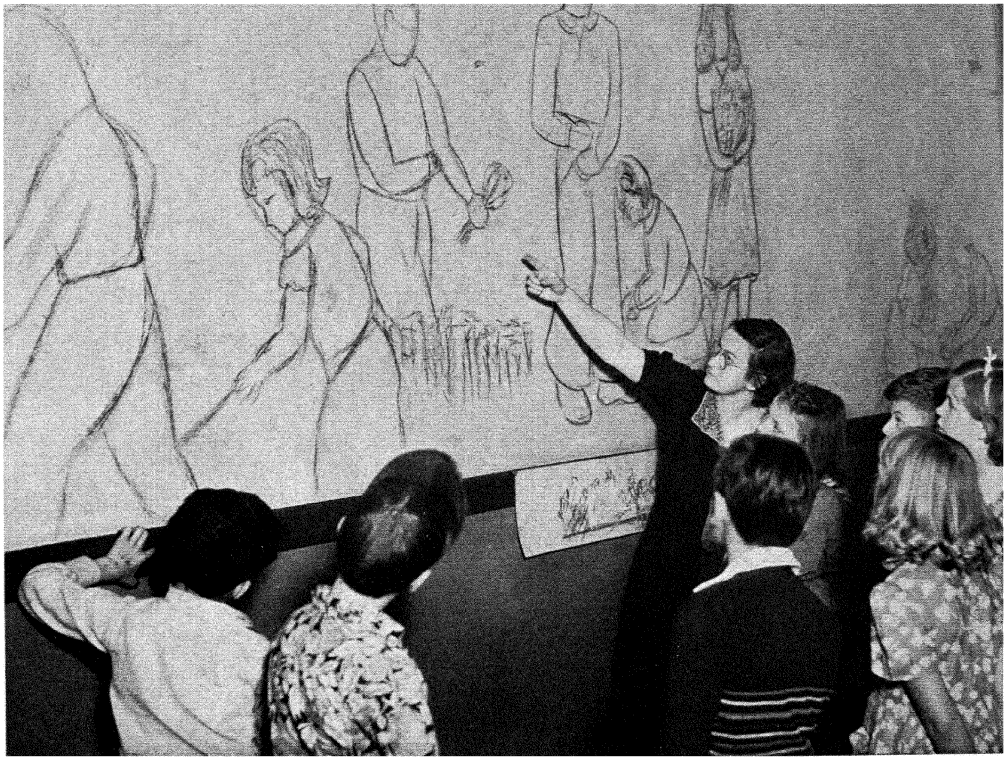




PLATE 32. Murals — Correcting Sketch from Life Model

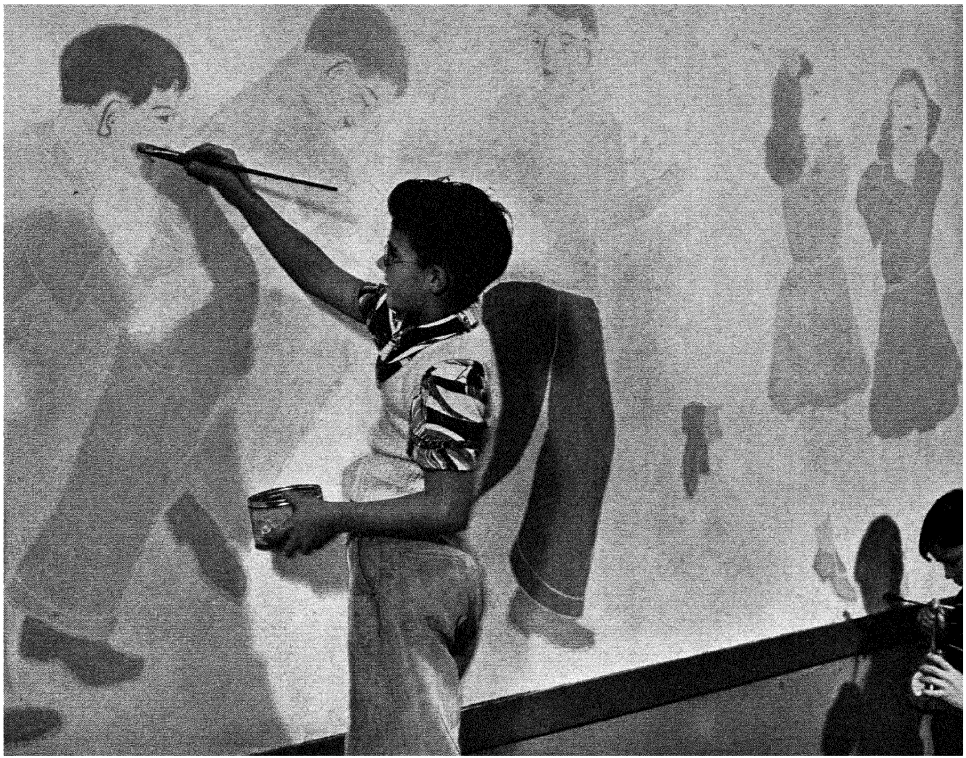


PLATE 33. Murals — Painting Figures in Playground Sequence

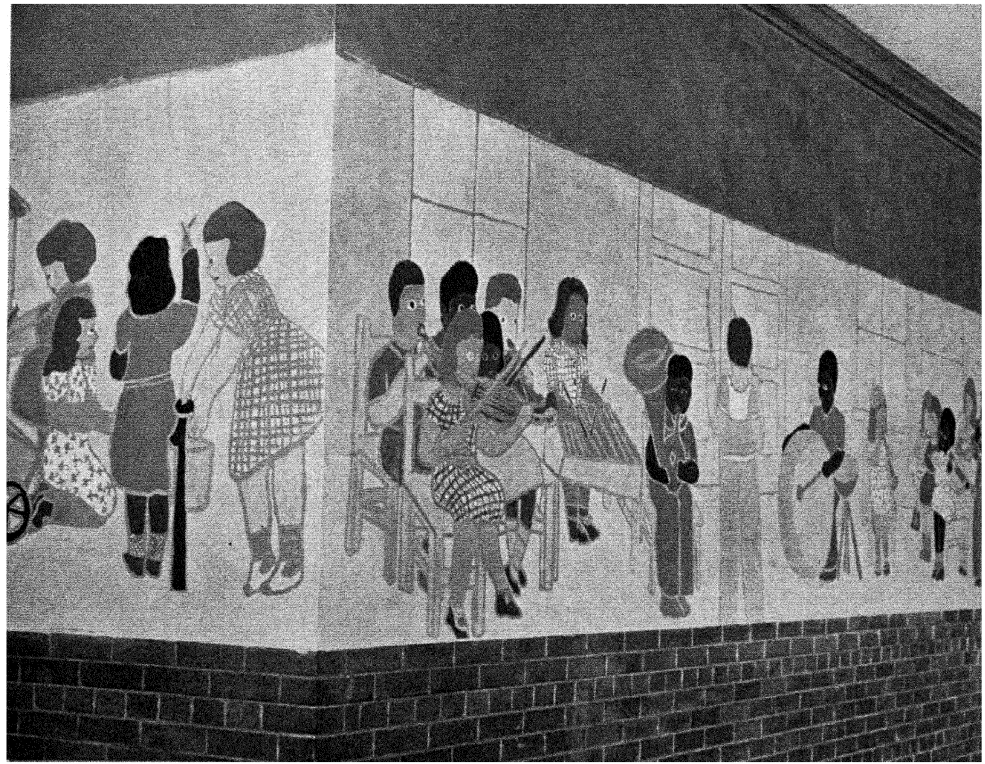


PLATE 34. Murals — Orchestra Sequence Painted by Negro Children

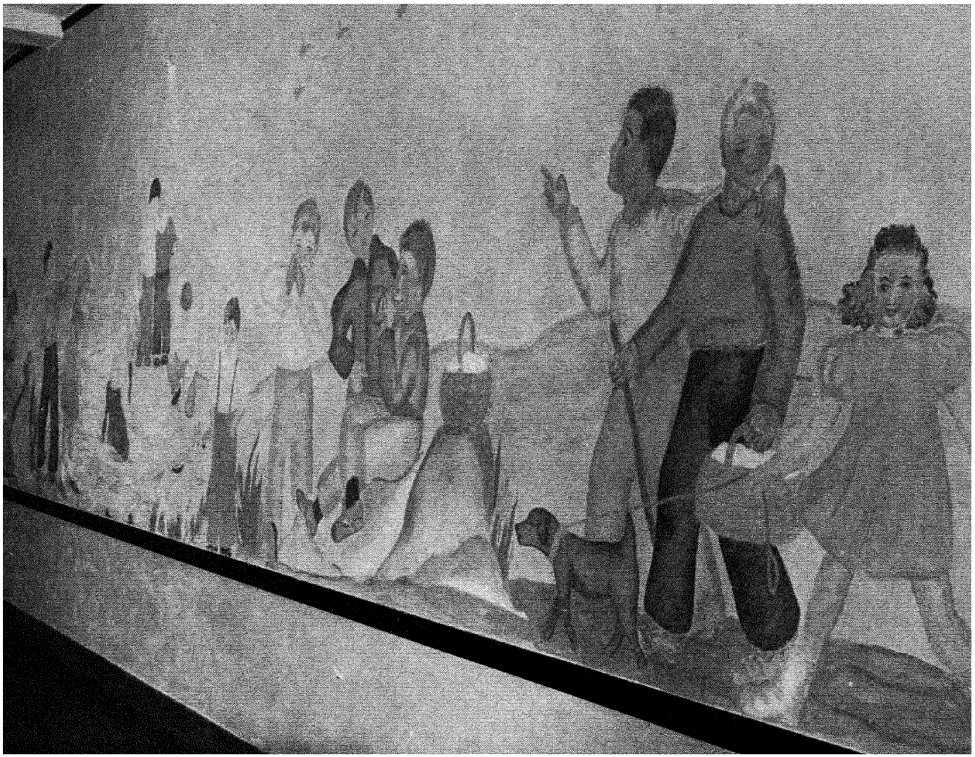


PLATE 35. Murals — Fun in the Country, I



PLATE 36. Murals — Fun in the Country II



PLATE 37. Murals — Fun in the Country, III

Knowing the child, the teacher then must try to develop a social responsibility in the child through experiences in art leading to:

An ability to work with and through others.
A sense of responsibility towards work begun.
A true appreciation of the value of fine work habits.
A true appreciation of the arts as a social asset.

The teacher must meet the needs of the child.

His particular art needs as an individual:

(1) his needs to satisfy a natural feeling for work in the crafts
(2) his need to turn to art for relaxation and enjoyment
(3) his need to develop a natural creative talent

His need to make and do things: to draw, paint, letter, frequently model, weave, and construct.

His need to use a variety of materials: crayon, paint, clay, papier mâché, metal, wood, linoleum, cloth, and yarn.

His need for skill enough to give satisfaction in work well done: sufficient knowledge of color to use it freely and effectively; sufficient knowledge of design to appreciate and use it creatively.

His need to develop self-confidence through varied experiences.

His need to experiment with a definite purpose in mind.

His need to know how to use the resources at hand.[1]

In order to contribute most successfully to the development of the child, the arts must be an accepted part of the program, not an "added to" feature. The aims in the arts are not to develop a race of professional artists, although the new education will undoubtedly contribute to that. The purpose is to build a nation of modern men, fit to live in a modern world. One route to the achievement of such a goal is the kind of art education that the new schools are building through close integration with the life activities of the child.[2]

[1] Bulletin, Department of Art Education, Toledo Public Schools, October 10, 1939.

[2] Harold Rugg, *American Life and the School Curriculum* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936), Chapter XXIV.

The purposes of the arts program may be stated in terms of social values and also in terms of development of abilities through the operation of which those values are promoted.

1. To create deep and abiding spiritual values and build character through engendering a love of beauty.
2. To develop personality, social values, citizenship, and character through developing good taste.
3. To develop social values, wholesome lives, and mental attitudes through training for leisure.
4. To provide the opportunity for a satisfying emotional expression through developing the desire to create.
5. To provide richer experiences in living by developing the power to see significantly, not imitatively.
6. To provide opportunities for self-development through stimulating the imagination in the use of ideas, media, and materials.
7. To provide pleasurable experiences through the joy acquired in creative ability.
8. To provide emotional and physical stability through working in graphic and plastic materials.
9. To develop self-discipline through the use of tools and media.
10. To develop the power of self-evaluation and analysis through the knowledge of art values and materials.
11. To develop a sense of appreciation and tolerance for one's own work and the work of others by a wide knowledge of cultural backgrounds.
12. To integrate the experience by developing the power to use all one's intelligence all of the time.

Almost every human being has within himself some potential ability to create. These creative traits follow the law of distribution of human capacities. This power may be large or small but under no condition must one deny the presence of this great urge. Creative expression may take place through many media, sound, words, gestures, movements, social relationships. There are vast differences among peoples in poten-

tial creative capacity. Any population reveals a few persons of genius, a larger number of considerable talent, a great mass of mediocre capacity, and a few persons of practically no capacity whatever, but all have some potential ability. It is the task of the school to harbor and foster the growth of the creative impulse in every child.

To encourage this growth an adequate background of experience is needed. The child must have many and varied experiences. To make an arts program which is really creative in that the child expresses ideas which are of significance, he must have a background of experience, of doing, seeing, hearing, and thinking. No child can express ideas until he has the material for thinking; therefore, the first function of the school is to provide experience, the subject matter for the child's thinking and eventually for his expression. Through a rich background of experience the child will gain ideas and concepts, will become interested in and stimulated by a wide variety of things and activities, and will wish to express his thoughts and feelings concerning what he does, sees, hears, feels, or has experienced. No creative expression can be expected until the child has much experience which has so become a part of him that from it he develops an idea which he wishes to share or express for his own satisfaction. Experience plays as great a part in the interpretation and appreciation of art as it does in its expression. A picture is appreciated only when one has experience which allows him to read meaning into that which is portrayed. A child who has himself tried to make a vase in clay will be much more able to appreciate a lovely vase of the Ming dynasty than will the child who has never handled clay.

We have emphasized the need for experience before creative expression can be expected; however, the process of gaining experience or learning depends upon the growth or maturation of the child. The child cannot take on an experience until his organic structure is ready for it. He must mature to the point where the experience fits his needs before he can profit by it.

Maturation may be readily perceived in relation to creative expression in the arts. The first stage is one of manipulation, where the child becomes acquainted with his materials. It is easy to pick out this manipulative, experimenting stage in the first steps of drawing or painting for the child merely scribbles or daubs. Later there is the period of symbolism, when ideas are developing but insight has not completely matured; finally we reach the stage of maturity when the child controls the materials to the extent that he is able to express his ideas not only to his own satisfaction but for the enjoyment of others.

Readiness, of course, is a phase of maturation. There must be readiness for an experience before a child will be able to profit by it. There is a close relationship between readiness and interest. The school room environment may contain many materials and a child may use only one medium day after day, then all of a sudden, after many weeks discover the presence of other media with which to work. The child's interest in an experience is probably a fairly safe measure of his readiness for it.

The creative arts may be experienced in isolation but they can be richer and more meaningful if they are a part of an integrated program. The modern school program supplies much rich motivation for creative art expression. Experiences within a unit of work centering about social sciences, natural science, literature, or some other field of interest frequently stimulate children to creative art interpretations. Caution must, however, be exerted in integrating the arts with other school subjects and care taken to see that the arts do not become their "handmaiden." All the values achieved by the development of the creative urge may be lost forever by a few thoughtless assignments in subject-matter illustration in the hands of a teacher who, at the moment, is absorbed in clinching the facts of a unit in the social studies. Compulsion from without and the inner creative urge are seldom compatible. It must also be remembered that, though much excellent activity is incorporated in the integrated school program, the

child still has his art needs, requiring attention at times, apart from other curricular subjects.

IV. The Practical Arts

The term "practical arts" as used in the modern elementary school refers to those experiences which demand the possession of a degree of manual skill and lead to tangible results which can serve useful purposes. As a matter of fact, however, the boundary lines between experience fields are as indefinite and each field overlaps all others so greatly, that it is not possible nor desirable to think of the field of the practical arts as totally distinct and separate. Construction goes on in all classrooms from kindergarten to the sixth grade in connection with units of work in the social studies. Flowers and vegetables are grown in the school garden as part of the program in elementary science. Cooking often accompanies the celebration of a national holiday as at Thanksgiving, and weaving appears as a vital accompaniment to the fine arts program.

In the middle and upper grades, there is a distinct advantage in centralizing practical arts experiences in a general shop and in a home making unit located in a classroom especially designed to accommodate classes in sewing, cooking, and weaving. The grade teacher can contribute very largely to the program in the practical arts in daily classroom experiences, but we must not require the impossible of her. There are certain tool techniques in woodworking and home economics which can be properly taught only by the expert who has been specifically trained for the purpose. A man skilled in woodworking, sheet-metal work, and elementary electricity can contribute greatly to the growth and development of the children above the nine-year-old level. A woman who is a skilled cook and dressmaker and who knows how to impart her techniques to children is an invaluable adjunct to the elementary school program. It should be made clear that the practical arts should not be restricted to the ignoble rôle of serving as tail to the social

studies kite. There are certain techniques — making an accurate joint in the woodshop, for instance — which are valuable in and for themselves. The point to be kept in mind, however, is that lessons in techniques should come after the need for them is felt by children, and should not be anticipated by the teacher, unless a normal need fails to arrive on schedule, or the teacher sees that a new technique will implement a process about to develop in the classroom.[1]

Much that has been said in the preceding sections will be clarified by accounts of actual experiences in the classroom in the field of the aesthetic and practical arts.

1. *A Lesson in Musical Discovery (I)*

(11–12-Year Level)

Mr. H., the supervisor of music, explained to his adult audience that he would present to his class of sixty upper school children (11–12-year level) *In the Steppes of Central Asia* by Borodin (Victor record 11169). The only previous practice the children had had in musical discovery was in listening to the Prelude to Act I of *Lohengrin* (Victor record 14006).

The procedure in listening to the Borodin number was as follows:

Mr. H. You are to listen to new music today. Notice the pitch, notice the volume, try and find out what the music represents. What part of the world is represented by the music? What two things are true of pitch? (high, low) What two things are true of volume? (loud, soft)

The record was played, both sides, without comment or question.

Mr. H. What was the pitch at the beginning of the music?
The children. High.
Mr. H. And at the end?
The children. High.

[1] The attention of the readers is called to the section "Mechanical Skills" in Chapter Ten of this book.

Mr. H. And at the middle?

The children. Low.

Mr. H. That is right. What about volume?

The children. Soft at the beginning, loud in the middle, soft at the end.

Mr. H. That is right. Now, have you any clue as to what part of the world is represented by the music?

A child. It sounds like Egypt to me.

Mr. H. Why?

The child. Well, some part of Africa because I heard a throbbing of drums.

Mr. H. That is very interesting. As a matter of fact, that throbbing sound you heard was not made by drums but by cellos which have a deep, throbbing tone. Now, anybody else, as to the part of the world represented in the music?

A child. India. Part of it reminds me of a snake-charmer. Some instrument sounds like it anyway.

A child. I think the music represents shepherds. There is something in the music like a shepherd's pipe.

Mr. H. Very nice! Anybody else?

A child. Maybe Africa, it doesn't sound like Europe to me.

Mr. H. Well, let's see. What are the continents?

The children. North America, South America, Europe, Asia, Africa...

Mr. H. That's enough. Now, which continents do you choose for this music?

The children. Asia or Africa.

Mr. H. That is right. Now, which of these?

A child. The music sounds like an *ancient* continent to me.

Mr. H. Now think of Asia and Africa together and try and figure out what you might find in either continent that is represented by this music.

A child. Well, camels and the desert, *a caravan!*

(Note: This was one of the three climaxes of the lesson. Note the others later on.)

Mr. H. Great! That is exactly right. Now listen to the music again.

The record is played again.

Mr. H. How many melodies do you hear?

The children. Two.

Mr. H. Right. What is the difference between them?

The children. One is high and soft, one is lower and louder.

(Mr. H. had placed the two themes on the blackboard in front of the children. The record was played again in part, and Mr. H. pointed to each theme on the blackboard, not by note, as it was reached in the music.)

Mr. H. Which of the two themes is more typically oriental? The students established the second one as more oriental.

Mr. H. What European country is under eastern influence?

A child. Russia.

Mr. H. In what order do these themes come?

The children. First the Russian theme, then the oriental theme.

Mr. H. How can you tie these themes up with your idea of the caravan?

A child. Why there must have been *two* caravans!

(Note: This was the second climax.)

Mr. H. Exactly. Well, this music represents the desert country of Central Asia, the part called the Steppes. One melody represents one caravan, the other melody the other.

Mr. H. played each theme on the piano, allowing the children to sing or hum each.

Mr. H. Now, let's listen again.

A part of the record was played.

Mr. H. Which theme do you hear?

The children. Both melodies are played together.

Mr. H. Now, what happens at the very end of the music?

The children. It ends with the high soft melody by itself.

Mr. H. Now, let's see. First, one melody; then the other; then both; then one. Now, tie that pattern up with your idea about the two caravans.

A child. Why, the caravans must have been *traveling in opposite directions and meet in the middle part of the music and then separate.*

(Note: This was the *third* climax.)

Mr. H. Exactly. One melody comes from the East and one from the West. As a matter of fact, that one is a typical Russian folk-melody. What word do you think of when you try to describe the melody you thought represented a snake-charmer of India or Africa?

A child. Oriental.

Mr. H. That is right. Much of this music sounds oriental, doesn't

it? So one caravan is going from Central Asia to Russia, and the other from Russia to Central Asia. You might be surprised to learn that the oriental part of the music is played by an instrument with a very un-oriental name, it is called the English horn. Now let us play these two melodies again while I point to the notes on the blackboard.

Mr. H. Which do you prefer?

The children. The high soft one. (Melody number one.)

Mr. H. Did the caravans fight when they met?

The children. No!

The harmonic blend of the two themes was discussed.

Mr. H. This music is called *In the Steppes of Central Asia* and is by the Russian composer, Borodin. A long time ago, a great celebration was held in Russia to honor the twenty-fifth anniversary of the reign of a Tsar. A theatrical performance was part of the celebration and in this were many tableaus representing Russian life. One of these showed how Russia traded with Central Asia, and Borodin was asked to compose music for this particular tableau. That is how *In the Steppes* came to be written. Now that we know all about the music, let's play the record once more.

The record was played.

(Note: For the teacher interested in similar excursions in "Musical discovery" a list of suitable records will be found at the end of this chapter.)

2. *A Lesson in Musical Discovery (II)*

(Enjoying *Adventure in a Perambulator* by John Alden Carpenter. Two experiences in the field of music listening with a group of eight- and nine-year-old children.)

We discussed the title of the suite, the children suggesting "dogs" and "a policeman" as possible adventures before they had heard the names of the movements. Then we wrote the title, the composer's name, and the titles of the movements on the blackboard, and read them together. The composer's idea interested the children immediately. Next we read aloud the part of the program pertaining to the *Hurdy-Gurdy*. We explained that the baby has a tune of his own which recurs throughout the suite, wrote the simple notation on the black-

board, and identified it with the familiar *London Bridge is Falling Down* tune.

As we played the movement the children heard the *Myself* theme, recognized bits from *The Sidewalks of New York* and *Alexander's Ragtime Band.* They had no difficulty in identifying the *Policeman* theme and enjoyed the *Hurdy-Gurdy* as it played again in the distance. We used the blackboard throughout the movement to be sure that everyone was able to follow. Later, we answered questions as to the use of the bassoon in the *Policeman* theme, what instruments were used for the *Hurdy-Gurdy*, and what tunes it played besides those the children recognized.

The use of leitmotif had now become evident, but we did not use the musical term. Instead, we played the first movement entitled *En Voiture*, which states and combines certain of the themes, and, again, using the blackboard, identified the *Myself* theme, *My Nurse*, *Perambulator*, and certain combinations.

Then, for variety, and without comment, we played the Valse and Entr'acte from *Coppélia.*

When we met to hear the movement entitled the *Policeman*, we had visitors unfamiliar with the suite, so the children used the blackboard to identify certain themes from the first movement. To help dispense with wordy explanation we had prepared several posters including one showing the nurse pushing the perambulator away from a large, blue policeman, rapidly returning to his duties. As the children listened it was possible, by using the blackboard and posters, to help them distinguish the advent of the policeman, the conversation, the signal, and the departure.

The program used is that printed as a preface to the score. We endeavored not to obscure the flavor of the original preface by our presentation, and to supply only that information which would contribute to active enjoyment of the music. No emphasis was placed upon acquiring information, but all of the children know the name of the suite, and recognize the move-

ments we have played. Most of them have played the *Myself* motif on the tone bells without our suggesting that they do so. We did not stress Mr. Carpenter's importance to us as a notable American composer, but the name John Alden was recognized, and the association made. We felt that the mood resultant from the delightful subjective treatment had been conveyed to the children when we found, among the spelling papers, a charming little story written in the first person and entitled *Myself*.

We are reading aloud part of *Through the Looking Glass* and intend to hear *White Knight* and possibly *Jabberwocky* from Deems Taylor's suite.

3. *Rhythms From the Oil Fields*

(7–8-Year Level)

A second grade classroom had just returned from a bus trip through the oil fields. One little boy was bubbling over with enthusiasm about the oil derricks he had seen. He said, "I can show you how they work if John will help me." So the two boys together demonstrated the pumping motion of an oil derrick. The teacher asked the children if they would like to show Miss Cole (the music teacher) how the derrick pumped and see if she could play some music to help them. The children thought that would be fun, and many of them had suggestions of things they would like to do.

After several weeks the children have a short rhythmical story of how oil becomes gasoline and is carried to the filling station in trucks. In brief, the sequence was as follows:

Derricks pump oil from the ground.
Pipes and trucks carry oil to the refinery.
The oil is boiled in the refinery.
Pipes and trucks carry the oil to the filling station.

Many weeks later when their interests had broadened, the children referred back to the rhythmical story of the past and disapproved of it because it had excluded boats and trains as carriers of oil. With the help of Miss Cole they soon had a new rhythmical story showing how boats, trucks, and trains carry oil.

These rhythmical experiences were valuable because many of the shyer children forgot they were bashful, many of the individualistic trouble-makers used their excess energy to help their neighbors make trains, oil flowing through pipes, etc., and some of the children who were awkward and ungainly found there were things they, too, could do well.

4. *Rhythms from the Round House*

(7–8-Year Level)

The second grade children have been working out an engine rhythm. Their inspiration was the giant locomotive they had seen at the Santa Fe round house. They had stood not more than ten feet from the engine while the engineer drove it. They watched the large drive wheels begin to move slowly at first and then faster and faster as the engine moved off down the track. They saw and heard the great spurt of steam as the engine got under way.

At first they moved around the floor making the steam noise of the engine. Then a few children began to move their arms like wheels. Another group made a long train and moved around the floor.

Sally wanted the group to make a round house. Her idea did not prove much fun because everyone had to stand still. They liked the idea of movement.

The next day Roger said he had an idea to show the group using three other boys and himself. He had two of the boys join hands facing each other. He told them they were to be the connecting rods. He showed them how to move their arms back and forth. Next he placed one boy behind one end

of the connecting rod and showed him how he wanted him to move his arms. Then Roger got behind the other end of the connecting rod. These two were to be the drive wheels. As the connecting rod began to move, the drive wheels began to move their arms around in wide circle movements. The movements were slow at first and then faster as they began to move out on the floor.

The effect was very realistic. The children loved it. They wanted to try Roger's idea, and proceeded to do so. Someone suggested that they add more drive wheels. Another child wanted everyone to take part and make one large engine.

At the last rhythm period they added more drive wheels and the truck wheels. At this time it was also suggested that they add a cab. Two children joined hands and held them high to form a cab. The cab called for an engineer, so another child became the engineer.

They have had an accompanist once a week, but on the other days they have worked without music. The music adds much to the feeling of the rhythm, but we have not allowed the lack of it to stop us. Next week we are going to try beating out our own music with rhythm instruments.

5. *The Child Plays with Color*

A six-year-old boy suddenly left the clay modeling table, snatched a sheet of paper and a box of crayons and, placing the paper on the floor to capture the prism rainbow which was reflected there, covered each color with its corresponding crayon color. When he had finished his crayon rainbow he rushed excitedly to his teacher and announced:

"Look! Look! I caught a rainbow!"

This delightful thing could not have happened had not that wise teacher hung a prism in the sunny window to provoke just such a response.

The ingenuity of the child was admirable, the value of his discovery far-reaching. He was becoming aware in a small

way of the fact that color comes from light, that a prism breaks white light up into rainbow colors. Someday when he is old enough, he will meet a prism as an old friend in a new situation, where he will study the theory of light more technically. Since the small child cannot understand abstractions or theories, he must be given his information concretely.

The class discussed rainbows in the sky and in the spray of the garden hose. Believing as she did that the understanding of many truths of value to older students and adults may be planted in a simple way in the minds and emotions of little children, the teacher proceeded to lay further foundations.

She placed a blue glass plate and a red one in the window. At first the class enjoyed them as just two disks of glowing color. It was not long, however, before one by one they were stepping up and looking through them at the world, enjoying as doubtless no child in the world has failed to enjoy, the discovery that colored glass spreads magic over ordinary places.

The science table soon became heaped with colored glass brought from alleys and byways. One of the boys announced that it was more fun to look through two pieces of glass at once, each a different color.

Here was an opportunity for the teacher. Color matching and mixing became the new game. Calcimine was brought to the table. Whenever a new color was discovered by crossing two pieces of glass, or cellophane which the teacher added to her equipment, the class mixed the same two colors with calcimine. Needless to say there was much excitement and it was perfectly natural that the new calcimine colors were used at the easel, giving added richness and vigor to the paintings.

The class was next asked to bring in nature specimens — leaves, rocks, shells, bark, which showed two colors in one. Leaves that were neither yellow nor green were discovered. The class decided both colors were present, therefore, the color must be named with both colors — yellow-green, and so on through the entire range of colors. They saw reds in brown bark, blue in green leaves, red in purple flowers, etc., and com-

mittees were organized to provide these new colors for the easel. One morning a child brought in an orange-yellow nasturtium with a piece of butter spread over one petal. The butter and flower were identical in color.

If a teacher feels a lag of interest in painting at the easel, the answer probably is that nothing new has happened to re-excite interest. A new color as a surprise such as pink, coral, lavender, will start fresh desire to paint.

Given a normal class of boys and girls, an enthusiastic teacher, who knows her ultimate goals and who is at the same time clever in planting seeds for later understanding in the minds and feelings of these young people, is sure to secure growth of a delightful quality.

6. *Adventures with Color*

A. *Two Colors in One*

A class of seven-year-olds found it interesting to try to discover two colors in one. The teacher asked the class to bring to school any green objects which they considered beautiful. Among the things were green glass, green rocks, shells, a green book, green toys, ribbons, pieces of cloth, leaves, beads. Someone added a jar of green calcimine, someone else a crayon, someone else a pencil.

One child announced, "I thought this ribbon was green when it was home; but now it looks blue." She was seeing color in relationship to other colors.

The children sorted the greens which looked a little blue and the greens which looked a little yellow, those which looked grayish and those which looked brownish. The teacher suggested that the children go to the window to look at trees and shrubs. They were surprised at the variety of greens they found. Wishing to put this knowledge into practical use, the teacher suggested that the class experiment with mixing greens with calcimine, sometimes holding up a yellow-green leaf and asking them to match it in paint. After mixing one or two, a

committee was chosen to prepare greens for the easel for use the next day. Red and blue were treated in the same fashion. The important thing gained by this type of experimentation was not that these children should know now to make yellow-green and blue-green; but that through this experience they were learning to see colors more intelligently and know that it is possible to mix them.

B. *Brown Has Charm*

To many children in a beginning class, brown meant no more than the stick of crayon in the box. All tree trunks were flat brown boards. All foregrounds were flat ribbons of brown if they were not flat ribbons of green. There was neither texture nor variation. This type of expression is quite satisfactory for a while, but after the class have been taught to see color they will soon become dissatisfied with ineffective techniques.

The teacher of this class deliberately set out to improve foregrounds in their pictures, not by telling them to add yellow-brown here and purple-brown there, but by stimulating their power to see differences in brown. All the boys who wore brown trousers were asked to line up in front of the room. Much to the surprise of the class, they found that some brown trousers appeared almost yellow or orange when compared to others.

The class brought in jars of earth, from home or from the beach or mountains, because there are varied browns in soil. Next they tried placing a jar of earth in the sun and a jar of the same soil in the shade in order to discover the difference. They found out how dry soil changed when it was wet. Next followed the mixing of browns with paint. The painting of brown houses and fences and tree trunks and ground became a matter of great interest.

7. *Sketching in Exposition Park*

(11–12-Year Level)

For several weeks we had been sketching and painting, both

inside our schoolroom and out in the yard. We were in need of more inspiring views and subjects to paint and new techniques, so I suggested that we visit Exposition Park and the Art Museum there. The whole class was delighted with the idea and we immediately made our plans to go the next day if the weather stayed fine.

The next day was perfect — a beautiful, warm, sunny morning — more like spring than January. After I checked the attendance, the children collected their sketch boards, pencils, charcoal, and other materials, and by twenty minutes past nine were happily on their way. The brisk ten-minute walk to the Park was fun. Several of the children pointed out some of the lovely old trees on the University grounds, noticed the many different shades of green in their colorings, their shadow patterns on the lawns. We looked far up University Avenue and took note of the mountains which were particularly clear. Many children were surprised to see snow-capped Mount Baldy to the east, and hadn't realized that snow-capped mountains were really a part of the background of our own landscape of city houses and streets.

Arriving at Exposition Park, we spent some time looking for good sketching sites and enjoying the pleasing vistas. Some children chose to draw trees, while others made sketches of Mudd Hall [1] across Exposition Boulevard. In a very few minutes coats were off, sleeves rolled up, and drawing began in earnest. Of course, a few just couldn't decide what to draw with so much from which to choose, and wandered from place to place for a while. One by one, these youngsters found likely spots and settled down. The children seemed to feel quite grown up and important when some adults walking through the park observed their work and praised their efforts.

At ten o'clock our group divided into two sections and each in turn visited the Art Museum with me while a student teacher supervised the group left working. In the museum we visited the landscape picture section and looked especially for suggestions in water-color painting.

[1] A building on the campus of the University of Southern California.

The children showed real appreciation of the paintings, and during the following week, their own pictures proved that many of them had received definite help in painting and shading skies, hills, streets, roads, trees, etc. They were much more conscious of color. Several afternoons were spent in planning and painting our large water-color pictures based on the sketches made at the park. The resulting pictures were the finest we had done during the term, and the children were delighted with their work.

8. *The Trees Just Don't Look Right*

(10–12-Year-Olds)

The members of the group making the mural background for the miniature airport on the table were having difficulties of their own. They had stretched a large sheet of wrapping paper across the blackboard so that it would eventually become part of the scenery for the airport which another group was making.

The two groups had been taken to the near-by airport after school one afternoon by the teacher, and each thought that he knew what the surrounding country looked like. In fact they had taken their sketchbooks and had made pencil pictures of the things which they wished to remember.

When they attempted to chalk in their picture, the children were satisfied with the people, and the mountains in the distance, but the "trees just don't look right," as some expressed it. Members from other work groups were borrowed, but still the same comment. At last the class gathered up its sketching materials and went out to look at the trees. Palms and eucalyptus trees were found and each child made several small pencil sketches trying to get the direction of the branches, the thickness of the leaves in some places, the proportion of the trunk to the branches and twigs.

When they returned to the classroom, they finished the pencil sketches in some detail. This did not entirely satisfy them, for this only helped with the outlines of the trees for the

mural. Some asked to paint on large paper. This became an experience for another day. Some children worked in calcimine, others in water color, and two in poster paints. The improvement in the present mural was so marked in contrast with the preceding attempt that the principal, who was herself an artist and who loved to paint trees, complimented the young artists very heartily on their success.

9. *The Six-Year-Olds Prepare Masks*

"Oh, Miss B., that looks like someone's head!" Billy C. eyed the strange round piece of wood with absorbed interest.

"Billy is right, children. This morning some of us are going to make some masks to wear when we play little Black Sambo."

Each group was allowed to ascertain what it would do that morning by reading the tagboard strips of manuscript writing, labeled "The Clay Workers," "The Block Builders," "The Painters," etc. The strip which usually said, "We Shall Read," said instead, "Five of Us Will Make Masks." This strip bore the names of five children.

Miss B. led the eager five to the table holding the egg-shaped globe of wood.

"Now, children, we shall cover the head with these strips of paper, until it is completely covered. We shall have to paste each strip very carefully, and when we have finished we shall put our mask away to dry until tomorrow, so that the glue will be very dry before we paint the first mask."

A block of wood salvaged from a house in process of construction had been worked down by a chisel in the hands of the teacher until it bore almost the head-form needed. Then the children were allowed to sandpaper it to fine smoothness, while others of the committee cut the paper strips needed. On successive days sufficient strips about one inch wide were cut from paper bags. The strips from the bags were found to be more satisfactory than any type of tape, since the bag to begin with had so much the shape of the wooden mold. These

strips then were carefully modeled upon the wooden form, and carefully glued with vegetable glue and paperhanger's paste.

The day that the mask was entirely dry, features were added with chalk and the needed colors of wagon paint were found on the committee table. After the necessary discussion had taken place, and the area first to be painted had been settled upon, the fascinating task of painting the mask began. On successive days the additional color areas were added.

At the end of eight working days, the five masks were completed. With some needed bits of costume from the costume cupboard, very realistic little black Sambos were eating their lunch in the dramatic play hour.

10. *Making a Book Plate for the School Library*

(10–11-Year-Olds)

We had visited the school library and found that several shelves of books were not marked or stamped in any way to show that they belonged to us.

R. "We ought to mark them. What if they are lost? No one would know where to return them."

Teacher. "Does anyone know how books in many private libraries are marked?"

J. "Oh! I borrowed a book from a neighbor, and it had a picture of mountains and said, 'This book belongs to Robert Smith.'"

F. "Can we make something like that?"

Teacher. "Those pictures are called book plates, and many books are marked that way."

It was decided to make a school plate using as subject matter the scenery in and about Los Angeles:

1. Mountains
2. Beach
3. Ships sailing on the ocean
4. School garden
5. Pretty yards in the neighborhood
6. Cactus
7. Flowers
8. Animals
9. Sand dunes, etc.

Each member of the group agreed to make a book plate and then vote on the best one to be used for the school.

Election Day arrived. The book plates were arranged on large sheets of cardboard and numbered. Everyone in the school voted. No. 10 won. We took the ten plates having the most votes and held a second election. No. 10 won the most votes, so Edward's drawing was accepted.

Edward re-drew his original drawing, and painted it with black ink on shiny white paper. We took it to a printer who had it photographed and then made it into a metal plate. Five hundred copies of our book plate were made for us and we can always have more made.

We changed the other designs by using our own names instead of the school name. We cut ours in linoleum and printed them with black printer's ink on paper. Now each child has a book plate for his own book.

11. *We Make Muffins*

(7–8-Year-Olds)

In planning to make muffins, an experience which followed our butter-making experience, we had to work out a recipe that would serve thirty-six of us. The one I had served six. We determined this by making 36 muffins out of paper and arranging them in groups of six.

> Six children brought one egg each.
> Three children brought one cup of corn meal each.
> Three children brought one cup of white flour each.
> Six children brought one-half cup of milk each.
> One child brought a cup of sugar.

I furnished the muffin pans, salt, baking powder, and butter to put in the muffins, as we were saving our butter to eat *on* them. The donations were purely voluntary. We wrote letters home to ask if we might bring the necessary ingredients explaining for what they were to be used. The co-operation was fine.

We worked in groups. I supervised two groups at a time. While the children in one group were measuring and mixing,

the others were copying the recipe for six muffins from the board to take home to try. Many children made them later at home.

We took the muffins to the room which had previously been the domestic science room and baked them. We timed them and tried them with a knitting needle. They came out a lovely brown.

We spread them with the butter we had made earlier in the week and enjoyed them thoroughly. We proudly took one to the principal and the clerk respectively.

The next day I brought some corn and wheat to the school, and we ground this grain into meal and flour in an old-fashioned stone mortar and pestle. We screened out the bran and found that our flour was not as white as the store flour and wondered why. Then we saw a movie of how flour is made commercially. A couple of weeks later we visited the creamery and saw butter made. Still later we visited a large bakery to see bread, cake, pie, and rolls made.

As a result of our study of foods, mothers reported more interest in food, its preparation and consumption at home.

12. *How to Use Tools*

(6–7-Year-Olds)

The first grade had been having difficulties when they sawed their lumber. They had a hard time getting started and then they found that the lumber moved all over making it very difficult for them to saw. Often when they were hammering nails the nails bent; so they just hammered them into the wood and then used another nail. Often the bent nails spoiled the appearance of what they had made.

One morning the teacher called the children together in a group and demonstrated how to clamp lumber to a saw horse, and how to start a groove by drawing the saw toward your body several times. She also demonstrated how to remove crooked nails by using the claw part of the hammer and how to

help with the screw driver if the nail was bent and driven too far into the wood. After demonstrating each process, she let several children try while the others watched. She first chose children who had not been having much difficulty and then those who had been having trouble.

After the short lesson on how to use these four tools correctly, the children resumed their own individual work with a noticeable improvement in their use of these four tools.

Notes on Chapter Nine

1. Perham, Beatrice, *Music in the New School* (Chicago, Illinois: Neil A. Kjos Music Company, 1937) is a real "find" in educational literature; one of the best available statements of the place of music in a modern elementary school program.

2. *The Thirty-Fifth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, *Music Education*. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1936. A review of current practice in American public schools up to 1936.

3. Mursell, James L., *Human Values in Music Education*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934. The best available book on the social implications of music in the school curriculum.

4. Hockett, John A., and E. W. Jacobsen, *Modern Practices in the Elementary School*. Chapter VI, "Utilizing the Children's Latent Abilities," is an adequate and satisfying treatment of the subject.

5. Hopkins, L. Thomas, *Integration — Its Meaning and Application*. Chapter VIII, "The Arts and Integration."

6. Hartman, Gertrude, and Ann Shumaker, *Creative Expression*. New York: John Day, 1932. This is the famous symposium on art, music, literature, and dramatics arranged by the Progressive Education Association. The 338 beautifully illustrated pages cover nearly all forms of aesthetics. Invaluable for reference. Required reading.

7. Biddle, George, *An American Artist's Story*. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1939. A rich and salty autobiography by one of our best modern artists; a point of view on life as well as on art.

8. Kane, John, *Sky Hooks — An Autobiography*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1938. The fascinating life story of a self-made artist. Excellent illustrations. Many parts of this book may be read aloud to children interested in art.

9. Holme, Geoffrey, *The Children's Art Book*. The Studio, London and New York. One of the rare books which really teaches children

appreciation of art in the best sense of that much-abused term. Beautifully illustrated. Required reading.

10. McMahan, A. Phillip, *The Art of Enjoying Art.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938. Nearly one hundred pages of illustrations followed by helpful text on art appreciation.

11. Lewisohn, Sam A., *Painters and Personality.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1937. Brief pungent comment on 132 artists from Leonardo da Vinci to Grant Wood. No color plates but many excellent black-and-whites. A fine first book for the teacher who says, "I really don't know *anything* about art!"

12. Winslow, Leon Loyal, *The Integrated School Art Program.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. This large, handsomely printed, and adequately illustrated book surveys the modern art program in American public schools on all age-levels. An excellent handbook for the classroom teacher. Required reading.

13. Cahill, Holger, and A. H. Barr, editors, *Art in America* — A Complete Survey. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1935. The indispensable first book for teacher. Part I, Art Before the Civil War: Part II, Art After the Civil War. Excellent illustrations and most intelligent comment by the authors. Required reading.

14. Hall, W. S., *Eyes on America.* London and New York: The Studio. This volume is devoted to modern American artists. Fine illustrations accompanied by witty and accurate comments. Required reading.

15. Boswell, Peyton, *Modern American Painting.* New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1939. This fine volume contains eighty-six color plates reprinted from *Life* magazine. Text adequate. Valuable for reference.

16. Craven, Thomas, *A Treasury of American Prints.* New York: Simon and Schuster, 1939. One hundred etchings and lithographs with comments by one of our leading authorities in art.

17. Craven, Thomas, *A Treasury of Art Masterpieces.* New York: Simon and Schuster, 1939. A sumptuous collection of full-page color plates with text, Giotto to Thomas Benton.

18. Sloan, John, *Gist of Art.* American Artists Group, Inc., New York City, 1939. Pungent comments on art by one of the greatest American painters. One hundred and thirty-four pages of illustrations with racy comment by the artist. Required reading.

19. Van Loon, Hendrik Willem, *The Arts.* New York: Simon and Schuster, 1937. This book is so well known that comment is unnecessary. Required reading.

20. *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher.* Joint Yearbook, American Educational Research Association and Depart-

ment of Classroom Teachers. Chapter XIII, "The Appreciative Arts."

21. Norton, John K., and Margaret A. Norton, *Foundations of Curriculum Making.* Chapter 13, "Music"; Chapter 14, "Art"; Chapter 15, "Industrial Arts"; Chapter 16, "Home Economics."

22. Watson, Forbes, *American Painting Today.* Washington, D.C.: American Federation of Arts, 1939. A history of "ten good years of American Art," but chiefly a picture-book illustrated with 259 plates, 10 in color. Required reading.

23. Newkirk, Louis V., *Integrated Handwork for Elementary Schools.* New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1940. Everything from block printing to weaving. 36 photographs, 112 charts.

24. Cole, Natalie Robinson, *The Arts in the Classroom.* New York: John Day Company, 1940. The account of a modern teacher's release of the creative ability of her children. This is a stimulating and provocative book. Required reading.

Teachers interested in such "musical discoveries" as have been described in the preceding pages may find the following list of phonograph records useful.

This list is organized into two sections. The first section lists records which are recommended for use, irrespective of grade, in both the lower and upper school. The second section lists records which are recommended only for the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades of upper school.

RECORDS SUITABLE FOR USE IN ALL GRADES [1]

Title	*Composer*	*Record Number*
Sarabande Komm Süsser Tod	Bach	Victor 8496
Clair de Lune	Debussy	Victor 1812
Coppélia-Valse and Entr'acte	Delibes	Victor 1743
Jewels of the Madonna —Intermezzo	Wolf-Ferrari	
The Sorcerer's Apprentice	Dukas	Victor 7021
Ballet Music from *Faust*	Gounod	Victor 9646
Eight Excerpts from *Hänsel und Gretel*	Humperdinck	Victor J-7
The Music Box	Liadow	Victor 4390
Turkey in the Straw		
The Dream from *Manon*	Massenet	Victor 8421

[1] Courtesy of the Music Division, Los Angeles City Schools.

Title	*Composer*	*Record Number*
Berceuse from *Jocelyn*	Massenet	Victor 8421
Scherzo (*Midsummer Night's Dream*)	Mendelssohn Mendelssohn	Victor 9283 Victor 9283
Four German Dances	Mozart	Victor 1723
March and Scherzo from *Love for Three Oranges*	Prokofieff	Victor 14953
Song of India	Rimsky-Korsakow	Victor 4303
Intermezzo from *Cavalleria Rusticana*	Mascagni	
Dance of the Tumblers	Rimsky-Korsakow	Victor 11454
Spielerei (Playfulness)	Stix	Victor 1759
Waltzes (*Der Rosenkavalier*)	Strauss	
Berceuse	Sibelius	Victor 12221
Nutcracker Suite (9 movements – complete on 6-record sides)	Tschaikowsky	Decca Album 23
Evening Star (*Tannhaüser*)	Wagner	Victor 8452
Romance	Wioniawski	Victor 8758

RECORDS RECOMMENDED FOR USE IN UPPER GRADES ONLY

Eighth Symphony: 2d movement 3d movement	Beethoven	Victor 14258
Scherzo from String Quartet	Borodin	Victor 8610
Nocturne	Borodin	Victor 8611
In the Steppes of Central Asia	Borodin	Victor 11169
Third Symphony — 3d movement	Brahms	Victor 12024
España Rapsodie	Chabrier	Victor 4375
London Suite No. 1	Coates	Victor 36129
London Suite No. 3		Victor 36130
Festivale	Debussy	Victor 1309
A Song Before Sunrise	Delius	Victor 9732
Japanese Nocturne (Unit of Work)	Eicheim	Victor 7260
Dream Pantomime (*Hänsel und Gretel*)	Humperdinck	Victor 11832
Overture (*Hänsel und Gretel*)	Humperdinck	Victor 11929
March of the Caucasian Chief	Ippolitow-Ivanow	Victor 11883
In the Village Fugato on a Well-Known Theme	McBride	Victor 4378
Italian Symphony (1st movement)	Mendelssohn	Victor 8889

Title	*Composer*	*Record Number*
Ballet of the Unhatched Chickens	Moussorgsky	Victor 7373
In the Tuileries and Bydlo		
A Night on a Bare Mountain	Moussorgsky	Victor 11448
Merry Wives of Windsor (Overture)	Nicolai	Victor 11836
Dance of the Hours (*La Gioconda*)	Ponchieili	Victor 11833
Classical Symphony	Prokofieff	Victor 7196
Classical Symphony		Victor 7197
Suite	Purcell	Victor 1664
The Cat's Tongue	Scarlatti	
String Quartet (1st movement)	Ravel	Victor 14569
Introduction and Bridal Cortège (*Le Coq d'Or*)	Rimsky-Korsakow	Victor 9696
Trout Quintet (4th movement)	Schubert	Victor 14035
Polka and Galop	Stravinsky	Decca 25509
Till Eulenspiegel's Merry Pranks, Parts 1 and 2	Richard Strauss	Victor 11724
Till Eulenspiegel's Merry Pranks, Parts 3 and 4		Victor 11725
Pizzicato-Scherzo (4th Symphony)	Tschaikowsky	Victor 14188
Invitation to the Dance	von Weber	Victor 15189
Prelude to Act 1 (*Lohengrin*)	Wagner	Victor 14006
Prelude to Act 3 (*Lohengrin*)	Wagner	Victor 14007
Siegfried's Rhine Journey	Wagner	Victor 14008
The Ride of the Valkyries	Wagner	Victor 9172
Brunnhilde's Battle Cry (*Die Walküre*)	Wagner	Victor 1726
Secret of Susanne (Overture)	Wolf-Ferrari	Victor 4412

The following are Victor Album sets which are recommended:

Adventures in a Perambulator	John Alden Carpenter	Victor Album M-238
Hary Janos Suite	Kodaly	Victor Album M-197
Lieutenant Kije Suite	Prokofieff	Victor Album M-459
Scheherazade Suite	Rimsky-Korsakow	Victor Album M-269
Carnival of Animals	Saint-Saëns	Victor Album M-71

CHAPTER TEN



The Skills and Drills

THE American school has at last come to the parting of the ways regarding the three R's and the place of drill in the curriculum. For many of our school systems the "fundamentals" constitute desirable subject matter and drills constitute technique. Other school systems committed to the same educational philosophy but afraid of being called conventional, reactionary, or old-fashioned, seek to avoid criticism by emphasizing the fine arts as a concession to the progressives. Ultra-progressive systems either eliminate skills and drills entirely or teach them incidentally or accidentally. School systems which reflect the organismic (growth-environment-experience) approach to a philosophy of education have reached the point of view described in the following paragraphs.

What preparation must a child have for the serious business of being an adult? The ability to read at the fourth grade level; to write a short business or friendly letter in the fourth grade vocabulary with a fair degree of legibility and not too many mistakes in spelling; the ability to use the four fundamental processes of arithmetic in carrying on the day's work (making change correctly, for example); and the ability to read the sports returns and the "funny strips" are probably the minimum qualifications which the average American needs to "get by." What inner resources does such a man have? How

can he entertain himself in his leisure moments? How can he, when he dies, leave the world richer by reason of his having lived in it? Do we want to train our children to become adults who will live out their days intellectually, socially, or emotionally on a bare subsistence level?

Let us assume, then, (*a*) that skills and drills have a place in a progressive school program which seeks other ends than life on the subsistence level; (*b*) that we must determine the functional relationship of skills and drills to other phases of the school program; and (*c*) that, finally, we need to know more than we do about the inner nature of skills and drills themselves.

The dictionary has considerable to say in attempting to define the word "skill." Put into plain English, the dictionary says that if you know something very well indeed the evidence of that fact is the *dexterity* with which you use your knowledge. When you display your knowledge through the same technique used by the young man on the flying trapeze, by doing something "with the greatest of ease," you possess "skill" in that particular direction. There is only one knowledge of juggling and that is to juggle dexterously, to toss objects around in such a fashion that each falls at the proper time into the proper place without apparent effort on the part of the juggler. A popular song embodies this idea — *It's Not What You Do But The Way That You Do It.* You possess knowledge about making love, making salads, making a dress, and you show your mastery of your subject by your actions. Either you are "skillful" or you are awkward.

Now this is an important point. Note that *the skill has no value in itself — it is merely attached to something which makes the skill meaningful.* It is here that we have to break with the conventional teacher who sees the skill as valuable in itself, a point of view which has no justification in real life.

Finally, skill and drill are inseparable companions. You drill to improve your skill, and your skill increases if drill is persisted in. Kreisler "drills" or practices by the hour so that

his fingers, hand, and arm may be flexible so that he can make sweet music. We observe that his technique is marvelous — which it is. We are simply saying, in other words, that he evidences surpassing skill, and we note that he keeps that skill to a high level by drill. So in time order — knowledge, skill, drill; greater knowledge, greater skill, more drill, and so on, until skill has reached that point of perfection where further growth is impossible and drill is used only to keep skill at concert pitch. But keep in mind that even on this exalted plane, skill exists for a purpose. In Kreisler's case to make marvelous music; in Pavlova's case to dance marvelously; in John Masefield's case to write marvelous poetry; in the cashier's case to make accurate change; in the chauffeur's case to drive rapidly without accident.

One of the greatest advances in the history of reading as a school subject is the acceptance by modern school people that reading is no longer a subject as such but an accompaniment to most experiences which make up the day's work. In the same way, we have come to accept language, one of the most obstinate subjects in the curriculum, as no longer a subject but a "necessary concomitant of nearly all human action." In a previous chapter, we have said repeatedly that "language is a form of social behavior." It is possible that arithmetic will shortly lose its place on the time schedule and appear throughout the day's work wherever it is needed. Let us accept the point of view then, that each phase of knowledge has its techniques or evidencing skills which we perfect through drill and the sensible way to develop skill is to develop it through its parent, "if, as and when."

It is a convenience to catalogue the skills used in the elementary school into several categories.

1. *Bodily Skills*

Grown-ups do not realize, after the lapse of years, how constantly they use physical or bodily skills learned in early childhood and now forgotten because they have become purely

automatic. We stand and walk upright, never giving the matter a moment's conscious thought because we mastered the skill when we were very young and perfected it by the repeated drill of a lifetime. Our nervous system does the trick and is constantly on the job without ever obtruding itself upon our consciousness unless the rhythm of our daily life is interrupted. Yet it is an acquired, an artificial accomplishment. Biologically, we are animals, and as such our natural posture is on all fours. By main strength and awkwardness and through many hard knocks, we haul ourselves up to the erect position, and finally stay there. Let us become dizzy for a moment, or faint, or be knocked into unconsciousness by a hard blow, and we are back where we started from in infancy, flat on our backs, or our stomachs, as the case may be.

Elementary teachers need to be reminded of these things. They need to consider, especially in the case of little children, the importance of the child's acquisition of those physical skills which are to remain with him throughout his lifetime. Consider the long list of the accomplishments of the small child.[1] He learns to stand erect, to walk, to skip, to hop, to run, to go up and down stairs, to speak simple words, to speak in phrases, to speak in sentences, to hum, to sing, to use his hands as tools and to use tools as extensions of his hands, to walk along a straight line or upon a narrow board, to jump rope, to bounce a ball, to throw a ball, to catch a ball, to remove his outer clothing by himself and put it on, to hang up his coat and hat, to pile blocks one on another, to wash his hands and face, and so on, through the long familiar catalogue. The teacher must become sensitive to the development of the growing child in these respects, to see whether needed skills arrive "on time," to give wise guidance, to discover causes for delay in physical development.

[1] The reader is referred to the excellent article in *Life* for February 26, 1940, "Human Infants Make Good Laboratory Subjects in Child-Development Study." Unusual photographs of little children learning to stand, walk, and climb, accompany the article.

The teacher should avoid the error of thinking that the child who has arrived safely at the age of six with his physical skills normally developed has nothing more to learn in this respect. From now on, the necessary added skills will be less tangible, more easily concealed by protective coloration as self-consciousness and pride develop, more difficult to observe and control because they represent more delicate physical adjustments. Observe the child as he paints, as he models with clay, as he sketches with charcoal, as he plays on the song bells, as he attempts a new game in the school yard, as he enters into a folk dance. Let the teacher keep brief pencil notes of the finer physical adjustments, and, if necessary, let her call in the school physician and nurse for observation and advice.

2. *Social Skills*

We are gregarious animals, and, unlike Kipling's famous Cat, we do not like to be alone. The usual time sequence for small children is, (*a*) to go about their little businesses at home on their own with the proviso that mother is standing by and is accessible as an ever-present help in time of trouble; (*b*) to continue as a rugged individualist in company with other children, also rugged individualists; (*c*) to continue in partnership with one or two chosen companions; (*d*) to enlarge the circle until one becomes a working member of a larger group, and (*e*) about the nine- or ten-year level, to recognize the principle of division of labor and accept leadership of the group or a major or minor subordinate's place in group life. "John will be catcher 'n' Jim will be pitcher 'n' I'll be batter." This is not arrived at without a multitude of squeaks, groans, quarrels, tiffs, tears, blows, punches, "mads," and all the up-and-downs which accompany normal social intercourse, even on the adult level.

There is no more important part of the teacher's job than her control of social relationships in the group of children whom she teaches. She needs to be sensitive to these things, to observe them alertly and guide them intelligently so that out of

these social experiences the child may emerge as a personality. After all, the goal itself is simple. Each child needs to have such a carefully directed social life in school that he arrives at security, recognition, and a sense of achieving something worth while to him and to his companions. The child who arrives at the nine-year-old level with a husky inferiority complex is a lasting monument to poor teaching somewhere along the line.

Many of the necessary techniques of social adjustment are not acquired incidentally. Many of them need to be taught frankly as techniques and perfected by practice (or drill) in a situation which has social meaning and significance. Modern social life requires, for example, that we be able to make introductions easily and gracefully — to introduce a child to the class, to introduce a child to the teacher, to introduce a group of children to a visitor, to introduce a group to a busy executive in his office. Another series of techniques revolve around the lunch table — how to be graceful and socially at ease if you are only ten years old and your left trouser is at half mast and your right shoe lace is trailing along the floor behind you. A third series of techniques is concerned with the social conventions to be observed in public — at the show, in the assembly, at church, on the school bus, at the broadcasting station when we visit it. The teacher may not take for granted that these skills will be taught at home; parents may not be alert to the need or may not be willing to exert themselves. Above all, let the demonstration of the technique being taught, and the subsequent drill, be in their logical setting. The only way to teach table manners at school is to place the children at the luncheon table, and carry them through an actual meal until the technique is understood. Many subsequent meals will have to be offered up on the cafeteria altar until practice (drill) has made the skill automatic.

Among many other things, courtesy and good manners have to be taught as such with due regard, of course, to the situations which demand good manners. There is a popular theory that

good manners proceed out of a kind heart, which may be true enough, but a little direct instruction will accelerate the process mightily. Let the teacher beware, however! Children are uncannily observant, and all the teaching of good manners in the world will not avail the teacher if she herself has occasional lapses. Let us assume that she, too, has a kind heart but has drilled herself sufficiently to make her own manners impeccable.

3. *Mechanical Skills*

The human hand is in itself a marvelous instrument, but its range of accomplishment is enormously extended by placing in it a tool familiar to the possessor of the hand. It is a lasting reproach to our leaders in elementary education that they have failed so completely to recognize the significance in child development of what we call mechanical or manual skills. Such subjects as manual education, practical arts, home economics are grudgingly given space on the time-table or ignored entirely. Parents and taxpayers who should know better object to them on the grounds that they involve needless expense and that they could be better learned at home, ignoring the fact that the modern home is not equipped to teach them and that wise guidance is usually lacking.

Let us sum up some of the arguments for the inclusion of the mechanical skills in an effective program of child growth and development. First of all, the implication at the beginning of this section that tools, properly used, enlarge the powers of the person trained to use them. A boy picks up a gnarled root and by shortening it and by breaking off certain parts arrives at a crude representation of the human figure. Give him a pocket knife with reasonably sharp blades, and out of a block of wood he can make a figure much closer to reality. Give him a full set of woodworking tools, give him the needed skills (techniques) in handling them, and there is no limit to the achievement he may reach except the limitations of his ability.

Second, the person who has mastered a series of tool tech-

niques has a sense of accomplishment which adds to his respect for himself as a person, whether his skill is confined to pitching ball or is applied to playing a concerto on the violin or painting a mural.

Third, the person who possesses mechanical skill has a resource for his leisure time which makes him less dependent for his personal satisfactions upon his social group and thereby increases both his pleasure in life and his independence of spirit.

Fourth, he has the joy of creating something useful or beautiful or both. There is a great thrill in formulating an idea or getting an inspiration and see it take visible shape under his capable hands. He not only adds to his own pleasure but adds also to the comfort and pleasure of others. The world is richer by reason of his being in it.

Fifth, there is a therapeutic effect through the exercise of a mechanical technique that is soothing, quieting, and relaxing to a nervous system which is under strain or apt to become unstable when outside pressures are applied. We recognize these facts in occupational therapy, but its application to the development of the normal child has been almost entirely ignored.

What can the elementary school do about it? First of all, we can make a respectable place for mechanical skills and techniques on our time schedule and implement our program with adequate equipment and supplies and provide teachers competent to teach these techniques. There is a popular fallacy that the average classroom teacher is quite competent in woodwork, metal work, bookbinding, cooking and sewing, and if she balks at being assigned these instructional areas, she is merely being disagreeable about it. Anything worth doing is worth doing well, and the prime requisites for elementary school teachers in these fields are that these teachers should be experts in their respective arts and should know how to impart skill to their pupils. The best solution is to include in each elementary school of ten classes or over:

(*a*) A *general shop* in which both boys and girls may be instructed in simple woodwork leading to the making of such objects as are needed in the experiences provided in the classroom, such objects as satisfy a personal interest and need on the part of the individual child, and such objects as contribute to the general welfare and convenience and comfort of the school as a whole. The classroom teacher who provides good experiences in the social studies, science, and the language arts will help her children discover needs for illustrative materials which can be fashioned in the school shop. Skills involved in sheet-metal work, simple electricity, and elementary physics should be included in the shop program.

(*b*) A *household arts shop* in which both girls and boys may learn the sewing and cooking which are appropriate to their respective age-levels. Included in the household arts curriculum are simple stitchery, embroidery, crocheting, knitting, and weaving. It is ridiculous to limit experiences in weaving to spool weaving or weaving on a flimsy wooden frame nine by twelve inches. Several large looms should be provided so that children may learn to string warp, to use the foot pedal, to follow a design, to make something large enough to have practical value. One or two embroidery looms should be included in the equipment to give experience in weaving belts, runners, and the more expensive fabrics.

(*c*) A *simple workbench* should be provided in each classroom for minor construction which does not require the more elaborate equipment of the school shop.

The fine arts program in the elementary school involves many diverse manual skills. Sketching crayon, calcimine brush, water color brush, paint spray, wood-block, and linoleum knife are tools, and their uses must be imparted by competent craftsmen. Another series of tools is found in use in the school garden, and still another series in the equipment used on the school playground. Laying out a tennis court or a baseball field necessitates the use of appropriate tools and again, the use of each must be imparted by persons competent in the field.

4. *Intellectual Skills*

At the present time, there are two approaches to the problem of teaching the intellectual (or academic) skills in the elementary school. The first approach is to divide the school day roughly in half, present the content subjects such as social studies, science, and literature in one half; and to devote the second half to practice in familiar skills and to presentation of new skills in work-type reading, English usage, spelling, penmanship, and arithmetic. The second approach is to use the major portion of the school day for the content subjects and treat the skills more or less incidentally as need arises. Each of these plans has its characteristic merits and objections but, in general, it may be observed that the first plan implies that we can afford to give the children a good time part of the day and make up for it by drudgery in the other half. The second plan is much more in line with a modern philosophy of education but suffers from the consequence that the purely incidental often becomes the purely accidental and ends up joyfully by not being done at all.

A third plan is an outgrowth of the philosophy of education outlined in Chapter Four of this book. It assumes (*a*) that during the social living period, the science period, and the language arts period, the teacher will be on the alert to note instances of difficulty on the part of the children during their exposure to the content subjects; (*b*) that she will set apart a period during the day when old skills will be reviewed, new skills will be presented, and practice (drill) periods will be provided, and (*c*) that subjects which depend immediately upon skills such as music, art, physical education, and the practical arts will combine in their separate periods both content and skill.

Let us follow the twelve-year-olds through part of a typical school day to see what part the skills and drills play as indicated in the teacher's notebook. It should be understood that the following accounts have been expanded in the teacher's spare time from very brief notes.

Social Living

(*a*) The children are very slow in locating places on the wall map of the United States. I noticed that most of them groped around in finding St. Louis. A reference to Boston in an oral report led them to search for it in Missouri, a case of least resistance, I imagine.

(*b*) A group of boys looking up information in the World Almanac ruffled over the several hundred pages of the book several times until a girl invited them to examine the index.

(*c*) Spelling in written reports is giving us considerable difficulty especially in American place names; "Minneapolis" and "New Orleans" are prime favorites for weird combinations of syllables.

(*d*) I wish my children had the knack of extracting the pith of what they read. I asked several children to sum up an excellent paragraph on cotton growing this morning with the result that they tried to reproduce the entire paragraph instead of the few essential points.

Science

Our sweet potato vines which were a brilliant green all last week while in the window have now become pale and washed out on the cloakroom shelf. The children can state the facts, but when I ask them to generalize, they fail to see the point that all plants depend upon bright sunlight in manufacturing the essential chlorophyl. They see the specific instance, but lack any power at all to generalize in even the simplest way.

The Language Arts

(*a*) At the present time, we are dividing up into two major groups, one set of children working on our room newspaper, the others planning a production on our Little Theater program. Our newspaper reporters collect considerable news but have few or no standards at all in determining the items which *Time* Magazine calls "newsworthy." All is grist to their mill, and they tend to mistake quantity for quality.

(*b*) The girls in the Little Theater group have reached the point where their spontaneous dialogue is "jelling" in a very satisfactory way into the final script, but arrangement, spelling, and handwriting are atrocious. I pity the poor actors when they first read their "sides."

(*c*) Our verse-choir goes on apace. The children know their lines, recite them with gusto, and thoroughly enjoy the experience. Voice quality is excellent and articulation appalling. Final consonants are neglected and syllables which should be separated are telescoped without turning a hair.

(*d*) "Seen" and "done" still sully the ambient ether during our oral reports. In giving these reports, most of my boys seen their duty and done it, and the audience doesn't appear shocked in the least, with the possible exception of two smaller girls who love to see the males come a cropper. I fool them by smiling blandly and saying nothing, bearing in mind St. Paul's observation that there is a time for everything. I know enough (I hope) to know that this is not the accepted time.

Physical Education

I have been watching my little girls practice catching the soft ball. Why is it that females *will* persist in catching a ball in their laps and not in their hands! No wonder the boys give them derisive looks.

Arithmetic

Problem solving within the experience fields of my children is well done. We are being slowed down, however, in getting answers by fumbling around with 6×9 and 8×7. Apparently, we did not clinch our harder multiplication tables.

It will be seen from the above that the intelligent teacher will never be without materials from the day's work for use in skills and drills. She will not make the fatal mistake of attempting to meet these needs by a merely casual treatment of them. She will have to devise carefully planned attacks on the difficulties involved and practice on the needed techniques un-

til the difficulties are removed. Further, she will realize the fact sooner or later *that there are whole series of skills which deserve attention and for themselves.* In art and music, especially, the children need to acquire whole vocabularies of expression in order to express themselves with fluency, and the wise teacher will not apologize for anticipating these needs in advance. She will say, for example, "Here is a new way to make block prints"; "here is the way to determine the keynote of songs in your music book"; "here is the way to begin a design on copper"; "here is the quickest way to prove long division." Curiously enough normal children like to learn techniques if the promise of results and accomplishment lies just ahead within the child's ability. There is no reason, therefore, why certain techniques cannot be cultivated for their own sake. The only caution in this instance is: *Be sure the child can learn the skill easily, can put it to some practical use, and find satisfaction in accomplishment.*

5. *Arithmetic in Transition*

Of all the skill-and-drill subjects, arithmetic offers the greatest number of difficulties. Spelling, penmanship, English usage, and work-type reading are closely linked in the modern elementary school, with the situations that give rise to the need for them, even though the actual drill or practice comes in a separate period. This has been made clear in the preceding section. Arithmetic, on the other hand, has been a separate subject in most elementary schools for many years, and it is only recently that arithmetic began to move from its isolated position in the curriculum to a closer relationship with the elementary school subjects. It is quite possible that arithmetic, like reading and the language arts, may disappear from the time-table and become closely integrated with social studies, science, the aesthetic and practical arts. It is equally possible that it may remain as a school subject in its own right as well as in integration with other subjects.

There is a vigorous movement under way at present to "step-

up" the grade placement of certain arithmetical processes from lower to higher grades. The contention here is that there is a golden moment in the development of children when a process can be learned with minimum effort and maximum achievement, and it now appears that we have anticipated most of these golden moments in the past by from one to three grades with disastrous results. A correlative tendency is to decrease the amount of arithmetic, grade by grade, in the elementary school and push the bulk of arithmetical learning into the junior high school. All this leaves the poor classroom teacher at a loss to know what to teach in arithmetic and when to teach it. We can reassure her in part, at least, by indicating a procedure which may successfully carry her over the transitional period. The *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook*, Part One, *Child Development and the Curriculum*,[1] gives the clue to the solution by pointing out:

1. That there are two aspects of arithmetic instruction which must receive attention in the modern elementary school, *social* arithmetic and *computational* arithmetic.
2. That by social arithmetic we mean teaching the uses of arithmetic in everyday life through leading the children through a series of well-chosen social situations involving number.
3. That by computational arithmetic we mean those specific number skills which must be presented in such a way as to fall within the comprehension of the learner and be made automatic through repetition, practice, and drill.
4. That the number of specific computational skills which must be taught separately and formally can be greatly reduced by teaching many of them incidentally through units in social living which have number implications.
5. That since pupils vary so widely in ability to grasp arithmetical concepts and processes, rigid grade standards in arithmetic should be relaxed to provide for learning at varying rates of speed.
6. That social arithmetic can best be taught through whole-class or large-group experiences while computational arithmetic should be largely individualized.

[1] Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1939.

7. That certain large processes instead of being attacked en masse can be better taught by teaching each piecemeal at successive growth levels. Long division, for example, can be divided into separate aspects and phases, a few of which can be taught at a time until the entire process shall have been mastered.[1]

It may help the teacher in adjusting the arithmetic load to the abilities of her children to study two suggestive schemes for grade placement of arithmetic materials. The first is adapted from Brueckner's chapter to which reference has been made above.[2]

Stage 1
(Pre-school, Kindergarten, Early First Grade)
Informal number experience leading to incidental learning of number facts and concepts.

Stage 2
(First and Second Grades)
Acquiring ability to read numbers, to count in orderly fashion, to learn simple number facts, to compare objects with respect to number, size, and shape.

Stage 3
(Third and Fourth Grades)
Mastery of the fundamental processes with whole numbers — the addition and subtraction facts, the easier multiplication and division facts; mastery of skills in making needed computations; ability to draw from and apply to quantitive concepts in daily experiences.

Stage 4
(Fifth and Sixth Grades)
Greater range of social experiences involving number and its application; mastery of simple fractions and long division.

The second scheme is adapted from the Report of the Committee of Seven and appears in full in *Adjusting the School to the Child* by Carleton Washburne.

[1] The *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook*, pp. 275–98 (by Brueckner)
[2] The *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook*, pp. 280–81.

Mental Age 6–7 (First Grade)

Addition facts, sums under 10.
Comparisons of height, thickness, width.
Measure lines in even inches.
Number of inches in a foot, in two feet.
Read clock on the even hour and understand A.M. and P.M.
Informal social experiences with number multiplications.

Mental Age 8–9 (Third Grade)

Addition facts, sums over 10.
Easy subtraction facts.
Easy multiplication facts, products of 20 or less.
Simpler forms of square measure.
Knowledge of minutes, hours, days, of how to read the calendar, of how to read the clock to the quarter hour.
Rich and varied social experiences involving number.

Mental Age 9–10 (Fourth Grade)

Column addition not more than three digits high and three digits wide.
Simple multiplication with no partial products over 20.
Easy division facts, dividends of 20 or less.
Simple fractions.
Relation of inches, feet, and yards.
Comparison of length, height, and width.
Primary facts about simple plane figures, as square and rectangle.

Mental Age 10–11 (Fifth Grade)

Meaning of simple decimals.
Addition and subtraction of simple fractions.
Simple bar graphs.
Measurements in feet and inches.
Very simple denominate numbers.

Mental Age 11–12 (Sixth Grade)

Multiplication facts completed.
Division facts completed.
Long division with a two-place division and one-place quotient.
Division of decimals by integers.
Square measure in simple form.[1]

On all levels mentioned above, it is assumed that rich *social* experiences involving number are supplied.

[1] Adapted from the *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook*, pp. 309–13 (by Washburne).

Notes on Chapter Ten

1. Washburne, Carleton, *Adjusting the School to the Child.* Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1932. While dealing primarily with individual differences, offers substantial help to the teacher in developing an adequate skills-and-drills program. One of the best features of this book lies in the simple, direct style of the author and his unfailing sense of humor.

2. *The Implication of Research for the Classroom Teacher.* Joint Yearbook, American Educational Research Association and Department of Classroom Teachers. Chapter VIII, "The Language Arts — Handwriting; The Language Arts — Spelling"; Chapter X, "Mathematics — Arithmetic"; Chapter XII, "Healthful Living — Health Education; Healthful Living — Safety Education."

3. Wilson, Guy M., Mildred B. Stone, and Charles O. Dalrymple, *Teaching the New Arithmetic* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939) is the best available handbook on this subject for the busy classroom teacher. Unlike other books on mathematics, it is attractively printed and illustrated, and makes "browsing" through it easy and delightful.

4. Norton, John K., and Margaret A. Norton, *Foundations of Curriculum Building.* This is a source book listing the major investigations made on school subjects together with interpretations and summaries. See Chapter V, "Health and Physical Education"; Chapter VIII, "Handwriting"; Chapter IX, "Spelling"; Chapter XI, "Arithmetic."

5. Some excellent suggestions on the skill subjects will be found in *Progressive Education,* April–June quarterly number, 1928, especially one of the best articles ever written about elementary school arithmetic, "Children's Mathematics," by Elsie Clapp. If the spirit of Miss Clapp's article were carried out in practice, our arithmetic program would be revolutionized.

6. Each of the volumes of the *Lincoln School Curriculum Studies* (see p. 63) contains one or more chapters on the skill-and-drill aspects of the units described. For example, in Emily Ann Barnes and Bess M. Young, *Children and Architecture,* Chapter IX, "How Study Habits Were Cared For," will prove very helpful.

7. Hockett, John A., and E. W. Jacobsen, *Modern Practices in the Elementary School*: Chapter VIII, "Meeting Individual Needs"; Chapter IX, "Meeting the Needs of Unusual Children."

8. "The Public School Program in Health, Physical Education, and Recreation," *California Journal of Elementary Education,* November, 1939. This excellent program is the outcome of a two-year study by a committee of the Society of State Directors of Physical and Health Education.

9. Strayer, George Drayton, and C. B. Upton, *The Social Utility Arithmetics* (3 books; New York: American Book Company, 1937) may be of interest to the reader. These illustrate the social utility values in arithmetic which have been stressed in this chapter.

10. Hildreth, Gertrude Howell, *Learning the Three R's* (Philadelphia: Educational Publishers, 1936) is an excellent reference on the skill-and-drill subjects, presenting the modern point of view towards skills as necessary accompaniments to all school work.

11. Clapp, Frank L., *The Master Key Arithmetics* (Houghton Mifflin Company). These books offer a very carefully graded and cumulative course for mastery of all the steps in the fundamental processes, with stress on their practical usefulness and social utility.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

◇

One Hundred Years of American Elementary Education

Not long ago a teacher said to the writer: "I have to make a talk to our Parent-Teacher Association on the evolution of our elementary schools. We teachers find ourselves so confused and so puzzled over educational theories, movements, philosophies, and slogans that it is difficult to arrive at a few essential facts. If we could see the simple outlines rather than a mass of detail we would feel more secure in our thinking. Will you help me?"

Let us begin by defining our terms. What does *education* mean to us in general? What does *elementary education* mean in particular? Education has been defined in an infinite number of ways by a multitude of people according to their philosophy of education, their environment, their needs, their point of view, their general bias, or pre-disposition. For our purpose, however, it may be defined in simple, common-sense terms somewhat as follows: *Education is the process whereby the human organism (or human being) is helped to advance through various stages of development from helpless infancy to responsible and self-directed maturity.*

For the sake of clearness, we must add to our definition of

education the idea that education is carried on by *agencies* — by the environment in which the person undergoing education finds himself; by the social group in which he lives, both the immediate family to which he belongs and the larger social group which embraces the neighborhood and community; by society as a whole as expressed in its ideas, ideals, traditions, and culture. Again we should add to our concept of education that society, unwilling to depend primarily upon the contribution made by these agencies, has devised a social institution called the *school* to which it delegates, as its major function, the formal education of its members. Education is, therefore, in the largest sense of the term a *social process.*

Finally, our concept of education may be further expanded by the idea that the person being educated (at least from the age of one year and above) must accept partial responsibility for his own education. He must do certain things, not only because he is told to do them and because he is helped to perfect them by practice and repetition, but because he understands (dimly at first perhaps, and later with increasing clarity) *why* he is doing them. This is the major distinction between *training* and *education.* An animal can be trained to perform a series of acts by being shown how to perform them, by being made to perform them, and he will improve through directed repetition, but at no time is he likely to assume responsibility for his self-direction based upon a concept of purpose.

In general, common custom and usage assign certain terms to definite stages of education based upon chronological age. A gross (or rough) division is (1) *elementary education* which includes education for the ages from two years to twelve years, inclusive; (2) *secondary education* from twelve years to eighteen years inclusive; (3) *higher* or *collegiate education* from eighteen to twenty-four years, inclusive; and (4) *adult education* for all persons over collegiate age. The scope of the present book, therefore, deals with the education of the two- to twelve-year olds. Assuming that elementary education deals with children within these age-ranges, it is possible to further particu-

larize elementary education by considering it under the following divisions:

(1) The Day Nursery (2- to 5-year-olds)
(2) The Nursery School (3- to 5-year-olds)
(3) The Kindergarten (4- to 5-year-olds)
(4) The Primary Grades (6- to 9-year-olds) or Grades, I, II, and III
(5) The Middle Grades (9- to 13-year-olds) or Grades III, IV, V, and VI

The overlapping in age-ranges shown above is made necessary by the fact that children on the same age-levels often differ greatly in ability and experience. In progressive school systems it is becoming customary to group together (1), (2), (3), and (4) under the title, *The Lower (Elementary) School*, and the remaining age-levels under the title, *The Upper (Elementary) School.*

One of the popular devices today in modern social studies is the making of a "time line" to show in graphic form successive important events. If we were to plan such a time line to depict the evolution of the elementary school in the United States, we could profitably begin with the year 1840 and end at the current year (1940). Let us list some of the developments in elementary education in this country during the one hundred years.

It should be remembered that the idea of popular public education in America was practically unknown at the time of Washington's inauguration. While a few of the colonies were committed in theory, at least, to the idea that the community must provide for the education of its young people, education remained largely a private enterprise supported by the tuition of the pupils. The rise of the democratic ideal from the time of Jefferson to the presidency of Andrew Jackson made education an imperative necessity if men and women were to use the privilege of universal franchise intelligently and effectively. The rapid increase in the population of the country and the opening of new lands to the west accelerated educational pro-

gress to a marked degree. America had become, almost overnight, the "land of opportunity," and free, popular, tax-supported schools were well under way by 1840. A rudimentary graded system and the institution of State Departments of Education were visible on the educational horizon about this time, and the outlines of the elementary school as we know it today were beginning to appear. Let us list a round dozen of the many changes which have taken place in elementary education between 1840 and 1940.

1. *Size of Schools.* In 1840 the typical elementary school was a one-room rural school with a handful of children; by 1940 the elementary school included rural schools, town schools, and city schools, many with enrollments of over 1000 children.

2. *Attendance.* In 1840 children attended for only a few months in winter or in summer and average daily attendance was low. By 1940, compulsory education laws had gathered nearly every eligible child into school except in those communities financially unable to support schools of any kind.

3. *Organization.* The school of 1840 was ungraded; the school of 1940 in consolidated rural districts, in towns, and cities is a graded school of grades or half-grades.

4. *Curriculum.* The curriculum of the elementary school of 1840 was limited in general to the three R's — reading, writing, and arithmetic. The curriculum of 1940 is a vastly complex affair composed of from twelve to fifteen subject categories.

5. *The School and the Home.* The school of 1840 was merely an *adjunct* to the home, designed to add types of instruction for which the home had neither time nor opportunity. The school of 1940 is largely a *substitute* for the home, performing today many of the functions discharged by the home in an earlier period.

6. *The School Plant.* The elementary school of 1840 was usually located in a log cabin in the rural districts or in one or more rooms in a private house in town or city. The elementary building of 1940 is a combination of functional units which

provide for (*a*) administration, (*b*) learning, (*c*) feeding, (*d*) health, (*e*) recreation, and (*f*) community enterprises.

7. *Purpose.* The primary purpose of the school of 1840 was to prepare children for adult life. The primary purpose of the school of 1940 is to provide children with opportunities to learn through carefully-selected experiences in a suitable environment.

8. *Administration and Supervision.* The elementary teacher of 1840 was responsible only to himself, except for the occasional visits of selectmen or trustees or anxious parents. The school of 1940 is directed, in most cases, by a principal assisted by one or more supervisors.

9. *Individual Differences.* While the child of 1840 was taught as an individual, he was held to a definite pattern. The school of 1940 is trying to care for individual differences by adapting its control of learning to the average child, the dull and retarded child, the brilliant child, and to the undernourished, the physically-handicapped, the blind and the deaf.

10. *Testing.* The only tests the elementary child of 1840 knew were written examinations, oral quizzes, and "spelling bees." The modern school uses batteries of tests of achievement in school subjects, individual and group tests of intelligence, tests of emotional development and of vocational aptitude. Research bureaus and counselors are modern developments unknown to the early school.

11. *Health.* The health problems of elementary children in 1840 were solved by parents, with the aid of goose-grease and sulphur-and-molasses. The school of 1940 has available the expert services of school physicians, dental hygienists, nurses, psychologists, and psychiatrists in solving problems of physical, mental, social, and emotional growth.

12. *Control.* The rural school of 1840 was controlled through close community contact of parents with teacher and children. The control of the school of 1940, in most cases, has been removed from the parents of the children in the school. Many barriers stand in the way of the parent who wishes to take part in the administration of the school system.

It is exceedingly interesting and profitable to the student of education to note certain developments in American elementary education which have profoundly affected its history. It seems desirable to trace five of these in some detail.

I. The Necessity for Mass Education
II. The Evolution of Teacher-Training
III. The Rise of the Elementary Principalship
IV. The Development of Supervision
V. The Evolution of the Curriculum

I. The Necessity for Mass Education

It is convenient to think of the story of our republic as divided into three chapters — the *Agricultural Age* (1790–1860); the *Industrial Age* (1860–1920); and the *Power Age* (1920 to date). Such a differentiation is, of course, an over-simplification, as the Industrial Revolution had its beginnings shortly after the Revolutionary War. However, the Civil War resolved the struggle between the agricultural South and the industrial North so that the way was opened for the greatest national expansion in industry and "big business" that the world has ever seen. New industries meant new population groups, meant congestion of people in industrial areas, meant a steady flow of low-priced foreign labor.

Look at our population figures from 1790 to 1930.

TABLE V. TOTAL POPULATION BY DECADES, 1790–1930

1790	3,929,214	1870	38,558,371
1800	5,308,483	1880	50,155,783
1810	7,239,881	1890	62,947,714
1820	9,638,453	1900	75,994,575
1830	12,866,020	1910	91,972,266
1840	17,069,453	1920	105,710,620
1850	23,191,876	1930	123,775,046
1860	31,443,321	1940	131,409,881

One of the spectacular features of American life in the second half of the nineteenth and the early years of the twentieth centuries was the evolution of the metropolis.

TABLE VI. POPULATION GROWTH IN OUR SIX LARGEST CITIES

City	1860	1930	1940 (approx.)
1. New York City	1,174,779	6,930,446	7,380,259
2. Chicago	109,260	3,376,438	3,384,556
3. Philadelphia	565,529	1,950,961	1,935,086
4. Detroit	45,619	1,568,662	1,618,549
5. Los Angeles	4,385	1,238,048	1,496,792
6. Cleveland	43,417	900,429	878,385

The impact of this tremendous growth in population on the public school was overwhelming. For the first time in the history of the country, children had to be cared for in large numbers, and it was inevitable that the factory methods of big business should be reproduced in the schools. One of the early developments in this transitional period was the institution of the graded system.[1] From the one-room "ungraded" school, education in large industrial centers passed on to a type of organization which herded 500, 1000, 1500 or more pupils in a single school building divided into classes or groups called "grades," usually beginning with a "first grade" for the six-year-olds and ending with an "eighth grade" for the fourteen-year-olds. The curriculum, previously decided upon by the school authorities, was divided into eight portions, each assigned to a grade. Children were supposed to cover or complete the subject matter assigned a given grade and be pro-

[1] The graded school, as we now know it, first appeared in America about 1850, partly as a matter of expediency, partly as a reflection of the Prussian system of graded schools which was greatly admired by early American school executives. The Industrial Revolution after the Civil War, however, greatly expedited the process.

moted, or were forced to repeat the work of the grade and so become failures or retarded children. The analogy of the factory with its assembly-line was inevitable and school administrators looked upon themselves as big business executives comparable to factory superintendents. Standardization and efficiency became the watchwords of the new system of education.

It is surprising how the factory ideal in education has persisted into our own times. In their famous survey of *Middletown*, the Lynds [1] report a typical school situation of 1925 as follows:

> The school, like the factory, is a thoroughly regimented affair. Immovable seats in orderly rows fix the sphere of activity of each child. For all, from the timid six-year-old entering for the first time to the most assured high school senior, the general routine is much the same. Bells divide the day into periods. For the six-year-olds the periods are short (fifteen to twenty-five minutes) and varied; in some they leave their seats, play games and act out make-believe stories, although in "recitation periods" all movement is prohibited. As they grow older, the taboo upon physical activity becomes stricter, until by the third or fourth year practically all movement is forbidden except the marching from one set of seats to another between periods, a brief interval of prescribed exercise daily, and periods of manual training or home economics once or twice a week. There are "study periods" in which children learn "lessons" from "text-books" prescribed by the State and "recitation-periods" in which they tell an adult teacher what the book has said: One hears children reciting the battles of the Civil War in one recitation period, the rivers of Africa in another, the "parts of speech" in a third; the method is much the same.

Even the newer ideas which permeated our American schools between 1925 and 1940 had little effect on the schools of *Middletown*:

> Many of the external efficiencies proclaimed in the hundred page bulletin, *Educational Planning in the (Middletown) Public Schools*, have been achieved at the expense of other alleged values of education. Despite the emphasis upon new imported "yard-

[1] Robert S. and Helen M. Lynd, *Middletown* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1929), p. 188.

sticks of efficiency," and even because of them, some of the more perspicacious teachers state, "Our schools are just drifting, without adequate leadership"; and "Our efficiency is a serious liability. We live in such a clutter of 'revising the Curriculum' and 'keeping records' that the teaching of the better teachers is suffering." The desire to achieve a standardized procedure widely acclaimed as desirable is frequently at sharp variance with the newly aroused sense of what education can mean in terms of individual development in actual present-day society.

Many of these conflicts are no doubt related to what Mr. Justice Brandeis has called in another connection "the curse of bigness." Middletown is now a city of nearly 50,000, handling a less and less selected group of children as compulsory school years lengthen and "everybody tries to go to college." As such it faces the necessity of more and more large-scale, routinized procedures; and there is no sector of our culture where the efficiency of large-scale routines is capable of being more antithetical to the spirit of the social function to be performed than in education.[1]

II. The Evolution of Teacher-Training

The academy, that typical educational institution of the early nineteenth-century America, was the first training school for prospective public-school teachers from the days of Benjamin Franklin onward. It was not until the interest of American educators became fixed upon the Prussian school system that two developments occurred in our educational history which were to fix for a century our patterns of school administration. The first State Department of Education was established in Massachusetts in 1836 with Horace Mann as its first secretary; and as one of the functions of the State Board, there were established the first three State Normal Schools in America in 1839 — at Lexington, Barre, and Bridgewater. The state of New York followed with the establishment of a State Normal School at Albany, and other states continued the practice in rapid succession. For many years, in fact until after the World War, the State Normal School, with its two-

[1] Robert S. and Helen M. Lynd, *Middletown in Transition* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937), pp. 240–41.

year course of training, was the accepted institution for the professional preparation of the elementary school teacher.

A comparatively recent development has been the extension of the State Normal School into a four-year Teachers' College which has attempted to care both for the cultural needs of the students and for their professional training. The Teachers' College has had to meet opposition both from the more narrowly designed State Normal School on the one hand, and the liberal arts college on the other which, for many years, has offered training courses for teachers either as part of its general curriculum, or more specifically, within a School of Education. A still newer development (as in California) has been the evolution of the four-year Teachers' College into a State College offering a general education in the liberal arts leading to a degree, within which pattern professional courses are offered for the prospective teacher.

During the past ten years the elementary teacher has been rapidly passing out of the ranks of unskilled or semi-skilled labor into the group of professional workers. The increase in the time of preparation from two to four or five years has not only given the teacher a better professional background but a richer general cultural point of view. While there is no particular intrinsic merit in an academic degree, the possession of an A.B. assures the prospective employer that the applicant has been exposed at least to an extended period of training. Within a few years the possession of a bachelor's degree will be the minimum requirement for the elementary teachers' credential everywhere as it is at the present time in many states.

Harold Benjamin [1] in his introduction to Croxton's *Science in the Elementary School* describes the present transitional stage of teacher-preparation as follows:

> The distance between the old and the new elementary schools may well be measured in terms of the professionalization of their teachers. To impart the simple rudiments of literacy in a mechanical fashion, one needed only to be a pedagogical mechanic. To

[1] W. C. Croxton (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937), p. xi.

> stimulate the widening of intellectual, social and artistic interests among thirty children, all alike and all uniquely different in an ever-changing variety of ways, to cultivate the growth of their initiative, to develop their appreciations, to direct their creative efforts, to make them skilled in formulating and testing generalizations — these are tasks not for a mechanic but for an engineer of learning.

Myers [1] agrees but thinks we still have a long way to go in the matter of teacher-preparation:

> It may be said that the teachers of today are far better equipped than were those of any other period in our history. Furthermore, this advance in the qualifications of teachers will continue.
>
> It is true, however, that many, if not most of our teachers are not ready for the greatly broadened educational program we are advocating. Unfortunately, teachers who should be the most broadly educated members of society, and who should have had the greatest variety of social experiences, are among the most narrowly educated members of our society.

The answer of the larger universities to these developments has been a movement to require for all prospective teachers a four-year course in the liberal arts leading to the Bachelor of Arts degree, and to postpone all strictly professional preparation for teaching to the graduate school. The net result of all these developments has been both to lengthen the period of preparation for teaching and to increase the general or cultural education of the candidate as opposed to the narrow, highly-professionalized training of the State Normal School.

It is slowly being recognized that the improvement of teachers in service is as important as the preliminary training offered to the beginner. For many years the Teachers' Institute was the accepted form of continuing the professional growth of teachers, but in recent years it has become secondary in importance to college and university summer sessions designed primarily to meet the needs of teachers, principals, supervisors, and other school executives; to extension courses

[1] Alonzo F. Myers, and others, *Cooperative Supervision in the Public Schools* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938), p. 6.

carried on in after-school hours; and to workshop conferences such as those sponsored by the Department of Elementary School Principals. Even the old-fashioned Teachers' Institute is getting a new lease on life by substituting workshop sessions in place of "inspirational" speeches.

Professional teacher organizations are doing a great deal to help their members improve themselves in service. The workshops provided by the Progressive Education Association, for example, have been a source both of inspiration and of practical help to thousands of teachers. State, county, and local teachers' organizations are carrying on a great many types of activities designed to meet the needs of their members. Salary bonuses for continued professional improvement, and sabbatical leaves, are common devices employed by school boards to increase professional efficiency.

III. The Rise of the Elementary Principalship

In 1938 the Office of Education in Washington estimated that there were 21,000 elementary school principals in the United States controlling the destinies of 600,000 elementary school teachers and 21,000,000 elementary school children. In a recent bulletin,[1] the Office of Education traces the development of the elementary principalship through four phases:

1. The typical early American school was the one-room rural school. As population increased and larger schools became common, it was found necessary to appoint one of the teachers as "principal teacher" to accept responsibility for directing the operation of the school. This involved, of course, a series of extra duties in addition to full-time teaching. As time went on the principal teacher easily became "principal" and fellow-teachers became "assistant teachers."

2. As the principal teacher became principal of a larger and larger school, his qualifications as a teacher became less important as compared to his qualifications as school executive

[1] *The Elementary School Principalship* no. 8, 1939 (Washington, D.C.).

and manager. The grouping and classification of children, the assignment of teachers, the administration of discipline, the determination of curricula, and the enlistment of the cooperation of his community became increasingly important features of the position. By 1860, many principals of large elementary schools had been freed from their teaching duties and had become "supervising principals."

3. As the work of the supervising principal became differentiated in increasingly larger degree from that of the classroom teacher, it became apparent that specific training for the position of supervising principal was imperative. Since 1900, colleges and other teacher-training institutions have offered curricula designed to prepare for the elementary principalship and to further the advancement of principals in service.

4. As elementary principals came to recognize their existence as a separate group of professional workers, they began to accept partial responsibility for their own professional progress. Principals' clubs and associations — local, state, and national — are now common throughout the country and have done a great deal to assist their fellow members to grow professionally. The publication of Ellwood P. Cubberley's[1] *The Principal and His School* in 1923 had a profound effect in helping to place the elementary principalship on a truly professional basis. Since its organization in 1920 the *Department of Elementary School Principals* of the National Education Association has been a powerful influence in furthering the professional advancement of its members.

IV. The Development of Supervision

There is no more interesting chapter in the history of American Education than that which deals with the slow and often painful progress of supervision. A necessary concomitant of mass-education following the Civil War, it has passed through several easily recognized stages:

[1] Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

1. *The Phase of the Unskilled Worker*

The earliest development of supervision when mass-education made necessary some form of checking on results, was the employment of persons to show poorly-trained and badly-prepared beginners what to do and how to do it. This meant that the job of the supervisor was primarily to give the teacher patterns for teaching and to perfect the teachers in their use.

2. *The Phase of Inspection*

Once teachers acquired some facility in their work, supervision was somewhat relaxed and the supervisor's duty became the inspection of as many teachers as possible in the time allowed to see that patterns were being correctly followed.

3. *The Phase of Democracy-from-Above*

In recent years, it has become popular to lead teachers to believe that superintendents and others in authority are anxious to enlist the co-operation of teachers in directing the learning of children. In many cases this has taken the form of appointing large numbers of teachers to serve on curriculum committees, or to assist in the testing program, or to take part in school surveys. Some of this has represented a sincere attempt to take the teacher into partnership with principal, supervisor, curriculum expert, director of research, and superintendent, and much of it has been just a gesture to lessen the growing discontent of teachers with autocratic methods in a democratic age.

4. *The Phase of Democracy-from-Below*

The only effective form of supervision is that which comes from the teacher herself. The business of the supervisor is to become a partner in the learning process so that democracy may function by beginning in the classroom and by working its way upward into the sphere of the principal and other school executives. It is very doubtful if this conception of supervision has taken hold on many school systems at the present time.

V. The Evolution of the Curriculum

In general, the elementary school in America has passed through the following stages in curriculum development:

1. *The Era of the Three R's* (with some unwelcome additions!)

Our first schools in America were reading schools, then reading-and-writing schools, then schools in which the three R's were expanded to include practice in simple arithmetic or "reckoning," the rudiments of the history of our country, and the basic facts about the geography of the North American Continent. Grammar played an important part in the early curriculum as its mastery was essential to the reading of Latin in the academy which was the precursor of our public high school. The State Department of Education of Massachusetts has recently commented on the fact that the courses offered in the elementary schools in that state in 1775 were confined to spelling, reading, writing, and arithmetic, and in 1850 had expanded only to add geography, grammar, "good behavior," and history. By 1875 some significant additions had been made, indicating that the schools realized the need to contribute to personal satisfaction as well as to the purely utilitarian business of getting ready to earn a living. The newcomers were physiology and hygiene, drawing, music, and agriculture. It is interesting to note that "drawing" was regarded as the only phase of the graphic arts which was deemed worthy of inclusion in the curriculum and it is likely that the drawing of that time was purely draftmanship — line drawings of still life being the favorite form of expression. By 1900 increasing interest in vocational education had forced into the curriculum sewing, manual education, and science. "Grammar" had become "English, grammar and language"; and "history" had become "history of the United States." In 1930 the list of subjects was still further expanded to include duties of citizenship, physical education, literature, and civics. "Sewing" had become "home-making"; "drawing" had become "art and

handwork"; "history of the United States" had become "history and Constitution of the United States"; "elements of science" had become "nature study."

A tabulation in *Education in the Forty-Eight States*, a publication of the Advisory Committee on Education, shows that legislative provisions in state school codes in 1930 reflect the persistence of formal school subjects as well as those which have been forced into the curriculum by pressure from minority groups. All forty-eight states require instruction in the nature of alcoholic drinks; 39, in the Constitution of the United States; 36, in reading and arithmetic; 35, on geography; 34, in writing and spelling; 32, on grammar. Drawing is mandatory in only 13 states; language as contrasted with grammar in only 11 states; music in 9; thrift in 5; safety, hygiene, and sanitation as opposed to physiology and hygiene and elementary science, in only 4 states.

Rugg [1] sums up the four conceptions of education which determined the scope of early public education in America; it is interesting to note how these conceptions have persisted into our own time:

> 1. Education is what takes place in a schoolhouse, five hours a day, aloof from the community and national life which created it; that is, being educated and going to school are synonymous.
>
> 2. Education is something you do before you enter your life-work. It is preparation for life. For some children this preparation will last only six or eight years; for others, twelve; for select few, from sixteen to eighteen or more. But for all it is a getting-ready, not a doing-now.
>
> 3. Education is something you do with words and other symbols; it is the acquiring of skill and mastery over words, mathematical signs and the like.
>
> 4. Hence the curriculum is a body of facts and principles which man has discovered and which his children learn in the formal school.

2. *The "Scientific" Movement in Education*

A. *From 1900 to 1920*

Dates are misleading, and to assign a given movement to a

[1] Harold Rugg, *American Life and the School Curriculum* (Boston: Ginn

definite twenty-year period is a device which should be interpreted merely as a rough approximation of fact. The student of education with a limited knowledge of the subject is often perplexed in his attempt to get an over-view of what is known as the "scientific movement" in American education because much of his reading must be done in the psychological writings of the period, and these are not easy reading. It may be an over-simplification to say that the years between the turn of the century and the Armistice (1918) mark the period of the great psychologists who have contributed so largely to our knowledge of how children learn. The elderly teacher of today who was a very young teacher in the early 1900's will remember the big thick volumes in which G. Stanley Hall wrote of adolescence; the *Educational Psychology* by E. L. Thorndike which began with "Everything that exists, exists in quantity; everything that exists in quantity can be measured"; the readable, whimsical, but exceedingly practical volume by William James, *Talks to Teachers*. He will remember that while each psychologist differed from every other psychologist in his point of view, there was a general drift toward the belief that man, being an animal — a "biologic organism," finds success or failure in life just as do other animals in his ability to adjust himself to the natural and social environment in which he finds himself, and that he tends to react as a unit toward the impacts of life rather than as a miscellaneous assortment of "faculties."

He will remember the efforts of Madame Montessori in Italy and of Binet and Simon in France to find new ways to help feeble-minded children and how their findings were sufficiently important to shed a great deal of light on the learning of normal children. He will remember how the intelligence tests devised by Binet and Simon were revised for use with normal children by Lewis Terman of Stanford University, thus launching the testing movement upon the American educational scene.

B. *From 1920 to 1935*

America's entrance into the first World War made it possible for the psychologists to deal with human beings on a large scale. Group intelligence tests devised by Terman, Thorndike, and others were used to discover the men capable of leadership in their respective regiments and the general public became greatly interested in the results. The apparent existence in the army of a large number of men with limited intelligence was used as evidence to show that the schools had failed to develop the ideal American citizen, which heretofore had been the proud boast of the public school system. After the Armistice, group intelligence tests were adapted for use with public school children as were tests of academic achievement. Performance tests were invented for children incapable of reading and for mature foreign children who had a limited command of English. New tests were added in new fields — vocational aptitudes, emotional stability, will power, and the more elusive phases of human behavior. School surveys became the rage and city vied with city to show a high level of intelligence and marked achievement in the formal school subjects. Nearly every large school system had its Research Bureau and the "Scientific study of education" was accepted as a sign of progress. Toward the end of the fifteen-year period, enthusiasm for the testing program began to wane and many doubting Thomases were heard to observe that the American schools were being "tested to death."

C. *From 1935 to 1940*

During the last five years certain changes have taken place in the scientific approach to educational problems. They may be summed up as follows:

(*a*) The decline of the city-wide school survey.

(*b*) The diminishing of competition between schools to gain high records on achievement tests.

(*c*) The shifting of the center of gravity of the testing program from the professional counselor to the classroom teacher.

(*d*) Growing agreement on the idea that the real values of a testing program lie in the information it gives the teacher in helping her children learn.

(*e*) Increased attention in testing the intangibles — emotional life, social attitudes, responsibility toward citizenship, and the like. Lester Dix [1] of Lincoln School, in an address before the American Educational Research Association in New York City, June, 1938, listed several new types of measurement which need to be worked out. He said (in part):

> Thus we have now to measure many things to which formerly we gave little attention, such as:
>
> Capacities to gain information rather than stores of data.
>
> Capacities to see and use relationships between data rather than to hold them in memory.
>
> Capacities to define and attack a problem rather than learn a formula.
>
> How well our various learnings are adjusted to various capacities, and how well experience hangs together as a usable whole rather than remaining in useless items or fragments.
>
> How well individuals use imagination, for new ways of responding now become more important than the learner's conformity to any set of habits.

The scientific movement has been well summed up by one of its most distinguished advocates, Charles H. Judd [2] of the University of Chicago. Speaking before the American Association of School Administrators at Atlantic City in February, 1938, he said (in part):

> Perhaps the most important trend in American education and one which I believe commands the enthusiastic support of all of us is the trend toward the scientific study of educational problems. The science of education is a product of American genius or, perhaps one should say, of American disposition to try new devices — On this continent we have been experimental-minded. We have sometimes been dominated by the desire to overthrow all tradition. After we have gone our own independent ways, we have been seized with the desire to find evidence which will show how

[1] Reported in the *Annual Proceedings of the National Education Association* (Washington, D.C., 1938).

[2] *Loc. cit.*

superior we are as compared with our neighbors. There are many indications that the scientific study of education originated in the desire to measure other people. — Scientific studies in the field of education are in keeping with the general tendency that is characteristic of our age. During the last decade of the nineteenth century and the first decade of this century, industry, business and government were becoming aware of the desirability of guiding effort in any situation by studies that reveal the exact nature of that situation. — Education has followed the trend of evolution and has developed technics for the scientific study of its problems.

3. *The Rise and Fall of the Activity Program*

An educational movement which has had a profound effect upon elementary education in the United States is the Activity Movement. No development in educational history is born overnight; when it appears it is merely the outward appearance of forces which have been moving under the surface for years.

There were two pioneers who exerted a profound influence in developing what is known today as "progressive education." The first was Francis W. Parker, who was the director of the Cook County Normal School in Chicago for many years and who toward the end of a long and useful life became the head of the Francis W. Parker School, an institution made possible by the benefactions of Mrs. Emmons Blaine.

> Parker in studying the child came to the conclusion that the child is normally an active being, and that its education should be based on its need for activity and on the natural curiosity and spirit of investigation. "There never was such a thing as a lazy child born on earth," he says. "Childhood is full of activities of every kind stimulated by external energies and shaped by external power. The child continually experiments until it gains its end." [1]

The second was John Dewey, who founded a laboratory school at the University of Chicago in 1896 which was the forerunner of the activity schools of the 1920's, and who later became the director of the Francis W. Parker School.[2] Dewey's

[1] Stanwood Cobb, *The New Leaven*, p. 11.

[2] The reader is referred to *John Dewey as an Educator*, a monograph issued by the Progressive Education Association (New York, 1939), for light on the early period of Dewey's career.

statement of the philosophy behind the establishment of the laboratory school offers difficulties to the layman. It may be simplified by saying that the basic idea in the school was that since human beings learn only by and through experience, the best school for children is that in which the children are given many and varied individual and group experiences in a rich environment controlled by an understanding and intelligent teacher. It is obvious at this long range that the leaders in the mass-education popular at this time were not ready to accept the ideal of learning-through-experience as opposed to subject-matter-to-be-learned. The laboratory school finally came to an end in 1904 as far as Dewey's theories were concerned, and the "experience-school" or "activity-school" did not reappear again on the American educational scene, except for a few isolated instances, until 1920.

Along with Francis W. Parker and John Dewey mention should be made of a less well-known educational pioneer, C. Hanford Henderson, whose first book *Education and the Larger Life* appeared in 1902.[1] Henderson was somewhat surprised at the audience he found at a time when mass-education had the country in its grasp.

> Some twelve years ago (he says), that is to say in 1902, I published a little book, called *Education and the Larger Life.* I put it out with some hesitation, not because I doubted its truthfulness, but because, on the contrary, it seemed to me so very obvious and so general. The success of the book was a surprise both to the publishers and to me. And what is more surprising, the book still continues to sell and to be read. Its success was quite beyond what I had supposed to be its merit — regarding it merely as a preface to what was then somewhat crudely called, for want of a better name, the New Education.[2]

Education and the Larger Life did not, perhaps, have a universal appeal to educators committed to the materialistic spirit of the age, but it had a profound and far-reaching effect

[1] Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

[2] Adapted from the preface to *What Is It To Be Educated?* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1914).

on those teachers and parents who saw something better in the education of children than the public schools of the 90's had to offer. Although the book is now nearly forty years old, the ideals contained in it are far from realization today.

In the meantime Dewey's educational ideas and ideals had been accepted in many private schools abroad — in Holland, Belgium, France, England, and even in Germany. The intelligent educators who served abroad during the World War must have been impressed with the fact that a prophet is not without honor save in his own country, and the success of European Activity Schools must have helped to hasten a new educational quickening in our own country. The founding of the *Progressive Education Association* in 1918 brought together a group of pioneers, several of whom had conducted during the preceding decade successful private schools based upon the learning-through-experience idea. Junius L. Meriam's *Child Life and the Curriculum*[1] has the honor of being the earliest significant book in the history of what later came to be called the activity program. Two other books brought the words "activity" and "progressive education" sharply into focus — *Curriculum Making in an Elementary School* by Tippett and a group which had been quietly working out an activity curriculum at Lincoln School, Columbia University; and *The New Leaven* by Stanwood Cobb (1928), a statement of the position of the Progressive Education Association.

Cobb explains the origin of the Progressive Education Association in the following statement:

> The fairly recent coming into parenthood and public activity of a great number of collegebred women has created a clientele for the schools which is very different from the old-time clientele. These women, as parents, are capable of analyses, of discriminations, of judgments concerning the education of their children. They are even capable of formulating definite methods and goals. — It is because progressive parents exist today that progressive education has come into being. These modern-minded parents, not content with advocating new principles of education, are joining together

[1] Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1921.

and actually founding schools in various parts of the country in order that their children may have the desired type of education.[1]

Cobb consulted the leading progressive educators in the country and from their replies assembled ten principles which they agreed constituted the essential elements of progressive education.[2] They are:

1. Health must come first.
2. Learning comes from doing; let the hands aid the brain.
3. The classroom should be freed from unnatural restraints and exterior compulsions transformed into interior compulsions. (Cobb meant by this that children should be given sufficient freedom to meet problems and, in finding solutions, develop self-control, self-reliance, and initiative.)
4. Adapt education to the differences of the individual child.
5. Group-consciousness and social-mindedness should be developed in children; social adjustment and character training are as important as academic progress.
6. The child should have abundant opportunity for creative expression.
7. Enable the child to acquire thorough control of the tools of learning rather than merely to acquire facts. (In other words, let the child learn what he actually needs to learn and not be compelled to become a walking encyclopedia.)
8. Introduce into academic work the method of creative expression so that education shall be joyous.
9. Abolish the tyranny of marks and examinations.
10. The teacher should be leader and guide, not a task master.

By 1930 the new movement was well under way in many American public elementary schools with varying degrees of success. There can be no question that hundreds of over-enthusiastic superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers adapted the patterns of the activity movement without bothering to discover its philosophical background. Ernest Horn states this well:

[1] *The New Leaven*, pp. 8–9.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 17–26.

> The lack of consistency and stability in the theories and practices associated with the term "activity" may be explained in part by the desire of many persons to run after the newest, noisiest and most brightly colored band wagon.[1]

The National Society for the Study of Education brought this troubled state of affairs to a head by devoting its *Thirty-Third Yearbook*, Part Two, to a thorough review of and evaluation of the activity program under the title *The Activity Movement.*[2]

In this publication Kilpatrick, who had studied the results of a questionnaire submitted to representative educators, reported substantially that *activity* is a unitary sample of actual child living as nearly natural and complete as school conditions will permit. *Study* in this connection is the effort to deal intelligently with a life situation. *Learning* is the effect upon the child of all the experiences which he has had in dealing with the situation. *Units* are the organization of experience around a center of interest which may develop out of the daily life of the classroom or may be instituted by the teacher or both. Subject matter will be utilized insofar as it contributes to the needs of children although certain segments of subject matter may be learned and certain drills used independent of the units in progress.

Ayer, English, Hosic, and Mossman[3] found at least six stages of thinking on the activity movement current in American schools during 1933.

Stage 1. A little active pupil participation may be helpful at times provided that it does not hinder the learning of prescribed subject matter. The opportunities of the children in this direction are brief, incidental, and occasional.

Stage 2. Some participation by the learner in the development of the required school work should be encouraged pro-

[1] *Thirty-Third Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part Two (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1934), pp. 194–95.

[2] *Op. cit.*

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 69–75 (adapted).

vided such participation makes the assimilation of the prescribed subject matter easier and more effective. Social studies materials, for example, are organized into units of work determined largely by the teacher. Certain areas of knowledge and the skills are taught apart from the units.

Stage 3. The school program consists of two parts — first, the acquisition of definite bodies of knowledge determined in advance together with certain skills, these are to be taught in the conventional way. Second, there are certain school enterprises — a newspaper, a pageant, or a health program, for example — in which a large degree of pupil participation and pupil initiative are desirable.

Stage 4. The school program consists of two parts — first, a series of "minimum essentials" which are to be imparted to children through study, drill, and testing. Second, outside these essentials, all the other learnings of children are to be effected through the organization of materials around a large central theme or "center of interest," such organization to be made of related units of work. Usually, these central themes revolve around man's attempts to adjust himself to his natural and social environment. The daily social living of each class is closely related to the central theme assigned that class.

Stage 5. One learns only by experience and the task of the teacher is to guide pupils through experiences that will result in maximum learning and growth. Subject matter is used to illuminate experiences, to clarify meanings, and to reach generalizations. Drill is used whenever a need arises during the day's work. As far as possible, children select, plan, and initiate the enterprises carried on in the classroom under the guidance of the teacher. They continuously evaluate the results which are reached. The curriculum is not thought of as a series of units but rather as a series of life situations to be met as need arises.

Stage 6. The point of view is similar to that of No. 5 except that guidance is minimized and planning is temporary and incidental. The chief task of the teacher is to free the child to realize his own possibilities.

The *Thirty-Third Yearbook* made clear that some distinguished educators were highly critical of the activity movement. W. C. Bagley,[1] for example, stated his position as follows:

> The theory (underlying the activity movement) is blind to two fundamental facts: first, it fails to recognize that one of the factors which differentiates mankind from the other animal species is the ability to work systematically and persistently in the face of immediate desire or impulse or interest. Second, it implicitly denies the plain biological significance of the period of immaturity — namely, the inescapable need of the human offspring for control, guidance, instruction and discipline as a basis for the responsibilities of adulthood.

Boyd H. Bode [2] wrote:

> A reader who expects to gain a simple and workable notion of the Activity Movement merely from an inspection of this material is likely, before long, to find himself coming up for air.

Dewey attempted to resolve the conflicts reported in the *Yearbook* by observing that there are many kinds of activity from the noisy, physical variety to the deeply contemplative. All are valuable and all are essential. Conflicts come over extreme emphasis on a particular kind of activeness. There are two kinds of end-results from activeness; immediate results as in the case of subject matter learned, and personal development which requires a long period of time before our judgment of results is accurate. Conflicts, again, arise through overemphasis on one phase or another.

There is no real conflict between the child's interests and needs and society's interests and needs. Let the experiences of childhood be such that they will contribute to the values that society holds dear.

It remained for Ernest Horn to administer the *coup de grace* to the Activity Movement:

> All this leads to the conclusion that we should do better to abandon the use of such blanket terms as "activity programs," and

[1] Pp. 77–78. [2] Pp. 78–81.

consider directly on its merits each of the various theories, problems and issues in modern education.[1]

The opponents of the activity movement and of progressive education as sponsored by the Progressive Education Association have adopted the term "essentialists" under the leadership of Dr. Bagley. The essentialist argument may be summed up briefly as follows:[2] Mass-education has opened the way to higher education to thousands of young people and economic factors have operated to keep them in school. As a result, educational standards have inevitably been lowered. Educators have rationalized their attitudes by stressing interest, freedom, experience, and pupil-initiative and by discrediting effort, discipline, race-experience, logical sequence, and teacher initiative. The present tendency is to abandon grade standards for promotion and pass every pupil to the next grade. Logical, chronological, and causal relationships have been ignored in favor of incidental learning. Difficult (because exact and exacting) studies have been discredited in favor of the easy studies, such as Social Studies. The tendency to build curricula to fit local and provincial needs ignores the essential unity of the American people, "the most mobile in the world." Our major task, as Americans in the living present, is to preserve the democratic forms of government which are characteristic of American culture. The price of this freedom is systematic and sustained effort often devoted to the mastery of materials the significance of which must at the time be taken on faith. The immature learner has a right to guidance and direction by his elders, a consequence of the extended period of human immaturity which distinguishes man from the animals. Each generation must be given the ideas, meanings, understandings, and ideals which constitute our cultural heritage and which are essential to the perpetuation of our democracy. The essential subjects in an effective educational program are

[1] Pp. 195–96.

[2] Adapted from "An Essentialist's Platform," in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, April, 1938.

reading, writing, numbering, a knowledge of the world beyond our own community, a knowledge of the story of our country, health, the fine arts, and the industrial arts. A specific program of studies including these essentials should be the heart of a democratic system of education. There should be agreement on a nationwide scale of the order and grade-placement of subjects and major topics. Thoroughness, accuracy, persistence, and good workmanship should be encouraged rather than ridiculed. Teachers should be responsible for carrying out such an instructional program through a systematic program of studies. Failure is unpleasant and repetition of a grade is often ineffective, but the possibility of failure and repetition is a stimulus which keeps the learner to his task.

The reply of the progressives to the essentialists is to the effect that the fundamental school subjects have an important place in a modern school program, a fact which, unfortunately, has often been ignored by extreme progressives. Nevertheless, the mastery of the fundamentals is merely a means to an end, the goal being an integrated personality, and not an end in itself. Emphasis on the fundamentals as the heart of a curriculum tends to dry, meager, and sterile formalism which defeats its purpose. Therefore, learning, which is the modification of conduct or behavior through rich experience in a controlled environment, proceeds most effectively when emphasis is laid upon the learner rather than upon school studies. The argument concludes by stating that the only effective type of discipline is that which is exercised by the learner upon himself rather than discipline imposed from without.

4. *Integration*

An examination of the literature devoted to the activity program reveals that most of it appeared between 1926 and 1934. From the latter date the activity movement, as such, declined in importance and by 1938 had practically disappeared from popular discussions of educational problems. The prevailing tendency today is fairly well summed up in *Stage Three*

of the *Thirty-Third Yearbook*,[1] while the more progressive school systems have adapted the point of view outlined as *Stage Five*.[2] This point of view accepts an experience curriculum as the most desirable approach to modern educational problems. One factor in the development of experience curricula is integration, which Hopkins defines in the following words:

> The unit of experience is any particular instance of an individual interacting with a situation within the environment. When a change either within or without the individual causes the equilibrium to be upset, there occurs a strain called need, want, wish and the like. To satisfy this need the individual moves against the situation to relieve it. This results in a change in him and in the situation. In facing effectually a sufficient variety of life situations, the individual . . . becomes increasingly intelligent in his interaction with his situation, resulting in increased integration within himself and with his environment.[3]

The reader should not construe the reference at the beginning of this section to the "rise and fall" of the activity movement as an indication that activity characterized one educational cycle and integration a totally different and distinct cycle. Rather, the activity — unit of work — center of interest — field of experience — integration sequence should be interpreted as a series of successive attempts to interpret the Dewey philosophy of learning as the reconstruction of experience, and to find practical ways of carrying it out successfully in the classroom. Each phase has capitalized on the successes of the preceding phase and has profited by its mistakes. Hopkins ties his presentation on integration very directly with the philosophy emphasized by Dewey when he says

> Of all types of curriculums discussed the experience curriculum offers greatest possibilities for meeting the integrating needs of pupils and teachers.[4]

[1] See page 380. [2] See page 380.

[3] L. Thomas Hopkins, and others, *Integration — Its Meaning and Application* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937), p. 19.

[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 274–75.

After all, one sees that through the development of the modern curriculum "one increasing purpose runs." Little by little, the concept of the curriculum as a succession of desirable experiences for children is becoming accepted by American elementary schools. One of the most encouraging signs of the times is the practical application of John Dewey's philosophy to elementary classroom problems. While actual experience curricula are few and far between at present, the number is steadily increasing wherever classroom teachers are taken into active partnership in the making of the curriculum.

Notes on Chapter Eleven

1. Otto, Henry J., *Elementary School Organization and Administration.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1934. This is an excellent book of reference. Chapter I, "Introduction," and Chapter II, "The Purposes and Scope of Elementary Education," are especially pertinent to the topics discussed in the preceding pages. The reader will enjoy browsing through the entire book.

2. Rugg, Harold, *Culture and Education in America.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1931.

3. Rugg, Harold, *American Life and the School Curriculum.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936.

These two books are invaluable in securing a grasp of the development of American elementary education. Required reading.

4. Lynd, Robert S., and Helen M., *Middletown.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1929.

5. Lynd, Robert S., and Helen M., *Middletown in Transition.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937.

What is the social setting from which our children come each day to school and to which they return at the close of the day? These two books answer the question for the great bulk of the children in our elementary schools. Required reading.

6. Cobb, Stanwood, *The New Leaven.* New York: John Day, 1928.

The original "Bible" of the early progressives. In many of its basic ideas it is a half-century ahead of the times. Required reading.

7. Tippett, James S., and others, *Curriculum Making in an Elementary School.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1927. Although this book is now fourteen years old, it remains the best authority on modern elementary school practice in the classroom.

8. Myers, Alonzo F., and others, *Cooperative Supervision in the Public Schools.* New York: Prentice-Hall, 1938. The best available book on supervision. It is distinguished for its sound common sense and its felicity of expression.

9. A useful summary of facts about public education in the United States today will be found in *Education in the Forty-Eight States*, prepared by the Advisory Committee on Education. Washington, D.C., 1939. This is good material to place in the hands of an intelligent parent who seeks to enlarge his knowledge of education.

10. *Education in the United States of America.* Bulletin, 1939, Miscellaneous no. 3, Department of the Interior, United States Office of Education. This large, handsomely printed, and richly illustrated brochure was prepared "as a gift to the teachers of South America." It can be procured at 15 cents per copy from the United States Government Printing Office in Washington and can be used effectively with parents' conference groups and other lay organizations. It cannot be emphasized too strongly that parents need to be exposed to such materials as can be found in booklets of this type if we wish them to become intelligent participants in the educational process.

11. *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher.* Joint Yearbook, American Educational Research Association and Department of Classroom Teachers. Part One, Chapters I–IV, inclusive, affords a good summary of the modern application of the scientific method in education.

12. "The Evolutionary Development of the School," Chapter III of the *Eleventh Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Cooperation Principles and Practices* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938), is an admirable short summary of the history of the American public school.

13. The reports of the Conferences on Education, sponsored by the Department of Elementary Principals, afford evidence of the professional growth of principals. The first of these, *Selected Problems in Elementary Education* (1937), may be procured from the Edwards Letter Company, Ann Arbor, Michigan; the second, *The American Elementary School in Transition* (1938), from New York University; the third, *Problems of the Modern Elementary School* (1939), from the University of California, Berkeley, California.

14. The reader is encouraged to make a notebook for his own use out of "isotypes" or pictorial charts. These convey valuable information in graphic form and are especially valuable in helping parents understand the educator's point of view. Write to *Pictorial Statistics*, Inc., 142 Lexington Avenue, New York City, for the catalogue. Ask for the latest edition.

15. Arthur B. Moehlman's new *School Administration* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940) reflects the modern view that administration should be the servant of instruction. It is a big book, and good for browsing.

16. The *Yearbooks* of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association reflect great credit upon the members of that department. Recent significant numbers in the series are: *Appraising the Elementary School Program* (*Sixteenth Yearbook*); *Newer Practices in Reading* (*Seventeenth Yearbook*); *Enriching the Curriculum* (*Eighteenth Yearbook*); *Meeting Special Needs* (*Nineteenth Yearbook*), Washington, D.C., 1937–1940.

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