AN EVALUATION OF METHODS AND OBJECTIVES
IN SPEECH TEACHING

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AN EVALUATION OF METHODS AND OBJECTIVES
IN SPEECH TEACHING

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Problem

The problem of this thesis is to determine whether speech teachers’ objectives and methods are in line with educational objectives and certain sound psychological practices and whether speech training has made any contribution to the general education of the ninth grade students in the Odessa Junior High School, as reflected in the marks given by instructors in certain other subjects before and after the students began the study of speech, and as compared with the marks of students who have had no speech instruction.

Source of Data

The sources of data used in this study were literature in the fields of speech and modern psychology with particular reference to the objectives and methods in each field, school records of Odessa’s ninth grade students’ marks, and their ratings according to the Otis Classification Tests.

Procedure

Numerous sources were consulted to determine what objectives in speech education were generally accepted, and a composite list was made and compared with a composite list of
educational objectives accepted by modern psychologists. The same procedure was followed in regard to methods. Then these lists were checked to determine to what extent they coincided. In order to compare the marks made by speech students with those of non-speech students, it was necessary to select a group of students who had had no speech training and whose intelligence quotients, mental ages, and educational ages matched those of the speech students. When this control group had been selected, the marks of students in each group for the school years 1945-46 and 1946-47 were studied and analyzed. The marks of the thirty-seven students who were taking speech were compared with those of the students in the matching group who were not, and with their own grades before they began the study of speech. One purpose of this study is to determine whether the speech students remained about constant in their marks this year as compared with last year when they were not taking speech and with the records of the non-speech students for both years, or whether they showed improvement in any particular subjects upon studying speech as compared with any improvement shown by those who did not study speech.

Chapter II presents the data obtained from literature on the subject, lists the objectives agreed upon by many speech teachers throughout the country, and shows which ones are most commonly accepted and used. Chapter III follows the same procedure in the field of education and shows a comparison of the two along with a comparison of methods recommended in the two
fields. Chapter IV deals with the data obtained from the Odessa Junior High School. Chapter V gives a summary and shows what conclusions were drawn from the study.

**Delimitations and Definitions**

In this study the term "speech objectives" refers to those general objectives which many speech teachers are working toward, as shown by a list compiled from many writers in the field. Educational objectives are those which modern psychologists have laid down as being worthy of achievement in a democracy.

Speech instruction in the Odessa Junior High School is understood to mean the course given ninth grade students. It was a general sampling course including units on conversation, story telling, speech making for various occasions, drama, debate, interpretative reading, fundamentals of voice and diction, and radio speech. The teacher used the following stated objectives in the course:

1. Skills in different forms of speech making and in group discussion.

2. Skills and a sense of reality in speech making for various occasions.

3. A desire to read widely on a subject.

4. A knowledge of and skill in outlining.

5. Further skills in making bibliographies and using source materials.

6. An understanding of today's problems.
7. The ability to engage in creative thinking and self-expression.

8. Skills in dramatic technique.

9. A knowledge of the drama, including its history, development, and its present form and contributors.

10. An appreciation of literature.

11. A joy and skill in interpretative reading.

12. A success in ridding the speech of all bad habits.

13. Practice in radio speech.


Ninth grade students are those students in their last year of junior high school, earning at least four credits toward graduation.

General education means the ninth grade student's education as reflected in mathematics and language arts.

Similar Studies

William Smiley Howell has made a survey which he calls "The Effects of High School Debating on Critical Thinking." He found that Wisconsin high school debaters outgained non-debaters, but not significantly. The critical ratio of the differences in mean gains was 1.04. Since a minimum critical ratio of two was required for significance, he could not conclude that high school debaters were certain to outgain non-debaters. This study dealt with debate only, while the present one deals with a general speech course.

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Clyde W. Dow and Stephen R. Papp made a study dealing with the relation of reading ability and language ability to speech ability. The purpose of their study was to determine what relationship existed between test scores of reading ability and/or language ability and grades given by instructors in courses in fundamentals of speaking, public speaking, and literature interpretation. They found no significant relation between skills in reading and/or language ability and any of the speech courses. The work they did differs from this in that they were interested only in reading and language abilities and in that there were three distinct speech courses as opposed to one general course.

Glen E. Moore in his "Personality Changes Resulting from Training in Speech Fundamentals" found that speech training did induce personality adjustments in the direction of an increased emotional stability, increased self-sufficiency, decreased introversion, and an increase in dominance. His study dealt with speech instruction in the University of Denver as administered in the year 1932-33 and was a study in personality changes of adults rather than grades of junior high school students.


Margaret Frisby found that the declamation has definite educational values that the student does not receive in other studies. Her study dealt with the declamation only, rather than with a general speech course.

Bullock Hyder has found that speech education does not recognize to any appreciable extent that living, learning, and growing are all interrelated and that speech has not fulfilled its role in the schools as a subsidiary tool. His study dealt with the work that speech teachers, school administrators, and colleges should do to further speech education and with changes which should be made in the curricula to include all students.

Eugene Hotaling tabulated the platform and speech errors made by school administrators and has recommended that speech education be made a part of their college preparation. He found that sixty-five per cent of school administrators had incorrect pronunciation, fifty-seven and one-half per cent had scant vocabularies, fifty-two and one-half per cent had physical bearings and outward mannerisms that were detrimental.

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to them, fifty per cent needed voice training, forty-seven and one-half per cent enunciated poorly, forty-two and one-half per cent received poor audience attention, thirty-five per cent needed help on the proper use of notes when speaking, thirty-two and one-half per cent needed to learn how to speak directly to an audience, and twenty-five per cent had to eliminate the use and misuse of slang from their vocabularies. Although Rotating's thesis was concerned only with school administrators, it is to be assumed that a junior high school course in speech training would tend to eliminate these errors.

Kathleen Henderson reports that it is obvious that a scientific speech program for the elementary grades is imperative if the pupils are to receive training that authorities contend will increase their own happiness and enlarge their usefulness and contributions to their respective social groups. Her thesis is concerned purely with speech correction in Denton County, however, while speech correction was only a very small part of the general course offered in the Odessa Junior High School.

Helen Anglin made a similar study in which she developed a technique for evaluating the practices in public speaking.

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in the light of the declared principles. Her work is mainly concerned with courses of study, however, and not with objectives as the present one is.  

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CHAPTER II

THE CONTRIBUTION OF SPEECH

Speech teachers have long assumed that speech training does many worthwhile things for the student. The purpose of this chapter is to examine these assumptions and to determine whether or not they comply with accepted educational philosophy and practice. Alfred Adler's Individualistic Psychology teaches that the history of every individual contains a fundamental motive, a so-called line of direction, more or less straight, always directed toward the one goal of enhancing his own personality.¹ Adler believes that we can trace this thread, although its manifestations may be as numerous as the individuals we study.

The psychologists are agreed that speech is one of the most important means by which the human psyche expresses itself, and consequently one of its most important mirrors, whether we study the individual or a whole people, for speech fairly well cuts through the history of the development of every people.² Has speech training, then, contributed enough to the personalities of its students actually to improve them

educationally? It would seem that modern speech teachers are
definitely striving toward this goal, for personality improve-
ment was stressed in every source which the writer consulted.
Furthermore, they are interested in what contribution the im-
proved personality may make to the student's general education
and to his usefulness as a social being.

Harvey Cromwell says:

The philosophy of speech education does not imply
an over-emphasis on speech instruction at the expense
of other fields of learning; instead, the increased
ability of the students in self-expression should lead
to greater learning in their other classes.

In spite of the fact that emphasis in education is
changing from the teaching of subject matter as an end
in itself to training individuals to "live in a demo-
cratic society," many students, each year, are labeled
"educated" and possess certificates of graduation to
attest the truth of the labeling, and yet are forced to
face their future handicapped because they are mal-
adjusted to the speaking situation, inadequate in
symbolic formulation and expression, deficient in
articulation, or possessing abnormal phonation.

With a clearly stated and educationally sound
philosophy of approach to the teaching of speech, a
systematic and experimentally developed course of study
devised to reach all pupils, and adequately trained
teachers to administer it, speech training can be made
to contribute much of what is now lacking in the develop-
ment of the individual as a normal human being and as a
citizen.

If educators are seriously interested in develop-
ing a curriculum adjusted to the needs and abilities of
the student which more effectively equips him to meet
situations in the remote as well as the immediate
environment, the development of a speech program cannot
be ignored. 3

3 Harvey Cromwell, "Speech Training: A Challenge to
Education," National Association of Secondary School Principals'
Bulletin, (February, 1947), pp. 113-120.
Ollie L. Backus declares that a sound philosophy of speech improvement must be based on the major premise that speech is a useful art. He says:

When and where speech has been conceived of as a fine art, then speech improvement has meant beauty of utterance for its own sake; artistic gestures, flowery language, meticulous enunciation, artistry in voice. Such a philosophy has emphasized the thing is said, at the expense of what is said. If, however, speech is conceived of as a useful art, along with the language arts of writing and reading, then the emphasis is quite different. It is not a matter of teaching a person a few tricks, in order to get "cultured Speech"; it is a matter of teaching to students a form of speech that is suitable and useful in cultured society. 4

A speech teacher who still followed the old elocutionary practice of saying a thing beautifully and artistically at the expense of meaning would indeed be very hard to find today. Most adults, however, in recalling their own experiences in school will agree that they were inadequately taught the proper uses of speech. True, they gradually learned to use it less for exhibition and more for communication, but the training was haphazard, and as they reached the upper grades, the opportunities for oral work became fewer and fewer. The more talented students entered declamation and debate contests, and a few won them. Teachers prepared programs for a few special holidays, but the average child's part was limited to the group singing of a song or two, with only the better ones being given any speaking parts. Because of lack of time or proper training on the part of the teacher, these speaking

parts were usually very poorly executed. There is probably no critical person who has not been struck by the way the word "it" was made to stand out at the end of a sentence in children's programs or the stiff, unconversational tones and the uncommunicative manner which students used. These programs, together with the telling of a story or an experience in English class, a part in a class play, and the possibility of holding a class office, usually constituted the opportunities students were given to express themselves. Is there any wonder, then, that we have men and women today who do not fulfill their duties as good citizens because they are afraid to get up and talk in group meetings?

In discussing this problem, Ollie Backus says that education for citizenship must always have an important place in the philosophical thinking and practical planning for education in a democracy, but that no program of education for citizenship can be adequate unless it stresses and teaches active individual participation in community affairs. Such participation means speech applied to civic enterprise. It is assumed that every individual will serve sometimes as a leader and sometimes as a follower, depending upon his particular abilities and the particular circumstances. When we consider that in a democracy all people should participate in the self-government process, that only a few at any one time can be leaders, and that the caliber of the leaders depends upon the intelligence and the wisdom of the people
who choose them, it seems obvious that a disproportionate emphasis has usually been put upon educating individuals for leadership, to the neglect of educating the many who must follow.

A government of the people places a responsibility for participation upon every person, and the educational system of such a country must instruct its children from this point of view, educating each to the limit of his capacity, whether his potential abilities seem promising or not. More participation is not enough. Citizenship implies also that speech be used selectively for creative or constructive ends. Many existing organizations could be more useful as instruments of democracy if their members devoted their energies to the promotion and completion of projects to make life easier, safer, and more harmonious. 6 To quote Backus exactly,

We must rid ourselves once and for all of the belief in the old adage that "good speakers are born." True it is that some children show an aptitude for speaking far greater than can be explained by their meager training in the art. But that does not mean that the rest cannot become skilled through instruction. Any person of normal intelligence can learn to use speech effectively, if he is properly taught.

Three things are needed: knowledge of specific techniques, regular practice, and employment of useful procedures.

In the Odessa schools this regular practice was the most neglected because of insufficient time, over-large classes, and the pupils' unwillingness to practice outside of class.

Backus also says:

( The first requisite in any individual's speech training is that he overcome fear of speaking -- that he develop confidence.) Failure to recognize this primary need has resulted in much wasted effort in the teaching of speech. One frequently hears some adult say, "Oh yes, I had a course in speech once, but it didn't take. I just can't get up before people." The teaching of specific techniques of speaking will not make a good speaker, unless that speaker has confidence. Fear paralyzes the urge to participate, inhibits animation, prevents clear thinking, stunts progress. The teacher must make it her first business, therefore, to develop confidence in each child. Thus, the first aim is to get each pupil to talk, no matter how badly he does it. The teacher's business, at this stage, is to tell him that he did well. Such a comment is not insincere, because judged by the standard of mere participation, the pupil did do well if he spoke at all. Encouragement, not criticism, is needed, and human beings literally blossom out by such a procedure.

Hayakawa has suggested that one of the purposes of speech is the prevention of silence. Most speech teachers are agreed, however, that speech is for communication. Woolbert advises students to "stand so everyone can see you; speak so everyone can hear you; and sit down so everyone will love you," thus refuting Hayakawa's implication that one has to say something, even if he has nothing to say. Most speech teachers are agreed that speaking implies having not only technique, but also something worthwhile to talk about, and that the speaking should be properly motivated by actual experience.

7 Ibid., pp. 303-304.
9 H. C. Woolbert, Better Speech, p. 131.
To quote Backus again:

If the teacher assigns speeches in a language class, the pupils spend most of their time (if they prepare at all) wondering frantically what they will say. When, however, the speaking is the outgrowth of experiences and activities, the problem of what to talk about solves itself. As another example, speech in a real life situation has more meaning, and because meaning generates enthusiasm, such problems as lack of melody, poor posture, and a lack of good gestures are more readily eliminated. Lastly, there is more carry-over value if the real thing, and not an artificial situation is at hand.

Do not expect an impossible carry-over value from one speech activity to another. Find out what constitutes reality in this matter and then plan accordingly. There will be a good bit of carry-over in the matter of confidence in speaking. The acquisition of confidence in one speech activity will hold in another. But the use of certain techniques will not carry over so well unless similarities are emphasized and specific standards are set up.10

Thus, we find another claim for speech contribution to general education, that confidence in speaking does carry over.

Backus makes some suggestions, however, which are not generally accepted by modern educators. Although he is quite in line when he says that speech improvement should proceed as an outgrowth of a program of applied speech, that it is not an end in itself, and that real life situations should be used as motivation, he contradicts himself somewhat when he suggests the use of what he calls "tangible evidence of recognition," stars, cardboard badges labeled "I have distinct speech," etc., for the children to wear, and slogans or posters for a particular goal each week. These things all reflect artificial motivation rather than motivation from real life situations.

As early as 1931 speech teachers, notably W. Arthur Cable, were calling for a re-alignment of the main objectives of speech work with the fundamental aims of education. In 1936 Cable had apparently convinced himself that this alignment had been made and went to some lengths to show that the aims of speech education did coincide with the educational principles then in vogue. Taking up the seven cardinal principles one at a time he said:

The fuller statement of the health principle is given in these words: "A sound mind and a strong healthy body." We all know that the correction of improper breathing habits, the development of the muscles used in breathing, and the establishment of proper breathing habits for life and for speech contribute directly to this cardinal principle of education and life.

The fuller statement of the second cardinal principle is: "A home life that is happy, unselfish, and democratic." Probably speech training touches this principle less than any of the others; and yet who will deny that the example of distinct, pleasing, and otherwise effective speaking by the parents and their consequent imitation by the children does not contribute to a worthy home membership?

The third cardinal principle, the command of fundamental processes, is explained in the statement: "Ability to read and write, to think, study, and act." In the last three of these five processes speech training contributes directly. We who have studied, observed, and taught the psychological bases of speech, know that through speech training, the thought processes are cultivated and a consideration given to the bases on which action takes place.

The amplification of the principle of vocational efficiency is worded thus: "The knowledge and skill needed to earn a good living." There is scarcely a vocation in which effectiveness and therefore success, does not depend to some extent upon effective speaking. Even the ditch digger, the factory worker, and the manual laborer generally who can speak effectively have a vocational advantage, in terms of position and wages, over those who cannot speak well. There has long been in circulation the incident of the civil engineer whose
plans were better than his competitor's but who could not present them to the board of directors as well, and who therefore lost the contract. (Incidentally, the midwestern college of which he is a graduate requires all its students to take courses in speech as a result of that experience.) In short, speech training is not only important to such vocations as the ministry, law, teaching, salesmanship, and business administration, but to the wide gamut of all occupations which involve speech contacts with other people.

The worthy use of leisure, the fifth cardinal principle, is condensed from the phrase, "The use of free time for worthy activities and pleasures." Here again, the varied and important place which speech training bears to this principle is apparent. This phase relates especially to the speech arts.—Speech-trained students know how to see a play; they are trained not only to appreciate the drama but to participate in it; they are trained both to appreciate and to participate in the oral interpretation of literature; in parliamentary procedure, and in the exchange of ideas, in formal and informal speaking, public and private.

The sixth cardinal principle, good citizenship, is crystallized in the statement: "An informed citizenship dedicated to the common good." Speech training, we shall all probably agree, contributes to one's information, broadens his sympathies and understanding of the point of view of others, and provides him with an understanding of the basis for the sublimative attitude frequently required in ideals which support the common good. By the avenues of conversation and conference speaking, definite fields of personal training in speech contacts each with its representative technique for acquiring effectiveness, this sixth cardinal principle is especially supported.

The seventh and last cardinal principle, that of ethical character, is characterized by the explanatory statement: "A fine spiritual character that is trusted and admired." A development of the emotional processes, which forms a part of speech training, and their control by the thought processes— as Professor Winans says somewhere in his textbook, "Public Speaking": "Strong feeling controlled by clear thinking"—lays one portion of the basis for this fine spiritual character that is set up as an objective. The emphasis which in speech training is placed on the development of such characteristics as sincerity, fair play, gentlemanliness, and earnestness on the one hand, and on the other hand attention to speech content, including analysis and
evaluation, support of assertions, organization, and the
detection and refutation of fallacious reasoning, etc.,
together constitute a strong basis for the development
of admirable character. In this category, not the least
in importance is the fact that it concerns one's field
of overt conduct as well as of thinking and feeling. 11

Thus we see that according to Cable's thinking, speech
contributed directly to all seven of the phases, and basically
in six out of the seven, by contributing in a basic manner to
the attainment of the objectives. To quote him directly,

Speech inadequacy causes or contributes to failure,
and speech proficiency contributes directly to or pro-
duces a greater degree of success in life. 12

In his book Speech Education -- Cultural and Scientific
he again calls for a re-alignment with educational practices
and claims that speech training develops social and physical
qualities of effective communication. 13

Let us look at the objectives set up by other contributors
in the field of speech.

Bullock Hyder has listed these general and specific
objectives.

I. General Objectives.
   A. To make students socially efficient
      1. At home
      2. At school
      3. Outside the school and home

11 W. Arthur Cable, "Speech a Basic Training in the
   (October-November, 1936), pp. 1-2.

12 Ibid, p. 4.

13 W. Arthur Cable, Speech Education -- Cultural and
   Scientific, p. 163.
B. To contribute to the major objectives of education
   1. Command of fundamental processes
   2. Vocational effectiveness
   3. Citizenship
   4. Worthy home membership
   5. Desirable use of leisure time
   6. Ethical character
   7. World-mindedness

II. Specific Objectives
A. Correct use of language
   1. Careful enunciation
   2. Elimination of grammatical and rhetorical errors
   3. Accurate pronunciation
   4. Vocabulary building

B. Agreeable voice
   1. Proper breathing
   2. Correct placement
   3. Effective resonance

C. Correction of habitual and organic speech defects

D. Intelligent interpretation of literature

E. Proficiency in dramatic technique and play producing

F. Ability to arrive at conclusions with reasonableness and understanding

G. Efficiency in original speech-making
   1. Collection of material
   2. Arrangement of material
   3. Adjustment of audience situations
   4. Delivery of material

H. Professional training

Gladys I. Borchers, in her article "An Experiment in High School Speech Training," states the following objectives from the pupils' point of view:

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1. You should know how to judge boys and girls of your own age so that when you talk to them you will be friendly.

2. You should be able to use your body with at least a fair degree of effectiveness in all speech situations in your grade. You should know your strong and weak points and continue to get rid of the weak ones.

3. You should know what impression your voice makes on others and continue working toward a clear, expressive, easily heard tone.

4. You should be able to pronounce or find the pronunciation of the words you use.

5. You should be able to give directions effectively.

6. You should be able to use speech well when you buy and sell articles.

7. You should be able to make calls over the telephone.

8. You should be able to take some part in a class dramatization of a story or a play.

9. You should be able to tell a story so that the members of the class will be interested.

10. You should be able to call a meeting to order, elect officers, make and amend a motion, serve as a chairman or member of a committee, or as any elected member in your organization.

11. You should be able to interview someone from whom you wish information or a job.

12. You should be able to read so that the members of your class get the full meaning of what you say.

13. You should be able to give an effective speech on a topic on which you are informed.

14. You should be able to take part in and lead a single leader, panel, or symposium type of discussion.
15. You should know your strong and weak points as a listener and be working to become more effective.

16. You should review the above points frequently.15

Edward Plutzer has suggested an idea in speech training which departs rather sharply from the way speech is usually handled in public schools. He says in part:

There are two trends in speech instruction. One aims to promote further the beginning already made in curricular speech. The other backtracks to the hour when speech activity was entirely extra-curricular.

Somewhere between the motley cluster of classroom speakers and the loose handful of extra-curricular enthusiasts is a majority of youngsters without speech help. I am not thinking of pupils requiring the highly specialized help of a speech clinic. More particularly I have in mind the George and Ellen who need encouragement in overcoming timidity, in adapting themselves to group situations, in furthering some latent interest connected with the various speech activities.

If pupils could receive such help in small parcels, obviating the need for signing up for a full year's class, going into a competitive activity or spending valuable time lounging around with a speech or drama group for the thin slice of help that may come from a whole season of waiting -- if all this could be circumvented -- many would flock to the speech or English department.

There is a felt need for some means:

1. To make possible private help for slow pupils who profit more from cooperative or individual help than from competitive effort.

2. To offer more specialized work to talented pupils in phases of speech activity that cannot be adequately handled in the classroom.

3. To assist the pupil who, for one reason or another, cannot attend the regular class or participate in some club.

4. To furnish opportunity for speech training to the average pupil who does not wish to become a "contest bug" in order to obtain it.

5. To develop incentive for self-improvement, minus the strain of curricular or group compulsion.

6. To provide a flexible program which respects the pupil's immediate needs and wishes, yet, at the same time, is organized well enough to record, file, and credit the effort and achievement of both pupil and instructor.

7. To further a program that provides intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation.

8. To eliminate seasons as a basis for scheduling activities. It is unfortunate that debate should be confined mainly to the winter months or dramatics to certain times. Such activities achieve significance when they become a part of the pupil's life and are a continuous process rather than part of the school schedule.

Present weaknesses of the speech program include the over-emphasis on exhibitionism and a lack of thoroughness.

Palzer would have each course consist of five lessons, each a 20-30 minute individual or almost individual practice session under the direction of the instructor. A student would be allowed to register for any one course or all, but not more than one at a time. If there were as many as three pupils interested in a course it would be offered. Palzer believes that it is seldom discovered whether a pupil is receiving any real help from the speech program.16

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Wilson B. Paul, Frederick Sorensen, and Elwood Murray say that the basic communications course should be built around the individual in:

1. His personality, his adjustment to life, his weaknesses and strengths,

2. His relations to his community, state and nation (largely in light of the vocation he wishes to select),

3. His international relations. 17

Thomas E. Coulton, in his "Are We Isolationists?" calls for help from teachers in other departments and insists that speech education is not the responsibility of speech teachers alone but that we should join with the departments of hygiene, physical education, and personnel service in meeting the problems of student health, manners, dress, and posture. Language departments, departments of history, government, philosophy, and others where clarity of oral presentation is of great concern, should be invited to work out with us the problems of course content and methods of mutual assistance. He says:

Our extra-curriculum program should be reoriented to become co-curricular and interdepartmental. Wherever and whenever faculties or faculty committees are engaged in an examination and a recasting of their curricula, we must make an appeal for such administrative procedures as shall make of good American speech an integral part of the standards of every course given. 18

17 Wilson B. Paul, Frederick Sorensen, and Elwood Murray, "A Functional Core for the Basic Communications Course," Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXI, (October, 1946), 232-244.

18 Thomas E. Coulton, "Are We Isolationists?", Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXI, (December, 1946), 425-429.
Hurst Robins Anderson cites these objectives for the teacher of speech:

Teach Students to think
1. To organize
2. To face facts honestly
3. To reason logically from facts
4. To search for facts systematically and thoroughly

Improve the social attitudes of students
1. Sense of civic responsibility
2. Ability to participate in group and community activities
3. Emotional balance and control

Broaden and intensify appreciation
1. Of speech as a social force
2. Of the nature of ethical and non-ethical techniques in social control through speech

Teach the theory of speech
1. Rhetorical
2. Psychological
3. Physiological

Direct the development of visible and audible techniques of speech
1. Bodily coordinations in the speech of students
   A. Poise and posture
   B. Ease and Relaxation
   C. Effectiveness of gesture
2. Voice, articulation, pronunciation
   A. Improve use of pause, phrasing, rhythm
   B. Make voice more pleasing in quality, resonant, powerful, flexible in modulation
   C. Improve clarity of articulation
   D. Teach standard pronunciation
3. Students' command of language
   A. Enlarge vocabulary
   B. Teach correct grammar and syntax
   C. Teach the sound system of English and the laws of phonetic change
   D. Teach the essential elements of clarity and effectiveness in style

Effect an adequate co-ordination with
1. Extracurricular program in speech
2. Teaching in the departments of physics, sociology, psychology, English, and history
He suggests that the speech teacher ask herself:

1. *What am I, as a speech teacher, trying to do? Are my procedures in close harmony with the educational aims of the institution of which I am a part?*

   A teacher should see the relationship between what she is doing and the over-all objectives of the school in which she is teaching. Of course, as a member of the teaching faculty, she is partially responsible for those objectives, since the faculty, in a given college, "either implicitly or explicitly," creates them. But whatever her own influence may be, she must build her long-term program around the general philosophical pattern of her institution, or she will never render maximum service, either in the eyes of her colleagues or her administrative officers.

2. *What are the specific educational objectives of the institution in which I am teaching?*

   A. General education, such as cultural orientation; training for citizenship, homemaking, use of leisure? *(Specify!)*

   B. Vocational? *(Specify!)*

   C. Combination of both? *(Specify!)*

3. *Shall I look upon my work as having its greatest value in respect to*

   A. Cultural broadening of students? *(Specify!)*

   B. Training for public service and civic activity? *(Specify!)*

   C. Training in scholarship and research? *(Specify!)*

4. *What are the special needs of students in my institution which I as a teacher of speech can meet?*

   A. In view of these considerations, which of the several objectives should I be stressing?

   B. What am I now stressing?

   C. What changes in my present procedures do my answers above imply?  

---

Along with the contemporary educators, speech teachers place great emphasis on the effect of any phase of study on the person as a whole. Without minimizing the need for the development of specific skills, they have broadened the objectives to include such things as attitudes, interests, and adjustments. They are interested in the effect of training in speech on the person who has received the training. Significant work in this field has been done by Elwood Murray and his students, Norvelle, Gilmanson, Knower, and many others.

Backus has stated that recent studies even suggest that the I. Q., once taken literally as an index of mental capacity, may be raised or lowered by various environmental factors. 20

Sara Stinchfield says, "I. Q.'s in children with speech defects can sometimes be raised as much as ten points as a result of speech rehabilitation." 21

Ernest H. Hendrikson of the University of Denver has made a study of the effects of speech training on stage fright and reached some significant conclusions. He says in part:

1. This study agrees with previous investigations in indicating that speech training promotes confidence in the speaking situation.

2. The feelings of confidence resulting from speech training are somewhat general and do not apply only to the types of speaking in which the student has participated during the course.

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3. Conclusions from data of this study must be interpreted with care since the correlations between the two forms of questionnaire although positive were low. The correlation between the numerical gain in confidence on a ten point scale and the verbal statement of gain was .40 ± .04.

4. Comparative checks when the work of the course was not in progress and with students not taking speech work indicate that feelings of stage fright are in a constant state of flux. Taking the work in speech accelerates a growth in confidence.

5. A variety of factors influence a student's stage fright. As might be expected, practice, the attitude of the instructor, and the attitude of classmates rank high as causes. Feelings of having succeeded or failed and analysis of the causes of the stage fright, contrary to what might have been expected, rank low. 22

Elwood Murray stresses (1) integration and adjustment of the student, (2) poise and emotional control and responsiveness, (3) personality improvement, and (4) the appreciation of literature. Although he does not specifically list his objectives as such, the following composite list expresses the writer's interpretation of what they are:

1. The ability to adjust to different situations
   All forces should cooperate completely as a unit in making adjustments socially.

2. Speech attitudes which help effectiveness of communication
   The integrated speaker is direct, sincere, conversational and shows that he has a message to communicate and a desire to communicate it. He has what Aristotle called ethos, or character.

3. Poise and emotional control
   Balance, equilibrium, a sense of satisfaction

4. A habit of spontaneity and emotional responsiveness
   The speaker should not be paralyzed by inhibitions
   but should not permit too much enthusiasm to re-
   sult in mere garrulity.
   He should not be indifferent, over-dignified,
   academic, or too restrained.

5. The ability to adjust his audibility or loudness to
   his audience and situation
   Always distinct
   Never too loud

6. A pleasant and agreeable quality of voice

7. Physical bearing, action and directness that help
   communicate the thought intended

8. The ability to use appropriate gestures

9. Variety, flexibility, and a fine control over pitch,
   intensity, and duration

10. Refined and correct enunciation, articulation, and
    pronunciation

11. Correct oral grammar and diction

12. An integration of the whole personality
    Mental hygiene
    Self-sufficiency

13. The elimination of stage fright

14. The ability to organize and prepare materials in
    well-known rhetorical forms

15. Fundamental platform skills associated with desirable
    habits of delivery and physical presentation

16. Information about and practice in breathing, phonation,
    resonance, and articulation

17. A habit of talking to an audience instead of at it.

18. Skill in the proper use of emphasis

19. The ability to conduct group meetings

20. Correct habits of posture and breathing
21. An appreciation of character, mood, feeling

22. Coordinated expression for joy and delight in
   Conversation
   Story Telling
   Dramatization

23. Habit of constant discriminatory listening

The speech department on this campus has evolved the following objectives:

Specific objectives of the Speech Department

I. Aesthetic

1. To give students a correct use of language

2. To develop agreeable speaking voices

3. To correct habitual and organic speech defects

4. To promote the intelligent interpretation of literature

5. To give students an appreciation of the spoken word

6. To develop physical poise in students

II. Social

1. To make students socially efficient at home,
   at school and outside the home and school

2. To develop proficiency in play-making and play-producing

3. To develop group story-telling

4. To develop efficiency in original speech making

5. To develop community group activities

---

III. Professional

1. To prepare teachers of speech

2. To aid all teachers in becoming more efficient

3. To give prospective administrators personal skill and power

4. To acquaint teachers with the large contribution which correct speech makes to the major objectives of education

5. To build modern and practical speech curricula for the public schools of Texas

Russel Tooze says in his "Philosophy of Speech in Bismarck High School" that:

Theory is not tolerated in our course of study. Practical reasoning which will help our students in real life is our only desire. We train for future, as well as present needs. It is an established fact that an individual cannot be a success unless he can adjust himself to the environment in which he must live. Our philosophy gives sympathetic consideration to the social, academic, and economic problems of those students coming under its jurisdiction. Every effort is made to prepare young men and women of our high school for citizenship through the development of personality and character, intellectual and spiritual growth, high ideals, appreciation, and better judgment. The speech philosophy of Bismarck High School is definitely democratic and is intensely interested in helping all students find their niche in society.

The plan of procedure and time allotment for one semester is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Vocal Fundamentals</td>
<td>3 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Platform Department</td>
<td>1 week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>Speech Construction</td>
<td>1 week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>Occasional speeches</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Platform Speeches</td>
<td>4 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Parliamentary Practice</td>
<td>3 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>Debate</td>
<td>3 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>1 week</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


From this plan of procedure and time allotment, it would seem that Tooeze is somewhat out of line with the general philosophy of teaching speech more as an every day tool and less as a platform art. He indicates no time for conversation nor practice in the usage of good manners as almost all the other authors do. His program may be excellent for getting young people to take part in civic and governmental affairs, and although all other sources stress these, they are also more interested in the day-to-day, at home uses of speech.

Elwood Murray, in prescribing for the speech needs of his students says:

These speech forms may be considered as vehicles whereby your speech and your personality will be taken through various learning procedures toward the elimination of bad habits of thinking and feeling and doing, and the attainment of new refinements and powers in line with your native potentialities. The emphasis will not be put on your acquisition of skills as an actor or a debater for the sake of acting and debating as such, but for your development as a person in everyday contacts. These types of speaking are merely convenient vehicles for the development of your larger speech personality.25

Thus he disagrees sharply with what Tooeze seems to stress in his courses and agrees with the vast majority of speech educators, who believe that students should be given speech experiences which will help to eliminate those extremes in their behavior which attract attention to behavior as such and which prevent adequate adjustment in social situations.

Murray says with these hindrances removed the student will then be released to develop in accordance with his potentialities. 26

Summary

Speech educators are agreed that speech training should develop the personality of the student and make him a better social being. The emphasis is on speech as a useful tool for everybody, especially for individual participation in constructive activities of good citizenship. It is not regarded as a means of exhibiting a few talented students.

The teaching of speech has been re-aligned with the newer aims of education. A composite list of these aims which appeared most frequently in the sources consulted has been made. A glance at the accompanying chart will show their relative popularity. It is interesting to note that only two authors mention skills in dramatic technique, for instance, as such. Most of the others think of dramatics, or almost any other speech activity, as a means of developing personality. The chart lists the aim, gives the number of times it was mentioned by different sources, and gives the percentage of the sources consulted which mentioned it.

26 Ibid, p. 40
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Number of times Mentioned</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Health</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Worthy Home Membership</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Command of Fundamentals</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Preparation for vocations</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Worthy use of leisure</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Good citizenship</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Ethical character</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. World mindedness</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Social efficiency</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Elimination of grammatical and rhetorical errors</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Agreeable voice</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Correction of habitual and organic defects</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Intelligent interpretation of literature</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Proficiency in dramatic technique</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Clear thinking - ability to arrive at conclusions with reasonableness and understanding</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Efficiency in speech making</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Bodily control</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Self knowledge</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Effective use of speech in buying and selling</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Participation in school and community speaking</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Parliamentary practice</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Interviewing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Specialized knowledge of the different types of group discussion</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Intelligent listening</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. A getting away from exhibitionism</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Individual help</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Personality improvement</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. A desire to search for facts</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Increased vocabulary</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Good diction</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Co-ordination with other subjects</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Elimination of stage fright</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Poise and emotional control spontaneity</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Having something to say</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER III

MODERN TRENDS IN PSYCHOLOGY

In order to determine whether speech education meets the requirements of modern criteria set up by authorities in the educational field, it is necessary to examine these criteria and compare them with the objectives already listed as being important in the field of speech. Garrison has organized and presented the positions taken by psychologists on the classification of educational objectives. He says, "How learning takes place depends upon the outcome being sought." That is, a specific learning technique should be employed for each objective.

The Journal of Educational Research, May, 1937, published an extensive list of the activities common to mankind as compiled by Frederick and Farquhar in connection with the Mississippi State Curriculum program. They examined social literature to discover the different analyses which had been made of the recurring activities of living and reported on thirty-eight classifications. Many more, of course, have been listed since this study was made, but none of them departs essentially from it. The Journal reports of Frederick and Farquhar's study.

1Noble Lee Garrison, The Technique and Administration of Teaching, p. 113.
Beginning with Herbert Spencer's five classifications and going on through those proposed by Clark Wissler, George Counts, Franklin Bobbitt, the Lynds, John Dewey, Edward L. Thorndyke, W. W. Charters, and by state curriculum programs, they arrived at a set of nine which were by far the most frequent ones suggested in all these lists. They are, for all practical purposes, as good as any other list, for it is not the exact wording which is important, but the procedure and understanding involved in their use. This list of nine which they discovered to be most common follows:

1. Protecting life and health
   Medical science, life, health, conservation, mental health, safety, protection against disease, accidents, fears

2. Getting a living
   Occupations, maintenance, production, distribution, consumption, economy, labor, occupation, industry, unemployment, work, capital wealth, income

3. Making a Home
   Parental responsibilities, practical activities, domestic, family, childhood and youth, biological heritage, personal and household regimen, child rearing, private property, conservation of property, sex, marriage, courtship and love, eugenics, housing, food, clothing, "we consumers," parent education, position of women

4. Expressing religious impulses
   Morality, religious organization, the church, religious practices, philosophy of life

5. Satisfying the desire for beauty
   Culture, fine arts, mythology, aesthetics, literature, language arts, charm and good manners

6. Securing education
   Mental efficiency, culture, self-improvement, childhood and youth, the school, cinema, the radio, integration of the individual intellectual vision, how to study, reflective thinking and capacity for work, prevailing ideals, "folkways" and "mores"
7. Cooperating in Social and Civic Action
   International relations, social relationships, citizenship, justice, crime and punishment, government social and public welfare, work, taxation, law, ameliorative institutions, social attitudes, the community, democracy, farm relief, social protection, war, conservation of property, extension of freedom, the constitutions, legislation, population, people, social intercommunication

8. Engaging in Recreation
   Leisure, enjoyable bodily and mental activity

9. Improving material conditions
   Communication and transportation, physical heritage, invention, exploration, discoveries, technological development, science, material traits, scientific knowledge, conservation of material resources, nature, men and machines, power, steel, mastery of material circumstances, expanding the sources of science, adventure and risk, plants and animals, climate, natural wealth, standards of living.²

The Commission on Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association has defined four areas of needs for youth as follows:

1. Immediate social relationships
2. Wider social relationships
3. Economic relationships
4. Personal living²

In working out their curriculum program, the secondary teachers of Tulsa, Oklahoma, used the following five "major


²Caroline Zachry, V. T. Thayer, and Ruth Kotinsky, Reorganizing Secondary Education, p. 44.
aspects of life," a variation of the Progressive Education Commission's listing:

1. Personal development, mental, physical and cultural.
2. Immediate social problems.
3. Broad social problems.
4. Social-political relationships.
5. Economic relationships.

Marshall and Eckert have suggested the organization of the materials of human development around social processes intended to give youth an understanding of how they have been and are working and suggest the following as the basic social processes:

A. The process of adjustment with the external physical world.
   1. The process of learning to manipulate natural forces.
   2. The process of organizing to manipulate these forces, the economic order.
   3. The process of the distribution of the population over the physical and cultural areas of the earth.

B. The process of biological continuance and conservation.

C. The process of guiding human motivation and aspiration.

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The National Education Association committee on planning for American youth says that all youth need:

1. To develop saleable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.

2. To develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.

3. To understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.

4. To understand the significance of the family for the industry and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.

5. To know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.

6. To understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and man.

7. Opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music and nature.

8. To be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.

9. To develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others.

10. To grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.

In 1944 the National Education Association of the United States listed twelve objectives as being desirable for the general scope and purposes of pupil experiences at the age levels of twelve to eighteen or nineteen. Since the junior high school under specific consideration is concerned with pupils between these ages, this list is included here.

1. Maintain or improve physical and mental health with increasing emphasis on physical strength and endurance.

2. Extend and sharpen the desire to learn.

3. Develop further the essential understandings, skills, attitudes, and habits in the field of language (reading, listening, writing, and speaking), including those needed in carrying on language activities of special interest or concern to the individual.

4. Develop further the essential understandings, skills, attitudes, and habits in the field of mathematics, including those needed to solve special quantitative problems which have technical interest and significance for the individual.

5. Extend and vitalize the understandings, attitudes, skills, and habits which are important in dealing with natural phenomena, giving increased attention to the scientific method of thinking and problem-solving, and to scientific principles and practical applications which have special interest and value for the individual.

6. Broaden and intensify important understandings, attitudes, skills, and habits in the field of human relationships, stressing effective work and play with others, enjoyment of a rich and varied social life, participation in efficient and wholesome family life, appreciation of the family and the neighborhood or small community as social groups, and placement of moral and spiritual values above selfish considerations.
7. Strengthen and extend desirable understandings, attitudes, skills, and habits with respect to civic responsibilities, including a sensitivity to social injustice, a disposition to improve unsatisfactory social conditions and to conserve human and material resources, a knowledge of social structures and processes, the ability and willingness to perform the political duties of American citizenship, the ability and willingness to serve effectively in organizations devoted to civic improvement, and the insight and determination needed to help maintain a peaceful, cooperative, and equitable world order.

8. Strengthen and extend the understandings, attitudes, habits and skills needed by the efficient producer of economic goods or services, including the ability and inclination to engage regularly in productive work, a general knowledge of several occupational fields in which the individual might reasonably expect to succeed, a detailed working knowledge of one such occupation if the individual does not expect to continue full-time day schooling beyond the secondary period, the specialized prevocational preparation needed by individuals who intend to pursue advanced technical or professional studies at the upper college or university level, and some understanding of one's responsibility for helping to improve conditions in his chosen vocation through the legitimate activities of a union, guild, or professional association.

9. Increase and extend further the enjoyment of beauty in all its forms and develop further the skills needed in creating beauty through the arts.

10. Increase further the range and the skill of participation in suitable leisure-time activities, including a wide variety of activities in the areas mentioned above.

11. Develop greater responsibility for intelligent self-direction in an increasing variety of situations.  

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7Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America, National Education Association, 1947, Washington, D. C.
In his Guidance in Democratic Living, Arthur D. Hollingshead lists what he considers a reasonable interpretation of the principles of democracy:

1. Democracy regards the individual as of inestimable value and his development as the sole object of society.

2. Democracy guarantees an equality of rights to all individuals.

3. Democracy insures freedom to all individuals.

4. Democracy places the relations of all individuals upon the plane of fraternity.

5. Democracy regards individual and group welfare as interdependent.

6. Democracy places its confidence in the experimental methods of science as a means of intelligently directing the course of its development.

7. Democracy achieves its common goals through the cooperative efforts of its members.

8. Government in a democracy is "of the people, by the people, and for the people." Democracy recognizes that forms of government and laws can never solve the problems of human associations unless these human relationships are governed by a spirit of mutual interest and mutual service.

9. Democracy depends upon education as a means of perpetuating and improving itself.

He then presents the following summary of the real demand on education by the democratic principles:

That of the group:

1. Possess a strong feeling of group consciousness which is based upon a mutual recognition of common purposes.

2. Concentrate all of its efforts upon creating opportunities for the fullest personality development of its members.
3. Realize its goals through cooperative endeavors of its members.

4. Develop an understanding of group welfare and its implications.

5. Possess some form of organization which facilitates their cooperative effort.

6. Possess a leadership that functions as a guide and not as a master.

That of the individual:

1. Possess a strong feeling of membership in the group.

2. Have a respect for personality.

3. Have consideration for the rights and feelings of others. 8

4. Have a strong sense of personal responsibility for the welfare of the group.

5. Possess the ability and willingness to participate actively in group enterprises.

6. Possess the ability and willingness to direct himself in terms of the best interests of the groups.

7. Possess a strong feeling of individuality, of self-respect, and of security in the group relation.

Abraham Lefkowitz, in "The Challenge to Educators," gives this list as contributing to the purposes of education:


2. Emphasize understanding rather than fact mastery.

3. Stress growth in social habits and in power, through self-direction and through guided school, home, and social living.

---

8 Arthur D. Hollingshead, Guidance in Democratic Living, pp. 11-23.
4. Stress ability to go on despite failure; to master even the unpleasant and the hard; and the necessity to obey orders.

5. Emphasize acceptance and fulfillment of civic responsibility in school and in life.

6. Develop a scientific attitude.
   A. So that conclusions reached are tentative and subject to critical evaluation.
   B. So that opposing views may not only be tolerated but also welcomed as a basis for bringing about a continuous reorganization of outlook and broaden understanding.

7. Provide educational adventuring; educational success rather than failure; and an outlet to such talents that make for creative expression and beauty -- the goal of all art.

8. Put emotional adjustment upon a par with academic achievements as the quality of human relation that is vital to success.

9. Provide work discipline and work comradship so that democracy may grow and extend to all areas of living. Democracy is not, as Dewey says, relying on external might, but a growing, living force in the mind and heart of man.

Kenneth L. Heaton and G. Robert Koopman have summarized what they believe to be the more or less common agreements among educators on the subject of adjustments which should be made in educational objectives.

1. The student should be prepared for mature living in all areas of relationship.

2. Opportunity should be provided for broad general education as well as for specialization.

3. There is a need for individualization of instruction.

9Abraham Lefkowitz, "The Challenge to Educators," High Points, XXXII (April, 1940), 7.
4. The students should gain skill in self-direction and self appraisal.

5. The student should become proficient in the skills essential to participation in group action.

6. There is a need for an increase in the efficiency of learning.

7. There is need for integration of instruction which will increase the effectiveness of a faculty of specialists.

8. There is need for such changes in the curriculum as will eventuate in changes of behavior. ¹⁰

A list of the newer general aims of education has been compiled and is presented here in chart form for comparison with the chart of the aims of speech educators.

TABLE 2

A COMPOSITE LIST OF THE EDUCATIONAL AIDS WHICH
PSYCHOLOGISTS MENTION MOST FREQUENTLY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Number of Times Mentioned</th>
<th>Per Cent of Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Protecting life and health</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Making a living</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Making a home</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Satisfying the desire for beauty</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Cooperating in social and civic action</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Engaging in recreation</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Improving material conditions</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Maintaining or improving economic relationships</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Understanding how to purchase and use goods</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Understanding the methods and uses of science</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Respecting others</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Thinking rationally</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Expressing thoughts</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Reading and listening with understanding</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Sharpening the desire to learn</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Maintaining human relations</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Appreciating spiritual values</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Developing self-direction</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Developing personally</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Achieving success educationally</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Adjusting emotionally</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Furthering democracy</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Let us now consider some of the basic methods which educators approve for realizing these objectives. William H. Burton says that the whole purpose of general education is to develop the power and abilities of the individual; that separate fragmentary items have no meaning for the learner; and that
valuable, useful learning arises out of meaningful situations and includes relationship as among the most important outcomes. Although he believes that in the elementary grades subject lines should be eliminated and learning organized around simple and immediate needs, he admits that among older students, specialized courses are justifiable. He describes the learner as a goal-seeking organism, reacting as a whole to whole situations, and not to isolated or abstracted parts. He says the crux of learning is guidance without domination and lists some principles which the teacher should follow. These are:

1. Begin with pupils' own questions, problems, arguments, real-life activities; aid them in formulating their own purposes.

2. Help them to adopt the accepted purposes of their own group, eventually the desirable purposes of their own society.

3. Allow for democratic procedure in planning, developing ways and means, choosing and carrying on activities, so that each individual can suggest plans, contribute ideas, materials, etc. The teacher as a part of the group also contributes ideas and lets pupils participate in judging her suggestions. Because of her long views and more mature experience, she guides their purposing, planning, and activity beyond the immediate and the trivial.

4. Welcome suggestions and build up a mutuality of purpose, aim, and morale.

5. Make the experiences so vivid and so much a part of the learners' lives that the experience itself suggests further purposes to be explored.

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6. Recognize the need for re-evaluating goals and for changing them as they are approached, so that valuable guidance and growth can result.

7. Provide opportunity for decisions to be made, allowing (within safe limits) the individual to make his own; refrain from making decisions for learners. Accept mistakes as normal.

8. Help each individual to recognize his assets and liabilities in terms of his possible contributions to group activities, to develop accordingly, and to accept satisfactions in terms of his own level of ability.¹²

Burton also finds that good teachers are more usually superior in:

1. Ability to stimulate interest.
2. Wealth of commentarial statements.
3. Attention to pupil's recitations.
4. Topical or problem-project organization of subject-matter.
5. Well-developed assignments.
6. Frequent use of illustrative materials.
7. A well-established examination procedure.
8. Effective methods of appraising pupils' work.
11. Conversational manner in teaching.
12. Frequent use of pupils' experiences.
13. An appreciative attitude (as evidenced by nods, comments, and smiles)

¹²Ibid., pp. 204-205.
14. Skill in asking questions
15. Definite study helps
16. Socialized class procedures
17. Willingness to experiment

So far, we have considered methods as they affect the teacher. Let us now examine Burton’s list of learning products and processes from the students’ point of view. He says:

1. The learning process is experiencing, reacting, doing, undergoing.

2. The learning products are responses and controls of response, values, understandings, attitudes, appreciations, special abilities, skills.

3. The learning process proceeds best when the numerous and varied activities are unified around a central core of purpose, when the learner’s interest is in the activities and products, when the learner identifies himself with the purpose through originating or accepting it.

4. The learning products accepted by the learner are those which satisfy a need, which are useful and meaningful.

5. The learning process proceeds and the learner grows through continuous individualization of new patterns out of original wholes and the reintegration of the new wholes into the total personality pattern.

6. The learning products are perfected through a series of discrete, identifiable experiences.

7. The process of organization implied in number five and number six may be slow and gradual, or relatively rapid, or sudden.

8. The learning products, when properly acquired, are complex and adaptable, not simple and static.

9. The learning experiences, to be of maximum value, must possess lifelikeness for the learner.

13Ibid, p. 201.
10. Further stimulation may be necessary.

11. The learning process and its products are conditioned by heredity and environment.

12. The learning process and its products are affected by the level of maturity of the learner.

13. The influence of previous experience upon learning is regarded quite differently by the two major schools. The associationists stress its importance and note the value of knowing the learner's background of experience. The field-theory group places more emphasis upon the clarity and organization of the field or pattern, upon subsequent differentiation through insight. The sensible view would seem to be that both emphases are important.

14. The presence of many errors in a learning experience is usually, though not always, an indication that the experience is too difficult for the learner's level of maturity.

15. The learning process and the acquisition of products are materially affected by individual differences among the learners.

16. The learning process proceeds best when the learner has knowledge of his status and progress.

17. The learning process is unified functionally, but distinguishable types of learning may be separated for discussion; perceptual, sensori-motor, memoriter, problem-solving, conceptual, affective.

18. The learning products are interrelated functionally.

19. The learning process proceeds more effectively under that type of teaching which guides and stimulates without dominating or coercing.\(^\text{14}\)

The committee on the orientation of secondary education from the department of secondary school principals of the National Education Association studied the question:

\(^{14}\text{Ibid., p. 2.}\)
"Shall secondary education accept conventional school subjects as fundamental categories under which school experiences shall be classified and presented to students, or shall it arrange and present experiences in fundamental categories directly related to the performance of such functions of secondary schools in a democracy as increasing the ability and desire better to meet socio-civic, economic, health, leisure-time, vocational, and pre-professional problems and situations?" and recommended some radical changes. They recognized the fact that how the school curriculum is organized should be determined by the function of the school in the society in which it exists. They agree further that in a democracy each person has an opportunity to grow and develop and to attain the highest level of his ability so long as he does not begin to deny a similar opportunity to others. The basic conclusion they reached was that categories must be made more fundamental, and to determine what was fundamental and what was not, they considered these facts about learning:

1. Learning proceeds more rapidly and tends to be more permanent when relationships between what is being experienced and the welfare of the learner are seen by him.

2. Learning proceeds more rapidly and tends to be more permanent when it is an outgrowth of, or a development from, the experience of the learner.

3. Learning proceeds more rapidly and tends to be more permanent in proportion to the amount of satisfaction the learner derives from the process of learning, and in proportion to the immediacy of the satisfaction.
4. Learning proceeds more rapidly and tends to be more permanent when it involves activity — physical and mental — on the part of the learner.

5. The probability that what is learned will later be recalled for use when needed increases in proportion as the learning situation resembles that in which the learning is used or applied.

6. The probability that what is learned will later be recalled for use when needed increases in proportion as the relationships between each element (skill, idea, fact, ideal) which is being learned and the other elements being learned is understood by the learner.

On the basis of their social philosophy and the foregoing considerations drawn from the field of psychology, the committee made the following deductions which they considered of major importance in planning a curriculum for secondary schools:

1. The content of the curriculum must be socially justifiable.

2. The content should be drawn from or related to the student's experience.

3. The content must involve what he recognizes or can be brought to recognize as of interest to him because it involves his welfare or the welfare of others for whom he is concerned.

4. The content of the curriculum should either extend the students' experience horizon or better relate what is already within it.

5. The content of the curriculum should involve a large quantity and wide variety of activities in which students can engage with a satisfying degree of success.

6. Most of the activities should be cooperative ones involving participation of all the members of the whole group. Individual activities may be fitted into this group activity and seen by each worker as his personal contribution to the success of the
group project. Successful democratic social organization requires from each person ability to plan, decide, and work cooperatively with others, and willingness to work for the common good.

7. The activities included as curriculum content should be organized into situations which are as like ideal democratic life as possible without losing reality by loss of contact with the students' experience.

8. The curriculum should be organized to permit and encourage the development of specialized abilities in socially valuable ways. Progress in a society depends upon the amount and degree of development of specialized abilities, provided the development is along such socially valuable lines as helping to make that society "a better place in which to live and to make a living."

9. The curriculum should recognize the increasing degree of intellectual maturity of the learners.

10. The curriculum should recognize that living, learning, and growing are inherently and intrinsically interrelated and any attempt to separate or isolate one from the other tends to stop all three.15

The committee then recommended a bringing together of such minor categories in the present school curriculum as meet these standards and grouping them into larger units.

With these fundamental concepts of method and organization in mind, we shall now consider the principles of method and organization which modern speech teachers follow to determine whether they are in agreement with accepted educational practices.

Backus says:

Education for citizenship must always have an important place in the philosophical thinking and practical planning for education in a democracy. But no program of education for citizenship can be adequate unless it stresses and teaches active individual participation in community affairs. Such participation means speech applied to civic enterprise. It is assumed that every individual will serve sometimes as a leader and sometimes as a follower, depending upon his particular abilities and upon the particular circumstances.\(^{16}\)

As has already been pointed out, Backus believes that too much emphasis has been given to leadership, at the expense of training in intelligent followership. He lists these ethics of followership:

1. Assume responsibility.
2. Attend all meetings.
3. Participate orally.
4. Select officers carefully.
5. Be loyal.
6. Promote good fellowship.
7. Stand up for the right.
8. Use speech for worthy purposes.
9. Know and follow the rules of parliamentary procedure.\(^{17}\)

Teachers from the fields of both psychology and speech agree that students do recognize or can be made to recognize

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\(^{17}\)Ibid., pp. 288-289.
the value of ethics of this type. Backus has summarized the consensus of opinion in regard to methods and organizations with reference to the child's needs and interests. He says:

The basic premise in building a philosophy of speech education is the fact that speech is a useful art. Its degree of usefulness to the individual is dependent upon three conditions: (1) whether or not his speech is free from defects, (2) the extent to which he uses speech as an effective medium for social adaptation and control, and (3) whether or not his voice, enunciation, and diction meet prevailing cultural standards. A concept of speech education which denies its utilitarian purpose or which neglects any of these three aspects is bound to result in an unsound philosophy and in teaching procedures which at best would be too narrow in scope and at worst might be really harmful.

The second step in formulating our philosophy is to examine the contributions which speech education can and should make to the fulfillment of the purposes of education as a whole.

He then lists the things which in his opinion teachers should consider in carrying out this step:

1. Helping the child to make the best use of his abilities.
2. Adjustment to and cooperation with others.
3. The desire to conform to the group.
4. The desire for recognition.
5. Adjustment to equals. Because communication is so much a part of social relationships, speech education can help the individual to make this adjustment.
6. A sense of personal adequacy in social situations.
7. Meeting strangers.
8. Adjusting to people who are well known.
9. Sense of values -- personal philosophy. Here, too, are problems that involve speech. If it is worthwhile to teach people to express ideas well, it is also worthwhile to stimulate their thinking on the uses to which speech should be put.

10. Earning a living.

11. Fulfilling the rights and duties of citizenship.¹⁸

In regard to the tenth objective listed here, educators are fairly well agreed that the statement that education should help students to earn a living does not presume to answer the moot question of whether the public school curriculum should provide vocational training for the specific types of jobs. They do recognize the school's responsibility for teaching students basic knowledge, skills, and attitudes which are fundamental to success in securing and performing jobs in general. Inasmuch as earning a living is part of the pattern of living itself, it is obvious that these same factors of adjustment to and cooperation with others are just as vital for success in business. Thus, the potential employee needs normal speech, free from all defects, more than he needs what is commonly recognized as good speech, that is, a pleasant voice, distinct articulation, and acceptable diction. Furthermore, he needs the ability to apply speech effectively in social and business relationships.

As to fulfilling the rights and duties of citizenship, the use of speech by individuals and the effect of speech

¹⁸Ibid., pp. 290-292.
upon individuals are two factors which are persistently involved in problems of citizenship. Speech education, therefore, can and should become an effective instrument for solving such problems as responsibility for participation, responsibility for promoting community welfare, and responsibility for political activities.

A teacher whose only aim is the acquisition of knowledge or skill on the part of her students may well go through the motions of teaching speech according to acceptable methods and yet fail to make a significant contribution to the child's development. Contrast with such a concept the philosophy of an elderly teacher who, when asked whether she taught music, replied, "No, I don't teach music; I teach boys and girls."

There was also the teacher who made careful plans for a Christmas party and program for the students' parents. The children had the experience of oral discussion in committees. They studied carefully beforehand the various types of conversation that would be needed and desirable in such a social situation. They wrote and cast a play to be given as part of the entertainment and decided to select those who had not participated before. Moreover, they actually created the plot and worked out the lines of dialogue. Every child had a speaking part on the program, either a role in the play, a station at the door to receive the guests cordially, or a responsibility for carrying on conversation with the guests.
during refreshments. These children really learned speech in a real life situation.

Speech authorities are agreed that the teacher must use her knowledge in executing a planned, thorough, and regular program of speech education and must not leave practice to chance. Not having a regular speech class in the curriculum should not deter the resourceful teacher. After all, one does not put "character education" on the daily schedule in order to build character; nor does one label a certain period as "honesty education." The teacher can use speech activities in teaching other subjects. For instance, children can learn history by giving oral reports or by dramatizing historic events. They will perhaps learn it better than under the old orthodox method and will learn speech at the same time, provided criteria of excellence are established so that such practice has a definite purpose and goal. According to the newer concepts of education, a special speech class would have little value unless it were integrated with the other activities which are a part of the daily program. This type of teaching will perhaps require greater skill and more careful planning on the part of the instructor, but it should be far more productive from the point of view of the larger aims of education.

Thinking along these same lines, Joseph F. Smith said in a paper read at a speech teachers' convention held in
San Francisco in 1930:

Speech education is, at its best, the most highly integrated of human functions. Speech training is nothing more or less than a form of applied psychology. Thus the speech teacher of today runs for help and guidance to the science of psychology. The speech teacher beyond doubt is the Academy’s best borrower. (Because communicative speech is one of man’s most complicated and finished activities, the rhetor of today finds himself getting all the help he can from at least a dozen sciences: physics, biology, anatomy, physiology, psychology, aesthetics, logic; to say nothing of his reliance upon ethics, epistemology, and metaphysics. He borrows unblushingly; he has no alternative; for the thing he teaches — human communication — is a peak point in the interest of all these sciences, involving them all. Possibly the teaching of speech is, when all is said, an act of sheer presumption. But we must carry on, so we borrow as freely as a housewife asking for a cup of sugar or a resident of gasoline alley seeking a monkey wrench. There are only twenty-four hours in a day, and each of us has only one life to give for his profession."

Backus says that making class contributions calls for initiative and responsibility to the group activity on the part of the students. The processes of learning and thinking are augmented and group activity made more enjoyable and profitable. Specifically, he suggests that teachers encourage their students to:

1. Contribute voluntarily.
2. Relate new material to something within their own experiences.
3. Bring to class and present material in addition to what is given in the textbook.
4. Compare the new with what is familiar.

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5. Apply the new information.
7. Look for examples.
8. Point out why the particular material under discussion is interesting or important.
9. Know when to ask questions.
   A. If they do not understand an assignment, a direction, a question, a comment, a command, or a process.
   B. If they are curious to find out about something.
   C. If they want to start a conversation with some friend and can ask about something in which that person is interested.
   D. If they have ideas or suggestions to make and can make them more courteously in the form of asking a question than in a flat statement.
10. Know when not to ask questions
   A. If they can find the answers themselves by listening, looking, reading, or trying.
   B. If someone else is talking.
   C. If the questions they want to ask would abruptly change the subject.
   D. If what they want to ask about is none of their business (such as the cost of things, what was said privately to someone else, etc.).
   E. If their questions would hurt someone's feelings. 20

A few criteria gleaned from suggestions in various specialized courses seem pertinent and are presented here:

1. Discussion aims at seeking truth, not at persuading or influencing public opinion.
2. Discussion should be conducted under leadership.

3. Group thinking follows the steps of individual thinking.
   
   A. Defining and limiting the problem.
   
   B. Analyzing the problem (cause and effect and conditions which the solution must meet).
   
   C. Considering all possible solutions.
   
   D. Selecting the best solution.
   
   E. Making suggestions for putting the solution into operation.
   
4. Be objective in your thinking; both in preparation and in participation.
   
5. Assume your share of the responsibility for the conduct of meetings.
   
6. Listen to understand.
   
7. Evaluate material.
   
8. Organize material.
   
9. Consider the audience, always.
   
10. Enrich the author's meaning by tying up the thoughts and ideas in the selection with those in your own experience.
   
11. Avoid stumbling over words, sounds, phrases.
   
12. Group words together according to the meaning.
   
13. Do not become an impersonator.
   
14. Maintain an objective, unemotional point of view.
   
15. Communicate with the audience.
   
16. Assume responsibility in keeping conversations going pleasantly and inoffensively.

\[21\text{Ibid. 264-265.}\]
To teachers he says:

1. Affective language (that which produces feelings and emotional states in the listener) must be used to bring about the desire to cooperate.

2. The multivalued orientation is a necessity in achieving understanding.

3. Informative language should be used to get at the facts.\textsuperscript{22}

Wayland Parrish lists these criteria for self-criticism of teachers, especially those who teach speech:

1. Do I dress in good taste?
2. Do I maintain good health?
3. Do I maintain good posture?
4. Do I move with grace and ease?
5. Do I maintain bodily poise?
6. Do I maintain emotional poise?
7. Am I free from distracting mannerisms?
8. Am I free from vulgarisms in behavior?
9. Am I sufficiently vivacious in manner and speech?
10. Do I encourage as much activity in my pupils as discipline permits?
11. Do I have a positive rather than a negative personality?
12. Do I have "a lively rather than a stolid countenance?"
13. Am I physically responsive to my thoughts and feelings?
14. Do I maintain toward my pupils the attitude of a guide eager to foster their growth?
15. Do I avoid arbitrary discipline and petty routines?

\textsuperscript{22}\textit{Ibid.}, pp. 265-266.
16. Do I achieve an acceptable teacher-pupil relationship?

17. Do I avoid undue possessiveness?

18. Do I avoid offensive airs of superiority?

19. Do students have confidence in my honesty and candor?

20. Do I make them feel that I have a thorough knowledge of my subject?

21. Am I sincerely interested in their development?

22. Do I make them feel my good will toward them?23

Backus hints at some of these same criteria when he says:

In order to teach speech well, the teacher herself must have a mastery of speech. It must be free from all defects, must present an acceptable standard of voice, articulation, pronunciation, and diction, and finally must be used effectively -- and for good ends -- in personal, professional, and civic relationships.24

Cable lists these methods as being valuable in the teaching of speech:

1. Much individual work and always small groups for the best work.

2. The teacher organizing and administering a course which is student-centered rather than subject centered.

3. Informality in relationships among students and between student and teacher.

4. A well-controlled but lively enthusiasm manifest and cultivated in the students.

5. Objectivity in teaching.


6. Both deductive and inductive methods employed, applying principles to specific cases and building up a mass of concrete data sufficient to establish principles in the minds of students.

7. Congeniality, tact, generosity, and an appreciation of the humor of relationships and situations.

8. Efficiency in mechanical and detail plans for work, such as outline blanks for students' reactions.25

When we considered the recommendations of psychologists in regard to the re-organization of the curriculum, we found that they favored getting away from subject lines, and expansion. Let us now examine the thinking and practices of speech educators along this line. Cable says:

To speech education it is peculiarly given to cultivate the entire man: the intellectual, the emotional, the social, and the physical. The traditional departments of instruction, almost without exception, confine their attention to the intellectual training of their charges. The emotional has been practically ignored in the educational system. The social has been regarded as of so little importance as to be left to the machinations of the Greek letter fraternity and sorority, the dance hall, and kindred places of cheap amusement. The great synthesis of the four-fold nature of man finds its fullest expression in speech training. In the speech situation, with its reaction and interplay of idea and emotion, its face-to-face relationships, and its inevitable employment of the entire personality, both physical and mental, is to be found the scene of potential pedagogical situations of the moment.26

Urging speech educators and teacher training institutions to follow his lead in broadening the scope of speech education and tying it in more closely with other subject matter, Cable says:

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The functional aspects of speech education must culminate, for us, in the pedagogic phase of the entire field. The essential unity of all study centering around the speech process, either in its creative or its recorded form, is vital to the welfare of the field and to its ability to take its proper place in the family of curricular subjects of instruction. The member of the profession who does not see and speak of the whole field is virtually a millstone on the curricular development. Organic unity also affects economy in teaching staff and in overhead and incidental expenses. What is more important to the true educator as well as to the serious student, petty jealousies which spring from unfortunate rivalries between divisions are thus averted. He or she who is unwilling to work seeks other fields of labor. Organic unity forms a safeguard for the student.27

A few of the suggestions in method which Cable lists are:

1. Give the greatest possible variety consistent with thoroughness

2. Conduct activities primarily for the needy many rather than the talented few

3. Give constant supervision

4. Lead rather than do

5. Employ an inductive laboratory-project teaching method

6. Make teaching approach through the group and direct to the individual

7. Demand assimilation rather than memorization as the basis for preparation

8. Employ practical tests that measure individual improvement

9. Teach rather than coach28

27Ibid, pp. 16-17
28Ibid, pp. 534-543.
Backus apparently had the psychological laws of learning firmly in mind when he formulated these basic rules for speech teachers:

1. Do not plan to cover too much material.
2. Take an inventory of the needs of the group.
3. Take an inventory of the needs of the individuals in the group.
4. Take an inventory of the teaching situation. The teacher who seriously tries to take stock of the resources at her disposal will be amazed at how much more speech education can be provided than she had thought possible. The course of study will be found to offer rich possibilities for the inclusion and the development of speech education.
5. Make a written plan and keep written records.
6. Base the program of speech improvement upon what is, rather than what you fancy to be, good speech. There is no one standard of speech to fit all occasions.
7. The standard to be selected must fit the needs of the particular group.
8. The material must be carefully selected within the needs and understanding of particular age groups.
9. Speech improvement should proceed as an outgrowth of the program of applied speech. Real life situations should be used as motivation.
10. Care and forethought should be exercised on the presentation of the speech-improvement program.
11. In so far as possible, drills should demand the active participation of all the group.
12. Encouragement and praise are potent means of motivation.
13. Personal recognition, being chosen as chairman, or being asked to go to another room to make an announcement, is a desirable means of motivation.
14. "On the spot" correction of errors is effective.

15. The use of slogans or posters is also effective.

16. Finally, let the teacher remember (and this is an important principle of democracy) that the children who enjoy self-government under guidance in the classroom will impose upon themselves higher standards and will exact of each other better performance than a teacher can ever hope to impose or to exact.\(^{29}\)

The truth of this last statement was amply demonstrated in the Odessa school. The speech students enjoyed self-government, and the teacher was much impressed by the high standards and self-discipline they imposed upon themselves, particularly in the seventh and eighth grades.

Seth A. Fessenden of Cornell College says that methods can and should change with circumstances. For instance, if the speech teacher is teaching for facts or skill, he suggests that she

1. Establish attitudes, moods, or states of readiness.

2. Let the pupil know the definite objective sought. These goals should, of course, be within the range of the pupil's abilities.

3. Tell the pupils of the progress they are making. Learning is aided definitely when the learners are allowed to know of their group or individual progress.

4. Commendation when commendation is justified.

5. Blackboard demonstrations are extremely important in the process of presenting facts and new material. Whenever visual aid can be given to the learner, he not only learns faster but retains better.

6. Drill, without active interest, is a waste of time.

If the teacher is teaching for understanding, Fessenden gives the following guiding principles:

1. Speech activities contribute in essential ways to the great majority of social processes.

2. Oral expression provides an important avenue of cultural interpretation and clarification.

3. Experiences involving language should be organized with direct reference to the developmental nature of children rather than the logical arrangement of language.

4. Any plan of curriculum organization should accord individual teachers large freedom in selecting experiences for given children.

5. Achievement expectations should never be stated in group terms, but in terms applicable to given children.

6. Always consider the effect of a proposed speech activity on the total development of the child.

7. The teacher must be an unobtrusive guide.

8. Pupils should be encouraged to talk to the class instead of directly to the teacher.30

Along these same lines, Parker sets forth his general principles to be followed in a recitation procedure:

1. Help the children to formulate the problem clearly.

2. See that they keep the problem continuously in mind.

3. Encourage them to make many suggestions by having them analyze the situation, recall similar cases and the rules or principles of solution which there applied, and guess courageously.

30 Seth A. Fessenden, Speech and the Teacher, pp. 112-121.
4. Get them to evaluate each suggestion. This involves maintaining a state of suspended judgment, criticizing the suggestion by anticipating objections, and consequences, and verifying the conclusions by appeal to known facts, miniature experiments, and authorities.

5. Have them organize their process of solution by building outlines, using diagrams and graphs, taking stock from time to time, and formulating concise statements of the net outcomes of their activities.31

Garland and Phillips favor the conference procedure of teaching, but not as a device for providing new material. The teacher becomes a leader of discussion, and it is necessary for the students to have learned the facts or to have had the experiences, directly or indirectly through reading, with which to solve the presented problems. They list six steps to be used in the conference procedure, which, it will be noted, are almost identical with those quoted from Parker. They are:

1. Identify a problem.
2. Assemble data or facts concerning the problem.
3. Select functioning data.
4. Evaluate data or facts.
5. Arrive at decision or conclusion.
6. Formulate plan to carry out decision.32

The other head which Fensenden divides teaching under is that of appreciation, probably the most difficult thing to

31c. C. Parker, Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning, pp. 95-106.

teach. He points out that appreciation is a consumer’s art and bases his methods with students not on how to produce, but rather on how to consume. He suggests that students in reading aloud:

1. Group words so that logically connected ideas stick together.
2. Take into consideration that emotion or mood of the material being read.
3. Suit bodily activities to the occasion.

He suggests reading in chorus, classroom dramatics, and the use of radio to the teacher. About choral reading he says:

1. Choose selections with life and spirit. Let the sweetness and sentiment play a minor part only.
2. Be sure that the selection being read is understood. Unless the reader understands, the chances are not favorable that he will interpret well.
3. If the selection is poetry, let the rhythm aid in maintaining unity within the group.
4. Develop enthusiasm and a spirit of fun. The deadening effect of merely reading together will ruin any possibility of appreciation, which should be the major purpose.
5. Be careful of diction. Correct mispronounced words and poor enunciation during the early readings. Watch final consonants.
6. Stay with each selection long enough for definite improvement to result.

About radio he says:

1. The radio can convey information in a striking and dramatic manner.
2. Because of the intensity of interest maintained by good programs, much of the material learned is relatively permanent.
3. The wide range of programs offers vitality and variation in the presentation of a topic.

4. Radio is useful as a means for stimulating imagination and curiosity.

5. Proper direction in the use of radio can raise the standards of taste in music and the oral arts.

6. Radio can broaden all phases of classwork.

7. Correctly used, radio aids in the ability to listen intelligently.

8. Radio brings into the classroom the finest talent in all fields.\(^3^3\)

Of course it is understood that the teacher is not relieved of her teaching duties when the radio is brought into the classroom. She must conduct both pre-listening and post-listening activities and create a sense of urgency to know the answers to certain questions so that the experience of hearing the program will have been of actual value to the students. Fessenden gives these suggestions:

1. Discuss with the class the topic treated, in order to discover how much they already know about it.

2. Call attention to those aspects of the topic which relate either to immediate local problems, or to manifest interests of the class.

3. If it appears from the discussion that the class’ knowledge of the topic is inadequate to provide a conceptual basis for understanding the program, assign appropriate materials for exploratory reading.

4. List on the blackboard those questions about the topic which arise in the pre-listening discussion and suggest that the class listen especially for

anything in the program which may serve to provide the answers.

5. Explain any factual items or concepts treated in the program with which you believe the class to be unfamiliar.

6. Summarize with the class the principal items of information and opinions about the topic and help them to organize these points in a systematic fashion.

7. Discuss the program to discover general reactions and attitudes.

8. Seek to identify points which dealt with pre-listening questions.

9. Provide additional reading for the individuals according to their interests and reactions.\(^{34}\)

Drummond regards skill and knowledge as inseparable objectives. He says that speech education should be organized under the unit plan and insists upon four steps in learning by doing. These are motivation, knowledge, practice, and criticism. He believes that speech work should be so arranged as to make for careful classifications of pupils according to their stage of development and their special needs. Children with speech disorders should have treatment at the hands of specialists and should never, he believes, be enrolled in regular speech classes with normal pupils.\(^{35}\) The author is in hearty agreement with this statement, for there is never time in an ordinary class to deal with these cases. About

\(^{34}\)Ibid., pp. 142-144.

the most that can be accomplished is to relieve the handicapped student of embarrassment about his speech and get him to talk. Yet administrators blithely place these students with normal ones and expect wonders of improvement despite the teacher's clamor for a speech clinic.

Drummond approves these conditions and principles for speech courses:

1. Courses should be organized for regular class instruction under the unit system. "Rhetoricals" assemblies and plays may legitimately be products of, or parts of, the courses, but should be incidental to the regular classroom work. Courses should not be clearing houses for interscholastic contests in which the reputation of the school and of the teacher depends on the decision.

2. Teachers should have sympathy with the work.

3. Courses should improve the pupil's private speech and conversation quite as much as -- or even more than -- his speaking in public. They should also do quite as much to suppress bad public speaking as to promote good public speaking.

4. All work in oral expression should build on the natural, conversational speech of the individual -- improving and developing, but not artificially standardizing it.

5. Voice, pronunciation, enunciation, phrasing, emphasis, and action should receive proper attention in all courses.

6. Training in expression is apt to be futile or artificial unless an impulse to express or communicate is present. Therefore, the whole plan of the course and the conduct of the class hour should be such as to stimulate the desire and develop the impulse to communicate.

7. Communication as an underlying principle of spoken discourse includes the discovery of ideas, their selection, their arrangement, their verbal
expression, and their appropriate presentation through speech and action to secure a desired effect on the hearer.

8. The technical training of the courses should be based on the principles: (1) that the standard of speaking and reading, whether in private or in public, is essentially conversational, communicative speech, and, (2) that speaking or reading in public is a quite normal act. A variety of situations, projects, etc., should be arranged to enforce and develop these fundamental principles.

9. The work of the courses should be carefully balanced between theory and practice.

10. Written plans, outlines, and analyses should be required in all courses.

11. A suitable text or texts should be used.

12. Appropriate collateral reading should be required.

13. The teacher should know what work has been done in oral English (as well as in other courses) and should build on that work.

Walser, in his book The Art of Conference, has outlined a sequence which might well be considered by teachers in their general courses. He suggests:

1. General definition of problem.

2. Colorful personal experiences.

3. Exploration of social situation.

4. Analysis of issue or conflict.

5. Accumulation of new facts on the sources and setting of the conflict.

6. Verification of these facts, especially where there is disagreement about them.

7. Analysis of consequences uncovers differences in attitudes.

36 Ibid., pp. 10-12.
8. Attitude differences are traced to differing assumptions and philosophies.

9. Review of situation on basis of agreement on essential aim.

10. On basis of assumption and fact agreement, selection from among the solutions proposed.

11. Right wording of solution or resolution.

12. Discussion and agreement on ways and means of application. 37

Newer studies in psychology have stressed the intrinsic value of all human life, with the result that desire for democratic equality is replacing traditional authority. What, specifically, can the classroom teacher do to help bring about this new adjustment? Dorothy Mulgrave answers this question when she says;

In the light of changed attitudes not only in social mores, but also in education, there seem to be three specific aptitudes which the teacher should develop:

1. He must be able to organize his classes in such a way that newer methods of training supplant those of the traditional school.

2. He must be an adequate group leader in his classes; and

3. He must be qualified to partake in group discussion of an informal or formal nature. 38

Louise Russeau, chairman of the department of speech at Western State Teachers' College, Kalamazoo, Michigan, made

37 Frank Walser, The Art of Conference, pp. 73-74.

38 Dorothy I. Mulgrave, Speech for the Classroom Teacher, p. 304.
this statement at the National Speech Teachers' Convention in New York City in 1941:

The finest service you give to your pupil is to make him a present of himself. In order to read well, that is to share his thoughts with others, his premonition must be quickened. He becomes a sharpened tool.

Parrish, in his suggestions to oral readers, says:

Find in your past experience concrete instances of the truth of every statement you are to read. Work out in detail all the images suggested. Dwell upon them until they are vivid and real. Hold them in mind while reading.

Margaret Painter lists as the qualities of a good teacher:

1. Well informed.
2. Able to select vital points.
3. Recognition of his task to be a director and organizer.
4. Tolerant in recognizing the worth of the opinions of all members of the group.
5. Fairness toward all the group.
6. Friendly attitude and a sense of humor.
7. Tactful and diplomatic in avoiding unpleasant situations.
8. Good speaking voice.
9. Ability to stimulate interest.
10. Tolerance and an open mind.
11. Cooperative spirit.

39Wayland Maxfield Parrish, Reading Aloud, p. 102.
40Margaret Painter, Ease in Speech, pp. 237-238.
The teacher of speech might well consider Ray Immel's suggestions to speech students when he says:

The mental attitude with which we approach the task of improving our speech is a large factor in our possible success. Motive is highly important in this, as in everything else, and motives can be cultivated and stimulated. We need to have in mind (1) the desire to speak well, (2) the importance of speaking well, (3) pride in speaking well, and (4) belief in the ultimate success of our efforts to speak well. The mental qualities which will serve us best in our efforts to improve our speech are (1) enthusiasm, (2) sense of communication, (3) sense of humor and (4) poise. If we concentrate on these things in the spirit indicated, there is every reason to believe that effort toward improvement will be crowned with success. Outward improvements will come the more easily because of the inward spirit in which they are undertaken.41

Of course many more suggested methods in speech teaching have been recommended in this chapter, but they apply to highly specialized activities peculiar to speech training and have not been included in the foregoing list since they would be of no value for comparison. In comparing those which were included with those mentioned most frequently by the authorities in psychology, we find the lists in significant agreement. Both call for:

1. The employment of real-life activities and situations.
2. Aiding the pupils in forming their own purposes.
3. The employment of democratic procedure.
4. Making learning experiences vivid and part of the learners' lives.

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41 Helen Loree Ogg and Ray Keelsar Immel, Speech Improvement, p. 89.
5. The stimulation of interest.
7. A willingness to experiment.
8. Making activities numerous and varied.
9. Seeing that the learning products satisfy needs and are useful and meaningful.
10. An integration of the learning process.
11. A survey of the learner's past experience and fitting the new learning experiences to his level.
12. A consideration of individual differences.
13. Informing the learner of his status and progress.
14. Letting the students use and apply what they learn.
15. Making the content of the curriculum socially justifiable.
16. Seeing that the content of the curriculum either extends the student's experience or better relates what is already within it.
17. Letting the students enjoy a satisfying degree of success.
18. Making extensive use of group activities.
19. Organizing activities into situations which are as like ideal democratic life as possible.
20. Encouraging the development of specialized abilities.

Thus we see that the only suggestion given by the psychologists and not mentioned specifically by the speech people is that of recognizing the fact that living, learning and growing are interrelated and progress together; and this suggestion has perhaps been implied by the speech educators, notably in suggestions eleven, nineteen, thirty-seven and forty-eight of their list.
We find the psychologists calling for a getting away from subject lines and organizing learning into larger, more life-like areas and the speech people borrowing from other fields and including their own work in all others. The curricula in most schools are not at present organized into the large learning areas which the psychologists actually mean, but speech educators are following the principle as well as may be under the present situation. The speech teacher's goal to give the student a sense of personal adequacy in social situations and to help him adjust and conform to the group is in line with the basic educational philosophy of placing much importance on the worth of the individual and educating him as a useful citizen in a democratic society.

Summary

In summarizing this chapter we find that the methods recommended by psychologists as being most effective for attaining the desired learning results are:

1. Employ real-life activities and situations.
2. Aid pupils in forming their own purposes.
3. Employ democratic procedure.
4. Make learning experiences vivid and part of the learners' lives.
5. Stimulate interest.
6. Use illustrative materials.
7. Be willing to experiment.
8. Make activities numerous and varied.
9. See that the learning products satisfy a need and are useful and meaningful.

10. Integrate the learning process.

11. Consider the learner's background of experience and fit the new learning experiences to his level.

12. Consider individual differences.

13. Inform the learner of his status and progress.

14. Let the students use and apply what they learn.

15. The content of the curriculum must be socially justifiable.

16. The content of the curriculum should either extend the student's experience or better relate what is already within it.

17. Students should enjoy a satisfying degree of success.

18. Make extensive use of cooperative group activities.

19. The activities should be organized into situations which are as like ideal democratic life as possible.

20. Encourage the development of specialized abilities.

21. Recognize the fact that living, learning, and growing are interrelated and progress together.

For the sake of comparison, a list of the principles mentioned most frequently by speech educators is presented here:

1. Stress active individual participation in community efforts.

2. Give more emphasis to instruction in fellowship.


4. See that the students recognize the value of what they learn.
5. Help the child to make the best use of his abilities.
6. Help him to adjust to and conform to the group.
7. Give the student a sense of personal adequacy in social situations.
8. Help the students develop a sense of values.
10. Teach the students to fulfill the rights and duties of citizenship.
11. Integrate the activities.
12. Employ much group activity.
13. Relate new material to something within the students' own experiences.
14. Apply the new information.
15. Point out why the particular material under discussion is interesting or important.
16. Teach skillful democratic group discussion.
17. Have the students organize and evaluate purposes.
18. Establish a feeling of communication with the audience in the students.
19. See that they use originality rather than impersonation.
20. Multivalued orientation is necessary.
21. Learning should reach the feelings and emotions of the students.
22. Encourage as much activity as possible.
23. Set a good example for the students in appearance, manner, and technique.
24. Maintain the attitude of a guide eager to foster the students' growth.
25. Use much individual work.
26. The course should be student-centered rather than subject-centered.

27. Cultivate enthusiasm.

28. Establish principles in the minds of the students.

29. Educate the entire person.

30. Unify the speech process with all study, getting away from subject lines.

31. Conduct activities for the needy many rather than the talented few.

32. Give constant supervision.

33. Take an inventory of the needs of the group and the individuals.

34. Take an inventory of the teaching situation and the resources at hand.

35. Make written plans and records.

36. Do not try to fit students into one standard.

37. Fit the material to the needs and understanding of the students.

38. Let speech improvement proceed as an outgrowth of real life situations.

39. Activities should demand the active participation of all the group.

40. Use encouragement and praise as means of motivation.

41. Students should enjoy self-government under guidance.

42. Establish attitudes, moods, and states of readiness.

43. Keep the objectives within the abilities of the students.

44. Let the students know what the goals are and what progress they are making.

45. Employ many visual aids.

46. Drill, without active interest, is a waste of time.
47. Help the students to formulate the problem and organize processes of solution.

48. Develop enthusiasm and a spirit of fun.

49. Stay with each activity long enough for definite improvement to result.

50. Teach the students to listen intelligently.

51. Make use of radio in the classroom.

52. Provide additional reading according to interests and reactions.

53. Teach for every day use and not for exhibition or contest winning.

54. Let the students verify facts.

55. The teacher should be well informed, tolerant, fair, and open-minded.
CHAPTER IV
DATA FROM THE ODESSA SCHOOL

As stated in the first chapter, a survey was made in the Odessa Junior High School to determine whether the speech students made any more progress in certain other subjects than non-speech students. In this chapter, "speech students" will be understood to mean those students with no previous training who began their study of speech in September, 1946, or the second year of the survey. There are approximately a thousand students in the junior high school, which includes grades seven through nine. Of this number, there are about three hundred ninth grade students, and it was necessary to check the records of every one of them before a control group of non-speech students could be found to make an equated group with the speech students. The students in the two groups were matched according to actual age, mental age, educational age, intelligence quotient, and index of effort. Then their marks for the school years 1945-46 and 1946-47 were recorded and compared. For the sake of convenience, speech students' records were made on white paper and non-speech students records on yellow paper. Each student was then given a rank according to the teacher's mark he received in each subject for both school years. At this point it was discovered that only in language
arts and mathematics were there enough students enrolled to make comparisons of any value. Therefore the study was limited to these two subjects. The speech and non-speech students were then grouped together, and all of the seventy-six students studied were given ranks as to class standing according to teachers' marks for both years. The combined group was then divided into quartiles. In language arts for the first year, there were seven people who became speech students the second year in the upper quartile, eleven in the second, six in the third, and fourteen in the fourth. After a year's study of speech, there were six speech students in the upper quartile, thirteen in the second, fourteen in the third, and five in the fourth. Of these numbers, two had moved up to quartile one from quartile two. Five had moved up to quartile two from quartile three, one had moved up to quartile two from quartile four, and one had moved down to two from one. In quartile three, six had moved up from four, two had moved down from one, and two had moved down from quartile two. In quartile four, one speech student had moved down from quartile two and one down from three.

In mathematics for the first year there were seven students who later became speech students in the upper quartile, ten in the second, twelve in the third, and eight in the fourth. The second year, when the study of speech was begun, there were still seven speech students in the upper quartile. In the
second quartile, the speech students had increased to twelve. There were twelve in the third quartile, and six in the fourth. The second year, four speech students came up to quartile one from quartile two, and one came up from four. In quartile two, three speech students had moved down from one, and five had moved up from three. In quartile three, two had moved down from one, two down from two, and six had moved up from four. In quartile four, two speech students had moved down from quartile two, and three had moved down from three. This shows a little more improvement on the part of speech students than that shown by the non-speech students, especially in the middle quartiles.

In order that the check might be made more accurate, the I. Q.'s of both speech and non-speech students were correlated with their grades in mathematics and language arts for both years. The table below shows the results.
TABLE 3.

CORRELATION OF I. Q. WITH SUBJECTS FOR FIRST AND SECOND YEARS--
SPEECH AND NON-SPEECH STUDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First Year</th>
<th>Possible Error</th>
<th>Second Year</th>
<th>Possible Error</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-Speech Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>±.07</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>±.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Arts</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>±.07</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>±.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech Students</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>±.07</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>±.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Arts</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>±.06</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>±.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among the non-speech students this shows only a very slight difference in the correlation for succeeding years; and with the possible error added to the lower and subtracted from the larger, the difference becomes even less. From these figures we can expect that usually about half of the students with high I. Q.'s will make high scores in mathematics, but there is no improvement for succeeding years.

The figures show that the speech students held about the same relation as the non-speech students for the first year, a fact which would be expected, since they had had no speech up to that time. We see that after taking speech, however, they improved both in mathematics and in language arts. There is a greater improvement in language arts than in mathematics, possibly because the subjects are more closely related.
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

Research on the problem of this thesis has resulted in establishing certain definite facts relative to the teaching of speech and its contribution to general education. The data reveal these findings:

1. Speech educators are agreed that speech training should develop the personality of the student and make him a better social being.

2. The emphasis in speech education is on speech as a useful tool and not as a means of exhibition.

3. The teaching of speech has been re-aligned with the newer aims of education.

4. Speech teachers and psychologists are agreed in many areas as to the aims of education.

5. Speech teachers and psychologists are agreed in many areas as to the proper methods of teaching.

6. The speech students of the Odessa Junior High School made more progress in general education than the non-speech students.

7. The speech students made more relative progress in language arts than in mathematics, probably because language arts and speech are more closely related.
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