AN IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAM

FOR TEACHERS

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AN IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAM
FOR TEACHERS

THESIS

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By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The aim of this study is to determine a sound method of conducting a workable program of in-service training for teachers. This problem will apply to the medium size high schools of Texas, with an enrollment ranging from three hundred to five hundred pupils in high school. Data from the large high schools and from schools out of Texas will be used, if the nature of the data makes it possible to apply it equally to the various schools regardless of size or location.

Definition of Terms

In the statement of this problem, "sound" method will apply to methods that are based on principles of psychology, democracy, and economy. A workable program will mean a program that is practical and usable. In-service training in this study will refer to the educational training that the teacher receives between the beginning of school in the fall and the end of school in the spring. The summer months are excluded; however, the beginning of school will refer to the first meeting of the teachers preceding the formal opening of school.
Purpose of the Study

We are living in a rapidly changing age. Civilization is struggling desperately to find the way out of the maze that it has built around itself. The progress and even the very existence of civilization probably depend on the degree of success achieved in the solution of this problem. This state of chaotic existence is described by Koopman, Miel and Misner in the following quotation:

The last two hundred years of human history have been a golden age for individualistic freedom. Under democratic forms of government, man has achieved as never before in his conquest of the forces of nature. But in his preoccupation with individualistic opportunities, he has tended to ignore the problems of social relationships. Chaos, fascism, communism, dictatorships, and a host of other ills are the inevitable penalties which he is now suffering because of his neglect.¹

However, the outlook for the future is not altogether dark and gloomy. Many opportunities present themselves if we but take advantage of them. In the language of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, "there has been no time in American history when greater dangers threatened or greater opportunities were offered."² To take advantage of these opportunities is the responsibility of the leaders of modern civilization. There are no forces more powerful in the experiences of man than that of education.

² The Improvement of Teacher Education, Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education, p.7.
Education is the hope of the world. But what progress has education made? Is education prepared to cope with the complicated problems of living in the modern world? Much of the training given in the educational systems of today is following the same pattern that was set up by the educators of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. We have not changed with the changing times. Some phases of education have been completely neglected. The field of human relations has probably failed to progress equally with that of science, mechanics, and various similar fields. Modern progressive educators are beginning to realize the importance of individualistic training, and its influence on society in general.

The real concern of teaching is to direct the growth and development of each pupil along desirable lines, that will fit him to become a happy, well-adjusted, contributing member of society. The skillful teacher, however, recognizes the fact that each pupil is also an individual having a personality distinctly his own. Hence, she tries not only to preserve that personality but to develop those understandings, traits, skills, attitudes, and resources that will provide the pupil with richer and improved ways of living at every age and level of his growth. Such growth can be attained providing a rich variety of experiences that will help the pupil to understand the many things about the world in which he lives; why he is what he is and how; how he can help himself to fit into this world; and what and how he can contribute to his own well being as well as to that of his fellowmen.  

If the emphasis is to be changed from the traditional subject matter to the development of the well-rounded personality, capable of adjusting to present existing conditions,

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many teachers in the secondary schools may have to change their philosophies of education; and this can possibly be brought about by a process of teacher education. Thomas and Lang realized this need when they said:

At no time during the present century has there been more need for teachers and school officials to possess a clear conception of the basic foundations of modern education.\(^4\)

Myers, Kifer, Merry, and Foley substantiate this trend of thinking in the following quotation:

Undoubtedly one of the most important problems which every profession faces is that of how to keep the members alive and alert and continuously growing professionally. The old supervisory techniques, which were reasonably effective with half trained and inexperienced teachers, fail utterly to meet this problem under modern conditions. The professional improvement of teachers in service must be accepted by the profession itself as a major responsibility.\(^5\)

One reason for the emphasis on the in-service training of teachers is that regardless of the amount of preservice training, if the teacher does not continue in educational training, it is difficult for him to stay up professionally with the changing times. The Commission on Teacher Education felt this need when they stated that they were, "of the opinion that the improvement of teacher education is of the greatest national importance in our times. The improvement of teacher education is a critical national necessity, for


\(^5\)A. F. Myers, L. M. Kifer, R. C. Merry, and F. Foley, *Cooperative Supervision in the Public Schools*, p.128.
teachers are the key element in most educational processes."

If training of teachers in service is important, it is certainly important to determine a sound method of in-service training, in keeping with modern trends of educational thought, and that is the problem of this study.

Sources of Data

The data for this study will be taken from books, magazines, bulletins, and yearbooks found in the library. A careful study will be made to find out what has been done in the field and how effective are the results.

Plan of Procedure

Before any program can be properly evaluated, it is necessary to set up some type of measuring standards by which the program is judged, so this will be the purpose of Chapter II. In it the criteria for a sound program will be set up. A number of psychological, democratic, and economic principles will be determined by which the program can be measured.

In Chapter III the various practices that are found to be in common use will be determined. This will be determined by a careful study of the material written in this field.

After these programs have been set up, the next step is to measure them by the criteria set up in Chapter II. This

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will be the main purpose of Chapter IV.

As a result of measuring these programs, certain conclusions will be reached, and growing out of these conclusions will be a number of recommendations. The purpose of Chapter V will be to set up these conclusions and recommendations.

Related Studies

One study that contributed much to this field was sponsored by the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. This commission selected schools, both large and small, from various parts of the United States, and helped them to set up a program of study in their own schools. This program lasted over a five year period, and has contributed much to the field of in-service training of teachers.

G. W. Gore completed a study in 1930 of the in-service professional improvement of negro public school teachers in Tennessee. A survey of conditions was made and a comparison with that of other groups was made.

Adolph Linscheid of Columbia University made a study of the improvement in service of the State Teachers College faculty. Linscheid's study differs from this study in several respects. It was a study of the college program of in-

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7E. Pratt and Leslie Cushman, *Teacher Education in Service*.

8G. W. Gore, *In-Service Professional Improvement of Negro Public School Teachers in Tennessee*.
service training rather than high school. It was made in 1928, so he could not have access to the materials of modern thought on this subject. 9

Charles Russell made a study of the improvement of the city elementary school teachers in service in 1922. He surveyed the agencies existing at that time and the need of such a program. He then proposed a program based on those needs. 10

Another study that was found on the subject of in-service training was that of A. M. Witherington on the legal trends of in-service training of school teachers. This study applied mostly to the legal provisions for such training. 11

9Adolph Linscheid, *In-Service Improvement of the State Teachers College Faculty.*

10Charles Russell, *The Improvement of the City Elementary School Teachers in Service.*

11A. M. Witherington, *Legal Trends of In-Service Training of Public School Teachers.*
CHAPTER II

EVALUATIVE CRITERIA

The purpose of this chapter is to set up criteria by which to evaluate the in-service training program. In setting up these criteria, it becomes necessary to go back to the initial statement of what constitutes a sound program of in-service teacher training. It was stated there that the program must be sound psychologically, democratically, and economically. The problem of this chapter then, is to derive sound principles of psychology, democracy, and economy.

Psychological Principles

In any program involving learning, it would be unwise to ignore certain recognized principles or laws of learning. How we learn most successfully is of paramount importance in setting up any learning experience. The whole nature of the program must of necessity center around sound principles of learning, since teacher training is simply functional learning. In order to set up principles of learning it is necessary to go to the field of psychology to determine how we learn, and then derive those principles from the basic psychological facts involved in learning.
The study of the mental nature of man has progressed much slower than that of the physical nature, due to the complexity of the nature of such a study, but in the last five or six decades many facts in this field have been derived and scientifically proven.

The processes involved in learning may be classed in three divisions: trial and error, conditioned response, and insight. Trial and error is the simplest of these processes and proceeds on the lowest mental level. This process simply means that when a problem presents itself a number of solutions are tried until finally the correct one is found. This method is used both by animals and by man. Edward L. Thorndike carried out a number of experiments with animals that involved trial and error learning. These experiments were carried out upon fish, chickens, cats, dogs, and monkeys.

He found that learning did take place by trial and error methods, that through repeated trials the length of time to learn the solution to the problem decreased. The decrease was gradual and never reached a consistent maximum efficiency. The trial and error process of learning is the slowest of the three processes and is considered of the lowest level.

The second process of learning is that of the conditioned response. A response may be the result of an altered

1H. E. Garrett, Great Experiments in Psychology, pp. 102-126.
reflex, causing the response to be conditioned. Ivan Pavlov, the Russian scientist, carried out a number of experiments that illustrated the conditioned response. He showed that even physiological responses could be conditioned to artificial stimuli. He also proved the necessity for the time relation between the stimulus and the response.²

The third process is a faster type of selective learning, generally referred to as insight. W. Kohler of the Gestalt school of psychology made a number of experiments that strengthened this school of thought. He showed that if the proper tools for the solution of the problem were present and simplified, that even an animal could comprehend the relationships, and so could solve the problem without the wasted efforts of the trial and error method. Many useless movements are eliminated in this process of learning.³

The difference in these types of procedures is due to the nature of the problem and to the elements involved in the solution of the problem. In the case of insight, all of the elements necessary to the solution of the problem were present and simplified so that they could be seen. So the main problem was to determine the relationships between the elements of solution, which required a certain type of reasoning or thinking through the problem. This type of learning requires more than simple stimulus response reaction. It requires the

²R. S. Woodworth, Psychology, pp. 245-256.
reaction of the organism as a whole, and is generally referred to as insight.

There are a few other things that should be noted about all of these experiments. In each case the subject was motivated. Hunger was generally used as the motivating force. If the motive was not there, learning did not occur. Another thing of significance was that in each case the learning produced satisfaction. If no satisfaction was produced, learning decreased.

Not only is it important to understand the processes of learning in order to establish principles of learning, but it is also important to know the factors that influence learning. F. F. Powers and W. L. Uhl listed some factors which influence learning:

1. Readiness
2. Exercise
3. Effect
4. Recency
5. Primacy
6. Vividness

Readiness means that the learner is prepared physically and mentally for the learning experience. Readiness and motives are closely related. If the subject is ready for the learning experience, strong motives or drives may work on the subject. In the case previously mentioned, hunger

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produced the motive or drive. An individual will not put out much effort to achieve something for which he has no desire, even though he benefits thereby. One reason for this is that he is not ready for that particular experience.

Exercise strengthens the neural response patterns and so is conducive to learning. Again referring to Thorndike's experiment, it was found that the number of random efforts were decreased with repetition. Many psychologists have minimized the effect of exercise on learning, and it can not be considered as a means of learning alone.⁵

The principle of effect states that learning is increased if the result is satisfying. Pavlov's experiment showed that when the satisfying result was removed the response to the stimulus gradually ceased. In all these experiments the result was satisfying. Effect and readiness are closely related. The desire for the satisfying result produces the readiness.

Recency means the last neural connections tend to be the strongest. It is easier to recall what was learned yesterday than what was learned ten years ago.

The principle of primacy states that first impressions tend to be more lasting than those intermediate between first and last.

The vigor involved in the formation of the connection modifies its durability. This principle was recognized by Thorndike when he stated his law of use and disuse.⁶ This is

⁵Ibid., p. 404.

the principle of vividness or intensity. The intensity of the learning experience speeds up the learning process.

James L. Mursell gives the characteristics of the learning process as follows:  

1. Learning as a purposive process
   a. The subject must be motivated.
   b. The subject always approaches the learning situation under the influence of complex motives, and unless the right one takes charge, the learning process will fail.
   c. The learning process must involve the presence of an obstacle to be overcome.
   d. The most important relationship that establishes itself in the learning process is that between the objective and the means necessary to achieve it.

2. Learning as organization
   a. Learning begins with a phase of exploration.
   b. In learning, a response is built up to a stimulus in a setting. (conditioned response)
   c. The learning process is marked by an increasing precision and economy of response.

3. Learning transcends itself
   Every specific job of learning reverberates throughout the subject's entire mental life

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7 James L. Mursell, Educational Psychology, pp. 166-180.
and influences the totality of his interactions with the environment.

Shaffer, Gilmer, and Schoen list a number of conditions that are favorable to learning.

1. Contiguity
2. Effect
3. Intensity
4. Organization
5. Facilitation and interference
6. Exercise

"The law of contiguity states that in order for an association to occur, the associated events must fall within a certain time interval." The original stimulus must not be separated by too long a time interval if learning is to progress.

The principle of effect and intensity has already been discussed. Intensity is the same as Powers and Uhl listed as vividness.

According to the law of organization, learning is more rapid when materials are organized into meaningful relationships. In Kohler's experiment previously cited, the subject showed evidence of comprehending or perceiving the relationship of the tool to the problem that he solved, and hence excelled the subject of the trial and error method, who had blindly stumbled upon a solution. Mursell also believed in the principle of organization.

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The law of facilitation states that one act of learning will assist another act if some stimulus in the new situation utilizes a previously learned response.

The principle of interference states that one act of learning will interfere with another act if some stimulus in the new situation requires a different response from that previously associated with the same stimulus.

The law of exercise has already been discussed; however, Shaffer, Gilmer, and Schoen add that "Exercise, without regard to the other conditions of learning, may have positive, zero, or even negative influence."\(^{10}\)

A set of fundamental psychological propositions were set up by the Department of Secondary School Principals in their report on the issues of secondary education.

The following statements are selected from this list:\(^{11}\)

1. 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.

2. Learning proceeds more rapidly and tends to be more permanent when it involves activity, both physical and mental, on the part of the learner.

3. Learning proceeds more rapidly and tends to be more permanent when the relationship between what is being

\(^{10}\)Ibid, p. 127.

\(^{11}\)Issues of Secondary Education, Department of Secondary School Principals, pp. 263-264.
experienced and the welfare of the learner are seen by him.

4. Learning proceeds more rapidly when the outcome of the learner’s experience results in satisfaction or reward.

Each of these propositions is based on one of the principles of learning that has already been discussed. The first proposition relates to experience. All learning proceeds from the known to the unknown. The solving of new problems is a matter of deducting new relationships in terms of experienced relationships; thus, experience is one basis of readiness for the new learning experience.

The second proposition, that of activity, simply strengthens or increases the intensity of the learning experience.

The third deals with perceiving relationships, which is a matter of organization.

The fourth proposition clearly belongs to the principle of effect.

If the learning experience is to be meaningful to the learner, and if the learner is to be motivated, the learning experience must be based on the needs of the learner. The needs of the individual have a tendency to arrange themselves in levels ranging from the most elemental to those representing the higher development of the individual.

Needs arrange themselves in a hierarchy going from the most elemental and physiological to those which represent the higher development of the individual. Needs would be placed on five levels: the first level
would comprise the basic physiological needs of hunger, sex, and so on. The second level would comprise the needs of safety, that is, of avoiding external dangers that might result in harm to the individual from the outside. In the third level there is the need for love, that is to be given love, warmth and affection by another person. On the fourth level is the need for esteem, that is self-respect, self-esteem, and also the respect and esteem of others. Finally, there is the need for self-realization, of being able to accomplish and achieve, to paint a picture, to secure a position, to occupy a place in one's group. . . . Gratification of needs on the first or basic levels frees a person for the higher social needs; for instance, if a person's physical needs and his needs for safety and love are taken care of, he can turn his attention and devote his energies to the more distinctly ego needs and efforts toward self-realization on the higher levels. On the other hand, if these more basic needs are not met, they claim priority, and activities on the higher levels must be postponed.\textsuperscript{12}

According to this, it would be necessary to satisfy the needs on the first levels before even beginning to work on the higher levels. This is rather important to this particular problem. Summarizing, the levels are as follows:

First level, physiological  
Second level, safety and security  
Third level, love from others  
Fourth level, self-esteem  
Fifth level, self-realization

From the laws, principles and propositions, already discussed, the following set of psychological principles is taken, and the psychological soundness of the program will be measured by these criteria.

1. The organism develops as a whole  
2. Readiness

\textsuperscript{12} P. M. Symonds, \textit{The Dynamics of Human Adjustment}, pp. 42-43.
a. Learning tends to be greatest when based upon the learner's interest.

b. Learning tends to be greatest when centered around problems of immediate concern.

c. 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.

d. Learning tends to be greatest when the subject is well motivated.

e. Experience is the foundation of all mental life.

3. Intensity

a. Learning tends to be successful, other things being equal, in proportion to the intensity of the learning experience.

b. Learning proceeds more rapidly and tends to be more permanent when it involves activity, both physical and mental, on the part of the learner.

c. The intensity of the learning experience is increased in proportion to the extent to which the learning is satisfying the needs of the learner.

d. Needs of the individual arrange themselves according to the following levels:
   First level, physiological
   Second level, safety and security
   Third level, love from others
Fourth level, self-esteem
Fifth level, self-realization

4. Organization
   a. Learning is more rapid when materials are organized into meaningful relationships.
   b. Learning proceeds more rapidly and tends to be more permanent when the relationships between what is being experienced and the welfare of the learner are seen by him.
   c. Learning is more successful when opportunities are provided to discover proper means to ends desired.

5. Effect
   a. Learning proceeds more rapidly when the outcome of the learner's experience results in satisfaction or reward.
   b. The learning experience must be satisfying, as well as the result of the learning experience, if learning is to progress at the maximum rate.

6. Exercise
   Learning tends to be more permanent as a result of exercise if the exercise is meaningful to the learner.

7. Recency
   Learning tends to be more successful, other things being equal, in proportion to the recency of the learning experience to the response.
Democratic Principles

In a democratic country such as the United States, where the government was founded on democratic principles, and has always advocated democracy as the most advanced and intelligent way of life, it seems needless to have to justify democratic procedures in any phase of educational endeavor. If we have accepted the basic principles underlying the democratic philosophy of life, every phase of our activity should be governed by those principles. Unfortunately, however, this is not always found to be true in actual practices. Many profess to believe in democratic principles, and yet in their practices they use the most autocratic, the most dictatorial general procedures. E. T. McSwain substantiated this idea when he stated:

An examination of our contemporary American scene reveals unwholesome divergence between our professed democracy and the application of the cogent values and principles of democracy in human relations. How easy to voice allegiance to the democratic ideal. How difficult to live democratically. . . . If Americans believe explicitly in the values inherent in democracy, it is expedient that each citizen demonstrate his faith by striving continuously to apply the basic principles of democracy in all his relations with individuals, groups, and institutions. To do otherwise is an immoral act.13

Certainly the educational system is included in this thought, and education does accept the broad general aim of the democratic way of life. "Education in the United States clearly accepts the democratic way of life as its broad general aim. It could not do otherwise, for as an institution

it must serve society by which, from which, and for which it has been evolved."\footnote{14} This is only the first step in the democratization of education, and certainly democracy must prevail in education if we are to produce democratic citizens. Myers and Williams said, "Democratization of society will be more easily attained as our schools become more democratic in spirit."\footnote{15} If the schools are to become more democratic in spirit, the teachers and administrators must believe in democracy to the extent that their every action will be influenced by basic fundamental principles of democracy. But how can this be attained? The only psychological answer to this question would be through democratic training of school personnel.

The professional education of the teachers, whether pre-service or in-service, lies in aiding them to use and understand in everyday living the democratic process of cooperative interaction which is the basis for learning and teaching with their pupils. . . . Every activity in which the teacher engages, whether in school or out of school, should so exemplify cooperative interaction that he becomes an expert in the use of such process in daily living.\footnote{16}

Rorer emphasizes this same need in the following quotation:

Since purpose methods and means are inextricably interwoven and are correlative factors of experience, it is necessary that teachers have democratic purposes and employ democratic methods, if the democratic type of individual is to be developed.\footnote{17}

\footnote{14}{J. A. Rorer, \textit{Principles of Democratic Supervision}, p. 2.}
\footnote{15}{A. F. Myers and C. O. Williams, \textit{Education in a Democracy}, p. 287.}
\footnote{16}{Thomas Hopkins, \textit{Interaction: The Democratic Process}, p. 1.}
\footnote{17}{J. A. Rorer, \textit{Op. Cit.}, p. 6.}
If we are to accept the importance of a democratic educational system, then the next problem is to determine what makes up a democratic educational system. John Dewey says, "Democracy is more than a form of government; it is primarily a form of associated living, of conjoint communicated experience." Here he implies a cooperative effort on the part of all individual members of a society, an interaction of experiences toward a common goal. Again he says, "The two points selected by which to measure a form of social life are the extent in which interest of a group are shared by all its members, and the fullness and freedom with which it interacts with other groups." Here he stresses the importance of the "shared interest". Each member of the group must share in the common interest and activity of the group. Not only must the individual members have the common interest, but they must share in the common resulting good of the society.

A society which makes provisions for the participation in its good of all its members on equal terms and which secures flexible readjustments of its institutions through interaction of the different forms of associated life is in so far democratic. Such a society must have a type of education which gives individuals a personal interest in social relationships and control, and the habits of mind which secure social changes without introducing disorder.

H. H. Horne expressed exactly the same idea of the participation of the group when he said:

19 Ibid., p. 115.
20 Ibid., p. 115.
The essential content of a democracy is said to be the sharing of interest within groups and between groups, leading to social control based on mutual interests and progressive change. ... Democracy is thus essentially a spirit, or an attitude, the spirit of understanding, sympathy, and cooperation within social classes and between social classes. 21

Another modern educator, in a recent publication, stated that "Democracy demands that each human being be dealt with by his fellows as a living, growing potentially flowering organism that has a right to be a participant in decisions that stand to affect him." 22

Most of these statements refer to democracy in general, however, they must apply to any phase of endeavor by a society. The public school system certainly must accept its responsibility as a promoter of democratic ideals and practices.

Until the public school system is organized in such a way that every teacher has some regular and representative way in which he or she can register judgment upon matters of educational importance, with the assurance that this judgment will somehow affect the school system, the assertion that the present system is not, from the internal standpoint, democratic seems to be justified. 23

From the preceding ideas, the principle of "shared participation" might be evolved. This right of participation means that every member affected by a program should have the opportunity to participate in the formulation of the program, either directly or through representation regardless of whether

22 P. R. Mort, Principles of School Administration, p. 99.
this program refers to the administration of a school system or the administration of a nation. This principle was implied in the Declaration of Independence.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their creator with inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive to these ends it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it and to institute a new government, laying its foundations on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness.\(^24\)

According to this document, governments are instituted, "deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed." This implies that those who are affected by an activity should have a part in the control of the activity.

An equally important principle of democracy is the fundamental belief that the worth of the individual is paramount in a democratic society.

The fundamental elements inherent in democracy are the revolutionary concept of a man and society, the dignity and worth of the individual, and intelligence as the instrument for social organization and social reconstruction.\(^25\)

This principle can also be justified by the Declaration of Independence, which states, "all men are created equal." The governed are just as important as the governing; furthermore, they are "endowed by their creator" with certain rights, and "when any government violates these rights of the individual, it is the


right of the people to alter or abolish it and to institute a new government", if when the government and the people conflict, the government is to be abolished or altered, then the people are more important than the government. According to the Declaration of Independence the function of government is to aid the individual in achieving the maximum amount of happiness in life. Through all these implications the worth of the individual is stressed.

Out of this principle of democracy evolves a third principle. In a democracy it is believed that the intelligence of the group is in the long run more dependable than that of one person or a few. The potential intelligence of the group is capable of leading a society toward higher and better planes of living and development. In the previous quotation by McSwain, he stated that one of the fundamental elements inherent in democracy was "intelligence as the instrument for social organization and social reconstruction". Again referring back to the Declaration of Independence, it is stated therein that a government should be so organized and based on such principles "as to them (the people) shall seem most likely to affect their safety and happiness". To the framers of this document the people were most capable of determining their matters or the intelligence of the group was the highest source of determination.

The fourth principle is that a democracy provides opportunity for the maximum development of the individual. This
principle is closely related to the second principle. If the individual is of paramount importance, then it is the responsibility of society to offer opportunities for the development of the potentialities of the individual. One of the purposes of government is to aid the society affected in its program. But the society can progress only to the extent that the individual members progress, so the development of each individual in a democracy becomes imperative.

These principles of democracy are rather general. Next, a number of specific principles from various sources will be given, and then some of those principles will be classified according to these general principles and will be set up as the democratic criteria for this study. If these general principles have been validated, and the more specific principles fall under the heading of the general principles, they should need no further validation.

Koopman, Meil and Misner give a number of principles or objectives of democratic administration.

Democratic administration shall seek:

1. To facilitate the continuous growth of the individual and social personalities by providing all persons with opportunities to participate actively in all enterprises that concern them.

2. To recognize that leadership is a function of every individual, and to encourage the exercise of leadership by each person in accordance with his interest, needs, and abilities.

3. To provide means by which persons can plan together, share their experiences, and cooperatively evaluate their achievements.

4. To place the responsibility for making decisions that affect the total enterprise with the group rather than with one or a few individuals.
5. To achieve flexibility of organization to the end that necessary adjustments can readily be made.  

In comparing democratic administration and autocratic administration the same authors point out that the democratic administrator:

1. Realizes the potential power in thirty or fifty brains.
2. Knows how to utilize that power.
4. Frees himself from routine details in order to turn his energy to creative leadership.
5. Be quick to recognize and praise an idea that comes from someone else.
6. Refers to the group all matters that concern the group.
7. Maintains the position of friendly, helpful advisor both on personal and professional matters.
8. Wishes to be respected as a fair and just individual as he respects others.
9. Consciously practices democratic techniques.
10. Is more concerned with the growth of individuals involved than with freedom from annoyances.
11. Pushes others into the foreground so that they may taste success.
12. Believes that as many individuals as possible should have opportunities to take responsibility and exercise leadership.

The Educational Policies Commission set up the following democratic principles:

1. Democratic education guarantees to all concerned the right to share in determining purposes and policies.
2. Democratic education uses democratic methods in all educational procedures.
3. Democratic education makes efficient use of personnel, teaching respect for competence in positions of responsibility.
4. Democratic education liberates and uses the intelligence of all.
5. Democratic education equips citizens with the


material of knowledge needed for democratic ef-

ficiency. 28

The faculty of Teachers College, Columbia University,
worked out a number of statements as a creed of democracy.
The following are a few selected from this list:

1. Democracy extends into every realm of human endeavor.
2. Democracy respects the personality of every indi-

vidual.
3. Democracy furnishes an environment in which every
individual can be stimulated to exert himself to
develop his own personality, limited only by the
similar rights of others.
4. Democracy assumes that adults are capable of being
influenced by reason.
5. Democracy appeals to reason rather than force to
secure its ends.
6. Democracy recognizes a desire on the part of the
people to govern themselves and a willingness to
assume responsibility for doing so.
7. Democracy lays on individuals an obligation to share
actively and with informed intelligence in formulating
general policies.
8. Democracy believes that the decision concerning
policies made by the pooled judgment of the maximum
number of interested and informed individuals are
in the long run the wisest.
9. Democracy has faith that an individual grows best
and most by actively and intelligently exercising
his right to share in making decision on policies.
10. Democracy encourages individual initiative. 29

From the previous lists the following principles will be
set up, and the program will be evaluated as to its democratic
soundness by these principles.

1. Democracy grants the right of participation by the
group in things pertaining to the group.
   a. Democratic education guarantees to all concerned

28 N.E.A. Journal, "Hallmarks of Democratic Education",
Oct. 1940, p. 197.

p. 194.
the right to share in determining purposes and policies.

b. Democracy lays on individuals an obligation to share actively and with informed intelligence in formulating general policies.

c. Democracy has faith that an individual grows best and most by actively and intelligently exercising his right to share in making decisions on policy.

d. Democratic administration delegates duties.

e. Democratic administration refers to the group all matters that concern the group.

2. Democracy respects the dignity and worth of the individual.

a. Democracy respects the personality of every individual.

b. Democracy believes in the improvability of all men.

c. Democratic education makes efficient use of personnel, teaching respect for competence in positions of responsibility.

3. Democracy believes in the superiority of the intelligence of the group.

a. Democratic education liberates and uses the intelligence of all.

b. Democracy assumes that adults are capable of being influenced by reason.
c. Democracy appeals to reason rather than force to secure its ends.

d. Democracy recognizes a desire on the part of the people to govern themselves and a willingness to assume responsibility for doing so.

e. Democracy believes that decisions concerning policies made by the pooled judgment of the maximum number of interested and informed individuals are in the long run the wisest.

f. Democratic administration knows how to utilize the experiences of others.

4. Democracy provides opportunities for the maximum development of the individual.

   a. Democratic education uses democratic methods in all educational procedures.

   b. Democratic education equips citizens with the materials of knowledge needed for democratic efficiency.

   c. Democracy extends into every realm of human endeavor.

   d. Democracy furnishes an environment in which every individual can be stimulated to exert himself to develop his own personality, limited only by the similar rights of others.

   e. Democracy encourages individual initiative.
Economic Principles

There is no doubt that any educational program should be economically sound. Since our educational institutions are supported financially by the people, they have a right to know that any part of the program is based on sound economic principles, and that their money is not being wasted.

Our complete economic system is based on exchange. One item is exchanged for another. It might be produce for currency, or it might be money for ideas; but, regardless of what is involved in the exchange, the value received should at least equal value spent. This principle is so obvious that it needs no further substantiation. Any expenditure should be considered in the light of its permanent benefits. An expenditure might be justified even though the benefits lasted only a short time, but the value of the benefits would be decreased. So, other things being equal, the value of a program increases in proportion to the durability of the benefits derived from the program.\(^{30}\) It is also important to consider each item in the light of its relation to the total program. The intrinsic value of any phase of a program may not be so great when taken alone, but it may be of great importance when considering the program as a whole. It may be the foundation of the program, the very basis of the whole structure. On the other hand, one phase of the program may be important, but the need for it may not be as pressing as for some other phase of the program, so the total program must

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\(^{30}\) R. Mott, Principles of School Administration, p. 164.
always be considered.

The unit cost of a program should be as low as that of any other program from which similar results were derived. Of course the results would determine the value of the program, and a program would not be successful unless desirable results were achieved. If other things were equal, then the least expensive program would be the wisest choice.

The expenditure should be logically justifiable. Any phase of the school expenditures should be such that it could be justified on the basis of "common sense". There are many factors involved in school finance, and regardless of whether an expenditure complies with the other principles of sound economy, it should be tested by the criterion of logical judgment.

In the light of the previous discussion of sound economy, the following principles will be set up by which in-service training program can be measured as to its economic soundness.

1. Value received should at least equal money expended.

2. Any expenditure should be considered in the light of its lasting benefits.

3. Each item of service must be considered in the light of its relation to the total program.

4. The unit cost of a program should compare favorably with the cost of other means of achieving similar results.

5. If other things are equal, then the least expensive is the wisest choice.

6. The expenditure should be logically justifiable.
CHAPTER III

TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS

The purpose of this chapter is to determine the general types of in-service teacher training programs that are in use at the present time. This will be done by examining the programs as presented in books, bulletins, and periodicals.

Some form of training designed to improve teachers after they have begun teaching has been practiced for many years. "Most of the agencies now offering improvement programs trace their beginnings to one or more of three definite movements: the teacher institute, correspondence instruction and extension, and educational supervision."\(^1\) In 1839 the first institute was held in Hartford, Connecticut. Part of the day was spent in oral instruction and written subjects connected with teaching, and part of the day was spent in visiting the "best schools" in Hartford. From this beginning the movement grew rapidly. In 1847 in New York the expenses for the institute were furnished by the state. By 1920, institutes were held in the majority of the states.

\(^1\)This quotation and the following historical facts are taken from L. J. Lins, "Origin of Teacher Improvement in the United States", Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 35, May 1945.
During the twenties, however, the movement began to die down. Summer normals began to take the place of the institutes.

Another phase of the teacher training program which had its beginning in 1878, was that of the reading circles. The idea was to form societies for the purpose of professional reading. Some of the circles issued diplomas or certificates upon the completion of certain prescribed reading lists. This idea spread until by 1920, thirty-seven states had organized reading circles.

Correspondence and extension courses are the earliest forms of training services that are in existence today to any important extent. The University of Chicago began giving correspondence courses in 1892. The extension movement began in England and was brought to America in 1873. University extension courses were first offered at Columbia University in 1894, and the report of extension activities for that year was considerably different from that of recent years. There were many observers in 1900, who believed that the extension movement was a complete failure and could not be justified. There were criticisms that the "University on wheels" was consuming so much time and energy of the staff that its major work at home was being neglected. Professors, with promising careers, were being sacrificed to mass education. But regardless of the objections, the extension movement continued. Both extension and correspondence courses have increased
rapidly since 1910. Both of these are used at the present time as a means of aiding teacher improvement.

Teachers' meetings have long been a device used to improve the teacher in service. The procedures followed in the teachers' meeting vary considerably. A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton gave a list of principles for organizing the teachers' meeting.

1. The topic or series of topics should deal with live issues with which the group is vitally concerned.
2. Invite and secure teacher participation in planning and administering the program.
3. A mimeographed brief should be mailed out in advance to those who will be present.
4. Only teachers vitally interested should be asked to attend.
5. A summary of the discussion which took place at the meeting might be prepared and sent to those who attended.
6. Provisions should be made for the expression of opinion from the audience.
7. The meeting may be in charge of a superintendent, principal, or supervisor or outside speaker who is not only expert in the subject under discussion, but who also has the gift of popular exposition.
8. The meeting should be thoroughly planned and administered.
9. Meetings should not be used for routine administrative purposes.
10. Teachers meetings as a rule should not be held after school, when time is short and everyone is tired.
11. The meeting should end with a summary plus a look to the future.

These suggestions were not typical of the average teachers' meeting; however, they do show a trend of thought of the

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progressive education of that time. This was written in 1926. There are in general about two types of teachers' meetings. In one the main purpose is to explain procedures of the general school work or administrative regulations. The other type is the study meeting in which the main purpose is to study some topic or series of topics. Many meetings are a combination of these two, and there are varying degrees between these two. The modern trend is toward the study type with less formalism and more participation by all included in the group.

As the newer philosophy of education is accepted, teacher's meetings must change from the formal, stilted meetings where the teachers are called together for routine business, assignments, or to listen to a lecture by a college professor, to meetings at which mutually interested people gather to discuss common problems, pool experiences, study and work out needs together. Supervisors are holding conferences with teachers much as teachers are holding conferences with children, and children are holding conferences with each other. Teacher groups as well as student groups seek the help of specialists outside of the school walls as needed.\footnote{Newer Instructional Practices of Promise, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, pp. 333-334.}

Thomas H. Briggs lists a number of purposes of the modern teachers' meeting.

1. To integrate the faculty and to coordinate their work.
2. To insure that all teachers realize the problem and the challenges of the school.
3. To develop morale.
4. To develop general principles of education and to secure a sincere expression of approval of them.
5. To plan for the application of general principles in all teaching.
6. To resolve the issues of secondary education and to ascertain the implications of the preferred alternatives.

7. To clarify the special functions of the school and to plan that they may be skillfully achieved.

8. To get all teachers to work together to achieve important objectives of the school.

9. To gain understanding of new movements and to plan to use what is proved good.

10. To renew interest and faith in old doctrines and practices that are good, leading the teachers to realize why they are good.

11. To report on unusually successful and promising practices and devices, leading to wider use.

12. To reward merit by recognition and praise.

13. To capitalize skills and enthusiasms.

14. To secure by all teachers understanding and appreciation of the special functions and contributions of each subject.

15. To get help from the group meeting as a clearing house.

16. To get and give understanding of local conditions and to plan in the light of them.

17. To exchange information leading to a better understanding of individual pupils.

18. To prepare to inform and unify the pupils and the community regarding the program and policies of the school.

19. To encourage and to direct professional growth by teachers.

20. To reveal teaching difficulties, especially of teachers undertaking new types of work, and to plan for overcoming them.

21. To initiate other types of supervision and to make teachers receptive to them.

22. To acquaint teachers with the purposes of the individual supervisory conferences.

23. To exemplify the principles of good teaching.

24. To impart genuine inspiration.5

This gives some idea of the type of teachers' meeting advocated by modern educators, although, the majority of teachers' meetings do not accomplish these purposes.6

5T. H. Briggs, Improving Instruction, pp. 413–430.

A little different type of training program is found in the modern workshop. The workshop is based on practices found in the early period of American educational history, but the actual program began about 1932. In the spring of 1932, Ohio State University offered the first college course to take on the characteristics of a workshop. The program was in the form of a seminar in elementary education. Through this seminar a plan was developed for discerning trends, collecting representative materials, and organizing them. During the same year, George Peabody College for Teachers established a program which was based on the characteristics of the workshop.7

For the next four years very little publicity was given the workshop movement, but it did continue as a more or less experimental place of training. The first formal and widely publicized workshop in the United States was established at the University of Ohio in 1936. Some thirty-five teachers came together at the University for six weeks in the summer of 1936. These teachers were carefully selected by the members of the study staff and by local school authorities. In preparation for this workshop, each of the teachers was asked to describe a professional problem or interest to which he would like to devote his attention during the six weeks. The curriculum consultants of the Eight-year Study, the

7John E. Brewton, "The Peabody Curriculum Laboratory", p. 16.
Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, the Adolescent Study, and the Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Educational Association, all joined together to aid in the work of this program. During the first summer only mathematics and science teachers were invited to the workshop. The reason for this limitation was because the science and mathematics committees of the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum were farthest advanced in their work and thus able to make greater contributions to the teachers in these fields. While a measure of direct assistance was given to teachers in the development of their specific interests and in the solution of immediate professional problems, participants were exploited by committees for criticism and revision of the tentative reports on the function of science and mathematics in general education. However, this opportunity to share in the formulation of a new approach proved to be an exciting and valuable enterprise. It resulted in much thought and discussion on the basic problems of educational philosophy and in general clarification of the concept of adolescent needs as related to the science curriculum and mathematics curriculum.  

The following year another workshop was carried on by the University of Ohio. This program was changed some from the previous program. In the fields of science, particularly,  

the report of the committee had reached by this time such a stage of completion that it was no longer a common enterprise binding together the interests of the participants. In fact it was "dangerously akin to a textbook which they first had to learn and then apply to their own problems."\(^9\) This is not what the participants had been led to expect. They had come with local problems on which they wanted assistance, and they opposed placing these problems in a minor position. Finally the staff agreed "not to introduce materials except as they became directly useful in working on the problems of the participants. Thus the staff and students were learning to work together in a new relationship."\(^10\)

Another change or element introduced into the workshop program was illustrated in the program of the Sarah Lawrence College. The somewhat isolated environment of the Sarah Lawrence College Campus, the opportunity for everyone to live and dine on the campus, and the many provisions for group enjoyment of leisure hours, all encouraged informal as well as formal association of students and staff, and of students with one another. It was soon recognized that learning was taking place at the breakfast table as well as in the conference room or library, and that the variety of associations was adding to the enrichment of the personal as well as the professional life of the student.\(^11\)

\(^9\)Ibid., p. 5.  
\(^10\)Ibid., p. 5.  
\(^11\)Ibid., p. 7.
In the evolution of the workshop movement the trends seem to be from a staff-planned program to a program planned by the participants; from a college-sponsored program to a program sponsored by the public schools; from subject-matter problem to real-living problems; from a few participants to many participants; from a program with one or few problems to a program with a variety of problems. Briefly summarizing the workshop programs as they operate at present, the following characteristics are observed:

1. The problems discussed are those suggested by the participants.

2. Everyone in the workshop is active in the development of the program.

3. The discussions are informal and both staff and pupils take part in them.

4. The program progresses through the work of committees, who work on various phases of the problem or problems.

5. Expert consultants are furnished when needed.

6. The committees are organized on a voluntary basis, and each committee selects its own chairman.

7. The sponsor of the program merely acts as a coordinator.

There is another type of training procedure that is being used at present by a number of school systems. This is usually termed the cooperative study. The following
example was practiced in Lawrence, Kansas in 1934.12 The Superintendent was responsible for the beginning of the study. During the preceding spring term, several of the teachers had expressed dissatisfaction with the present system of school marks, so with the beginning of the fall term, a committee was appointed to study this problem and make recommendations regarding it. This study lasted for one semester, and then the committee reported to the faculty and made recommendations regarding the marking system. These recommendations were acted upon. The next semester the social studies department began a study of itself. They believed the subject matter was too rigid. After studying the matter for several weeks, it became evident that the problem was bigger than subject matter alone. Interest was gradually shifted to the child. Other departments began to become interested in this type of study. By the next fall the teachers had seen the value of cooperative study and requested the formation of study groups. By this time it was thought best to include all the teachers in the study. There were twenty-eight teachers. They were divided into four groups. The groups wanted to study real practical problems.

Later examples of this type of practice were carried out through the sponsorship of the Commission on Teacher Education.

of the American Council on Education.\textsuperscript{13} This commission selected schools, both large and small, from every section of the United States. The programs were carried on by the schools themselves, but there were field coordinators who were made available to the schools upon request. As example of this type of program, the project as carried on in the schools of Houston, Texas, will be described.\textsuperscript{14}

Three committees were formed; one each for the elementary, junior high, and senior high levels. Under these committees, divisional subcommittees were made up of principals, assistant principals, supervisors, and classroom teachers. The general program tended to follow this plan:

1. An inventory of present practices.
2. Formulation of a number of specific problems from the results of the inventory.
3. Consolidation and shifting of these problems by the subcommittees into compact lists for each level of the school system.
4. Resubmission of the appropriate list to each school faculty for review and for formation of permanent study groups on a voluntary basis.
5. Each study group was to work as intensively as possible on its selected problem, but was to use its own method of attack.

\textsuperscript{13} C. E. Prall and C. Leslie Cushman, \textit{Teacher Education in Service}, pp. \textsuperscript{14}40-60.

\textsuperscript{14} Ibid., p. 57-72.
6. Upon completion of several months of intensive study, the findings on a few problems would be pooled and shared with a view of formulating reports and recommending means for their solution.

Some of the problems studied by the committee were:

1. Homeroom problems
2. Activity periods
3. Auditorium programs
4. Better guidance
5. Improvement of pupils' reading
6. Dramatics
7. Cheating
8. Improving the health of pupils

Another example of this type of program was given by David M. Trout in *The Education of Teachers*. The program begins in the spring, at which time teachers are asked to submit a list of school problems that they think need to be studied. When these problems are listed, teachers are asked to evaluate their significance on a three point scale, as very important, of some importance, and of no importance. On the basis of the judgment of the total group, six or eight problems are selected and committees are organized to study them. Teachers are assigned to committees on the

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basis of their interest. The teachers meet for one week following the close of school and one week immediately preceding the opening of school. They are paid extra for these two weeks of work. Attendance at these conferences is required.

Once a committee starts working on one of these problems, it continues until the problem has been satisfactorily completed. Some problems can be completed in a short time, while others require a year or more. The deliberations, findings, and recommendations of the committees are reported to the entire faculty at its semi-monthly meetings and action is taken on the committee reports by the whole faculty. No one person makes decisions. Some problems require considerable deliberation and discussion by the whole faculty before it makes final decisions.

When outside talent is used, the guest functions as a resource person rather than as a speaker or lecturer. Sometimes when the problems demand the services of a specialist, arrangements are made for an extension course with a nearby university. This course operates as a workshop rather than as a classroom. There are no lectures, pre-assigned readings, or other characteristics of the typical classroom. Examinations and tests are eliminated even though graduate credit is sometimes given. The content of the course is determined by the demands of the problems. There seem to be four major elements in a program of this nature.
1. Teachers define the nature of the activity.
2. Teachers make major decisions.
3. Teachers receive adequate recognition.
4. Teachers participate in the administration of the school.

In general the cooperative study tends to follow the same procedures of organizing and conducting the program as that of the workshop. Through this brief description of two or three programs in operation, the general nature of this type of in-service training program can be seen.

There are some other schools that not only use cooperatively planned and organized study programs to encourage teacher growth and development, but they believe that the individual develops as a whole, so they promote activities that they believe will develop the personal, professional, and social nature of the teacher.16 These activities generally fall under the following headings:

1. Improving the physical health of the teacher.
2. Improving the economic security of the teacher.
3. Individual aid.
   a. Conferences
   b. Intra-school and inter-school visitation.
5. Participation in professional associations.

16 *In-Service Growth of School Personnel*, Department of Elementary School Principals.
Louis Braun gave an account of some things that were being done in Denver, Colorado, to improve the physical health of the teaching staff.\footnote{Ibid., pp. 465-469.}

1. Health examinations are required of all entering teachers.

2. Periodic health examinations are encouraged.

3. Five days sick leave with full pay are allowed each year. This is cumulative.

4. The Colorado Education Association sponsors hospitalization plans in which the teachers participate.

5. Recreational activities such as dancing, bowling, volleyball, fishing, picnics, musical activities, and other mediums of relaxation are provided.

Helen P. Armstrong gives a list of activities sponsored by the Syracuse Teachers Association. These activities included bowling, gardening, volleyball, basketball, badminton, ice skating, swimming, archery, trap shooting, bicycling, and hiking.\footnote{Ibid., pp. 460-461.}

Emma K. Akin describes a very successful faculty chorus from the schools of Drumright, Oklahoma.\footnote{Ibid., p. 463.}

In the way of establishing economic security, the schools probably have a long way to go. Some things are being done toward that end. Increments for tenure and advanced college units are common practices in many schools. The basic salaries
have been increased, and salary schedules have been set up that are designed to encourage professional development. One example of this type of practice was given by W. Felix Werner of Santa Monica Junior College, Santa Monica, California.\textsuperscript{20} The teachers, administrators, and school board worked together in working out a salary schedule.

1. $100 is added for 28 units of credit beyond the four-year college training. $200 for 50 units, and $300 for a Doctor’s degree.

2. Increases based on salary-credit points received from six groups of activities.
   a. Self-improvement activities such as attendance at forums and lectures; research, art, or literary work; college or university teaching during the summer; technical work in art, music, or special subjects.
   b. College or university credits.
   c. Foreign or domestic travel.
   d. Sabbatical leave.
   e. Work on educational committees, participation in educational organizations, extra-curricular activities.
   f. Service work in the community.

A sound basis for tenure and adequate retirement allow-

\textsuperscript{20}Ibid., pp. 447-450.
ances are lacking in most states.\textsuperscript{21}

Individual conferences serve as an opportunity for orienting the new teacher so that she has a better understanding of the school and will feel more secure in her position.\textsuperscript{22} For teachers who are not new to the system, the individual conference is an opportunity to aid the teacher in the solution of her immediate problems and to give recognition and encouragement.

The teacher should become a part of the community in which she lives.\textsuperscript{23} "For many teachers the way to service lies not in spectacular campaigns but in the support and leadership of projects for human betterment within local communities."\textsuperscript{24} A number of programs involving a survey of community resources; a community school improvement club; leading a community forum; and other similar teacher-community activities were set forth in \textit{In-Service Growth of School Personnel}.\textsuperscript{25}


\textsuperscript{23}L. A. Averill, \textit{Mental Hygiene for the Classroom Teacher}, p. 141.

\textsuperscript{24}Morale for a Free World, American Association of School administrators, p. 250.

Some educators believe that many benefits are derived from belonging to organizations such as teacher associations. "An organization with an alert and active membership and with a wise and responsive leadership is quite effective in enlarging the usefulness of its members and in achieving its general purposes." Edward Keener, principal of John Hay School, Chicago, Illinois, gives an example of teachers working together in the study of such problems as salary schedules, tenure, methods of tax assessment and collection, and other problems of that nature through the local unit of the Illinois Education Association. There are many such opportunities existing for the teachers to work through local, state, and national organizations.

There is one other item that needs to be considered. It is what D. A. Prescott calls the "conditions of employment". "It is common knowledge that many young persons, if they are ever to find employment as teachers, must sign contracts which force them to accept conditions that deny them normal human rights." Here he has reference to prohibitions to normal activities contributing to well-adjusted individuals. Marriage and certain types of social activities are forbidden in many places.

In community after community throughout the country this repressive public opinion narrows the activities

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26 Ibid., p. 481.  
27 Ibid., pp. 482-483.  
permitted to teachers until they find it difficult to make themselves sufficiently interesting and attractive to hold desirable young men. But even when young teachers capture the love of eligible young men, they are not permitted to marry in a great many communities. . . . By this conscious policy, thousands of young teachers are condemned as long as they remain in the profession either to the frustration of normal love or to dangerous illicit extra-marital relationships. Certainly, this is not a healthy situation for teachers who are in it, and the natural result is to drive the most capable, attractive, and poised personalities out of the profession permanently.\textsuperscript{29}

Prescott goes on to mention a number of things that must be considered before the profession can be improved.

1. Are the demands of the profession overly fatiguing?
2. Do teachers make adequate provisions for rest and sleep?
3. Does the profession allow for normal biological functioning by encouraging marriage?
4. Are there adequate opportunities for recreation open to members of the profession?
5. Are teachers normally in the situation of receiving and giving affection?
6. Do teachers have opportunity and freedom to achieve belongingness in the various social groupings adapted to their interests and abilities?
7. Are teachers marked or stamped as different by their professional life?
8. Do teachers enjoy financial and occupational security and freedom from worry?
9. Do teachers have the opportunity for a full, rich experience of life, adequate to bring them to realistic thinking and evaluating?
10. Do teachers have the freedom to exercise initiative and creative thinking in their profession to the point that they have a sense of personal worth based on the recognized value of the social roles they are playing?\textsuperscript{30}

Summary

In this chapter the following programs have been discussed and explained:

\textsuperscript{29}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 255.  \textsuperscript{30}\textit{Ibid.}, pp. 253-254.
1. Instructional programs
   a. Correspondence and extension courses
   b. Teachers meetings
   c. Workshops
   d. Cooperative studies

2. Personal and professional programs
   a. Improving the physical health of the teachers
   b. Improving the economic security of the teachers
   c. Bettering the "conditions of employment"
   d. Individual aid
   e. Administrative participation
   f. Community participation
   g. Participation in professional associations
CHAPTER IV

APPLICATION OF CRITERIA

The purpose of this chapter is to take the programs set up in Chapter III and evaluate them by the criteria set up in Chapter II. In the process of evaluation, the place for the various phases of the program should be determined.

It is necessary to make some explanation of some of the phases of the program, since in some cases a program will vary from one extreme to the other. The soundness of any program falling between the two extremes depends on the extent to which it approaches the sound program. Correspondence courses are rather rigid, but extension courses vary considerably. One type of extension course is rather liberal and flexible, but this type will be considered under cooperative studies. The other type is set up according to set college requirements and courses of study. This traditional type of course will be the one referred to in this division as the extension course. Teachers meetings also vary considerably in methods and procedure. In general terms, the cooperative study and the workshop are just teachers meetings, but due to the procedure involved, they are considered separately. The teachers meeting will refer to the meeting where the
principal or superintendent calls the teachers together to explain teachers' duties, organization, and problems of like nature.

The in-service program will first be measured by the psychological criteria. The first criterion is rather significant to this problem.

The organism develops as a whole. If this principle is accepted, the training program must include every phase of the individual's development. The instructional program alone would not be sufficient, but the program must be concerned with the mental and physical health of the teacher. According to this criterion, the physical health of the teacher, economic security, conditions of employment, community participation, participation in professional associations, and participation in school administration are at least things that must be considered in setting up a well rounded program of teacher training.

Learning tends to be greater when based on the learners' interest and when centered around problems of immediate concern. Any course that is set up to meet general needs rates low according to this criterion, so correspondence and extension courses would not rate very high. During the course the interest of the learner might be reached, but it is not based on that interest; neither is it centered around the immediate problems of the learner. The teachers meeting gets a little closer to the interests of the teachers, but in many
cases the meeting deals with routine matters that could be brought to the attention of the teachers in other ways. Workshops and cooperative studies generally have no prescribed course of study or fixed starting place, so they are free to begin with the learners' interest, and the learners' interests are generally centered around immediate problems. In so doing, the program develops out of the experience of the learner, and so it is more nearly psychologically sound on the basis of this criterion than the teachers meeting, the correspondence course, or the extension course.

**Learning proceeds more rapidly and tends to be more permanent when it involves both physical and mental activity on the part of the learner.** Again the correspondence or extension course is very limited in its opportunities for varied activities either of a physical or mental nature. The teachers meeting affords a little more opportunity for varied activities. The workshop and cooperative study offers many opportunities for varied activities arising out of the interests of the teachers as they progress with the program.

**The intensity of the learning experience is increased in proportion to the extent to which the learning is satisfying the needs of the learner.** One of the problems here is to determine where each phase of the program fits in regard to the level of needs as set up here. Physiological needs would certainly include physical health. In order to improve the health of the teacher many devices would have to
be used. Health examinations by a competent physician, time for rest and relaxation, recreation varying to meet each individual's needs, and other similar things should be included here. Some things discussed under conditions of employment are physiological needs. Marriage is a physiological need of most people, or at least it satisfies a basic biological urge.

On the next level is the need for a feeling of safety and security. Economic security would certainly be one of the first on this list. Occupational security and social security are very important to the individual. Social security here refers to the individual's desire to feel secure within his own group, or that he has a stable place in his own group. Personal safety would fall in this level of needs.

On the third level is the need of love from others. This need can be realized best through wholesome family relationships. If there are restrictions that prohibit such relationships, then the program is failing to provide for all of the needs of the individual. Of course this need is satisfied to some extent through close friends, relatives, pupils, and other associates.

Self-confidence and self-esteem are on the fourth level. Individual conferences are used many times to build up self-confidence in the teacher. Participation in administrative activities causes the teacher to feel more confident of her ability and more secure in her position. Teachers meetings
offer opportunities for the recognition of outstanding work, and recognition leads to self-confidence. Bettering the conditions of employment aids in satisfying the needs on this level. There are some conditions that surround the teaching profession that have a tendency to destroy the esteem and self-confidence of the teacher. Participation in community affairs helps to build up confidence and self-esteem; however, it also aids in satisfying the needs of the fifth level.

Participation in community affairs might be the result of an individual's striving for self-realization. If the individual's needs on the lower levels have been satisfied, then he begins to seek self-realization through professional growth, participating in professional associations, and things of that nature. Now since he is ready for professional growth, he is ready for professional reading and study. Here is where the workshops and cooperative studies should fit into the program. Even though these procedures offer opportunities for satisfaction of needs on the lower levels, they will be more successful when the needs of the lower levels are being satisfied.

Learning is more rapid when materials are organized into meaningful relationships. This criterion has implications for the organization of any of the phases of the program. Abstract subject matter courses are generally not meaningful to the learner.
The relationship between what is being experienced and the welfare of the learner should be seen by the learner. Workshops and cooperative studies rate much higher here than teachers meetings and correspondence and extension courses, due to the fact that they are built around problems of the learner, and if the learning experience is helping him to solve his everyday problems, he can naturally see that his welfare is being promoted.

Opportunities must be provided to discover proper means to ends desired. This principle must be considered in organizing any phase of the program. It could also apply to the program as a whole, and here it would imply that the school is responsible for providing those opportunities, since the school is responsible for the whole program.

The learning experience must be satisfying and the result of the learning experience must also be satisfying. Correspondence and extension courses might result in some satisfaction through a raise to a different salary bracket, or there might be some feeling of accomplishment; but not only must the result be satisfying, but the learning experience itself must be satisfying. Very few of this type of courses are satisfying in the experience itself. Teachers meetings rate very little above correspondence and extension courses. Individual conferences can be satisfying if they are carried on with the teacher's interests in mind at all times. The highest rating on this principle is that of the
workshops and cooperative studies. Through these mediums the teacher has an opportunity to exchange ideas with other teachers and to establish themselves as leaders within their own groups. Group projects are generally more satisfying than individual projects, for they offer opportunities for the satisfying of the social urge. This type of program is flexible and leaves the teachers more freedom in controlling and directing the program; all of which increases the satisfaction derived from the program. There are a number of other things that would make the result more satisfying. More recognition for professional work of this kind, greater financial compensation for participation, and increased professional status are a few means of increasing satisfaction resulting from the experience.

Learning tends to be more permanent as a result of exercise, if the exercise is meaningful to the learner. Any learning experience should provide opportunity for meaningful exercise in order to increase the permanency of the learning.

Learning tends to be more successful in proportion to the recency of the learning to the response. Things should be learned in connection with their use. According to this, the program should center around present problems, for then the learning will be used immediately.

Democracy guarantees the right of participation by the group in things pertaining to the group. Workshops and
cooperative studies give the teachers a chance to participate in the instructional program as both leaders and followers, but they do not necessarily grant the right to help form general school policies and procedures. Democracy believes that the individual grows best and most by exercising his right to share in making decisions on policy, so participation in the school administration must be part of the in-service training program. One of the greatest disadvantages of the teachers meetings as referred to here is that the teachers have no opportunity to help in planning or administering the meeting. Correspondence and extension courses provide very few opportunities for the learners to help in determining the nature of the course, or the procedure of the course.

Democracy respects the dignity and worth of the individual. This principle insures fair treatment of the individual. If all men are capable of improving, it is the responsibility of the administration to provide opportunities conducive to that improvement. The total program must be so arranged to provide opportunities for the efficient use of personnel. If the training program includes only the instructional phases, there are fewer opportunities for the recognition of leadership, and for assuming responsibilities than if the program included all phases of individual growth and development. No one phase would be sufficient in itself to meet this criterion; although a phase like the cooperative study would provide more opportunities than the teachers.
meeting or the correspondence course.

**Democracy believes in the superiority of the intelligence of the group.** This principle justifies teachers participating in school administration. According to this principle, the school program will be more successful if the judgment of the group is utilized in the formation of policies and controls. In order to achieve the maximum success, each phase of the program must utilize the intelligence of the group, and any phase of the program that is too rigid to make provisions for the use of group judgments, is not democratically sound.

**Democracy provides opportunities for the maximum development of the individual.** It is the responsibility of the school to provide these opportunities. The maximum development of the individual can not be achieved unless the program provides opportunities for development of every phase of the individual. This principle would tend to justify including in the program a variety of activities that would satisfy the needs of the individual on each level. Materials of knowledge must be furnished and opportunities for the development of individual initiative. Any one phase of the program is lacking in a variety of opportunities; however, some phases provide more opportunities than others. The democratically controlled cooperative study provides more opportunities for the development of leadership and initiative than the teachers meetings or the extension course. The recreational program, participation in community affairs, professional associations, and
administrative participation provides opportunities that are not provided in any of the instructional programs, so every phase of human development must be included.

**Value received should at least equal money expended.** A program may not cost much, and yet the value received from the program may be so small that it would exceed the money expended. On the other hand, a program which cost a large amount, might result in so much value to the school that it would be economically sound. A correspondence course would cost the school far less than the workshop, but the value received from each would have to be considered before it could be determined which was the more economical. A program including instructional, personal, and professional development would certainly cost more than the instructional phase alone, but if the value received was great enough, it would be more economical.

**Any expenditure should be considered in the light of its lasting benefits and in the light of its relation to the total program.** Any successful training program should produce more than immediate benefits. Any one phase of the program may not be justified economically when considered by itself, but when its relation to the total program is considered, it may be economically sound.

**The unit cost of a program should compare favorably with the cost of other means of achieving similar results.** It is
always wise to make comparisons of unit costs, but the results of each must be similar if the cost comparison is to be meaningful. If other things are equal, then the least expensive is the wisest choice. In comparing the various units of this program with each other, it is easy to see that some units would cost less than others, but the less expensive may not be able to produce results as desirable as those of the more expensive units.

The expenditure should be logically justifiable. When the program is justified by other economic criteria, then the principle of prudential soundness should be applied. Can the program be justified by common sense practices? This principle has to be applied through a consideration of all activities, procedures, and results of the program.
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter the in-service program previously set up will be considered in the light of its evaluation by the criteria set up in Chapter II, and certain conclusions will be reached based on this evaluation. Growing out of these conclusions, certain recommendations will be made. The total of these conclusions and recommendations should result in a sound in-service training program for teachers.

Conclusions

Any phase of the program is insufficient when considered by itself, for it takes the total program to develop the total individual; however, some phases are much stronger than others. The correspondence and extension course, as described here, do not seem to fit into the modern program of in-service training. Teachers meetings could be used to a limited extent. Workshops and cooperative studies are sound when they develop out of the needs of the individual. It was found that the instructional program alone would not result in the maximum development of the individual, but provisions must be made for the personal development of the individual. The
following are some general conclusions regarding the training program:

1. The program must provide activities that will allow the individual to develop all phases of his personality.

2. All factors influencing the total development of the individual should be considered.

3. The program should be flexible, and any phase of it that is not flexible should be eliminated.

4. The total program should be cooperatively planned and controlled by the teachers and the administrative officials of the school.

5. Each phase of the program should be developed as the need arises and should be an outgrowth of those needs.

6. The program should be broad enough to satisfy the needs of the individual on each level.

Next will be given the level of needs as set up in the criteria with the various phases of the program that satisfy each level of needs.

First level, physiological needs.

1. Physical examinations and medical aid should be available.

2. A varied program of recreation should be provided.

3. Opportunities for marriage should be provided.
Second level, need for a feeling of safety and security.

1. Teachers should be given adequate financial compensation.
2. Provisions should be made for occupational security.
3. Opportunities for group security should be available.

Third level, need for love from others.

1. Opportunities should be provided for normal family life.
2. Opportunities for having close friends should be provided.

Fourth level, self-esteem.

1. Opportunities for leadership in varied activities should be provided.
2. The teacher should be aided and encouraged through individual conferences.
3. Provisions should be made for teacher participation in school administration.

Fifth level, self-realization.

1. Opportunities should be provided for self-development through participation in school workshops and cooperative studies.
2. Participation in professional associations should be encouraged.
3. Opportunities should be provided for participation in community affairs.
4. Opportunities should be provided for participation in state and national affairs.

Recommendations

1. All obstacles to normal marital status should be eliminated.
2. Regular medical examinations and medical aid should be available when needed.
3. The recreational program should be varied enough to provide activities in which each individual is interested and in which each could participate.
4. Adequate salaries should be provided for qualified teachers.
5. Tenure regulations should be made that would guarantee the capable, efficient teacher occupational security.
6. Provisions should be made for social activities through which the teacher might develop a sense of "belongingness".
7. Any regulations which would prevent teachers from living normal family lives should be eliminated.
8. Any regulations which would prevent teachers from participating in normal social activities, or in any other way prevent them from living normal lives should be eliminated.
9. Individual conferences should be constructive rather than critical.
10. Teachers should be allowed to help in forming policies and setting up regulations.

11. Many opportunities should be provided in every phase of the training program for the development of initiative and leadership.

12. Time for the instructional phase of the training program should be scheduled as a regular part of the school program.

13. The instructional program should be based on the interests of the teachers.

14. The program should make provisions for cooperative group work as well as individual interests.

15. The content of the instructional program should grow out of the problems of the teachers.

16. Provisions should be made for putting into effect that which is learned.

17. Materials for the training program should be a regular part of the school budget.

18. Specialized advisors should be made available to the schools to aid in the program when called upon.

19. Colleges should give official recognition of work done in in-service training programs.

20. Salary schedules should be so arranged as to encourage professional growth and development.

21. Participation in the program should be voluntary.
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