INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

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INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

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By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of Problem

Never before has there been so urgent a need for schools to re-examine their relationship to the children who come to them. Children have capacities to be developed. Therefore, it is not only important to know what is happening to a class of thirty in a particular classroom, but also what is happening to each individual that makes up that class. The school is concerned because it is only through this complete individual development that responsible democratic attitudes can be realized. Subject matter, methods, procedures and objectives have changed. These are important in the instructional program. The need for individualized instruction among elementary children is being more recognized by educators than in past decades; therefore, the problem of this study is to discover more recent techniques used by some teachers in the field of individualized instruction in relation to the changes in curricular development and in the needs of the modern child.

Individualization is as much an attitude as a method, more an approach than a device. It is a point of view which faces with tolerance and responsibility the fact that just
as children differ in a dozen other ways they differ in their capacity to learn. It implies a positive attitude toward individual differences, a respect for them, a realization that since society is enriched by differences of talent, interests and skills of its people, the school should serve to cultivate rather than level these differences.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the more recent types of instruction. In this investigation, emphasis has been placed on instruction which has grown out of children's interests and needs, and which recognizes the capacities, abilities and potentialities of children.

In chapter ii is a discussion of democratic principles of philosophy.

Psychology of the present day school is given in chapter iii.

In chapter iv emphasis is placed on data collected from personal interviews with some primary teachers.

In chapter v is given a summary of the outstanding points noted in the study with certain conclusions and recommendations made for improvement in the instructional program of present day elementary schools.

Source of Data

Data for this study have been taken from books written by certain authorities in the field of elementary education. Selected articles from a few periodicals, materials from
yearbooks and references from educational bulletins have been used.

Situations taken from actual classroom procedure of the writer have been of great value in developing this study. Too, the data from the personal interviews with some elementary teachers have given direction to the educational field of study.

Emphasis has been placed on methods of instruction, and the influence of individualized instruction on the curriculum of the present day school.

Reliability of Data

This has been a comparative study, using data collected from the study of material written by authorities, and data shown in results from personal interviews, as well as that taken from actual classroom procedures of the writer.
CHAPTER II
THE PHILOSOPHY OF PRESENT DAY SCHOOLS

Introduction

Democracy is today facing a most serious challenge and may be lost by the American people. Such a loss can be caused only by decay within a democracy. War seems to be causing this decay.

Our American homes are disrupted. Fathers are away fighting for democratic freedom. Mothers are away from home carrying on defense work. In many cases the boys and girls of these homes are left to make choices of their own, and too often their choices are not the best. According to articles from a daily newspaper of a nearby city these boys and girls need guidance in selecting activities.

Schools must dig their spurs into the horse of public administration they are riding if they are to win the race against teen-age offenses, for they are lagging far behind in real education for living.

Charged with the most important public trust, schools have opportunity to influence children more than any other institution outside the home. They may be trying hard. But mounting teen-age offenses prove they must try harder. They may have excuses of legislative and administrative, red tape hurdles. But the condition of today's teen-agers, each a public school pupil, is evidence that they must pull themselves over those hurdles.

Sound thinking, progressive educators must be given free rein for action, and public school systems must follow their lead. . . .

The competitive spirit, age-old prodding device used by teachers, is no better than the results it shows.
Cannot some way be found to encourage boys and girls to do their best, to develop their talents with the intent of service, not of personal glory? Cannot as much attention be given to those who need help as to those fortunate enough to attract attention by their merits? Careful individual attention is necessary if schools are to succeed in training their pupils for living, and teachers must be good enough and smart enough to shoulder this responsibility.  

One writer has turned to the schools with this plea.  

Parents have additional responsibilities. Children can and must take their own share of responsibility. Teachers can aid parents in helping children to accept responsibility.  

During our world-wide effort to preserve democracy, we must give today the time and effort needed to ensure to the children of the United States preparation for the responsibility they must assume for our democracy in the years ahead.  

American youth is fighting this war too. They were brought up to be a peace-loving group. They were educated to believe in peace. Today these young citizens are being critical of such teaching. War to them is a personal affair. The statement made by Mitzi Phillips is very challenging:  

In one respect our educators have failed us. In spite of the personal effects of war on our generation, we are determined not to entirely lose sight of our pre-war objective views. Rather, our contact with war but increased our curiosity as to war's root causes - as to man's failure to live with man.  

Education exists for society and society looks to education to lift it to a higher level. The Wartime  

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1 Dallas Morning News, July 8, 1943, Section 2, p. 1.  
2 Katherine F. Lenroot, "Protecting Our Children," Chicago Union Teacher, VIII (April, 1943), 5.  
Commission realizes the need of boys and girls and makes this direct statement to the schools of our country.

The fact that the United States is at war does not alter the fundamental principles of childhood education. It does not call for a statement of aims in terms of the present crisis. The Wartime Commission seeks with other related agencies to guarantee, for all children adequate protection, intelligent participation and balanced perspective.

The Wartime Commission looks to the Schools of America to interpret and implement this policy.⁴

When we face the situation of the American homes, as well as the problems youth faces, the school realizes something must be done now. The nation's future possibilities rest on the children of today, and these children need help. Claude V. Courtier had that in mind when he summarized the demands made on schools during war.

On the elementary level the demand has been for the development of activities to improve and strengthen health; protect and safeguard children; maintain emotional balance and wholesome attitudes and improve the understanding and appreciation of the meaning of Democracy, the meaning of war, the privileges and responsibilities of Americans, and the ways in which every child can help his nation.⁵

Since education is expected to assume the responsibility for carrying out the above demands, what direction shall education take? It is in the areas of human living that we see the need of guidance, but in what way? Youth seems to

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⁴Wartime Commission Policy, "Young Children and the War," *Childhood Education*, XVII (May, 1942), 390.

have found the keynote of the whole problem - "man's failure to live with man." Education cannot give the proper guidance unless it understands the philosophy back of the democracy it serves.

The Philosophy of Our Democratic Society

(Respect for personality. -- Democracy places a premium on the development of an individual to the best of his capacity. A democratic society recognizes that the individual has a part to play in that society and must provide opportunities for him to contribute his best. This implies a regard for the likes, dislikes, rights and interests of the individual. It also implies an attitude of tolerance and a recognition of the values of different personalities. There is individual freedom, but it carries with it the responsibility of other personalities and a willingness to share all values. There is a certain amount of conforming to group welfare, but it is promoted by the thinking of individuals in the group.)

(Respect for leadership and authority. -- Democracy demands leadership and implies achievement. This leadership functions as a guide and not as a master. This does not mean forced respect, but it does mean cooperative respect. A member of society learns to respect the things for which he sees a need and helps to plan and evaluate. The individual must be a willing participant with a full understanding toward which the group is striving.

Respect for rights of majority. -- Democracy places
individual development as the central goal. However, it recognizes that it is the differences in individuals that make its culture rich. It looks upon individual development and differentiation as a means of integrating personalities. A maturing personality recognizes that as his social group improves its environment, his cooperation in the greater life must be through delegation, and he must be willing to abide by the decision of the group.

There should be an unbroken continuity from the most ordinary and concrete personal concerns to socialized institutions for dealing with those concerns on a group basis. Man must understand how his institutions serve him, for in a mature society he must achieve his desires by group means. 6

Equality.—Despotism makes man live under tyranny, privilege and want. It was to get away from this that man worked to obtain "liberty, equality and happiness." For democracy to exist, society must see that its members have equal rights.

Society cannot give its members an equality of potentials, but it can provide opportunities for the fullest development of the individual potentiality. All society does not care for opera, neither do all its members care for art. Opportunities, then, would not be equal until each individual is provided an opportunity to develop his capacity in his area of particular interest.

Democracy provides equality to each individual in

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planning and sharing through the rights of majority. Members of society are not usually interested in the problems whose solution they do not help to plan. Individuals must realize their responsibility to society and so develop themselves as to be of value in the solution of problems. In making his contributions the individual must also recognize the values of other members from their contributions.

**Freedom.**—This term cannot be defined as the right to do as one pleases. An individual cannot do that without affecting the whole group of which he is a member. Individual freedom can be acquired through an intelligent choice of purposes that will guide personality growth toward desirable goals with the best interest of the group in mind.

When democracy places human personality as the center of all society and culture, it implies two conditions fundamental to the maturing personality:

(a) freedom to act without arbitrary or irrelevant prohibitions in any and all situations as a purposeful self; and (b) the imposition and acceptance of social responsibility. The principle of freedom is the protection of the individual personality and the principle of responsibility is the protection of other personalities. Mature personalities act in their own interests, but in full awareness of all other personalities and with a disposition to share all values.

Hollingshead speaks of freedom in terms of "freedom from the necessity of external control."

It is freedom from restraint that results from the ability of the individual to control himself in harmony

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with the best interests of the group. The individual has liberated himself from social restriction because he has achieved self-control that raises him above the need of social control. This freedom is gained through an obedience to laws and regulations which society regards as essential to the solution of its problem.

Self-direction.--Democracy approves of this characteristic, because it is an active thing planned by the individual with the goals of the group in mind. An individual must recognize the needs of the group and he must choose from the opportunities offered by that group, those activities which will best develop his capacity and which will add to the worth of the group. The individual must sense his own needs and through critical thinking plan the direction of his actions in terms of group value. Action among the social group brings about fellowship, a fellowship which implies planned direction, with an experimental attitude, and a critical evaluation of the outcome, and with a willingness to share values derived from such action.

Participation.--Democracy rests upon the participation of individuals. This action must be initiated with the individual. It must be intelligent participation. Greater participation gives to the individual a stronger feeling of belongingness, a feeling that he is a vital part of society. Each contribution gives a deeper feeling of security for the individual.

Participation implies interaction of the individual

--- Arthur D. Hollingshead, Guidance in Democratic Living, p. 16.
with the environment. Different personalities through hundreds of activities make their different contributions, which serve their purposes in answer to the needs of human welfare. Society must provide opportunities for greater participation.

Cooperation.—In democratic participation there must be cooperation. Through cooperative effort, a problem should be studied by the group, and its purpose, its values and solution must be derived through critical evaluations of different individuals in that group. The individuals cooperating must know the value of work; and each contribution should be made with dignity of self, and personal respect, in a way that the contributor does not become a slave to anyone else in the group. Cooperation demands self-control and self-direction.

To be able to serve at the highest level of cooperation, the individual must have already recognized his value to society. To develop an individual to cooperate on that level, society must create an environment of various opportunities. A richer environment implies greater opportunities. The more opportunities implies greater development of personality. A more mature personality implies a more intelligent participation. Intelligent participation brings

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a higher level of cooperation. The quality of cooperation implies the quality of the society.  

Democracy is dynamic. --Democracy is never static. It is that which challenges the capacities of its members to improve it, and it places the responsibility upon every individual if it is not improved. Change in democracy is inevitable. What was good for one generation hardly ever serves best the next generation. So democracy must be learned by each generation.

So it is in social living. Society chooses from its institutions those which serve the group and fit the needs of human living, and either alters or abolishes those which fail to serve the group. Adding the new to the old, society struggles to improve the culture. This is a continuous, evolving process which expands from one group to another within society by means of interaction among the individual members.

Belief in the interactive process is basic to the democratic way of life. Interaction is a word used to describe the relationship between a people and the existing culture, inherited or in the process of becoming. It applies to a people as a whole; to various groups, and to individuals. In other words, it governs all relations among individuals or groups of individuals, young or old, in their contacts with each other. It means that in all problems arising among groups or individuals each party shall be free to study the conditions, state the issues as he sees them, and propose his solutions without fear of ridicule, violence, or suppression. This means, of course, freedom of movement, freedom of inquiry, freedom of assemblage, freedom of speech, freedom of press, for without them groups and individuals

10 Ibid.
would be unable to express their beliefs and conclusions adequately. It means also that no individual or group of individuals can gain control of any aspects of culture and thereby move them from the interactive process. Individuals within institutions such as the church, the school, the family, the economic system, cannot isolate themselves from critical appraisal by the entire people whose needs they are to serve. Individuals or minority groups may not by a coup d'état or other violent means gain control of institutions and suppress all persons who do not submit to the rule of their authority. It means, further, every problem arising among individuals or groups is an opportunity for educating each person better in how the interactive process works. Thus each may grow in interactive behavior throughout his life. It means, finally, that there is no end of inquiry fixed in advance by anything or person - the inherited customs, institutions, or persons in responsible positions. The end is in the process and is the operational principle that all individuals concerned will, to the best of their ability, act on thinking. The civil liberties are not ends in themselves. They are guaranteed that inquiry and thoughtful behavior may result. When they are suppressed, thinking disappears. When thinking as an operational concept disappears, the civil liberties are doomed. The interactive process is, then, a way of relating an individual to his world in order that he may build his creative individuality while adding some increment to the improvement of the culture. Mutual, cooperative, intelligent interaction is the core of the democratic process.\(^{11}\)

\[^{11}\textit{Ibid.}, pp. 109-110.\]
CHAPTER III

PSYCHOLOGY OF THE MODERN SCHOOL

Introduction

Society is the whole of democracy. The central goal of that democracy is the development of the individual through the social group. The individual's value is in relation to the total social situation, for it is by group living that the individual acquires human nature and character traits. Individuals, then, are parts on which society depends, and they derive their personalities from the association of those around them. In this total situation the individual is free to contribute to the group under the laws of restraint.

An individual's growth emerges through his cooperative participation. This shows that personalities are interdependent and are related to the growth of the total situation in respect to other personality members of the group. Each individual evolves as a single pattern of behavior. The more intelligent participation, the more differentiation and expansion there will be. This expansion implies greater understanding or insight into group living. Insight brings the individual to realize the importance of delegation. Delegation in a society depends entirely upon the continuous growth and adjustment of each behavior pattern within the democratic whole.
Psychology of Our Society

Organismic laws and learning.--These laws form the biological foundation for the concluding points of this study.

The law of field properties states that the whole is more than the sum of all of its parts. Isolate the parts and there is no whole. Parts must be in certain dynamic adjustment to each other or the whole does not exist. It is this law that proves the fallacy of the mechanistic view regarding organismic growth.

The law of derived properties states that parts derive their properties from wholes.

The law of determined action states that the whole determines the activities of its parts. This law is closely related to the second one.

The law of individuation states that parts of wholes come into existence through an emergence process called individuation, or structurization, or differentiation.

The law of field genesis states that wholes evolve as wholes. This law asserts that wholes are not composed of parts, or explained by parts, but, for purposes of description, are reducible to them. Parts are not put together; they evolve together in accordance with a plan. Wholes evolve as wholes through an expansion and differentiation process.

The law of least action states that the beginning of
movement is a position in a system of energy where there is
a high potential, but this high potential exists only with
reference to a low. The movement from the high to the low
takes place over the shortest route in time and is a process
of equalizing the potentials.

The law of maximum work states, first, that any influ-
ence affecting a system of energy, affects it throughout;
second, that in an energy system a maximum amount of energy,
for any given set of conditions, will be expended in the
course of maintaining balance.

The law of configuration states that a system of energy
always functions as a unit, and always adjusts itself to
a multitude of disturbing influences.

This multitude of disturbing influences is called
a total situation, and the unit that adjusts itself is
called a configuration. The laws of least action and
maximum work explain why a configuration must behave as
a single unit. It is the whole whose parts are depend-
ent upon organization for the manner in which they will
function. Because this is true, the effect that any
single outside influence will have depends upon the
effects of all the other influences.¹

These laws have been illustrated and demonstrated
through the work of several men who have promoted the
biological concept of learning.

One of the most important is the work of Child with
physiological gradients which are polarized fields of living
tissue.

¹Raymond H. Wheeler and Francis T. Perkins, Principles
of Mental Development, p. 33.
Major metabolic gradients are more than the sums of the subordinate gradients formed by specialized structures of the organism. . . . The gradient, through its own polarization, supplies at once the beginning, the direction and the end of the growth process.  

These laws hold true in fetal development in lower animals and man, as is shown by Coghill.

Some general principles can be drawn from the observations of fetal development in lower animals and man. The most important of these is the generalization stressed by Coghill, that mass activity precedes specific behavior in the course of development. Initially, the responses of the fetus are diffuse and non-specific. It reacts as a whole and in an integrated manner from the very beginning. As maturation progresses, local activities appear by a process of differentiation or of individuation, as Coghill calls it. The parts of behavior thus develop from the whole, rather than the whole by combination of parts, as was at one time believed.

There is Schaeffer's study of the amoeba from which these conclusions come,

first, contribution to the situation on the part of the animal. Second, there is a response of the animal toward a goal. In terms of dynamics the goal is reached in the resolution of the tension set up by a new stimulus-situation. Third, the animal modified its behavior to meet the new situation.

From the study of the more complex organisms we find that

From goldfish to ape a certain property of behavior was invariably demonstrated, namely, the property of insight. The solution of the problem always turned out to be a unit-process; it possessed an organization unattributable to any single event into which the process could be analyzed and this organization pertained

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2Ibid., pp. 51-52.

3Fowler D. Brooks, Child Psychology, p. 43.

4Wheeler and Perkins, op. cit., p. 82.
not only to the space relation of the responses involved in the solution, but to their temporal relations as well. Both organization and insight were characteristic of the total performance at any stage of its development. Nothing determined the selection of insight except the difficulty of the problem for the animal. This meant that insight was a product of growth or maturation and a function of the degree of fitness between the problem situation and the organism's stage of maturation considering the animal either at a given stage in the evolutionary scale or at a given period in its individual development.

Lashley's experiments on rats and monkeys also produced valuable conclusions.

The brain functions in accordance with the laws of derived property and determined action. Each part is like a soldier. It depends upon the purpose or function of the whole. It seems evident, for example, that the visual area has some part to play in the total economy of the brain even when the organism is not responding to visual stimuli, for action currents corresponding to movements made in consequence of other stimuli, may be taken off the visual area. At other times the visual area is most certainly functioning in an important way, while the animal is responding to visual stimuli. The same principles are clearly demonstrated within restricted regions of the motor area. At one time direct electrical stimulation of a given part will induce an arm movement of the animal; at another time a head movement. The function of a given part depends upon what the whole is doing.

Characteristics of Growth

Proof of the value of the organismic laws is basic in forming the characteristics of growth in the human organism.

The dynamic characteristic.--The human organism is an energy system of behavior within itself. It is dormant

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5Ibid., pp. 107-108.
6Ibid., pp. 72-73.
unless stimulated, but when stimulated it changes into many different types of things. Every phase of the organism comes from the same cell. The changes that take place contribute to the welfare of the whole organism. A change of the stimulus brings a change in the organism. Change is function every time. Things that are vital to an organism are those things that function in the change of the behavior-pattern. This change may be emotional, social, physical, or mental in regard to a child. This implies that the curriculum must be made up of problem-solving situations or goals that face children.

Interaction.—Joint interaction of an organism's heredity and environment determines the growth of that organism. Brooks says that the characteristics of an organism are determined by the material from which it is formed and by the conditions under which it develops.7

For the curriculum builders this statement has value. Interaction with the environment in which an organism lives determines the integration of the behavior pattern. Then, the curriculum makers should see that school environment provides for goal situations for the child. Goal situations must be one of many stimuli which will provide for greater integration, emotionally, physically, socially, and mentally.

The continuous characteristic of growth.—Growth is continuous under normal conditions. Growth is life and life

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7Brooks, op. cit., p. 20.
is measured by activity. So it is in a child's life. It is never at a standstill. Change is inevitable, and the school should promote continuous growth in living.

A second valuable contribution of the embryological approach is the stress placed on the continuity of development. Birth is no longer regarded as the zero point in human conduct, but only an incident occurring in a continuous process of growth and differentiation. This concept breaks down the barrier between reflex and habit, between "native" and "acquired." 8

Maturation.—Physiologically, growth follows the laws of dynamics. The pattern of an organism is established before differentiation takes place. Coghill's study shows that before birth the motility of the body develops just as it does in the salamander. The earliest movements of the fetus are of the organism-as-a-whole. 9 The development of the embryo is continuous following the principle of caudal- sequence and that of proximo-distal development. 10

Kohler's study furthers the idea that growth is differentiation.

Maturation is a differentiation of energy patterns, or systems of stresses in the nervous system, which are organized as they differentiate. A change, effected in the nervous system by an external stimulus, demands a mutual adjustment between itself and pre-existing systems of stresses. As a result of this adjustment, new modes of behavior and new experiences are made possible, provided stimulations occur fast enough to keep the stress-patterns within the nervous system increasing in their complexity. This condition would be satisfied if

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8 Ibid., p. 47.
10 Brooks, op. cit., 43-44.
changes in stimulation came often enough to prevent a return of the patterns concerned to a state of equilibrium, for then new changes must continually balance themselves against old changes that are still going on. There is, therefore, not only an adjustment to an external stimulus, but an adjustment of one internal change to a previous, unfinished change, induced by a previous stimulus. There is a preservation of balance while the balance itself is changing. 11

Goals. -- Embryonic development shows that all activity is from mass to specific and always toward a goal. This is in line with the law of field genesis which states that wholes evolve as wholes through a process of differentiation and expansion.

The human being grows in the course of cellular multiplication, but growth is the expansion of a dynamic field, not an accumulation of cells. As the body develops, its tissues become more specialized, or differentiated into types and organs. 12

Again it is true in the law of configuration when it becomes apparent in the organized character of every adjustment either in a part of the animal or of the whole animal. The gradients characteristic of single-celled animals are an organized response of the total organism to a total pressure-pattern exerted upon the cell from the environmental medium in which it lives. Alter these patterns and the organism-as-a-whole adjusts its growth processes accordingly. 13

This law is a law of "selection," in that

(1) there is no response unless it is in relation to the whole. (2) No movement will follow another in sequence unless the meaning of the total performance, from beginning to end, is understood. . . . The path must be

12 Ibid., p. 25.
13 Ibid., p. 52.
guaranteed from its beginning to its end before a single act will occur."14

The goal is always represented.

Then in human life it must be remembered that goals are never static. They change with maturation. The child must be thought of as the unit that adjusts itself to "a multitude of disturbing influences," or the total situation or goal.

**Directional characteristic of growth.**—There is no behavior where there is no goal. Behavior is always directional toward a goal. Once a goal is established, the beginning, the direction of movement toward the goal and the end of the movement is determined by the goal.

**Growth as an evolving process.**—Proof enough has been given that mass activity precedes specific behavior. Growth in the organism functions through the process of differentiation and expansion.

The human being grows in the course of cellular multiplication, but growth is the expansion of a dynamic field, not an accumulation of cells. As the body develops, its tissues become more specialized, or differentiated into types and organs.15

Further evidence that growth is an evolving process is given by Brooks.

While attending to the details of analyzing the factors involved in learning one should not forget what was pointed out earlier, namely, that development, including learning, is characterized by integration and

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organization. Learning does not proceed by simple addition of separate responses. The responses do not remain separate; instead they influence the total response; so that the latter, far from becoming less unified, becomes unified. The particular muscle contractions, movements, or ideas which are involved in the learning process may drop out and the same adjustment result. The thing that is learned is the total response to a total situation.\textsuperscript{16}

\textbf{Unity.--}Growth shows that there is unity in the organism and unity between the organism and the environment.

\textbf{Factors for Learning}

Growth and learning are synonymous terms. Both can be thought of as response to a goal. Using the organismic laws and the characteristics of the human organism as a biological basis, these are the factors suggested for learning.

\textbf{False theory.--}The S-R bond theory is false. Lashley's study of the monkey with the paralyzed hand left no room for repetition of response as a factor of learning.\textsuperscript{17}

In short, the law of configuration and the law of least action preclude the theory of synaptic resistance as a basis of learning, and preclude repetition of response as a cause of progress. The very essence of learning is NOT REPEATING A PERFORMANCE BUT MAKING A NEW ONE.\textsuperscript{18}

\textbf{Whole process.--}Learning is a whole process. It is organismic. Responses are made to wholes and not isolated things. Responses are made to patterns of relationship. Those who build curriculums should remember that isolated responses are not the essence of learning.

\textsuperscript{16}Brooks, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 77.

\textsuperscript{17}Wheeler and Perkins, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 350.

\textsuperscript{18}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 351.
subjects are against the development of the organism as a whole.

**Experiencing.**—Learning takes place through actual solution of life problems in the pupil's immediate situation. Curriculum makers must be ever watchful for such problems.

**Maturation.**—Responses occur on the organism's level according to maturation, which may be mental, physical, social or emotional. Learning should start with experiences at the child's stage of maturity. These experiences must begin where the child's contacts are.

**Motivation.**—Stimulation is vital to learning. The changes that take place contribute to the welfare of the whole organization. A change of stimulus brings a change in the organism. The curriculum needs to provide proper stimulation, for often there are defects about which nothing can be done. Proper motivation includes not only rich environmental set-up and activities, but must also take into consideration periods of play, rest, and interruptions. Stimulation must always take place in relation to the goal and must be fitting to children's level of maturity. It must be meaningful.

**The purposeful factor for learning.**—The more purposeful the goal, the more interesting it is. Stimulation can make learning purposeful to the teacher and also to the child.

**Meaningful experiences.**—Experiences of this type need
to be taken from life situations to have meaning to the child. Experiences that make learning an evolving thing must be meaningful. To be such the child must feel the need for these experiences. If learning is to be continuous it will lead into many problem-solving situations that call for an expansion of meaningful experiences at the child's level in relation to a goal.

The factors influencing learning are further emphasized in the following presentation of a classroom experience. It was presented as a whole and developed as an evolving thing through the experiences of the children at each child's level of maturation.

Children who wanted milk each day could get it for three cents a bottle. The Banner Dairy milkman was to deliver this milk each morning. Each room must be responsible for the milk report each day and for paying the milk bill at the end of each week. This problem was worked out as each class thought best.

The children had no fear of this problem for they liked it and it was sanctioned by their school, their homes, and their milkman. One first-grade group met for discussion. They thought it best to tell their mothers and the teacher hectographed this letter to the parents.

Dear Mother and Father,
We can get pasteurized milk at school each day. It will cost 3 cents a bottle. Don't you think it is a good plan?

First Grade
When asked why they were interested, these were typical answers. "I wanta see the milkman," "Milk is good for you," "Where does he get the milk?" "What does the truck look like?" "When will he come?" The teacher asked if they would like to meet the milkman, and get him to answer their questions, and look at the truck. "Yes" was the answer. Work had to be outlined, conduct standards set up and groups formed so the milkman's time would not be wasted. One group was to ask questions, another to remember details about the truck, another to study the milkman. It was decided that the teacher should make the milk report for that morning. The procedure provided high stimulation and necessitated careful planning which made the experience real and purposeful.

The next day the discussion of what the parents thought was over, the milk count had been taken, the report placed on the bulletin board, and the money counted before the arrival of the milkman. The teacher asked help of children in carrying out these activities. The milkman came and some of the children knew him. He was friendly, polite, and helpful. After his visit there was another group meeting for reports. These stories were products of their discussion.

I am your friend.
I bring you milk.
Look for me at 9 o'clock.

Here is our milkman.
He likes boys and girls.
He brings us milk.
See his big truck.
A milkman is
Friendly
Polite
Helpful
Happy
Busy

It is big.
It is white.
It goes fast.
It brings us something.

Go car go
Fast fast fast
Stop stop stop
Look for little feet.

Thus developed the purposeful experience of learning to read but not in isolation.

A group formed to work out the time for the milkman's arrival. Then began the study of clock faces, which called for the construction of a toy clock face. When this happened a group formed to count money, and they placed that day's amount on the blackboard. The children not in groups were those who seemed to have no interest at all. The teacher found picture books and picture puzzles of farm animals to help them. She learned that they wanted to count the number who wanted milk the next day.

Through discussions during the rest of the day, the duties of each group were outlined.

1. Timekeepers were to signal for a group meeting at 8:45.

2. Milk counters were to check the day's total and their report was placed on the bulletin board in the hall for the milkman.
3. Money counters were to check their total with the milk total and put the money in the milk bottle bank. This must be done before the milk lunch time. The money could be used any time during the day for counting or making change, so there had to be a final check-up at the end of each day.

Each day something new emerged in relation to the goal. Number concepts developed in concrete form on the level of the child's understanding and not in isolation.

The next day's work went smoothly until the "money counters" came to make their report. Some child had to have change, so this group had to be divided and renamed "money changers." Work for this group was under the teacher's supervision. The "money counters'" duties were changed to those of reporting the final total at the end of the day.

The third day's procedure was encouraging. The teacher provided the "time tellers" with toy clock faces, one with Roman numerals and the other with Arabic numbers. She supervised their work at a separate period. Visitors' chairs were placed back of the group so that those who wished might slip in quietly and listen to their work. There were many "visitors" who stayed and worked, and many who observed.

The use of actual money provided high stimulation. The "money changers'" work began to be more complex. Some children brought money to pay for a week's supply of milk, others paid for one, two or three days. Their work went into "counting by 3's." The teacher took advantage of the oppor-
tunity to introduce stated problems, such as, "If one bottle of milk costs 3 cents, how much will two bottles cost?" or "Fritze Ann has ten cents. How many bottles of milk can she buy? How much change do you owe her?" "How many ways can you make a dime?" or "How many pennies make a nickel? a dime? a quarter? a dollar?" She introduced reading and writing of dollars and cents, too. In this group there were only a few listeners at first, but the handling of real money made interest grow. To help these children the teacher provided a chart showing the names of children buying milk, the names of the month, and the days of the week. This chart was checked for the amount of milk paid for by each child.

The "money counters" had problems too. The milk bill total was getting larger each day. The children began to realize they needed help in counting. The teacher with the help of the "money changers" developed the values of quarters and half dollars. For a week or more the check-up period was carried on under close teacher supervision. Then came the request, "Let us do it by ourselves." And they did. To further help this group another chart was provided showing the names of the month and the days of the week, with space for each day's total number of bottles and the daily bill, and with space at the side for the weekly total.

The experience provided security through meeting the problem in other meaningful situations, by motivation.

The "milk counters" were slow. To encourage them a
large number chart was made showing the numbers from 1 to 100. Cards were made with the number on one side and pictures illustrating that number on the other side. They played games. Their trouble was remembering number names. They were blindfolded and given cards with raised figures to feel of. Their number concepts were slowly developed by kinaesthetic methods. Tracing proved most helpful but it was a long while before they felt secure enough in this situation to take their responsibility without supervision. As soon as their concepts were developed, however, they worked happily, continually visiting and observing other groups.

An interesting thing happened to one child in the group. Sandwiches for lunch could be bought at a little store. Early each morning the store keeper sent a paper so each room could list the names of those buying sandwiches. On this morning one quiet little boy had not been interested in anything. His mind seemed far away. At lunch the teacher went to get her sandwich. While she "waited her turn," she heard this child say, "I want a sandwich, a doughnut, and a Dixie cup, and you owe me seven cents." The child had given the store keeper a quarter and the statement was correct. The teacher realized that during the morning this child had been "mentally" solving his problem. His statement came in one breath as a sigh of relief. In answer to quiet investigation, the teacher learned that several
children had been "short changed" at the store. It was no wonder that his problem was important. The child's classroom experience had been meaningful and purposeful and he was able to use it in other problem-solving situations.

Milk lunch time proved to have as great a social value as any activity during the day. A committee was chosen to see that the milk was brought in. While the children sat at their tables, the teacher asked what they did at their tables at home before they ate their meals. Several children said they just ate. Others remarked, "We give thanks." A discussion followed as to behavior during prayer time in Sunday School, church, home, or in any public place. The following standards were made:

When we pray we
Bow our heads
Do not move about
Are quiet
Are thankful
Give thanks

So while all the children followed these rules a little boy gave his thanks.

We thank Thee Lord
For food and drink
For Blessings more
Than we can think
Amen.

After "thanks" and while the children were eating, the teacher asked for suggestions as to what those children who did not have milk could do. There were many suggestions of "Draw," "Look at books," "Count the money," when suddenly one girl said, "I want to go play." This pleased the entire
group. They even planned where and what to play. The teacher asked how a person should leave the table. A number of children said, "Say excuse me," and "Leave the chair in place." This procedure was followed by those who did not drink milk. Those who had milk were free to enjoy their morning lunch, but they were responsible for cleaning up their crumbs before coming to the playground.

New experiences, not previously mentioned but which grew out of this problem, are listed.

1. The high school home-making teacher came with a picture and storybook on the value of nutrition in relation to the war. "Helpful Americans" was a source of interest.

2. The school doctor and health nurse came to give inspection. Health and weight charts took on meaning.

3. The money in the milk bank was left for any child to count at any time that he wanted to work. It was interesting to note that not a penny was taken during the whole year. This money was a trust and the children felt its importance.

4. Different children took the responsibility each week of paying the milkman.

5. A dairy was constructed.

6. Churning butter was a valuable experience in that it took more time to churn sweet cream than it did to churn the sour cream.

7. Art and music mediums kept interest alive too.
CHAPTER IV

INTEREST AND THE MODERN SCHOOL

The material given in this chapter has been secured by personal interviews with twenty-eight Texas elementary school teachers who were attending the 1943 summer sessions of the North Texas State Teachers College and Texas State College for Women, and who had taught during the 1942-1943 public school term. Twenty-two urban schools and six rural schools were represented. These teachers came from twenty counties. Not more than two teachers from the same school system nor three from any one county were interviewed. Some teachers taught more than one grade.

Sixteen of these teachers held bachelor's degrees and were doing graduate work. Seven were receiving bachelor's degrees at the end of the 1943 summer session; three of these teachers stated that they did not plan to do graduate work. The remaining five of the twenty-eight teachers were doing junior and senior college work.

Six teachers taught the first grade; two, the second; one, the third; three, the fourth; and three, the fifth. Thirteen teachers taught more than one grade.

Seven of the schools represented had carried on faculty
study problems, and only two of these schools provided new professional books for use in the solution of the problems. Two schools carried out immunization programs. One school's study was that of evaluating criteria for elementary schools. Another worked on integration. Two other systems were vitally concerned with the "deficiency in reading" among the children through their school.

One of these reports was interesting. The faculty decided to do actual work outside of their own building after school hours. Each faculty member was allowed to choose one individual from a different learning level than that in her teaching situation, and she must work with that child as often as possible. Once each week the faculty met to discuss facts learned and to determine factors underlying the cause of the deficiency. It had been slow work but interesting for the teacher.

Still another teacher reported that her school's interest was "how to do away with departmentalized work" in their elementary school. This led to a study of child psychology.

There had been difficulty in solving the problems mentioned above. Many teachers had gone into their country's service, or into defense work. The teachers who had taken their places lacked understanding, and were not willing to put forth the effort to carry on such work.

Five of the twenty-eight teachers had returned to the teaching profession in answer to the urgent need for teachers.
All five reported after a term's teaching that they needed a new outlook on modern school philosophy and psychology, and a more thorough understanding of modern techniques. They wanted to learn how to begin "the new way." This group seemed surprised that modern techniques began with a study of child psychology, and they saw no need for it.

Table 1 shows that fourteen of the twenty-eight teachers, or fifty per cent of the group, were in school during the 1942 summer session. Seven teachers, or twenty-five per cent of this group, attended the 1941 summer session. For each of the years 1941, 1940, 1939, 1938, 1936, and 1933, only one teacher, or three per cent, attended school. The two who had not attended school were of the group who answered the call for teachers. All but four of the teachers interviewed seemed vitally interested in the "why" of the new philosophy, "what to do about it," "when to do it," and "how to do it." Those four seemed to think the job was too time consuming. Though they all seemed interested, only nine teachers indicated any understanding at all of the importance of the study of individual development in relation to learning.

Home Environment and Interests

Table 2 presents the devices used by the twenty-eight teachers to secure information concerning their pupils' home background.

One teacher, three per cent of the group, was required
<p>| Last Attended College | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | Total | Per Cent of Teachers |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|     |                      |
| 1942                 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | 1 | 14 | 50 |     |                      |
| 1941                 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 7 | 25 |                      |
| 1940                 | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | 3 |                      |
| 1939                 | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | 3 |                      |
| 1938                 | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | 3 |                      |
| 1936                 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | 3 |                      |
| 1933                 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | 3 |                      |
| 1929                 | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 2 | 7 |                      |
| Total                | 6 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | ... | ... | ... | 3 | 1 | 1 | ... | ... | 1 | 2 | 1 | 28 |     |                      |
| Per Cent of Teachers | 21 | 7 | 3 | 10 | 10 | 7 | 7 | ... | ... | ... | 10 | 3 | 2 | ... | ... | 3 | 7 | 3 |     |                      |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Devices Used</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Per Cent of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Notes kept for individual teacher's use and teacher's register.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumulative case history, home visitation, conferences, observations of informal activities of child, health record</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher's register and permanent record.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher's register and cards for special cases</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To keep notes which were secured through conferences with the child, the parent, other members of the family, friends of the family, and other teachers. However, the only information turned in at the end of the year was the teacher's register. She reported that the information she had kept for her own use should have been on file for the child's next teacher. It was too valuable to discard. This teacher realized she must consider children as wholes, and that part knowledge was against whole development.

Four of the twenty-eight teachers, fourteen per cent, were required to fill in the information called for in the teacher's registers, and to make out cards showing grades and remarks of special cases. The principal of that system kept a cumulative record of all teacher's remarks on these
special cases which included weak children or slow-learning children. This information was used as a basis for grade placement at the beginning of each year. This is not consistent with organic principles. Practice of this type placed children of special cases in isolation. Isolation implies abnormality. Whole personalities develop through differentiation or association with all types of individuals in a whole group situation.

Four teachers of the group interviewed kept cumulative case histories. These teachers secured the facts for these histories through home visitation; conferences at school with the child, parents, and other teachers; health records of the school nurse; and observations of the child during informal activities. These teachers reported that this work was time consuming, but that the information gained proved too valuable for them to think about the time used in securing it.

The procedures followed by these teachers in securing knowledge of the child's background are consistent with organic laws of learning. According to psychological principles, environmental or total situations should develop from the individual's desirable needs, which may be defined as constituting anything that enables an individual to meet the desirable demands which society makes upon him as an individual or as a member of a group. Teachers must use many procedures in learning the needs which grow out of children's interests and the background upon which these
interests have been developed. Webb says:

One may need to employ one or more of a number of ways of identifying these interests. There are available interest check-lists and inventories such as the one developed by Donnal V. Smith and published in his book on Social Learning. A careful observation of children's free activity such as reading, play, conversation, and writing, may provide many valuable clues to their interests. A review of the literature dealing with the interests that are in many cases common to children of certain levels of development may be helpful in some cases. An understanding of a child's experiential background will provide leads for determining things which children understand and, as a result, their interests may be discovered. This procedure places the study of interests on an individual basis which is, without a doubt, the most desirable procedure to follow. In addition to the foregoing devices, one may provide, in and out of the school, opportunity for many and varied experiences for the child, and observe very carefully the enthusiasm exhibited by each individual while entering into these experiences.

The reader should remember that no very reliable method has yet been devised for determining children's interests. This makes it necessary for the teacher to devote a great deal of time and employ several methods in dealing with the very important problem of interest.

Nineteen of the twenty-eight teachers, sixty-seven percent, were required to see that the register and permanent record cards were filled out. It was interesting to note that the feeling among some of these teachers was that this information was not enough to help them. Four kept observation notes on each individual child. One developed what she termed as an "individualized sheet," showing personality growth. These teachers kept these observations to give to the pupil's next teacher.

Another teacher reported she had no need for other

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1James F. Webb, "Children's Interests--Their Use and Abuse," The Texas Outlook, XXVI (June, 1942), 15-16.
information. Her principal handled all playground problems among children, and all room conduct problems as well as all conferences with parents. She felt that he was "good to stand between his teachers and trouble."

Still another teacher reported no need for information. The school census was taken by the trustees' wives who filled out the permanent record cards. This teacher had to furnish the material by keeping her register filled out.

One teacher in this group was principal of a Spanish-speaking school. She seemed to know that she needed more information, but she reported that "it took too long, anyhow."

Though this group was not required to make a study of home background of children, there was indication of uneasiness among these teachers. This group needed guidance in finding the underlying cause of this disturbed feeling.

The child's whole environment, whether it is physical, social, intellectual, or emotional, influences his whole development. It is the school's duty to provide an environment conducive to the development of desirable needs of growth. Lee and Lee in The Child and His Curriculum make this statement:

Biologists and psychologists alike agree that personality is affected by both heredity and environment. . . . The important point is not how much of personality is the effect of environment and how much is heredity, but that it is the result of a continuous and continuing interaction of both. We do know that definite and important changes can be made. It is our responsibility to do all we can toward finding most effective ways and
means of making these desirable changes and then carrying them out.\textsuperscript{2}

Many teachers feel that when the room environment is so planned and arranged to meet the approval of the administration, then they are ready to teach subject matter. This is not true according to the following conclusions which have been taken from a searching study made by Kenneth V. Francis and Eva A. Fillmore. This study was made to investigate the physical environment in which children live and to study the attitude of the parents of those children.

The physical environment itself is shown to be of comparatively little importance, whereas a number of parent attitudes appear to be significantly thought to be important, namely, poor economic conditions, broken homes, foreign-born parents, and physical sickness have little effect on their own account. There appears to be a tendency for harmful attitudes of parents to produce maladjustment in children and for helpful attitudes to do the reverse.\textsuperscript{3}

Then a knowledge of the parental attitudes is an important factor in determining the teacher's techniques.

The Schoolroom as an Environmental Factor

The data in Table 3 indicate that the largest percentage of teachers were concerned about the physical growth and welfare of their pupils.

Twenty teachers, seventy-one per cent, reported the importance of the physical conditions of a classroom in relation

\textsuperscript{2}J. Murray Lee and Dorris May Lee, \textit{The Child and His Curriculum}, p. 63.

\textsuperscript{3}Ibid., p. 65.
TABLE 3

CHARACTERISTICS OF ROOM ENVIRONMENT AS REPORTED
BY TWENTY-EIGHT TEACHERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Per Cent of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Childlikeness</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homelikeness</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freedom and variety</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthful conditions</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

to learning environment. Ten of this group worked with health units, and health officers to promote health programs in their schools and communities. Seven stated that they were careful to observe the pupils' physical condition, and provided periods for rest and play when they were needed. Other teachers reported routine periods for rest and play.

Twelve teachers, forty-two per cent, seemed to realize the need for a room planned to appeal to the level of the children who were to occupy it. They reported that the room arrangement had been planned with the help of the children. Materials on the level of the children were used. Certainly this practice afforded the child security and recognition.

Ten teachers, thirty-five per cent, stressed the importance of a home-like atmosphere. This group stated emphatically that the teacher was the determining factor in this type of environment. This group stressed social organization guided by an understanding teacher. Three teachers mentioned
interaction of behavior in a situation of this type, and stated that the teacher must set an example. This group of teachers stated that each child comes from a home where he is the center of his world of experience, and that the teacher should help him to feel that he is the center of his school home. The suggestions they made that would help build a home-like atmosphere in the schoolroom were similar to those given by Starch, Stanton, and Koerth in *Psychology in Education*:

1. Show him respect.
2. Ask him to do things.
4. Ask him to help you solve his problems.
5. Commend him.
7. Ask him how he would discipline himself.
8. Be a good listener.
9. Let him talk himself out.
10. Admit mistakes.
11. Ask him how you can correct your mistakes.
12. Do him kindnesses.
13. In men and women relationships, treat men as heroes and women as heroines.  

Seven teachers, twenty-five per cent, placed interest centers as being very important. They placed materials from all mediums on levels of pupils in the room in order to motivate the pupils to activity. Four teachers kept accumulative records of the children's interests. These teachers reported that their schools furnished the materials for which they made requisitions. These teachers stated that one must be looking for opportunities to use these materials in

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meaningful ways and purposefully. This suggestion follows
another command for teachers set forth by Starch, Stanton,
and Koerth:

Cause a child to feel that what you wish him to do
is to his self-interest.
1. Ask him to do only what is right.
2. List all his self-interest motives for what you
wish him to do.
3. Devise specific ways to appeal to his self-
interest motives.\(^5\)

Seven teachers, twenty-five per cent, reported the im-
portance of space for freedom and variety of experiences.
Construction work, rhythm and dramatic play, as well as
creative activities, had promoted social growth of their
pupils. Three teachers had influenced their principals to
have desks put on board runners. This allowed rearrangement
at any time it was needed.

The human being is dynamic. He acts on things around
him. He may change in every respect all of the time as long
as the changes have needs. It is this dynamic characteristic
that makes needs in his life. These needs may be

1. Physical, or the need for food, air, water, shelter,
clothing.

2. Social, or the need for the recognition and approval
of others in the group.

3. Emotional, or the need for security. This has been
expressed as "freedom from physical want," "a sense of
possession," and "a release from worry."

\(^5\)Ibid., p. 104.
4. Mental, or the urge for success, achievement or mastery.

The needs of the human being are dynamic, too. These characteristics of the human being and his needs indicate that the school environment must carry the same characteristics to promote growth. According to Lane in *The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School*, 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? To skip?

2. The problems which revolve around the child's intellectual readiness to learn. When does he learn to speak single words? When does he speak in sentences? When is he able to carry on a conversation? When does he begin to make judgments? To make decisions? 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 experiences are pre-requisite to certain types of learning? For example, what experiences are involved as factors in reading readiness?

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.6

The schoolroom should be thought of by the teacher as her tool of influence. She must realize that she cannot control all environmental factors, but that there are factors relating to the needs of the human organism she can improve.

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The following criteria have been summarized for judging the proper environment:

(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 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.
(e). The environment should emphasize success rather than failure.
(f). The environment must provide motives for action likely to appeal to children.7

Table 4 gives the descriptions of schoolroom environment as indicated by twenty-eight teachers.

**TABLE 4**

**DESCRIPTIONS OF SCHOOLROOM ENVIRONMENT AS INDICATED BY TWENTY-EIGHT TEACHERS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environment Termed by Teachers as</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Per Cent of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rich</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very limited</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seven teachers, twenty-five per cent, verified their reports of rich environment with such statements as, "My room is large," "I have plenty of materials to work with," "My children are happy," "The parents seem pleased with the

7Ibid., p. 95.
work their children do," "My principal thinks there has been greater development in my work with children this year." Rich environment to these teachers meant high interest centers which were on the child's level and which motivated the child to act. Their attitude indicates an evolving development of the pupil through individuation.

Ten teachers, thirty-five per cent, who gave "limited" value to their situations, mentioned the need for more different materials, a need for greater space in which to work, and a problem of too large an enrollment. However, three of these teachers influenced their principals to put the desks on runners. This gave more working space, but not enough for many specific interests to be carried on without a disturbing element. Seven of these ten teachers had made no effort to improve that part of their environment. This fact indicates that with a little effort and a lot of understanding on the part of the teacher improvements can be made in many situations of this type.

Eleven teachers, or thirty-nine per cent, reported that they had too many pupils, that they needed more space in which to work, that the desks were fastened to the floor, and that they taught in communities which approved of drill work and disapproved of "play stuff." These teachers used commercial seatwork, scissors, crayolas, textbooks, pencils, and tablets as teaching aids. Their teaching environments as well as the learning environments were "very limited," which
indicated isolation in regard to teaching and learning. This situation indicated the need for educating the community, which would require the efforts of a teacher who "understands people old and young." These teachers indicated no effort at all to change their situations.

Table 5 presents the facts concerning the type of subject matter employed by the twenty-eight teachers interviewed.

**TABLE 5**

**TYPE OF SUBJECT MATTER EMPLOYED BY TWENTY-EIGHT TEACHERS IN THEIR TEACHING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Work Carried on</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Per Cent of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Routine, subject matter</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combination of subject matter and pupil interest</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-solving situation</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sixteen teachers, fifty-seven per cent, reported routine work or subject matter. Pictures on bulletin boards were used as a means of presenting seasonal changes or for room decoration. Construction work was done during art for busy work.

Five teachers, fourteen per cent, said that they were making efforts to combine pupils' interests and subject matter. They needed professional guidance.

Seven teachers, twenty-five per cent, reported that their work was on a problem-solving basis at the children's level. No subject matter was taught in isolation.
Interest as a Field of Exploration

The teachers who were interviewed recognized the following interests of the children during classwork:

1. People - firemen, policemen, soldiers, aviators, pilots, bombardiers, negroes.
2. Places - foreign lands, China, Great Britain, Norway, Sweden, Italy, Africa.
3. Natural world - living things, animals, plants.
4. Adventure - books, daily paper, radio, motion picture.
5. Construction - tools and people who use them.
6. Making things with their hands - modeling, cooking, sewing.
7. Aesthetic interests - art and music mediums.
8. Unusual things - fairy tales, myths, poetry.

The interests listed show that the field of children's interests is as dynamic as the human organism. Interests that grow from the needs of the individual will make the environment dynamic, for the environment will change as the individual needs change. A wise teacher will recognize the opportunities to bring about many desirable changes in behavior patterns through interest. Interest motivates the individual. Interest gives direction toward the integration of an individual.8

Interest has many different meanings to teachers. Some

8Webb, op. cit., p. 15.
teachers place a group in a certain grade with certain textbooks and expect the child to carry out the work given him whether he likes it or not. Some teachers force their own interests upon children. Other teachers follow children's interests without question. Such practices indicate misunderstanding of interest.

Webb in a discussion of "Children's Interests--Their Use and Abuse" has this to say:

Present-day biology and psychology hold that the human being is an organism which is continuously interacting with the environment in which it exists. Since both the organism and the environment are dynamic, the human being is forever meeting change; change within and change without. Such changes are disconcerting. They throw the even tempo of the organism's functioning out of balance. As a result, a tension develops and the organism becomes maladjusted with the environment. Immediately the individual sets about the task of working out a more harmonious relationship with this environmental problem. Many upsets which the organism experiences are insignificant and such tension as may be instilled can be resolved with little effort. Other problems, however, are recognized as having great value for the individual, and, as a result, a strong purpose for acting is developed. The more the child works at such a problem the more insight he gains. This broadening of meaning and understanding increases and deepens the individual's purpose. As a result, he sees a value in the activity being pursued. This value becomes his goal, and when we see a child striving to reach his goal with a great deal of enthusiasm, willing to expend much effort, and entering upon the task with his whole life, the psychologist recognizes the child as being interested or as having interest. Interest then is a manifestation of the recognition of value and the willingness to exert one's self in the accomplishment of an accepted goal.9

Table 6 presents the techniques used by these teachers in guiding children's interests toward a goal, whether it was subject matter or problem solving situations.

9Ibid.
TABLE 6

TECHNIQUES USED BY Twenty-Eight TEACHERS TO MOTIVATE CHILDREN'S INTERESTS TOWARD A FIELD OF EXPLORATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Techniques</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Per Cent of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group discussion under teacher</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guidance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of visual and auditory aids and</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>devices</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excursions</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside speakers</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drill</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fourteen teachers, fifty per cent, seemed to recognize the democratic principles of developing the individual by interaction with the group. Group discussions were carried on under teacher guidance; at times a child leader took charge, but the teacher was always there to help. Each child was allowed to "speak his mind." Problems of the class, the teacher, and of individuals were discussed and solved. Common interests of the group were brought to focus on one topic or goal. Purposes for doing things were emphasized. Group discussion gave direction and insight to activities. Conduct standards were formed. One teacher mentioned an interest which centered, through group discussion, on a study of the post office. This grew from the class need of writing Parent-Teacher notes to encourage mothers to attend.

In another case the first grade children were so noisy upon entering and leaving the building during their play
period that a third grade group could not have classes. The first grade group met and discussed the need for quiet, why they should be quiet, and ways to be quiet. Standards for quiet behavior upon entering and leaving the building were set up and carried out. Individual as well as group responsibility was emphasized.

Another group discussed possible summer activities in which they could partake. Emphasis was placed on the usefulness of the activities chosen. Lists were written on the board, and the teacher asked the pupils to report at the beginning of the next school year. This brought on a discussion of "what they would be" at the beginning of the next year. One child asked the teacher what she was going to be the next year. The teacher expressed approval of the question and asked the help of the group in making her decision. The whole group took part in the discussion. Finally one little boy remarked, "I guess you just better be another teacher. You do that good." The group decided that was the best solution. Such purposeful planning leads to integration of personality.

The child should be stimulated to choose and carry through worth-while enterprises. The doing of purposeful tasks is the fundamental means of promoting integration of personality.10

All twenty-eight teachers, one hundred per cent, recognized the value of all types of visual and auditory aids and

devices. The aids listed by these teachers were:

1. Stories, poems, books, and pictures.
2. Art mediums - crayolas, clay, water paints, easels, magnets, and reading glasses.
3. Animals and insects.
4. Films.
5. Charts, maps, and globes.
6. Self-directing card games and self-checking tests by the teacher on the child's level.
7. Construction tools.
9. Games, puzzles, and building blocks.

Twelve teachers of this group reported using the aids which were listed above to guide the pupils in their study. Self-directing card games, self-checking story puzzles, and self-checking tests made on the child's level proved most valuable in making the child independent.

One interesting incident was told illustrating the fact that children's toys serve as devices to bring class interests under one goal. It was too cold for outdoor play. A little girl brought a singing doll to school. The children gathered to see and listen. The teacher joined the circle of listeners. The owner discussed the doll and answered all questions. The doll came from Switzerland and sang the song "Rock-a-bye, Baby." The children counted the times she
sang. They mocked the tune when the "song-box" had nearly run down. They listened; they sang. The teacher sat in the group and took part with the listeners. The group laughed; they played that they held a baby in their arms and swayed to the music while the doll sang their babies to sleep. This experience motivated by a child led to a study of music boxes and on into a study of other musical instruments.

This type of work indicates a recognition of leadership and of its value in determining group development. It is an integrating activity and should be encouraged. Hockett emphasizes this fact in the following quotation.

The child's initial integration should be respected and preserved. We shall then, if possible, avoid interrupting and distracting the child when he is engrossed in some activity of his own, for concentration of attention is both a sign and a concomitant of integration. Persistence is to be encouraged.11

Eleven of the twenty-eight teachers presented work they thought the pupils should have. Commercial seatwork of all types was used. This work was presented in isolation. Such a procedure indicates that these teachers are dominating factors and not guiding factors.

Behavior standards were set by the teachers. The children were told what to do and when to do it. Such practice does not recognize organismic laws of learning and the child is not allowed to play his part in the total situation.

Five teachers reported that they were having some suc-

cess and some difficulty in presenting work at the child's level of understanding without dominating the whole class. The more they studied and the more they experimented the easier the task was, this group reported. This statement should be of value to other teachers in that it should encourage them to continue their study of the child as a total behavior pattern with open minds and develop a program on the child's level of maturation.

Eleven teachers, thirty-eight per cent, reported excursions made to points of interest proved to be a great value in social development. Trips made by these teachers and their pupils were to the fire station, to the bakery, to the printing office, to the city library, to the city park, to the zoo, to the Japanese submarine, and to see goats. Such experiences called for definite behavior goals to be set up. One teacher stated that on one occasion each individual was responsible for a specific question for which he was to get an answer. Another time the class divided itself into groups which had definite things to look for.

An interesting thing was told of a primary group who wished to build a radio system in their room. Since there was no radio station in their town, the group decided that the public address system at the high school building would help solve their problems. After the teacher studied through the situation, she presented her plans to the proper officials who readily consented.
Consent of parents was received in reply to a note of explanation sent by the teacher. The children met, and the teacher discussed the system at the high school listing things to look for and to ask about. Each child was given something upon which to report. Conduct standards were planned. These concerned behavior while in the cars, when entering and leaving the building, while in the building, and courteous "thank yous" and remarks of appreciation to those who helped in any way.

The trip was made with no trouble. The entire class was amazed to know they could stand in one room and be heard in every room in the high school building. Their radio station was built, and from that time on, the microphone became a real thing to them. The story hour included children from other rooms. New interest was provided through charts, books, and poems in reading, and daily temperature and weather reports in numbers.

Tire and gas rationing was given as the reason for such few excursions. However, three teachers stated that those children who lived near points of interest in their community gave reports concerning those points. This activity proved to be of value in that new interest and understanding of the community was aroused.

Two teachers reported that excursions were made, but there was no period of follow-up work. These teachers followed routine work and did not have the time.
Teachers should study and take advantage of every opportunity to make the community of value to the school and to the child. Lane gives a classification of excursions with definite descriptions of each and they are as follows:

**OBSERVATIONAL** - The pupils are cast in the role 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 fire house.

**PARTICIPATORY** - A common example is 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.

**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 government officials, and then help to arouse public opinion in support of the project.12

Seven teachers, twenty-five per cent, reported an awakening of interest by bringing in outside speakers. Interests were broadened to the point that new areas were studied and direction was given to many goals. Types of speakers mentioned were: a fire chief, a returned missionary from China, a lady who was in Hawaii when Pearl Harbor was attacked, Royal Air Force Flyers, an aviator from the glider school.

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12Lane, op. cit., pp. 61-62.

Sixteen teachers, fifty-seven per cent, reported the use of drill, because children "could not learn" or "had not remembered." Cards and games of all kinds were mentioned. Five of these teachers reported short and frequent periods of motivated drill with success. These five teachers have an understanding of motivation by pacing. Eleven teachers stated whole class periods were spent with the entire group on drill.

It is true that skills and drills cannot be thought of separately. Many teachers think of drill in relation to rote learning and acquiring mechanical skill. Others think of it as "mere busy work." In The Child and His Curriculum, by Lee and Lee, the following explanation is given:

To avoid misunderstanding from here on, the type of "drill" which has been found effective will be thought of as the "forming of associations with the material. . . . When emphasis is placed on forming a number of varied associations, its implication for all learning is more readily understood and more acceptable. Whether it be concept, information, method, or attitude, the greater the variety of the situations to which it may be related, the more numerous the pupil's meaningful associations with it, the more instances in which it has been applied, the greater is the learning that will take place. 13

Many teachers do not realize that some children are not mature enough to comprehend the problems put before them. Many teachers do not consider that the child's background of experience might limit the child's insight. Drill would not solve these problems. Indications are that this work should be postponed until the child has had such experiences and has attained such a level of maturity that an interest can be developed.14

Drill or repetition of a performance is not justified by organismic laws of learning. One should remember that the very essence of learning is the differentiation of meanings brought about by broadening and multiplying the experiences of the individual.15

The Goal as a Challenge

Someone has said that we do not teach groups; we teach individuals. But individuals may react in groups. Table 7 presents the bases used in grouping children for instructional purposes as reported by twenty-eight teachers.

Seventeen teachers, sixty per cent, classified their pupils according to ability. Reading ability was the basis of this grouping. Six of these teachers based their grouping on standardized tests. Another six teachers of the seventeen placed the children where they felt they should be.

14Webb, op. cit., p. 15.
TABLE 7

BASES USED IN GROUPING CHILDREN FOR INSTRUCTIONAL PURPOSES AS REPORTED BY TWENTY-EIGHT TEACHERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basis Used</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Per Cent of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ability</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of difficulty</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social development</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Five teachers were guided by the pupils' records as a basis for the grouping situations in their classes. No consideration was given to social development. These reports indicate abnormal individual development caused by teacher dominance.

Seven teachers, twenty-five per cent, classified their pupils according to the children's interests and needs. This method of grouping considered individuals of different abilities and levels of learning. Class activities were carried on in much the same manner as those of the seven teachers who grouped their pupils according to their social development. This method of grouping was based on the idea that children grow as a whole and at varying rates. As members of different groups moved ahead of other individuals they were transferred to new groups at their level of matura-

supervised study periods and assignments of tasks to individual children were motivated by the use of self-direct-

ing and self-checking aids and tests.
Social maturity has proven to be the most successful basis for organizing groups for teaching purposes. Lane agrees with this fact in the following statement:

To put it in another way 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 on the basis of social maturity tends to make differences in other types of growth of slight importance. 16

Only three teachers reported grouping children according to difficulty or disability. One teacher had a child that physicians classified as a spastic. There was little the teacher could do except try to provide materials on the level of this type. Another teacher reported a paralytic case. The child was apt in numbers, but had not learned to read. This teacher motivated the child's need for reading through an interest in airplanes. The third case presented was that of a crippled child who also understood numbers, but could not read. The teacher in this case allowed the child to choose his own activities.

Evidence that a goal is challenging because of its dynamic qualities is shown in Table 8.

Only seven teachers, twenty-five per cent, reported group interest going into specified interest areas.

One teacher of this group told of a trip planned by a first grade group to look for signs of Fall. The children

16 Lane, op. cit., pp. 79-80.
TABLE 8
EVIDENCES THAT THE CHILD IS CHALLENGED AS REPORTED BY TWENTY-EIGHT TEACHERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evidences</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Per Cent of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group interest going into specified fields.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition and solution by the individual of his own problem under teacher guidance.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition and solution by the group of an individual's problem under teacher guidance.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition and solution by the group of its own problem under teacher guidance.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

walked and walked gathering leaves, cocoons, and flowers. On their return trip they found a little brown rabbit which they took to school. Problems of a home and food for the rabbit came before the class. Stories were written. Songs and rhythms were enjoyed. A construction group planned, measured, and made a rabbit hutch. Art mediums presented opportunities for creative work. Other animals were studied. During this study provision was made for the slow learning children through supervised study periods. Individual assignments were given to the bright children. This was a dynamic study in that it provided a goal which determined the solution of problems. The problems of caring for the rabbit gave new direction to behavior patterns. The solution
of these problems evolved through selected and integrated responses toward the goal.

Nine teachers, thirty-two per cent, found that children solve their own problems with teacher guidance.

One child could not make the rabbit's hind legs in his picture. He asked the teacher to draw them for him. The teacher asked if he had seen the rabbit hop. He had not and she suggested that he watch while the rabbit took his exercise. She placed the animal on the floor. It was not long before the child was holding the animal and feeling of its leg bones. Later the child put the rabbit in its pen. He finished his picture the next day. The hind legs were "right."

The child's solution of his problem shows that his response was directed from the study of the rabbit and also in relation to the goal. It involved insight in that he was doing something new which could not be accomplished until he reached a higher level of maturation. It presented motivation which led to greater insight and finally to success.

Twelve teachers, or forty-two per cent, found that many individual problems were solved by the group. There was a little Mexican girl in one class who could not speak English. The children in this group were anxious that she learn their language. She had proved herself valuable to them through art activities and they wanted her approval. The teacher provided self-help cards and pictures which the children
used in helping the child. In a month's time the little
girl's attitude had changed. She seemed happier and more
at ease with the group. She was thrilled to be able to
"speak more language."

Twelve teachers, forty-two per cent, guided their classes
into solving their own problems. Arrangement of tables and
chairs as well as exhibits of work were planned by the group.
Conduct standards grew out of discussions of this type.
These problems included discussions of "how to move quietly
while others are reading," "how to meet a stranger," "intro-
ducing someone," "how to be courteous," "how to help others,"
and "making new friends."

Directing the Development of Behavior Patterns

The evidence concerning the methods used by twenty-
eight teachers in directing the development of behavior pat-
terns is presented in Table 9.

Twelve teachers, forty-two per cent, reported guidance
through group discussion when the occasion arose. One inter-
esting incident was mentioned by a teacher who worked in a
community where family feuds were common. She stated that
by working through group cooperation and by emphasizing group
responsibility, after school fights were gradually decreasing
among the children of these families.

Nine teachers, thirty-two per cent, found that by making
individuals responsible for certain duties those individuals
attained self-confidence and were of more value to the group.
TABLE 9
METHODS USED BY TWENTY-EIGHT TEACHERS IN DIRECTING
THE DEVELOPMENT OF BEHAVIOR PATTERNS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Per Cent of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher suggestion and guidance as occasion arose</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual conference</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as an example</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Duties mentioned were:

1. Caring for birds and plants.
2. Distributing food for morning lunch.
3. Dusting tables and chairs.
5. Keeping the library neat.
6. Checking the thermometer for room ventilation.
7. Caring for playground equipment.

Four teachers, fourteen per cent, placed the teacher's attitude as the important factor in guiding children. These teachers reported that the example set by the teacher herself is the determining factor in forming conduct standards. Practices suggested by the teachers interviewed which indicate their attitudes toward the development of behavior patterns are as follows:

1. Give a child responsibilities.
2. Show him respect.
3. Ask him to help solve his own problems.
4. A teacher must admit her own mistakes and ask the child to help her correct them.
5. Be kind and sympathetic toward the child.
7. Be happy with the children.
8. Listen to the child tell what he has to tell.
9. Have faith in her own work even though she is experimenting.
10. Laugh with the children.
11. Show her love for children.

These statements are in line with the principles of reciprocal behavior which may be considered three ways, namely, one's own behavior, the behavior of others, and the resulting interaction of these two.¹⁷

To be able to recognize cases of maladjustment is important, but no more so than to be able to discover the underlying causes of maladjustment. Table 10 presents the causes given by twenty-eight teachers for the maladjusted cases which they recognized in their local situations.

Three teachers, ten per cent, cited cases of physical disability causing maladjustment. One child was a spastic, another a paralytic, and the third a cripple. The mother of the first child had been told that her son needed special instruction, but she felt she knew best. He had been in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types and Causes of Maladjustment</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Per Cent of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical causes - physical disabili-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ties, general health, health</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>habits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogical causes - curriculum in-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adequacies, instructional inade-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quacies, unwholesome teacher-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pupil relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional causes - unwholesome family</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relationships, inadequate home</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>training, undesirable school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>treatment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social causes - unfavorable home</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conditions, inadequate home back-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ground</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

three different schools already. The little girl who was so drawn from paralysis came from a very poor home. She was well liked though and all the children helped her. The crippled child had been in that condition from birth. He did not care to learn to read. He felt he could not learn. This child spent his time doing as he pleased until number work began. Then he was very attentive.

Three teachers, ten per cent, reported cases with pedagogical causes. Two teachers cited cases of abnormal intelligence, but they also cited instances of learning in these cases. These children were slow thinking children who sat quietly, not taking part in any discussion. When called on,
they were embarrassed. The work carried on was far above these children's level of maturation. The other case mentioned was due to the fact that the teacher did not care for the child. Her attitude was the "I don't care" type. She said that he could not learn, anyhow.

Six teachers reported cases caused by emotional upheavals in the home. One child's father was serving a penitentiary term. This child was very sensitive and self-conscious. Another child was the babyish type who cried if he did not get his way. His parents had spoiled him. One teacher reported a selfish child who was well liked. He did not show this trait at all until he was playing with games; then he threatened the children. He was more polite to girls. This must have been because he had a little sister.

Another child was reported to be a bully. He did very well in his class work, but he was rude and tried to rule activities on the playground.

One child was cited as a case of laziness. He attended school when he pleased. His parents worked. There were older sisters who had quit high school because they disliked it. The teacher had tried in vain to contact the parents. This child had no encouragement at home.

The last case mentioned was that of a boy whose older brother had to be forced to go to school. This child had formed his opinion of school from that of his older brother. He had to be urged to do anything. He had developed an
inferiority complex. He was quite capable but he did little except sit and listen.

The three teachers, ten per cent, who reported children from Spanish-speaking homes, found that inadequate home backgrounds were causes of maladjustment. The child's maturation and insight had been limited because of his background.

It is interesting to note that eight teachers reported no cases of maladjustment in their classrooms. Their statements indicate little knowledge of mental hygiene which resulted in a failure to recognize cases of maladjustment.

Table 11 presents the techniques used to guide maladjusted children as reported by twenty-eight teachers.

Seven teachers, twenty-five per cent, found that the group was influenced by the teacher's attitude toward an individual. The group assumed the same attitude the teacher had when she presented the individual's work. The beginning of group approval was started by the teacher's approval. The individual's self-confidence began to develop as group approval grew.

Nine teachers, thirty-two per cent, found that conferences with individual children were very valuable. During such a conference the child was encouraged to face his problem and to accept it as his own. Then the teacher put the work on the child's level to enable him to have success.

Nine teachers, thirty-two per cent, reported that giving a child responsibility makes him feel more secure in his own
TABLE 11
TECHNIQUES EMPLOYED BY TWENTY-EIGHT TEACHERS IN GUIDING MALADJUSTED CHILDREN TO A MORE WHOLESOOME RELATION WITH THE GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Techniques Employed</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Per Cent of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Presentation of the child's work to group</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conference with the child</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving the child responsibility</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present work on the child's level of maturation</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Let the child find himself</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

situation. Keeping the library neat, erasing boards, and caring for flowers are types of activities permitting the exercise of individual responsibility.

Seven teachers, twenty-five per cent, found that work presented on the child's level of maturation provided a better opportunity for success for the child and promoted integration of personality.

Seven teachers, twenty-five per cent, stated that when a child seems to withdraw from the group there is only one thing to do. Never force him, but provide opportunities for group activity where the pupil will be naturally involved. One teacher reported that "visitors' chairs" added to the back of reading groups had given more children chances to find their places, and that when they found themselves they would ask for help. This indicates a period of initial delay for greater insight and maturation.
Evaluating the Results of Teaching

Table 12 presents the techniques used by twenty-eight teachers in evaluating the results of teaching.

**TABLE 12**

**TECHNIQUES USED BY TWENTY-EIGHT TEACHERS IN AN EVALUATION OF THE RESULTS OF TEACHING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Techniques Used</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Per Cent of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group discussion, under teacher guidance</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual conference</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exhibits of work</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation of program</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progress charts</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation of individual's work</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child senses own growth and tells about it</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation of children in social situations</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Twelve teachers, forty-two per cent, reported that the most valuable technique was group discussion. It brought the teacher in closer relation with the children. Conduct standards, planning trips, and arranging the room were activities about which discussions were conducted.

Nine teachers, thirty-two per cent, stated the importance of individual conferences. One teacher reported an instance of a maladjusted child who had found himself after six months' work. The first grade class had charted the requirements for admittance to the second grade. Different children
were checking to see whether they were ready. This child came to discuss his problem. He stated that he would not go to the second grade because he did not know enough. He asked the teacher to tell his mother. The teacher wrote a note and the child carried it home. At the end of school he was not worried. He told the children he wanted to stay in his room. This is an excellent example of self evaluation.

The value of self evaluation is set forth by Hockett in the following quotation.

The child should be encouraged to overcome difficulties he meets. Difficulties are disintegrative in their effect when avoided, but when faced and overcome they promote integration on a high plane. To shield a child unduly from difficult situations is to remove one of his best opportunities to achieve integration.\(^{18}\)

Eleven teachers, thirty-nine per cent, found that in securing materials for exhibits, standards of neatness and the quality of work done were considered. This set up standards for future work of the children.

Nine teachers, thirty-two per cent, stated that programs which grew out of interest areas encouraged growth in social development.

Four teachers, fourteen per cent, found that progress charts insured growth of some children.

Seven teachers, twenty-five per cent, stated that presentation of the individual's work to the group encouraged growth in the individual as well as growth in the group.

Seven teachers, twenty-five per cent, observed that children know when they do well for they love to talk of their success. Sometimes the group recognized it and reported the progress too.

Five teachers, seventeen per cent, reported parties and other socials given for mothers, other rooms, and on holiday occasions, provided opportunities for new values to be brought out.

There is no set way to evaluate work, but probably many methods may be employed to a good advantage. The results should be used for improvement of instruction. The implications are for a proper understanding of the evaluation and for the necessity of follow-up work.
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

In making this study of the challenge before schools of today to determine the philosophical principles which affect the child, to recognize the value of psychology in relation to growth and learning, to recognize the basic value of children's interests and needs in relation to learning, and to discover ways in which some teachers have developed children's interests into a workable program of individualized instruction, these conclusions have been formed:

1. The organization of our present day school is not, in general, consistent with the democratic philosophy.

2. There is a great lack of understanding of the principles of child psychology and the influence of these principles upon learning.

3. Teachers need less of the wrong kind of supervision and more of the right kind of supervision.

4. There is not enough professional study carried on by teachers for them to keep up with the newer trends in educational procedures.

5. The educational experiences provided by teachers for children are not consistent with their social experiences.
6. Democratic principles can be taught by providing children opportunities to live them under the guidance of teachers who live by these principles.

7. Individualized instruction is justified in that it provides opportunities for greater integration of total personalities at a maximum rate.

8. There are too few teachers who base their instruction on the child-as-a-whole theory.

9. There is a restlessness among teachers concerning methods of dealing with children.

10. Social maturity is the most successful basis for organizing groups.

Recommendations

From the conclusions made these recommendations would follow:

1. Schools should develop a philosophy of education that is consistent with democratic ideas.

2. Schools should enlist teachers' help in formulating a program based on the growth and learning processes.

3. Schools should encourage teachers to solve problems in their local situations by providing a professional library made up of the newer books written by recognized authorities who have had experience with learning problems.

4. Schools should encourage and recognize teachers who do read and study and make sound experiments.
5. Teachers should recognize children's value by asking their help in planning their work and solving their problems.

6. Teachers can give children security by showing their love for them, by providing opportunities for the child to contribute to the group, by recognizing their contributions to the group, and by providing work fitting each level of maturation.

7. Teachers should base all class grouping upon the child's social maturity.

8. Teachers should be allowed freedom to develop a program of individualized instruction.
APPENDIX
Interview Sheet

Personal Data

I. Name of teacher ________________________________

II. School __________________ Rural ______ Urban ______
    Number of faculty ____________

III. Town ___________ County ___________ State ___________

IV. Grade taught _________ Subjects taught _____________
    Class enrollment ____________

V. Faculty study problem ______________________________

VI. New professional books ___________________________

VII. Teaching experience ______________________________

VIII. When did you last attend college? _______________________
     Where? ___________________________________________

Questions

I. How do you discover children's interests?
   A. By providing rich environmental set-up

   B. Through study of child's home background

      1. Knowledge secured by home visitation ________
         personal conferences at school with parents______
         pupils _____, other teachers _____, friends ___
         observation ______

II. How long does this take you?
   A. Varies according to the individual ______
   B. Not long ______
III. How do you bring areas of interest into a wide field of exploration which challenges the whole group?
A. Group discussion and planning under teacher
guidance
B. Teacher presentation using stories, pictures,
music medium, art mediums, games,
films
C. Excursions
D. Talk by person outside of school

IV. How are you sure each child is challenged?
A. By group interest going into specified interest
areas of different children
B. Recognition and solution by an individual of his
own problem under teacher guidance
C. Recognition and solution by the group of an individ-
ual's problem under teacher guidance if needed
D. Recognition and solution by the group of its own
problem under teacher guidance
E. Personal conference with the individual
F. Observation of pupils during informal activity
periods

V. How did you promote an evaluation of results that
ensured continuous growth among the class?
A. Group discussion
B. Individual conferences
C. Presentation of work to entire group
D. Charts of progress
E. Encouraging remarks from teacher
F. Exhibits of work and programs which have grown out of interest areas

VI. What occasions did you take advantage of to teach tool subjects?
A. Reading
B. Numbers
C. Writing

VII. How did you guide individual development without placing the whole class under teacher dominance?
A. Grouping according to ability, interest, type of difficulty, social development
B. Grouping based on
   Standardized test
   Teacher rating
   Pupil record
C. By giving different individual assignments
D. Supervised study
E. Use of visual and auditory aids materials to present subject matter to a variety of types of learners

VIII. How do you guide maladjusted children to a more wholesome relation with their associates?
A. Teacher presentation of an individual's work to entire group
B. Making child feel his value by giving him some responsibility

C. Leave child alone, but place enticing new interests in his way until he finds himself

D. Teacher is the determining factor

IX. How do you guide pupils into generalizing their experiences into conduct standards?

A. Teacher makes rules

B. When occasion arose, through group discussion under teacher guidance

C. When pupil misbehaves

D. Individual plans own punishment

X. What is done with the information you have about each child?

A. Teacher's register

B. Permanent record

C. Cumulative record, case history

D. Records of special cases

E. Personality development sheets
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