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UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE

Guidance through the Curriculum
" in the
Elementary School

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty

Of the Graduate School of the University of Louisville

In Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree

Of Master of Arts

Department of Education

By

Jewell Marie Brown

Year

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In The Elementary School

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GUIDANCE THROUGH THE CURRICULUM IN THE
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

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INTRODUCTION

It is sometimes claimed that the elementary school curriculum does not attempt to consider the needs of the child as a secondary school student and to direct its functioning toward that goal. Another criticism often heard is that school products are not fitted for practical home, social, or vocational participation. As a teacher of the second grade in the New Albany, Indiana Public School System, it is my belief that guidance should play a vital part in the elementary school through the curriculum. The curriculum set forth in this philosophical study follows closely the program of the writer. In the ensuing discussion I shall attempt to show how a skillful elementary teacher will approach guidance directly with a curriculum of activities designed to give children the opportunity to learn to live by living.

At the elementary school level the child is developing those basic skills that will assist him in further mastery of educational content; he is becoming acquainted with the underlying principles that govern community life; he is learning to care for his physical and health needs; and finally, he is achieving habit patterns that will function to his advantage in all phases of his present and future living as an individual in a group of individuals.

The child craves activity and his learning must take the form of coordinated and desirably stimulated activity directed toward the realization of achievable and well-mastered goals. Consequently, the curriculum in the elementary school must provide for the satisfactory mastery of the skill subjects, the appreciation of social and civic interrelations, fundamental health practices and the development of habit patterns of behavior and attitude that will facilitate the learner's satisfactory

adjustment to his present environmental condition and his next level of educational progress.

The proponents of the activity program are interested in supplementing the formal curriculum by a deformed curriculum that aims to train the essential habits, knowledge, and attitudes through an emphasis upon individualization of instruction. They suggest that these aims be achieved by means of excursions, visual aids, conferences, dramatization, research, construction, interpretation, sharing and evaluation. Care must be exercised in any attempt at vitalizing the elementary school curriculum lest it become so activity stimulating that the activity itself becomes the major consideration. In order to be valuable, the activity of the learner must be motivated toward specific goals in a continuous and well mastered process without gaps in any phase of the learning and with sufficient thoroughness of production.

Any curriculum that is evolved should embody the following basic considerations: (a) a pragmatic philosophy of education, (b) a clear understanding of the fundamental objectives of education, (c) knowledge of the psychology of the educand, (d) recognition of modern life needs, (e) experimentation in the field of educational practices and procedures, and, (f) creative formulation and interpretation of curricular recommendations.

In the light of these basic considerations, the following are some of the significant principles of curriculum construction:

1. A recognition of the fact that
 - a. The good life is integrated
 - b. Learning is a creative process
 - c. Children are active for a purpose
 - d. Play and work must be interrelated

- e. Behavior develops into definite patterns through curriculum offerings
 - f. The ultimate goal of education is to develop individuals who constitute a good society
2. Establishment of specific aims and purposes through committee work
 3. Selection of committees from among all levels of school personnel and from among prominent and civic-minded citizens representing important community interests
 4. Motivation of committee members toward creative efforts and, as ideas are formulated, toward willingness to offer their evolving recommendations for criticism and classroom tryouts
 5. Appreciation of the fact that the evolved curriculum should -
 - a. Be functional in the lives of the individuals
 - b. Be based upon the needs of the learners
 - c. Motivate pupils toward a desire for learning
 - d. Be suited to the capacities of the learner
 - e. Provide for the integration of learning
 - f. Be flexible enough to allow for individual differences
 - g. Assist the learner to be independent and to comprehend the meaning of interdependence
 - h. Help the learner to understand man's relation to nature

The curriculum of the school of pioneer days was narrow and meager. The curriculum of the elementary schools of New York State at the beginning of the eighteenth century consisted of the ABC's, spelling, reading, writing, or 'copy work', arithmetic, some study of the Bible, and a vestige of grammar when the teacher was prepared to teach it. The curriculum was a reflection of the simple culture of the time, and of the few demands a rural, agrarian, individualistic society made of the schools. The political, social, and economic problems of that time were simple and quite static. The chief objective of the school was to develop

proficiency in the use of various tools of communication, not to develop social understanding.

Life in the United States has undergone many changes since that time. Our life has become urban and industrial. Life has had to adapt itself to mechanical inventions that control the processes of nature rather than to the cycle of nature itself. Our democratic society faces extremely difficult and complex political, social, and economic problems that are incident to a rapidly changing social order. We are undoubtedly passing from a period of extreme individualism to one of cooperative action.

These vast social, economic, and technological changes have affected the work of the school profoundly. It is the task of education to help the pupil to master the tools by which intellectual activity is carried on, to build in him an enlightened social intelligence, and to prepare him to participate effectively in the affairs of a changing, industrial, democratic society. The work of the school must, therefore, be more significantly integrated with life in the community.

The chief purpose of the school is to develop in its pupils the capacity for effective living in a dynamic, complex, democratic society. The end of the educative process is personal and social integration. By this we mean the development of individuals capable of effective participation in our society. If individuals are to live happy and worthwhile lives, they must develop ways of thinking and of acting in harmony with the needs of the social order in which they live.

A major responsibility of the school is to develop the ability to communicate. Educators may disagree as to the best method of developing this ability but there is general agreement that any individual living in

society is greatly handicapped if he cannot read fairly well, interpret radio and other talks with some degree of intelligence, and express himself articulately in oral and written form. This ability is essential to the welfare of the individual, to the furtherance of his occupational pursuits, and to the perpetuation of a democratic society.

The school, then, should attempt to guide and stimulate pupil growth along the lines needed in the performance of the activities and the functions which are essential to living as a member of a group and to developing fully as an individual. This means that the school must develop in the pupil realistic understandings of our society and those attitudes, appreciations, and abilities which insure intelligent action.

Individuals living in a democratic social order such as ours can participate effectively and intelligently in that order only as they develop those understandings, attitudes, appreciations, and abilities that are essential to carrying on their daily activities in a manner contributing to the individual and to society. These understandings must include, obviously, greater insight into their own interests and abilities. The chief purpose of the school is to provide a curriculum of experiences which will enable its pupils to perform better those functions of life they will be called upon to exercise as members of the community, the state, and the nation.

In order to appreciate how school subjects can contribute to the development of wholesome, self reliant personalities, we should keep certain objectives in mind. Probably the best known statement was developed by the Educative Policies Commission. (1)

(1) National Education Association of the United States, Educational Policies Commission: The Purposes of Education in American Democracy, Washington, D. C., 1938, pp. 201-220.

The Objectives of Self-Realization

1. The Inquiring Mind
 - The educated person has an appetite for learning
2. Speech
 - The educated person can speak the mother tongue clearly
3. Reading
 - The educated person reads the mother tongue efficiently
4. Writing
 - The educated person writes the mother tongue efficiently
5. Number
 - The educated person solves his problems of counting and calculating
6. Sight and Hearing
 - The educated person is skilled in listening and observing
7. Health Knowledge
 - The educated person understands the basic facts concerning health and disease
8. Health Habits
 - The educated person protects his own health and that of his dependents
9. Public Health
 - The educated person works to improve the health of the community
10. Recreation
 - The educated person is participant and spectator in many sports and other pastimes
11. Intellectual Interests
 - The educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure time
12. Aesthetic Interests
 - The educated person appreciates beauty
13. Character
 - The educated person gives responsible direction to his own life

The Objectives of Human Relationship

1. Respect for Humanity	- The educated person puts human relationships first
2. Friendships	- The educated person enjoys a rich, sincere, and varied social life
3. Cooperation	- The educated person can work and play with others
4. Courtesy	- The educated person observes the amenities of social behavior
5. Appreciation of the Home	- The educated person appreciates the family as a social institution
6. Conservation of the Home	- The educated person conserves family ideals
7. Homemaking	- The educated person is skilled in homemaking
8. Democracy in the Home	- The educated person maintains democratic family relationships

Children must be taught to share early in the responsible thinking and doing connected with their own affairs. They must learn to consider the social consequences of their acts. At the same time the school must seek to develop vital interests in its pupils that will insure continued and wholesome personal development. How then, can guidance in these areas be given through the curriculum in the elementary school?

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CHAPTER I

INFLUENCES AFFECTING THE CHILD'S LEARNING

Until recently, the elementary school was satisfied to teach the three "R's". The success of the school was determined by the number of children who could learn to read, write, and do arithmetic. The child who failed was allowed to leave school as soon as the attendance law permitted and to devote his energy to the learning of his father's trade or to another activity of his own choosing. The school accepted no responsibility for the social or vocational adjustment of such pupils. Children were expected to become law abiding citizens even though they had received little or no training in this field.

Many experimental techniques in social training have been tried, and a few have shown some value. However, since most of these techniques demand teachers with training quite different from traditional teacher preparation, progress has been slow.

The major objective of this relatively new outlook on education is as complete an understanding as is possible of the individual's drives, needs, and interests. All human behavior is motivated by one basic drive -- the drive to actualize oneself in the world according to one's potentialities. If the individual is successful in actualizing himself in the world, his basic human needs will be satisfied. If, however, he fails in this process of actualization, all energy may be devoted to the one area in which the child is frustrated. If he is to grow into a wholesome, well adjusted individual, the following needs must be satisfied:

1. Physiologically Originated Needs -

In order to survive the struggle for existence, certain fundamental needs are experienced by all human beings. These primary needs are food, shelter, and clothing. As human life becomes more complex, the achievement of these needs becomes more difficult. During the individual's years of dependence upon others for the satisfaction of these wants, his elders have the responsibility not

only of supplying present needs but also of helping the young person to prepare himself for the adequate satisfaction of these wants in his own adult living. His task will be made easier if the care and training given him in his early life are such that he is able later to continue for himself.

2. Safety Needs -

If the child is to secure mental and emotional adjustment, he must live in an orderly, predictable environment. If he knows that a certain type of behavior consistently arouses the anger of his elders and another type consistently rewards him with praise and approval, he will feel secure in his world because he will be able to foresee the consequences of his acts. On the other hand, if at one time a certain type of behavior is praised and another time rebuked, depending upon the emotional state of the parent or teacher, the result will be a confused, insecure individual.

3. Affection Needs -

Psychologically, the first thing that a child needs is affection. It is very important that he be born into a loving, kindly, friendly world. Denied love and affection in his early years, the child will fail to understand people, his social adjustment will be bad, and he will be unable to give affection. Various techniques may be adopted to get affection. These will be discussed later. Needless to say, too much affection may prove disastrous. These extremes may be witnessed in indulgence and domination:

- a. Indulgence - The child involved does not learn bargaining, self reliance, or the skills of handling people in a real world
- b. Domination - Affection may be used as a dominating device. The child, failing to learn to make his own decisions, develops feelings of inferiority. The child's prestige is seriously shaken when he is forced to do what he does not want to do

4. Self Respect; Esteem -

This is a fundamental urge in every individual; consequently, there is a tendency to avoid situations that in any way may threaten safety or security. A child likes to feel that he is liked and respected by his fellows.

5. Individuality -

As the individual grows and develops his method of expression, his patterns of behavior become unique. He is unwilling to accept established behavior patterns of parents, teachers, and other elders. He gains satisfaction in doing things his way.

6. Curiosity -

There is an ever-present urge to experience the new and different. Children have abundant opportunities to exercise this urge; yet, because so many of their activities are planned for them and carefully supervised, they often feel a frustration of this drive. If the child is given a chance, he will often do the very things that, as a result of his elders' overprotection, he thinks he dislikes to do. For example, he plays school and evolves rules that are more severe than the rules of an actual school. To deny him this activity would inhibit growth in imagination and at the same time would arouse conflicts since his interests lay in the fulfillment of this adventure.

The Influence of Emotions

Human beings pride themselves upon the fact that their behavior represents the activity of the intellect. However, observation of the ordinary activities of most individuals leads to the conclusion that many human responses are influenced by urges and compulsions. Quite often the urge or drive comes first, and the intellectual justification for it either follows or is almost completely absent. We must not minimize the effect of feelings, motives, and urges upon our behavior patterns.

An emotion is a dynamic internal adjustment that operates for the protection and welfare of the individual. It may give richness to his life, or, if the emotional state takes too great a hold on him, it may make him less rational.

As the individual develops through childhood and adolescence into adulthood, his emotions result in characteristic behavior that causes the recognition of them as fear, anger, disgust, grief, affection, and jealousy.

As he becomes more efficient in his ability to convey to others his true feelings, an evaluation of the emotional experience is made easier.

If these basic drives are thwarted in any way, there is aroused in the individual an effort to make adjustments that are as personally satisfying as possible at the time and under the prevailing conditions. If an individual's desires are blocked and he is unable to pursue another course of action, there is developed an inner disturbance that affects his mental and emotional life.

Neurotic behavior is often displayed by an individual in an attempt to compensate for the frustrations of realizing his needs. The teacher works and lives with pupils in the intimate relationships of the classroom and has many opportunities to observe behavior patterns among his pupils that may be indicative of slight or serious maladjustment. The following list of such maladjustments is presented by Symonds. (1)

1. Participating voluntarily in class only when directly questioned
2. Being always concerned about extraneous matters
3. Being constantly restless in study and easily distracted
4. Being frequently slow or tardy
5. Showing meticulous interest in details
6. Exhibiting anxiety over mistakes, omissions in work, or failure
7. Wanting to be conspicuous on public occasions
8. Constantly telling about personal exploits
9. Apologizing for self

(1) Symonds, Percival: Mental Hygiene and The School Child, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1940, p. 16.

10. Showing a tendency to solitariness
11. Going around generally with younger students
12. Absent-mindedness and day dreaming
13. Teasing, especially with the element of physical cruelty
14. Displaying undue honesty. Talking a great deal about this
15. Showing exaggerated courtesy
16. Scowling or otherwise wrinkling the forehead
17. Blushing or turning pale when called on to recite or when suddenly spoken to
18. Coughing or clearing the throat, especially before beginning to speak
19. Hysterical laughing or giggling
20. Possessing noticeable physical deformity

Every individual has his characteristic behavior patterns of conflicts. Thwarting of one or more of the basic needs forces the child to adopt a compensatory pattern of behavior. This behavior may be classified into eight patterns.

1. Schizoid — Dementia praecox (schizophrenia) is perhaps the most common form of mental disorder. The early symptoms of this mental disease are difficult to recognize. Many normal children exhibit behavior traits such as occasional resentment, suspicion, uncooperativeness, and a retreat into dream fulfillment of desire and ambitions. It is not always easy to determine whether the individual's behavior is a normal striving for self-realization or an abnormal inability to meet his problems.

Schizoid behavior is characterized by a seclusive type of behavior, by indifference, blunting of the emotions, and a belief that other persons are attempting to control the individual's behavior.

2. Manic — The manic phase, or the period of elation, is characterized by behavior that is overactive and restless. During this stage there are

exhibited increased pulse rate, flight of ideas, impulsive behavior, hallucinations, delusions, and illusions. The individual may be noisy and difficult to control.

3. Depressed -- The manic phase is immediately followed by the depressive, and vice versa. During the period of depression the patient displays an attitude of mental and physical insufficiency. Extreme depression may be accompanied by cloudiness of consciousness, retardation, and inhibition.
4. Paranoid -- The paranoid type is characterized by suspicion, delusions, and by ideas of persecution or grandeur, which are somewhat systematized and accompanied by hallucinations.
5. Hypochondriasis -- The hypochondriac person exhibits a morbid concern for his health and apparently suffers from diseases of which no organic bases are present. Such persons are usually unstable and are unduly responsive to certain body sensations. Consequently, they become so conscious of these possible symptoms of disease that mental disorders develop.
6. Hysterical -- This term is applied to manifestations of disease without an organic base. Some examples of this are fainting, convulsive behavior, paralysis, deafness, amnesia, and nausea, all of which can result from known organic diseases. However, individuals suffering from hysteria use these forms of behavior as means of resolving mental disturbances that have been caused by frustration of his desires or urges or by an emotionally aroused antipathy toward participation in expected activities.
7. Psychopathic Trend -- This trend is characterized by morbid fears (phobias), obsessions, doubts, and compulsions. Symptoms of emotional disturbance are manifested by persons placed in fear producing situations. The person who is suffering from a phobia may scream, perspire, tremble, faint, or run away. Emotional disturbance, restlessness, sleeplessness, and loss of appetite are behavior characteristics that often accompany an obsession and become more pronounced when they are associated with a compulsion. Phobias, obsessions, and compulsions are born of the environment. The individual is faced with emotion -- arousing situations with which he feels unable to cope. Nervous and emotional tensions develop and the individual is not helped early

enough to alleviate them.

8. Compulsive -- This is behavior which is continued by the individual because of a strong desire to do even though there is no real reason for the doing. In fact, the compulsion is usually illogical and unreasonable. The emotional tension is relieved only after the act has been performed. A child may wish to touch a dangerous object and, if he is restrained from doing so, may throw a tantrum. Among some of the common compulsions in children are touching or counting objects, stepping over cracks in the sidewalk, and imitating elders.

THE HOME

The home is the first and probably the most significant agent in the adjustment of any individual toward successful living. In his family relationships he develops adjustment patterns that are basic to his larger social interactions. In the close relationships of family life he gains a desirable understanding of individual rights and responsibilities. It is in the home that he first experiences his joys and his sorrows, his enthusiasms and his disappointments, his pities and his resentments.

It is generally accepted that the most potent of all influences on social behavior is derived from the primary social experience with the mother. If the mother maintains toward the child a consistent attitude of indifference and hostility, the child's personality will be greatly affected.

The parent-child relationship is influenced by such factors as inevitable differences in attitude, interests, and capabilities, resulting from age difference. Differing generations are likely to be different. Both the older and the younger members of a family must learn to recognize the presence of these differences and attempt as far as it is possible not only to bridge them but also to be tolerant of them. Parents and children,

especially in modern cities, tend to associate less with one another than was the practice in the past. The emphasis upon the democratic rights of young people; the smallness of families, which necessitates the children's seeking companions of their own generation outside the home; the decrease of family duties and chores as a result of increased mechanical inventions; the absence of the father from the home and the consequent responsibility of the mother for the rearing of the family, are all factors that may interfere with family solidarity as it was known in earlier days.

Parents and children must be helped to achieve an understanding of one another. The parent must earn the respect of his children by intelligent behavior based upon an understanding of child nature and of the ultimate values that can be achieved. Children must be helped in every way possible to recognize their relation to other members of the family and they must be taught to appreciate their own responsibility for the attainment of family harmony.

The gravity of parental responsibility is well expressed in these words of Alexander Pope — "Just as the twig is bent, the tree's inclin'd".

THE SCHOOL

The conventional age for entrance into the elementary school is six years. It is assumed, therefore, that a child is prepared during the next six years to continue a consistently normal adjustment as he is stimulated by the training that is afforded him by the generally accepted elementary school program.

The relative readiness or unreadiness of the six year old for elementary school entrance can be traced largely to the effect upon his growing

personality of the experiences of his early childhood. Entrance into elementary school is difficult for any child because of the break between the informal activities of the home, nursery school, or kindergarten and the more formalized routine and subjects of study to which the young child is exposed upon entrance into the first grade. If the child is physically weak or immature, if he is mentally slow, if he is emotionally uncontrolled, if he is socially insecure, he may become maladjusted at the very beginning of his school life.

If the child is to be successful in his new school environment, he must be emotionally and socially ready for the stimulation of this enlarged social group. Unless a child has attained a reasonable amount of independence from adult care, he will be embarrassed among his new school mates by his inability to perform such activities as dressing himself, traveling to and from school alone, expressing himself intelligently, and participating in the regular school routine of work and play.

During his first three years in the elementary school the child is introduced to the technique of learning habits. During these first school years the individual's learning, though different in degree of difficulty is similar to what will be expected of him later if he is to become a socially constructive member of society.

He needs to gain control of his developing body and therefore requires constant physical care and attention. He needs to adjust himself physically to school routine, to sit quietly without fidgeting, to participate in the physical activities of the classroom and the playground.

His growing mental abilities need stimulation. He is now beginning to acquire fundamental skills in reading, writing, arithmetic, reflective

and creative thinking and judgment, and social adaptation. The child is impelled toward definite patterns of behavior as a result of his maturing inner urges and needs. In a hygienically organized school environment he will be able to achieve desirable satisfaction of his motivations and potentialities.

The elementary school child requires opportunities for the realization of his emotional drives. He wants to give expression to his maturing personality. He wants to participate and compete in activities with his fellows. He wants to feel secure in the affections and respect of his associates as a result of his successful adjustments. The child's thinking and behavior are beginning to display a conscious striving for these social aims. They will continue to motivate him for the rest of his life.

This striving for social aims often carry the individual into an activity that may be pleasing to him but detrimental to the group. In order that the greatest satisfaction may be achieved by the largest number of persons, rules of behavior are constructed, which serve as guides for each member of the group. Good school discipline, however, involves more than conformity to a set of rules. It acts as a force for the development of attitudes and ideals, behavior habits, and moral values.

Good Discipline Basic for Proper Child Development

Since the child makes use of imitation in his effort to acquire desirable behavior patterns, it is extremely important that he be exposed to desirable forms of behavior. It is the responsibility of the teacher to provide this desirable environment so that the child may develop correct attitudes toward school rules and regulations as well as toward the teacher himself and other members of the group. The individual who is well disci-

plined is socially well adjusted. According to Klapper, "Discipline is the total influence of the school which seeks, first, to rationalize, and second, to habitualize social conduct."

Good discipline has for its purpose the development of individual adjustment and self control. Order cannot be used synonymously with discipline; yet discipline includes order, since the latter is a first requisite of good discipline. If a teacher exercises his authority in the classroom and if this authority is respected without question, the quiet that prevails may be referred to as order and is usually based upon fear that results from domination by the teacher or other school official.

On the other hand, good discipline implies the establishment of habits of behavior that function satisfactorily in any group situation, in school, or out of school. Good discipline is characterized by the development in children, through training, of the attitude of wanting to do that which is right with a minimum of direction. It is based upon an understanding of the principles of good conduct and upon respect for the rights of others, and it is so habitualized that it functions daily in the lives of the individuals so trained.

A class that is well disciplined is orderly, but it does not follow that a class that is orderly is well disciplined. In the development of well disciplined persons, order must be established. If through training in social living and the development of desirable attitudes the pupils become skilled in living together, the resulting self-control is evidence of desirable self-discipline.

Education for Democratic Living

Democracy is expanded for the sake of universal growth in person-

ality, through life activities that become more and more democratic. The school as an agent of society, must play a significant part in this achievement of democratic ideals by employing a democratic process for democratic ends. Below are some guiding principles which education for democracy should follow: (2)

1. Education in a democracy should be free, universal, and democratic
2. Education in a democracy requires the provision of the best educational opportunities and resources in every community
3. Individual differences should be respected
4. The curriculum in every school must emphasize: children's interests and abilities and the social conditions and problems of the community
5. The major freedoms of a democratic state must be encouraged: freedom to speak, freedom from prejudice and class distinctions, freedom to organize, freedom to experiment, freedom to doubt and criticize, and freedom to worship or not to worship
6. Education in a democracy should emphasize the "we-aspect" of social living rather than the "I-aspect"

(2) Morgan, John J. B.: The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1931, p. 57.

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CHAPTER II

PART I

THE TEACHER AS COUNSELOR

Learning implies a learner and material to be learned; in its broadest implications it must include also a leader of the activity, a teacher. The learner needs help in the selection of the materials of study, in the development of effective methods of subject matter mastery, and in the measurement of his success. These fundamental needs must be supplemented by intelligent encouragement of the learner toward his best efforts for complete mastery and by sympathetic understanding of his possible failure to learn.

Pupil-and-teacher relations are many sided. To the real teacher, his pupils are a source of stimulation and challenge; to the pupil, his teacher is a stimulator of subject matter mastery, a guide, a model, a leader, and a friend. An understanding teacher is ever on the alert for opportunities to help his pupils in their life planning.

Guidance has not received much consideration in discussions of elementary teaching. At first the guidance program was concerned with vocational guidance, primarily for the purpose of helping junior and senior high school students to select a vocation. The concept of guidance has been gradually expanded as educators have realized that pupils need constant counseling not only in regard to vocational problems but also in matters of social relations, health activities, recreational activities, and educational plans.

Teaching is a matter of continuous educational guidance -- helping children select worthwhile educational activities. The heart of the guidance program in the elementary school is the teacher and most of the counseling will take place in individual classrooms and will be successful only if the teacher senses the problems and is capable of developing that friendly relationship with both children and parents which is so essential

to effective guidance. Unless the teacher knows the child and his home and community environment intimately, she is in no position to counsel intelligently or to get that close teacher-parent cooperation which is especially necessary to the solution of difficult problems.

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CHAPTER II

PART II

GUIDANCE THROUGH THE LANGUAGE ARTS

If the citizens in our land are to act intelligently, if they are to be able to give discriminating allegiance to wise policies, they must possess a rich fund of knowledge. They can understand current social trends and anticipate future needs only by having a knowledge of our past history.

A wealth of information is necessary if one is to cope with the present to avoid the mistakes of the past, and to chart an intelligent course for the future. The more complex and dynamic the civilization, the greater is the need for a vast fund of knowledge upon which one can rely for comfort, understanding, guidance, and vision.

Today we know that each of the language arts demands special instructional techniques, and that each must be attacked directly, apart from other language activities if proper results in the training of pupils are to be attained. It is the belief of the writer that a child can be guided personally, socially, and even vocationally through the language arts if the materials contained therein are adapted to meet the needs of the individual pupils.

READING

To give us the broad information needed in life we must depend to a great extent on the matter contained in books, magazines, newspapers, and other printed material. It is vital, therefore, that the children in our schools form the habit of resorting to books. This habit will not be formed unless they acquire a love for reading. If we wish children to form the habit of going to books for broad information, we must accomplish the following purposes:

1. Stimulate children to want to read
2. Develop silent and oral reading ability
3. Locate deficiencies and give remedial treatment
4. Develop skillful use of books and other materials of reading

The love for reading is the most important objective in reading to be accomplished in our elementary schools. Many children already have a great desire to know how to read when they come to school; others have no knowledge of the great storehouse of riches contained in books and so have no interest in reading. To stimulate these children to want to read we must provide many experiences, satisfy children's needs for reading, and surround children with reading stimuli.

The relationship between teacher and children is the most potent influence for promoting or thwarting a social atmosphere in the classroom. A teacher not in sympathy with childhood will create an atmosphere that only the strongest souls can withstand. Children are quick to detect an unsympathetic attitude. An unsympathetic teacher has no place in the classroom. Some things which will help create a social atmosphere are an attractive room, a social grouping of children, and more informal ways of conducting the recitation period.

When we see about us the social and economic ills that are traceable in part to faulty thinking, we realize the need of having the children now in our schools develop habits of correct thinking. In the past the school has been largely concerned with imparting information and having children memorize and recite facts. Facts are important and necessary things to think with, but they must not be regarded as ends in themselves, but rather as means to an end.

Victor H. Noll (1) in discussing the habit of scientific thinking gives the following six fundamental habits of thinking which children should form:

1. Habit of accuracy in all operations, including calculation, observation, and report
2. Habit of intellectual honesty
3. Habit of open mindedness
4. Habit of suspended judgment
5. Habit of looking for true cause and effect relationships
6. Habit of criticism, including self criticism

The following principles for the formation of these habits must be kept in mind:

1. Opportunity for practice must be given in all possible situations
2. Practice must be given in specific situations
3. The formation of these habits must be made to seem highly desirable

No subject offers greater opportunities for the formation of these habits than that of reading, for accomplishment in all of the school subjects is largely dependent on the ability to interpret the material by means of reading.

When we consider the amount of leisure time we now have and are likely to have we are appalled by the responsibility that the school faces to create tastes in children that will safeguard the hours they will no

(1) Noll, Victor H.: The Habit of Scientific Thinking. Teachers College Record, October and December, 1933, p. 45

longer need, nor be allowed to use in occupations.

Special aptitudes of children must be discovered. The poets, artists, musicians, architects, interior decorators, designers of fabrics, dramatists, writers of tomorrow are in the schools of today. They are the ones who will enrich civilization through the contributions they have to make. They constitute a very small but vastly important minority of school and society.

The special interests and abilities of the great majority of the children in our schools must be discovered not because of the contribution they can make to the culture of the race, but for the means they furnish for the development of personality and use of leisure time. It is necessary that reading material be related to the experiences of children for only then can reading symbols have meaning. The reading material may be related to the experiences of children and yet arouse no desire on their part to read it. Various ways of arousing interest will be suggested.

The Use of Activities

In describing the essentials, which an activity must meet, Dr. Dewey (2) writes, "The activity must be within the range of the experiences of the children and connected with their needs and interests; it must offer a variety of experiences which call forth earnest effort and response from the different individuals of the class; it must contain certain socially valuable subject matter which will in turn arouse a desire for further knowledge and experimentation".

(2) Dewey, John: Experience and Education, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1938, p. 35.

All these activities call for much reading. When the need for reading arises in the working out of an activity in which the individual is vitally interested, no further means of creating an interest in the material is usually needed, except, possibly the recall of that need. The selection of material and its use in the activity require much thinking.

The Use of an Introduction

Activities do not as a rule furnish enough opportunities for reading to develop the habits and skills that must be formed. Therefore other material must be furnished in which the teacher may need to create an interest by relating it to a child's experiences. This can be done by means of an introduction. This introduction should provide the proper "mind-set" for the particular kind of reading he is to do, and should also make him better able to interpret the material through the recall of his own experiences.

The introduction should be short and closely related to the main theme of the story. The teacher should constantly check the value of her introduction by asking herself, "Will this really create an interest in the story?"

Many kinds of introduction are both possible and desirable. The following types of introduction may prove effective: (3)

1. Use of pictures
2. Use of the title of a story
3. Use of a real object pertinent to the lesson
4. Recall of a need coming from a unit of work
5. Recall of information gained in another story
6. Use of a statement made in regard to the selection

(3) Pennell, Mary E., and Cusack, Alice M.: The Teaching of Reading for Better Living: Cambridge, Massachusetts, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935, p. 69.

7. Recall of past experience closely related to the lesson
8. Desire of the child to know his own reading ability
9. Recall of information
10. Appeal to judgment

The Use of Purposes or Motives in Reading

Children have many needs for reading. The utilization of these as purposes or motives for reading is essential. All such purposes, however, may not be sufficient to give enough practice in the many varied reading abilities that are involved in silent reading. Additional purposes, therefore, must be utilized to secure the desired dynamic drive for reading on the part of the children. Such purposes are sometimes suggested by the teacher, sometimes by the children. As the interest and attention span of children increases, purposes should increase in scope and children should be given different types of exercises for reflective thinking.

Reflective thinking is best illustrated by questions asked the children in reading lessons. Following are a few examples of such questions:

1. Why do we dress for the weather differently from children in other lands?
2. Why did Peter call the shovel Old Elephant Shovel?
3. What kind of a pig do you think Jolly Little Pig was?
4. Why do you think the Christmas tree in the park was a good idea?
5. How was the third pig wiser than the wolf?

The above are teacher-made questions but in discussing leading questions of this kind, the children have many questions which need answering and they begin to realize their need for information. Teachers bring in materials or help children plan enterprises which will provide answers to their questions. The earliest materials are pictures or objects which supply accurate information related to the questions concerned.

Trips or excursions should be undertaken whenever feasible. Children should be encouraged to ask questions of other people, look for pictures, and objects themselves.

Meanwhile, the teacher seizes every opportunity to reveal the contribution to their needs that reading can make. She provides environmental devices such as these:

1. Informational pictures related to questions and discussions bearing sentences of description
2. A reading center containing supplementary reading materials with perhaps a number of children's magazines. This "sets the stage" for reading
3. Bulletin boards are very valuable. They may contain lists of suggested stories and poems to read

In teaching children how to read intelligently and with understanding, the foundation is laid for observation of fact -- the development of incident and motives; for clear thinking; for insight into the relation of ideas; for power to separate the significant from the insignificant; for power to organize and present ideas and concepts. From this point of view, reading is truly a basic art; the teaching of reading the most fundamental of all subjects. It should offer to teachers an incentive for clear thinking, a challenge to release their own talents, and constant encouragement to them in their accomplishments. (4)

LANGUAGE

"It is an important educational idea that it is through the correct

(4) Scott, Zenos E.: Course of Study in Reading for the Elementary Schools - Foreword: Louisville Kentucky, Louisville Public Schools, 1938, p. 1.

use of the mother tongue more than any other phase of learning that pupils broaden their understandings and abilities. It is in the use of good English that the pupils take the important steps in those early stages of intellectual growth. Language, then is something more than a tool subject. It is a subject which in a sense forms the base of the pyramid for all other subjects." (5)

A major objective in education is to furnish the opportunities by which and through which the pupils grow in ability to think accurately and concisely. In order that this objective be attained, language must also be thought of as a tool subject with specific rules and usages to be mastered.

According to McKee, the basal instructional task in teaching people to talk and write effectively is the problem of selecting the right symbols with which to present meanings. The following is a summary of the points given by McKee which, if kept in mind, will aid in an understanding of the relation of language to thinking and of the reasons for many of the language errors that are common among elementary school children:

1. In order for an individual to do any thinking he must attach needed language symbols to the meanings in his mind; in other words, he works in terms of words, phrases, sentences, etc.
2. A speaker or writer speaks or writes words, phrases or sentences which stand for what he means; that is to say, they are the tools he uses to express his meanings. Failure to use these tools correctly promotes misunderstanding among people. "Much of the confusion that exists in communication is due to the loose use of words."

3. The meaning which a reader or listener makes depends upon his ability to sense relationship between the parts of a sentence, between sentences within a paragraph and between paragraphs within a selection. This means that the writer or talker must learn to organize effectively the symbols with which he presents his meaning; in other words, he must learn to make good sentences, to place the parts of a sentence in an effective order, to make good paragraphs and to organize effectively his paragraphs within his speech or his writing.
4. No writer or speaker can give a reader or listener any meaning ready made. He can merely present his meaning in the form of a language symbol and thereby stimulate the reader or listener to make or achieve that meaning for himself. Vague and indefinite concepts on the part of speaker, writer, listener or reader make for misunderstanding. A suggestion here to teachers: See that the vocabulary of pupils who speak and write has sufficient exactness and that their understanding of a subject is sufficiently clear to enable other people to get their meaning. Encourage pupils to ask themselves frequently: "Just what do I mean? How can I say it clearly?" (6)

COMPOSITION

The first step in discovering what to teach in composition lies in determining the situations or activities of life in which people speak and write. Many investigations have been concerned with the discovery of the language situations or activities of life. A digest of all such studies presents a list of the language activities that occur commonly and frequently in life. Such a list will certainly include the following: (7)

1. Writing letters; social, business, friendly, formal, informal

(6) McKee, Paul: Language in the Elementary School; New York, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1939, p. 57.

(7) McKee, Paul: Ibid, pp. 82-83

2. Making announcements
3. Giving directions or instructions
4. Carrying on conversations; at the table, with a given person in a group, during calls
5. Making speeches; general talks, reports, introductions, impromptu speeches, exposition speeches, illustrated talks
6. Writing notices, announcements, and advertisements
7. Using the telephone
8. Taking notes or memoranda; while reading, during talks or lectures, during observations
9. Writing reports; committee reports, minutes of organizations
10. Writing original material (creative writing); stories, poems, diaries, papers, articles
11. Writing notes; formal and informal
12. Conducting meetings
13. Telling stories; to adults, to children, at a social gathering, to a friend
14. Filling in forms; checks, deposit slips, library call slips, standard test blanks, information blanks
15. Salesmanship talks
16. Keeping records

The various situations of life requiring composition fall naturally into two groups; oral and written. Inasmuch as one may learn to perform successfully in the important writing situations of life without being equipped to meet life's demands upon speech, the need for direct training in both oral and written composition is apparent. The two possess some requirements in common but are vastly different in many respects.

All instruction in language should rest upon the basic assumption

that the fundamental purpose in such activity is to teach the child how to express his own ideas. This means that the teacher must arrange conditions in such a manner that the pupil talks or writes about only those things which he has experienced. The first job of the teacher is to provide real opportunities for the child to talk or write about things that he knows.

Care should be taken in all school activities to see that nothing is done to discourage the child from talking or writing. The continuous throttling of questions and personal comments tends to break down the child's desire to express his ideas. The enforcement of useless rules regarding speech in the classroom during study, recitation, and other activities certainly places a damper upon the use of language. The only discouragement to be allowed is that which prevents the development of undesirable social manners upon the part of the child.

SPELLING

What words should children be taught to spell? To answer this question numerous vocabulary studies have been made. In fact, probably no subject of the elementary school has had as much thorough scientific investigation devoted to it as has the subject of spelling.

One result of these investigations is the large reduction in the number of words an elementary school pupil is supposed to learn over the number formerly required. The spelling books of today contain between 3000 and 4000 words as compared with the 10,000 to 20,000 words which they contained in the past.

It should be kept in mind that many of the words which a pupil

needs to write he will learn how to spell incidentally. Newspapers, magazines, advertisements and the movies are constantly flashing upon the school child's attention the correct form of common words.

One of the most important tasks of the teacher is concerned with the problem of motivation. To secure and maintain the child's interest in his spelling is essential and at the same time exceedingly difficult. The following points should be useful in utilizing the pupil's interest in the spelling program.

1. The pupil should understand that the words taught are those which are the most important for him to learn to spell
2. Proper grade placement of the words will aid in developing interest
3. The use of a preliminary test may arouse interest
4. The teacher should insist upon careful, exact, and cleancut work
5. It is essential that each pupil should see his progress. Individual or class progress charts may be used
6. Effort should be made to encourage the pupil to develop a pride in his spelling
7. Attention should be called to the importance of accurate spelling in the ordinary affairs of life
8. Spelling should be closely correlated with other school work

WRITING

The ability to write rapidly and legibly is still important. Outside the school both children and adults write various types of letters. They also make valuable records of experiences, minutes, recipes, sales, and the like. Inside the school the child finds it necessary to write

when engaging in the various types of written composition in which he should engage. In addition, if the program in reading is adequate in the sense that it includes instruction in how to study effectively, the child must write in order to make outlines, summaries, and notes. (8) Thus, regardless of the effects of the machine upon man's activities, a considerable amount of educational value is still attached to writing.

Every wholesome procedure should be used to motivate the teaching of handwriting. Early in the child's school life he should be confronted by numerous real situations which demand the need for writing.

In addition to interesting the young child in learning to write, one should arouse and maintain his interest in improving speed and quality as he progresses through the grades. This can be done in several ways: (a) the child's speed and quality should be measured at regular intervals, (b) writing should be correlated with other work, (c) good handwriting should be insisted upon in all subjects and activities, (d) specific difficulties should be located and provision made for practice in which the child is entirely conscious of the difficulty to be overcome.

Within a class, wide individual differences will exist in terms of speed and quality. Instruction should proceed in the light of these differences. Children whose speed is acceptable but who write with poor quality should receive practice which centers attention and effort upon the improvement of quality. Pupils who write with good quality but whose speed is low should receive practice in sensible speed exercises. Grouping these pupils in the light of these differences may be helpful.

(8) McKee, Paul: Reading and Literature in the Elementary School: Cambridge, Massachusetts, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934, Chapters IX-XII.

One of the most important aspects of individual differences in writing is concerned with particularized difficulties of individual children. This refers to difficulties in forming letters, in movement, in spacing, etc., which cause breakdown in the child's general quality of writing. It is very important to discover for each pupil, the particular items that cause his trouble. Then the child should be given remedial practice to remove the difficulties.

The child should be given plenty of opportunity to locate his own difficulties and make direct attacks upon securing improvement. In this way writing, along with the other language arts, will serve as a tool for straight thinking and intelligent action.

SUMMARY

The development of well-rounded, well integrated individuals capable of living reasonably happy and worthwhile lives as members of a democratic society is the purpose of education. The abilities discussed in this chapter are absolutely essential to the individual if this purpose is to be realized. The ability to read has never before been of such vital importance as it is today due to the development of radio, movies, and graphic arts. The curriculum has been modified in recent years so as to develop these abilities in more functional and purposeful situations and to develop procedures more in harmony with the needs of the child.

All children should contribute to the class discussions and other activities. The important thing is that all children grow along the lines of the aims of education, that they increase their understandings of the world in which they live, that they modify their attitudes along socially desirable lines, and that they grow in their capacity to perform the abilities essential to social living.

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CHAPTER III

GUIDANCE THROUGH ARITHMETIC

"The keynote of the new arithmetic is that it should be meaningful rather than mechanical." This statement made by C. L. Thiele (1) is generally agreed upon by authorities on the teaching of arithmetic. A definition of the meaning theory is given by Morton (2): "In brief, it is held that children should understand numbers before they learn to operate with them, that the meaning of the operations should be made clear before these operations are learned, that new steps and processes should be discovered by the children from their relationships to steps and processes already learned, that drill does not make arithmetic meaningful but it is of value in fixing the skills and maintaining them at a high level of usefulness, and that the ideas and principles of arithmetic rather than skill in computation are the means of developing in children the ability to do quantitative thinking."

The skillful teacher, in making the arithmetic program vital and meaningful to the child, will center her program around the child's curiosity, needs and his quest for individuality. Thus, problem solving will become a challenge to the pupil's intelligence rather than to his memory.

Since children seem to learn so much about numbers before they enter the first grade or before the school begins to make provision for instructing them in this subject, some students of primary education ask why teachers in these grades should be burdened with number training. They suggest that the pupils are making excellent progress without in-

(1) Thiele, C. L.: The New Arithmetic: Sixteenth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938, p. 197.

(2) Morton, Robert Lee: Teaching Arithmetic in the Elementary School, New York, Silver Burdett Company, 1938, p. 27.

structors, as shown by the tests, and that the teacher's efforts may well do more harm than good.

It is true that arithmetic differs from reading, spelling, and handwriting in that much of the former is learned without the teacher's help. But there are reasons why pupils need the assistance which good teachers can give. The teacher soon finds out that the progress which the pupils have made is very unequal; pupils sometimes gain wrong impressions and begin to acquire habits which are objectionable. And, pupils make greater progress with good teaching than without it, even though, they may acquire considerable information and skill if left to their own devices.

Children differ greatly in the rate at which they learn and in the age at which a given type of arithmetical experience is meaningful to them. They not only differ in native intelligence but also in the variety and richness of their out-of-school experiences. This means that they will be of varying ages when the different kinds of number experiences can be profitably introduced, that they will get varying amounts of meaning from these experiences, and that they will show marked differences in the rate of their progress.

A typical second grade class composed of pupils whose average chronological age is, say, seven and one half years, will contain some pupils whose mental age is ten years or more, and others whose average chronological age is, perhaps, seven and one half years, will contain some pupils whose mental age is ten years or more, and others whose mental age is five years or less. The I.Q.'s of the former are, of course, 133 or more, and the latter, 67 or less. Such a range of mental ages presents an extremely difficult problem for the teacher.

Many teachers who develop the fundamentals of arithmetic by mass instruction undertake to adapt their teaching to the average ability and experience level found in their classes. The majority of the pupils may get along very well with such instruction, if it is skillful, but the extreme deviates will gain little, if any advantage from such teaching. The dull will be unable to keep pace with their classmates and, as they lag behind, will become less and less interested and more and more discouraged or indifferent. The gifted will find the assigned tasks easy, will be bored with explanations which they do not need and will turn their attention to other and more interesting activities.

The modern course of study makes very definite provision for individual differences. In the first place, it provides that the pupils shall be studied and taught as individuals, or, when there is group instruction, the groups will be homogeneous. There will usually be at least three groups -- a slow group, an average group, and a rapid group. Methods of instruction will be varied to suit the abilities of the pupils in the various groups.

In order that one may understand more clearly the psychological basis for the "Meaning Theory" I shall outline the general teaching procedure emphasized by Dr. William A. Brownell: (3)

General Teaching Procedure

1. Meaning should be built up before drill begins.
Children can fix permanently only those things
they understand

(3) Brownell, William A.: Psychological Considerations in the Learning and Teaching of Arithmetic: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics: Tenth Yearbook, The Teaching of Arithmetic: New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935, pp. 1-31.

2. Present each new process through practical problems and follow the teaching with an application of the processes in concrete problems drawn, as far as possible, from the children's interests and experiences.
3. Problem solving should be emphasized throughout the grades. It is one means of making the work concrete and meaningful to children. The primary purpose of arithmetic instruction is to develop the abilities to gain and to use acquired skills in actual situations.
4. New arithmetical terms connected with the different processes should be taught along with the processes; hence, they are included as a part of the work of each grade. It is not expected that they are to be taught as isolated materials, but are to be learned through frequent use. The failure of pupils to solve problems is often due to a lack of understanding of the language.
5. Mathematical instruction should be enriched by drawing on the resources of the community and by providing for the application of mathematics to other school subjects.
6. Pupils should be led to appreciate the importance of measurement. Measuring is one of the most common acts of daily life. In all grades measurements should be taught in connection with other work.
7. In all grades concrete situations should be used to teach number relationships. In the primary grades the basic combinations and, four fundamental processes with integers afford abundant opportunity for teaching number relationships. In the intermediate grades, relationships should be emphasized in connection with the topics, common fractions, and percent. The study should include the interpretation and use of graphs and formulas, since they are the language people use outside of school to express quantitative relationships.
8. Arrangement and form are phases of arithmetic instruction; hence, emphasis upon well-formed figures and well-arranged work should not be overlooked. Provision should be made in the penmanship period for practicing the skill of writing numbers under supervision.
9. Checking results is an important factor in the securing of accuracy; hence pupils should form the habit early of checking each arithmetical computation at the time it is performed.
10. Frequent reviews are necessary in order to maintain skills previously taught. An inventory test, oral or written, should give valuable information relative

to the readiness of children for new topics. Children with low scores will need to be observed at work. This observation often reveals poor habits of work. After the individual weaknesses have been discovered, the teacher should reteach the steps or processes not mastered.

Young children are interested in numbers just as they are in language. Investigations show that primary children are capable of profiting from systematic instruction in arithmetic beginning in the second grade. So arithmetic should be definitely planned around the child's every day activities.

The home also provides many experiences through which number meanings may be developed and the school should utilize these experiences. Measuring, weighing, counting, buying, and experiences in general with objects are ways by which the number ideas are developed and made clear and definite.

The order in which pupils are to study the subject matter of arithmetic is neither that of following an extreme spiral arrangement nor that of using an extreme systematic arrangement. Teachers are advised to follow the order of the needs and interests of the children. The arithmetical experiences are to be set in the environment of the pupils and extensive use is to be made of the interests of the children as they arise in situations. Thorndike (4) has endeavored to organize them from the point of view that --

1. Pupils prefer to learn rather than to be ignored
2. They prefer to learn useful things

(4) Thorndike, Edward L.: Psychology of Arithmetic: New York, The Macmillan Company, 1936, p. 98.

3. Their real interests in arithmetic can be discovered and fostered through carefully chosen arithmetical experiences

An effort is being made to eliminate the non-essentials of arithmetic and to arrange the materials retained as useful so that the simplified order of learning makes possible ready and effective mastery of these essentials.

Recent studies indicate that there is need for giving special attention to such phases of arithmetic as the fundamental operations, simple fractions and decimals, and common weights and measures. The problems of life are often less involved than those not infrequently used in the classroom. This information needs to be brought to the attention of the teachers, perhaps even after textbook writers have made more extensive use of this investigation and similar studies.

Two important elements in arriving at a correct solution of the problem at hand are the care with which the records have been kept, and the ability of the individual to perform the various computations in the process of arriving at a conclusion.

Standards for Evaluation of Problems (5)

1. Problems should arise, as far as possible, from the felt needs of pupils since these needs are the basis of real problematic situations.
2. The situations on which problems are based should be within the experiences of pupils, especially in lower grades.
3. The vocabulary of the problem should be within the pupil's comprehension.
4. Problems should give the child something to think about, some valuable information or should

(5) Thorndike, Edward L.: Ibid, p. 132

illustrate some important application of arithmetic. Pupils will be more successful in solving problems if these problems are worded in an attractive story-like manner than if they are dry and concise.

5. Problems should be socially significant, that is, they -

- (a) Should not involve misleading facts or procedures
- (b) Should not involve trivialities or absurdities
- (c) Should not involve useless methods
- (d) Should not involve questions, the answers to which would normally be known
- (e) Should not involve ambiguities and falsities
- (f) Should not involve fantastic situations

Sociological Function

Arithmetic finds many applications in practical affairs. It became a school subject of study primarily because the knowledge and skills which it engenders were very definitely needed.

If more emphasis is placed upon the sociological function, -- the uses of arithmetic in production, distribution, consumption, business, and government affairs, and social relationships -- the subject will take on new interest, it will be learned more easily and more successfully, and it will be used after school days are over to solve a greater number of problems.

Buswell says that the social values are the most important values of arithmetic. He suggests that there are two major types of material in arithmetic. The first of these is the number system which must be learned as a system. As one learns the interrelations of this system in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, he must acquire ability in

computation. The second is the social application of number. It must come eventually to be a part of the thinking habits of those who study arithmetic. (6)

If an individual is to be an intelligent consumer, is to make desirable selections of food, clothing, shelter, labor-saving devices, and educational and recreational facilities, he must continually give his attention to matters of a quantitative character. Harap has shown that the consumer must have quantitative information of many kinds and must be able to use a wide variety of arithmetic processes in many and varied situations. (7) He lists instances requiring calculation in, (a) food measurement, (b) household measurement, (c) fuel measurement, and (d) clothing measurement. Food measurement requires the consumer to use his arithmetic in such matters as finding the loss in buying sugar in small cartons; finding the difference in price between fresh and canned meats; finding differences in cost between public markets and retail stores; finding the amount saved by doing home cooking; finding the cost of fractional contents of a bag, box, etc.; determining the amount which can be purchased with a dime, a quarter, or other monetary units; increasing or decreasing the food budget to correspond to increases or decreases in income; finding the amount saved by making quantity purchases; checking bills; reading tables; reading recipes; and many others.

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- (6) Buswell, G. T.: The Relation of Social Arithmetic to Computational Arithmetic: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Tenth Yearbook, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935, pp. 74-84.
- (7) Harap, Henry: The Education of the Consumer: New York, The Macmillan Company, 1934, pp. 320-324.

The Psychological Function

The importance of developing in pupils the ability to do quantitative thinking has been discussed. One can not think quantitatively beyond the elementary level of making simple comparisons, unless he has been trained in number. Thus, number becomes a method of thinking.

Judd has repeatedly called mathematics, including elementary arithmetic, a mode of thought. He stresses the importance of general ideas as opposed to specific skills and isolated bits of information. To quote, --

"General ideas of what a group is and of the way in which groups can be rearranged come only through contact with many different groups. When once achieved, the higher type of thinking is continually enlarged and refined by being employed in different connections. The idea of addition, for example, is not a fixed notion. It cannot be given to a pupil. It must be acquired through a long period of enlargement of experience, in the course of which various kinds and degrees of recombinations of groups are experienced.

A very false and misleading psychological doctrine has been current in some quarters. It is said that, in the pupils' mind, addition is nothing but a long list of particular combinations. Such psychology does not provide any explanation of the general or abstract idea of addition as distinguished from particular experiences. When a teacher thinks of addition merely as a series of separate processes, he makes no provision in his teaching scheme for the operation of the generalized idea of addition, as a generalized idea, he will strive to emphasize this idea. He will have confidence that, if the pupil is taught to acquire an insight into the general idea, the pupil will, because of the inner drive of this general idea, help to train himself in particular cases not explicitly included in the lessons taught in school. When once acquired, a general idea is a dynamic fact in experience." (8)

(8) Judd, Charles Hubbard: Psychological Analysis of the Fundamental of Arithmetic: Chicago, University of Chicago, 1927, pp. 109-110.

This interpretation of the function of arithmetic teaching leads one to conclude that a course in arithmetic cannot be properly organized solely in terms of narrow utilitarian aims. Arithmetic serves utilitarian purposes, to be sure; but it does more than this. If properly taught, it serves to give pupils an intellectual equipment without which effective thinking in situations which are quantitative in character cannot be done.

Curriculum makers should be urged to recognize the fact that the curriculum is made for the purpose of training minds, not for the purpose of reflecting the immediate needs of practical living. There are psychological requirements which must be met in curriculum making, and these are infinitely more important for the future of the race than are the practical adjustments of trade and industry.

The psychological function includes many aspects of arithmetic ability which may not be given consideration in a school where most of the emphasis is placed on the computational function. These include, according to Brueckner, an understanding of the structure of the number system, the development of quantitative concepts, the ability to use quantitative methods as a basis for accurate, orderly thinking, the ability to discover relationships, the appreciation of geometric design, the habit of using quantitative techniques in studying various problems and issues.

It hardly seems that the value of arithmetic as a part of the curriculum of the elementary school can be questioned. Arithmetic consisting largely of mere computation and taught by a method based upon the drill theory is of doubtful value when judged by results secured in schools where such practices prevail. But arithmetic which gives due consideration to the informational, the sociological, and the psychological functions, as well as the computational function, is an indispensable part of the train-

ing of the young.

SUMMARY

The development of the ability to understand and apply mathematical concepts and processes in the solution of problems of social living is an important aim of education. Today, mathematics is conceived to be functional and purposeful in the every day life of the learner, not just a series of skills to be used as mental discipline. Mathematics is important in the daily life of the individual and the new curriculum is based upon the life needs and interests of the pupils.

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CHAPTER IV

GUIDANCE THROUGH HEALTH & PHYSICAL EDUCATION

The recreation program of the school is concerned with the physical growth and development of children and with the social development which comes through participation in many types of activities under guidance.

Young children need a tremendous amount of physical activity, but it must be planned with careful thought to the level of physical, mental, emotional, and social growth which they have reached. They need guidance in play as definitely as they need guidance in the selection of food which will meet growth needs and clothing which will protect their bodies.

Some children at the age of five or six still enjoy solitary play or a parallel type of play -- playing in the presence of other children who are also playing -- but with little social interaction. Some are ready for play in small groups but not in larger ones, and some enjoy games and organized play in which the entire group participates. By the time they reach the age of eight almost all children prefer group activity of either cooperative or competitive nature.

Some children scarcely know how to play for lack of experience and guidance, and others are impulsive and spontaneous in their experimentation with their environment to the point of incurring physical danger. Some play so actively and continuously that they become overfatigued and require help to understand their need for rest as well as activities. Maintaining the rhythm of activity and rest which each child needs is the teacher's problem.

The play facilities of the school should provide for quiet, relaxed play as well as for strenuous play, for individual play as well as for group play.

All young children need a great deal of time for free play. The term "free play" does not in any sense imply unguided play. It means play in which the child has freedom to choose to play with a group or alone, to choose the type of material he wishes to use and the way he will use it provided his choices do not interfere with the choices of others and appear to the teacher as well as to him to be wholesome and good for him. The free play period, like the free work period in the classroom, satisfies the child's desire to manipulate, experiment, and carry out activities with equipment in his own way and provides the teacher with opportunities to study his developmental needs and to guide him into more fruitful play. Some children need a great deal of encouragement and guidance to try new experiences -- to climb a ladder for the first time, to go down the slide, to get onto the see-saw, to try the stilts. A few moments of individual guidance and help to overcome fear and build confidence and a sense of security may open new avenues of pleasure and growth for a timid child and add immeasurably to his sense of power and his self-respect.

Each child also needs knowledge of what he can play, a fund of ideas stowed away in his mind for use when he needs them. He should know some group games which can be played when several children get together, some things which two can play, and things to do alone. He should know kinds of quiet, restful play as well as kinds of active, noisy play.

Play requires talking over plans just as work does. If children and teacher talk over possibilities together before they go out to play and make plans, children can do self-directive thinking in play as well as in their work.

Young children enjoy some singing games which fit action to music as in the case of the "Farmer in the Dell" and "Looby Loo". They like a

limited number of active racing and chasing games which have a slight competitive element as do "Squirrels in Trees" and "Cat and Mice". Some simple games which require rolling, tossing, and catching balls appeal to them.

Older children like all of these kinds of games on a somewhat higher and more complex level, with decreasing interest in singing games and great increase in interest in more competitive games.

HEALTH

Health instruction and the acquisition of knowledge of health principles in the lower grades are entirely informal. The school's purpose is to help each child to live a healthful life each day. The teacher is concerned with the health attitudes and habits of her children. She recognizes that her teaching and guidance increase in effectiveness to the extent that she and the parents cooperate. Her task is to provide, so far as he is able, a healthful environment, a schedule of long and unhurried periods, flexibility of time allotment, opportunity for vigorous outdoor play, time for the toilet, hand washing, and to get a drink, and comfortable seating arrangements so that correct habits of posture can be established.

During the early part of the kindergarten or first grade year while children are becoming acquainted with the school environment it is well to make a trip to the health office or to visit the doctor or nurse in order to build a favorable attitude toward the school nurse and doctor and toward health service. It is helpful to have the nurse show the children how she does things. She may show them how she weighs, measures, and records the

weights and heights of children or demonstrate a throat inspection or the reading of temperature, choosing a self-confident child for the demonstration.

Later, when questions relating to health arise, the nurse may be invited to the classroom to furnish information. She can help children to understand such matters as: How do we catch cold? Why do we need "shots" and "tests"? Why should we stay at home when we are sick?

Through careful supervision of their activities the teacher builds health habits into the lives of the children. She takes time to see that children wash their hands before lunch, after play, after toilet, before any cooking experience, and before setting the table. Children can be encouraged to bring cleansing tissues rather than handkerchiefs to school. When children bring soap bubble pipes or horns to school or use tonettes in the music class the teacher calls attention to the fact that these are cases in which "no sharing" is the best rule. She teaches the children to vary their activity to prevent fatigue and provides extra rest periods for children whose vitality is low.

Caring for pets provides good experience for children and gives them many opportunities to study foods and nutrition, cleanliness, and sanitation, and their relation to health. In studying pets and providing for their needs there is both direct and indirect learning.

School lunches provide excellent opportunities for developing health habits and adding to the children's fund of general knowledge. The teacher can plan experience units on nutrition to build wholesome attitudes toward eating good foods. The milkman can be interviewed on the care of milk. Dairies, farms, stores, and bakeries can be visited. Conferences with mothers will be valuable in revealing if there is a

carry-over to home eating habits.

Good health habits require time to establish. Through the development of interest and wholesome attitudes the child first shares with parents some of the responsibility for his growth and later assumes a larger and larger share of the responsibility himself.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Physical education activities give expression to some of the deepest needs of childhood, which are shown in the natural movements of running, jumping, climbing, striking and throwing. They are the chief means of developing motor coordination and control, and of training the emotions and social adjustments of the child. These activities have a special hygienic value during the period of growth and development because of their stimulative influence upon the vital organs and systems governing circulation, respiration, nutrition, and elimination. (1)

The child's interest in activities is spontaneous, but he requires adult supervision in the selection of them and in the guidance of the play spirit into wholesome channels. Lack of interest in an activity is usually due to poor selection, overuse, lack of skill, or to poor teaching.

In choosing activities for children of a given age, it is essential that those be chosen which have the greatest natural appeal for that age. The characteristics of human beings which make it possible for their ways

(1) Neilson, N. P. and Van Hagen, Winifred: Physical Education for Elementary Schools: New York, A. S. Barnes & Company, 1932, p. 46.

of reacting to be modified are conducive to planned motivation of learning. The ultimate purpose of motivation should be to make boys and girls want to achieve a high level of skill and ability in the activities in which they are interested, and to use this increased ability to live the fullest and most creative life of which they are capable.

In order to secure efficient learning it is necessary that the activities of the learner be well motivated. The use of artificial motives should be avoided. Coercion of pupils by the teacher is an objectionable form of motivation for participation in activities takes place when the activities and needs of the people coincide.

Interest of the learner is the most important and fundamentally basic motivation for learning. The stimulation of interest, therefore, is one of the most important responsibilities of teachers.

It is important to measure the individual differences of pupils in order that an intelligent effort may be made to adjust the subject matter and methods of instruction to their needs. The utilization of intelligence tests, medical examinations, posture estimates, physical capacity tests, and motor ability tests will help discover the individual's needs. In making an effort to adjust the physical education program to the individual needs of the pupils it is often necessary to make changes in the school or class organization, administration materials of instruction and teaching procedure.

SUMMARY

For the educated person the first requirement in the field of health is an inoculation against superstition and humbug in the fields of medicine and human biology. The educated person is protected by scientific knowledge concerning the human mind and body as a functioning organism.

A public health program is dependent upon having the members of a community understand scientific concepts and to develop some degree of scientific thinking.

The recreation program of the school and community is greatly affected by the community's understanding of the relationship between wholesome recreation and good physical and mental health.

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CHAPTER V

GUIDANCE THROUGH SCIENCE

Never before in this country has there been so insistent a demand for a more thorough and more comprehensive system of instruction in practical science. Forced by recent events to compare our education with that of other nations, we have suddenly become aware of our negligence in this matter.

It is true that this modern age is peculiarly a scientific one, both from the point of view of the rapid accumulation of facts and their systematization and from the point of view of its fertility in theories proposed for the explanations of the facts. Scientific thinking is very commonplace. One looks out of doors and remarks, "I think it will be a fine day tomorrow", or looks at the clock and says, "It is now a quarter past three"; in these and similar very commonplace judgments which he expresses he is stating the conclusion of a process of scientific thinking. One thinks scientifically whenever he is face to face with a problem, or with what Dewey calls a "forked-road situation". Even primitive peoples must face such dilemmas.

We are constantly confronted in life with such forked-road situations. Shall I go to college or not? Shall I be a doctor or a lawyer, a plumber or a carpenter, a Methodist or a Catholic, a Democrat or a Republican? Shall I marry or remain single? The wise decision can only be reached by gathering abundant, pertinent facts and reasoning on the basis of them to a probably correct conclusion. The successful man is the one who thinks through his problems, basing his judgments on carefully selected and tested evidence, and acts accordingly. The unsuccessful man is he who makes hasty decisions, based on whims, fancy, unwarranted prejudice. (1)

(1) Freeman, Frank: How Children Learn: Boston, New York, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1917, p. 101.

Children, on the whole, probably think less than do adults because, (a) their adjustments to their environment are mechanical in nature. They are learning to dress themselves, to handle common utensils, to write, etc., all of which processes they learn largely sensory, their conduct instinctive. (b) Because adults do not encourage them to think and even repress the tendency. The inquisitive child is regarded as a nuisance. His investigations of where the noise in the drum comes from or what makes the clock go are often regarded as manifestations of original sin. His questions are laughed at or hushed up. Everything is done for him or at least he is shown how to do things rather than encouraged to solve his difficulties for himself. (c) Children's problems do not have that critical survival value that forces the adult to think. (2)

The science teacher must see to it, therefore, that children have abundant opportunity to come in touch with many things and with varied situations so as to enrich their experiences. They must be directed toward the problem-solving attitude of mind and the problems used in their training must deal largely with the concrete. They must be given ideals of accuracy in observation, drill in analysis and discrimination, in separating pertinent from non-pertinent facts bearing on a problem, and in arranging facts so as to make evidence for or against a tentative hypothesis. Knowledge must be acquired to give fertility of suggestion. They must be trained to refrain from jumping to hasty conclusions and to assume an impersonal, unprejudiced viewpoint in looking at a problematic situation.

(2) Downing, Elliot R.: Teaching Science in the Schools: The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, 1930, p. 236.

It is almost superfluous in this age of science to call attention to the wealth of knowledge that science adds daily to our lives. We are dependent upon scientific knowledge at almost every turn. Individual and community health, worthy home membership, effective citizenship, and the wise use of leisure are all more or less dependent upon the scientific knowledge which the individual possesses.

Science teaching should give the child the habit of scientific thinking, should impress the growing boy and girl with its value, and should make him realize that all problems to be solved effectively must be solved by this same method -- by reasoning to correct conclusions on the basis of observed fact.

If teachers and parents but realized their opportunity to help children form good habits of thinking; if they would but lead them to see problems, to define them clearly, and to attack them scientifically, by collecting the necessary data, making a guess at the solution, then either proving or disproving it by experiment and patient observation, and finally arriving at a correct solution, what a help it would be to them in thinking out their life-problems! If science teaching can habituate pupils to careful scientific thinking and point the way to carrying the habit over to the citizen, it will do a great service to the individual and to the nation. Wise teaching is doing this and doing it effectively.

SUMMARY

There is hardly one of the objectives of self-realization which does not depend upon science learnings, to some degree, Science is an integral part of the child's world. Wise guidance on the part of the school will lead the pupils to an intelligent understanding of science and its relation to social and individual welfare.

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CHAPTER VI

GUIDANCE THROUGH THE ARTS

MUSIC

Children of all ages enjoy rhythm and musical interpretation. All children should learn in the early grades to walk, skip, gallop, and run to music and work out other fundamental rhythms.

Younger children need many opportunities to listen to music and interpret it in their own way. Frequently their rhythmic interpretations are a delight to behold because of the originality and charm which they express. To tell children what to do to music -- to march, run, skip, very often is to destroy their originality and make them dependent upon the teacher for interpretation rather than upon their own thinking and feeling. The child's own interpretation is frequently far more colorful, interesting, and appropriate to his emotional reaction than anything the teacher could devise.

The function of music in life is to provide nurture for the spirit of man -- which the ravages of the machine age are starving. To be happy, to be satisfied, man must express himself in some way; and, in music, we have the ideal medium of expression. Money, position, power -- in the end these may all fail us, and the men and women who make such things their principal goal will be lonely and disillusioned -- often bitterly unhappy. It is only from the things of the spirit that lasting satisfaction comes, and among these music must be conceded to have a highly important place -- possibly the most important.

The music teacher, if he is to be successful, must believe in music as an exalter of the spirit, as a life-giving force in education. He must realize that music is taught for what it can contribute to the child rather than what the child can contribute to music.

Much education can come through music. Music can change life; change the child so that he still remains changed when he has become a man. It should make the individual more friendly, more capable of working harmoniously with others, should lift him above the humdrum of daily life, soothing him when the strain of life becomes too heavy and at other times, affording a medium for expressing his joy at being alive; it is this kind of education through music, this kind of music as a part of normal living, that we should encourage, in school, in the home, in church, and in the community.

ART

The very nature of art and the freedom upon which its best results are built are educational means for the achievement of wholesome personalities. We need to build into each child a love of beauty, order, balance, and respect for creation. Through art education these goals may be reached.

Our greatest concern with art shall be as a general creative expression. More emphasis should be placed on the effect it has upon the child, than on the standard of work he attains. There is little art teaching to be done. The teacher has little control over the child's design but there is much to do to enrich his experience and provide inspiration. In teaching art, the main advantage is to teach when there is a need or when curiosity has been aroused.

Art is now accepted by most educators as an essential part of the curriculum. Its use is closely intertwined with the normal learning activities of children.

Children have basic needs for activity. They are curious to learn the how and why of their environment; they feel an urge to express ideas and emotions in drawing, painting, modeling, constructing, and decorating, and they find satisfaction in sharing interests and abilities with others.

A teacher who undertakes to give to children experiences through art, however, must herself be well equipped. She must understand the various techniques, must be able to do construction work with a fair degree of proficiency, and must know how to teach these techniques to children.

Art activities should grow naturally out of the children's learning experiences or activity units carried on in school. Therefore it would seem that the logical one to conduct these integrated handwork activities, is the regular classroom teacher.

"The creative attitude enables one to see possibilities in situations which seem to other people unchallenging.....not experience in the creative arts alone, but experiences in all areas which stimulate children to do creative thinking should develop individuals who will have more imagination in seeing problems, in finding solutions of problems, and in carrying out the solution, whether it be designing machinery to fill the need or writing poems to express the idea."

SUMMARY

Creative and appreciative experiencing are integral parts of the learning process. They can be developed under the guidance of a skillful and understanding teacher.

A child grows in his ability to appreciate the fine things of life as his understandings of them develop, provided he maintains a wholesome attitude toward them and has a desire for further experiencing.

One of the problems of the teacher is to discover the types of materials in the aesthetic area which may be utilized at the various levels of the school, and to understand better the nature and needs of the individual children in the group, in order that intelligent guidance may be possible in the development of aesthetic appreciations.

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SUMMARY

The new curriculum evolves, emerges. It is not conceived, full panoplied, in the mind of a curriculum expert. Not even a committee of experts toiling diligently through the reports of other experts can produce a curriculum that will satisfy a master teacher assigned to guide a group of adventurous youngsters. The new curriculum is never more than a prospectus, a rough map of fields to be explored. The conventional syllabus with every day's tasks detailed, is superfluous; the new curriculum is broadly and flexibly conceived and is progressively adapted. The progressive principle in curriculum construction is concisely stated in the following quotation from an article by Ben D. Wood and F. S. Beers:

"Broad curricular outlines and descriptions of desirable objectives have their value, of course, not as specific goals to be sought, or as standards to be enforced at any cost, but as general guides for the ultimate curriculum maker, namely, the teacher who comes into daily contact with the individual pupil. In the ideal school curriculum making will become a process of formulating individual goals and of modifying them progressively in accord with the developing capacities, interests, and needs of individual pupils. This process will be a continuous cycle of: (1) learning the capacities, interests, and needs of individual children; (2) setting up provisional goals, academic, vocational, and professional; (3) getting the student to consider these goals, at least provisionally; (4) helping the student to attain these goals by teaching him when necessary, or by refraining from teaching when possible; (5) studying the progress made, with a readiness to modify the goals if necessary. The indispensable instrument for this process is the cumulative record of comparable measures, personal and social data, and teachers' observations, such as that recommended by the American Council on Education." (1)

(1) Wood, Ben and Beers, F. S.: The Major Strategy of Guidance: Occupations: Volume XIII, Number 8, April, 1934, p. 8-12.

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