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UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE

A GROUP GUIDANCE COURSE
FOR
GRADES 7B, 8A, 9B, and 9A
IN THE
HIGHLAND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
IN
LOUISVILLE, KENTUCKY.

A Thesis

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

Marguerite Reaser

August 1943

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NAME OF STUDENT: MARGUERITE REASON

TITLE OF THESIS: A GROUP GUIDANCE COURSE FOR

GRADES 7B, 8A, 9B, AND 9A

IN THE HIGHLAND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

IN LOUISVILLE, KY.

APPROVED BY READING COMMITTEE COMPOSED OF THE

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DATE: Aug. 17, 1943.

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INTRODUCTION

This study of A Group Guidance Course for Grades 7B, 8A, 9B, and 9A in the Highland Junior High School in Louisville, Kentucky, was initiated in order to suggest curricular offerings for the specified grades which would: first, assist the pupils to meet their adjustment problems courageously; and second, promote their social development. Because provision is made on the school's schedule for one fifty-five minute period of group guidance for each 7B class and for two periods per week for each 8A and 9B class, this study is planned for that time allotment. No special periods are assigned for the work in 9A because it is in that grade that two weekly periods are given over to study, elective work in subjects of special interest, preparation for graduation activities, and registration in senior high schools.

Consideration of this curricular problem centers attention on guidance and guidance programs, on group guidance as a technique, and on the question of subject matter for use with pupils of the junior high school grades. Proposing suitable subject matter requires, first of all, knowledge and understanding of those with whom they will be used. Finally, a practical plan of utilizing the selected materials and of arranging them in form for classroom use must be provided.

In this study, one chapter is devoted to the philosophy

and basic assumptions of guidance. The growth of the guidance movement is traced and the development of basic concepts and practices on the secondary school level is shown. The uses made of the group guidance class are presented briefly, and the whole program of guidance which has evolved in the fifteen and a half years that represent the life of the Highland Junior High School is described briefly.

The second chapter attempts to give a picture of the junior high school pupil as he is revealed in literature on the subject. As one who has already reached the age of puberty or will do so soon, he receives special attention. His needs and the goals toward which he strives are investigated.

His problems as he reaches out toward these goals are given careful attention because it is the ultimate purpose of this study to aid him in solving his problems. The third chapter also tries to trace some of his problems back to the conditions which gave rise to them in the beginning. The final point covered here is the report of a study of student problems at the Highland Junior High School made in May and June of 1943.

The fourth chapter discusses possibilities in group guidance classes for enriching the curriculum. Values believed to exist in this technique are named first, and then the form in which to present suitable materials is analyzed. Accepted prin-

ciples and practices of construction of courses of study at the present time are given in some detail, and the unit plan of organization is described.

Following this, objectives for the course of study in group guidance at the Highland Junior High School are suggested. Subject matter for the eight units into which it is proposed that the work be divided is given and justified on a basis of findings in this study.

Two units of work, given in detail, illustrate the methods by which this work may be presented to the students.

THE PHILOSOPHY AND BASIC ASSUMPTIONS OF GUIDANCE

CHAPTER I

THE PHILOSOPHY AND BASIC ASSUMPTIONS OF GUIDANCE

Any attempt to suggest group guidance procedures for any grade level requires an understanding of fundamental guidance philosophy and practices. Since this study concerns itself with the junior high school level, it has seemed wise to consider here the meaning of guidance on the secondary school level, to note the fundamental assumptions upon which a secondary school program is based, to ascertain basic guidance concepts, and to find common practices in the programs. Another necessary focus point has been the group guidance class itself, with special attention to its role in the past. Because the ultimate purpose of this study is to serve the Highland Junior High School, the remainder of this chapter is devoted to a description of that school's guidance program, so that the group guidance classes will be viewed in relation to the whole program.

Growth of the Guidance Movement

When one surveys the literature in the field of guidance, he is amazed to find so much written about this fairly new aspect of education, and is equally surprised at its rapid growth in scope.

The term "vocational guidance" was first used on May 1, 1908, in the writings of Frank Parsons, director of the Vocation Bureau of Boston. The bureau had been organized in January 1908,

as a new department of the Civic Service House after about seventy cases had been handled and carefully recorded, presumably in the latter part of 1907. This first report of the bureau tells of its organized, systematic vocational guidance with working boys and girls and with men and women up to the age of seventy-two years. It also bears the recommendation of the director and his associates that the work should become a part of the public school system in each community and adds:

... with experts trained as carefully in the art of vocational guidance as men are trained today for medicine or the law, and supplied with every facility that science can devise for testing the senses and capacities and the whole physical, intellectual and emotional makeup of the child.¹

Immediate cooperation with the Boston Public Schools was effected and the vocational guidance movement was well under way in Boston by 1913.² Numerous other communities established vocation bureaus and appointed counselors in schools and other institutions within the next few years -- Chicago and Cincinnati in 1911, Pittsburgh in 1913, and Atlanta in 1915.³ The literature of this field in this period makes clear the interest that thoughtful men and women had in the many misfits in life and in industry, and in the blind-alley occupations which school pupils entered.

1. Frederick J. Allen, Principles and Practices in Vocational Guidance, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1927, pp. 4-5.

2. Ibid., p. 7.

3. Ibid., pp. 10-12.

Gubberley, writing in 1925, tells of the much larger concept of guidance that had developed within a decade:

As the movement has developed though, we have come to a clear consciousness that the proper guidance of young people is a far larger undertaking than merely directing them into suitable occupations at the close of their school career; instead it involves their proper educational guidance for a long period preceding their entry into a vocation. The proper vocational direction of a pupil toward the end of his school period we now know, should have involved the earlier study of individual capacity and personal factors, the exploration of special interests and abilities, the organization of a long-continued guidance program in studies, health-building, direction of social and character building activities, sound civic training and the imparting of vocational information, as well as guidance in making vocational choices. Beginning with an attempt to direct pupils into the kinds of vocations in which they are likely to succeed, the guidance function has been so expanded, as we have come to understand it better, that today it comprehends educational guidance, health guidance, moral guidance, and social and civic guidance, as well as vocational guidance toward the close of the pupil's school career, proper placement when the training has been completed, and some follow-up oversight to see that the youth gets properly established in the work of life.⁴

He added that the problem of guidance had then become one of how to render this broader service to youth.⁵

Proctor presented the subject from the viewpoint of the entire field of education, listing the five essential guidance aims and functions as follows:

4. William Martin Proctor, Educational and Vocational Guidance, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925, pp. vii-viii.
5. Ibid., p. viii.

I. Exploration of abilities -- that is discovery of interests, aptitudes, and capacities of school children.

II. Adjustment of school tasks to the needs and abilities of children.

III. Cultural guidance, or the direction of school activities and courses with a view to promoting symmetrical growth and development.

IV. Vocational guidance, or the giving of counsel and advice relative to the selection of, training for and entering upon a life-career.

V. Organization of the agencies necessary to carry out an adequate guidance program.⁶

In his discussion, he re-emphasized his belief that guidance must mediate between the child and the world of opportunity around him, that guidance is to initiate the measures to bring about children's best development, and that proved scientific research must be the basis of all guidance work.⁷

By 1930, the concept of guidance had broadened. One author defined it as:

... any help that is given to an individual that will enable him to make an intelligent choice at the time of a crisis in his life.... Guidance, as organized, is, then, concerned with crises, with times of choices, times when the ways diverge, with times of needed adjustment. ... it is clear that help given may be direct or indirect, the one guided may be conscious of the help given or may be entirely unconscious of it. The guidance may be given at the time of a crisis, or long before it occurs. Indeed the best guidance is usually that given long before the need for choice arises.⁸

However, in order to avoid confusion he added that though guidance is an essential, and fundamental aspect of education, certain phases of it need to be singled out for special considera-

6. Ibid., p. 13-15.

7. Ibid., p. 17.

8. Arthur J. Jones, Principles of Guidance, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1930., p. 28.

tion and definite organization.⁹

The development of basic concepts continued, bringing about certain practices in the secondary schools of the country.

Crystallization of generally accepted concepts naturally led to many common practices. This phase of the movement is discussed in the following part.

Development of Basic Concepts and Practices in Secondary Schools

In the decade that followed, numerous investigational agencies, such as the Commission of Youth Problems of the American Association of School Administrators, the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, and the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, reported their beliefs that guidance is the core problem in the modernization of the public school curriculum. Ayer and Engelhardt wrote in 1939:

As a result of this authoritative emphasis, and also the important contributions made by various agencies definitely dedicated to the promotion of guidance, current interest in the practical aspects of guidance has reached a new height.¹⁰

Today's interpretation does away with the division of guidance into educational, vocational, social, and civic. Instead:

... guidance or personnel work provides a means by which pupils are helped to make progress through their educational careers and to plan for successful careers and well rounded lives.¹¹

9. Ibid., pp. 28-29.

10. Shirley A. Hamrin and Clifford E. Erickson, Guidance in the Secondary School, New York: D. Appleton - Century Company, 1939. p. xi.

11. Ibid., p. 2.

In secondary schools, the guidance program may become the unifying agency for the individual in his school career. It simplifies for him the complex school situation. It is a practical program, for it helps the students to learn of their present educational opportunities and to become adjusted to them. It teaches them more of themselves, their interests and abilities, their strengths and weaknesses. It aids them to survey possible future educational and vocational opportunities and to relate themselves to these opportunities. Finally, it helps them to become adjusted to their new environment, whether it is in school or at work after they have left the school.¹²

Strang¹³, one worker in this field, points out that the wide range of present-day occupations, persistent unemployment, diminution of parent responsibility for child guidance and education, increased leisure time with shorter working hours, and larger numbers of pupils in secondary school are important social and economic conditions causing the schools to assume enlarged guidance functions.

Other writers stress the importance of the individual.

Rogers says:

The steadily increasing interest in the individual and his adjustment is perhaps one of the outstanding phenomena of our times. Even the mass struggle and mass programs of wartime have served to

12. Ibid., p. 3.

13. Ruth Strang, Pupil Personnel and Guidance, New York: Macmillan Company, 1940. p. v.

emphasize as a part of our war aims the basic concept of the significance of the individual and his right to the elements of a satisfying adjustment.¹⁴

As he continues, he points out that interest in the 1920's in the adjustment of the individual was primarily analytical and diagnostic, but he predicts a new emphasis for the immediate future:

The balance has definitely shifted from diagnosis to therapy, from understanding the individual to an interest in the processes through which he may find help.¹⁵

Many are asking seriously the direction that guidance will take in ascertaining these "processes through which he may find help." It may become entirely directive or it may lean toward equipping the individual with the tools and techniques which he needs to make his own decisions and solve his own problems. If there is general acceptance of the statements of many psychologists, including Rogers, that nobody but the individual himself can arrive at the solution that is most suitable and workable for himself, then certainly true guidance can not become directive.

Not very optimistic is another writer who regrets the lack of general interest in and knowledge of personality improvement:

Our civilization has not as yet reached the place where the bulk of its citizens give serious pause to the problems of psychological causation in child rearing or to the important principles of personality development.¹⁶

14. Carl R. Rogers, Counseling and Psychotherapy, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942, p. 7.

15. Loc. cit.

16. Louis P. Thorpe, Psychological Foundations of Personality, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938, p. 358.

It is possible that he is pointing to a future trend in guidance when he concludes a chapter on personality disturbance with this:

Perhaps it would not be too much to suggest that the home, the school, the churches, and all members of society unite in a concerted and intelligent effort to promote the science of personality engineering to the further end that human welfare be materially advanced.¹⁷

A summary of present-day basic guidance concepts reveals the full extent of the growth of this thirty-five year old movement.

Again we turn to Hamrin and Erickson for their presentation of these concepts:

1. Human values are of greatest importance.
2. Guidance is interested in the "whole child."
3. The situation including the home, school, church and community must always be considered.
4. Frequently, guidance workers should attempt to change situations rather than attempt to fit the individual to his present circumstances.
5. Guidance or personnel work must be provided for all children and not just for problem children or for the select few.
6. Guidance is a continuous process.
7. Guidance must be a unitary function since all aspects of a person's development are interrelated.
8. Guidance is not prescriptive but rather works toward the goal of self-direction.
9. All teachers must be guidance workers.
10. There should be a definite plan to care for the guidance function in every school. ¹⁸

17. Ibid., p. 387.

18. Hamrin and Erickson, op. cit., p. 17.

So far this chapter has given little attention to the organization of a program or to common practices in the field. Secondary schools may agree as to their basic concepts of guidance but vary greatly in their procedures. Such factors as size of school, characteristics of the pupil personnel, interest and professional training of teacher personnel, financial support, pupil-teacher ratio, and parental interest and cooperation determine various features in the organized program. According to a survey conducted by Koos and reported by Reavis¹⁹ in 1932 there were 180 specific activities considered to relate to guidance in the secondary schools. The ones found most frequently were: instructing pupils regarding occupations, carrying on occupational research, rendering placement service, making follow-up investigations, effecting adjustments between employees and employers, visiting homes of pupils, compiling case histories of pupils, administering tests to pupils, preparing guidance bulletins, giving information to pupils in groups, counseling individual pupils, holding case conferences with groups, sponsoring pupil activities, conferring with teachers and sponsors regarding individual pupils, serving on committees of teachers to develop material for try-out courses, conducting guidance clinics, and making reports of activities to administrative officers.

19. William C. Reavis, Programs of Guidance, Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, Monograph 14. Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1933, pp. 16-26.

Reavis²⁰ also reported that the principal, deans of girls and deans of boys, home room advisers, classroom teachers, trained counselors, guidance committees, and visiting teachers were the functionaries found responsible for guidance duties.

One significant thing about this survey is that it was financed by Federal Government funds and reported under auspices of the Department of the Interior.²¹ In 1938, the Occupational Information and Guidance Service was established in the Vocational Division of the United States Office of Education. Serving as a clearing house for occupational information, it assists both local and state educational officers to provide guidance programs suited to their needs, and cooperates with public and private agencies interested in the work. A recent publication²² lists twenty eight states and the District of Columbia as having supervisors for the service. Kentucky is not listed among them.

Interest in guidance in Kentucky is evidenced, however, in other ways. Several years ago, the Committee of Guidance of Kentucky Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools distributed pamphlets²³ offering general suggestions for guidance programs to administrators, counselors and teachers in the high schools of the state.

20. Ibid. pp. 7-15.

21. Ibid., pp. v-vi.

22. Occupational Information and Guidance Service, 1942-43, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, p. 1.

23. First Steps Toward Guidance in the Schools, Committee on Guidance, Kentucky Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Undated pamphlet, pp. 1-2.

Still another publication²⁴ lists ten cities in Kentucky which employ twenty-one counselors and guidance officers in their public high schools. Eleven of these counselors were credited to Louisville. These figures may not portray accurately either the local or state situation because they include only those workers devoting one-half or more of their time to guidance duties.

The influence of the war on guidance services is beginning to be evident everywhere. Emphasis on problems of personal and social adjustment seems to have resulted from consideration of the impact of the national emergency upon the individual. The interruption of careers by military service, emotional disturbances born of uncertainties and changes in economic status in the home are but a few of the problems which have touched the young in the home. More effort to train individuals to take their places in the war effort - in industry or in military service - is being encouraged. Planning for the post-war period has already begun, because long-term planning for schooling and careers must include it. Modification of school curricula has been effected with speed.²⁵

A survey, just completed, was undertaken to ascertain the effect up to date of the war on the secondary schools of New York State. Revised and enriched curricula, expansion of counseling service and testing programs, dissemination of government and in-

24. Walter J. Greenleaf and Royce E. Brewster, Public High Schools Having Counselors and Guidance Officers, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1939, p. 20.

25. Warren K. Layton, Guidance Problems in Wartime, Education and National Defense Series, Pamphlet No. 18, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1942, pp. 1-28.

dustrial literature, enlargement of social activity programs, and shifting of emphasis in the whole program are the main changes noted according to a newspaper report.²⁶ A number of schools reported the addition of such techniques as group guidance on war services, clinics, and nursery projects.

Any one surveying the literature in guidance is bound to note the usefulness of group guidance classes for inserting new materials into the curriculum. This group instruction seems firmly entrenched in programs whenever economy in time or effort is needed.

Development of Group Guidance Classes.

For the origin of this technique, we must go back to the early beginnings of vocational guidance. Proffitt²⁷ tells of the first formal classroom instruction in occupational information which appeared about 1912 to 1916 in connection with civics or other social science subjects. Separate courses began to appear about 1916 to 1918. The passage by Congress in 1917 of the National Vocational Education Act with reimbursements to the states for vocational courses doubtless increased interest in such offerings. In this same year, John Brewer urged the establishment of general survey courses of occupational opportunities. In 1918 the Committee on Reorganization of Secondary Education Association, included vocational education objectives, as one of the seven cardinal principles of education. Public schools

26. Article in New York Times, July 18, 1943. (Report on survey made on July 17 by Robert Hoppeck of School of Education, New York University.)

27. Maris M. Proffitt, "Courses in Occupational Information," U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1934, No. 11 Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1934. pp. 1-3

everywhere accepted the responsibility for including instruction in occupational information in their program of studies. Edgerton²⁸, making an intensive study of guidance activities, in 143 large and small city systems, found that separate classes were less common than occupational information units in English, civics, other social science subjects, and practical arts.

As early as 1920, Briggs²⁹ reported numerous life-career or occupations courses found in progressive junior high schools and stated that writers of the period urged the inclusion of such topics as vocational opportunities, simple economics and sociology, ethics, and social problems such as that of labor unions. The realization of the need for educational as well as vocational information led to the appearance of the term "educational and vocational information." Peckstein and McGregor³⁰ used it in 1924 and offered detailed outlines of such work to be used in each of the junior high school grades -- seventh, eighth, and ninth.

The United States Office of Education Survey of 1932-1933, reported by Proffitt,³¹ included 1,111 public high schools enrolling 1,138,939 pupils. It was found that 87.2 per cent of all the junior high schools provided some kind of instruction in occupational infor-

28. Allen, op. cit., pp. 86-87.

29. Thomas H. Briggs, The Junior High School. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920, pp. 264-265.

30. L. A. Peckstein and A. Laura McGregor, Psychology of the Junior High School Pupil. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924 - pp. 242-244.

31. Proffitt, op. cit. pp. 4-31.

mation. Intensive work is indicated for these junior high schools with certain noteworthy tendencies apparent -- self-analysis of aptitudes and interests needed in various occupations, development of techniques of procedures for discovering an occupational interest, and larger time allotment for study of the non-professional occupations. Data indicated that such instruction is usually given in separate courses required of all students, and that 75 per cent of the courses are given in the eighth and ninth grades. Peak years for the introduction of such courses were 1928, 1929, and 1930.

Many new teaching materials have been added to the curriculum through group guidance courses. Williamson and Hahn³² list as additions, practical psychology, automobile driving, home safety, accident prevention, traffic regulation, sociology, and good manners. These writers point out that as group guidance materials tend to become incorporated into already established courses and the instructional programs to be more nearly oriented to pupil needs, the term, group guidance, may disappear. Until that time comes, such courses if wisely planned, may serve to hasten curriculum reorganization.

At the present time, according to Hamrin and Erickson,³³ there are five principal threads evident in group guidance programs. These are: (1) orientation, (2) social adjustment, (3) a study of educational opportunities, (4) a consideration of vocational oppor-

32. E. G. Williamson and M. E. Hahn, Introduction to High School Counseling, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1940, pp. 141-143.

33. Hamrin and Erickson, op. cit., p. 281.

tunities, and finally (5) informing the pupil about himself and helping him to discover his own interests and capacities.

One common characteristic of these five processes is that they are continuous and cannot be cared for and then dismissed at any one age level. It is possible, though, for any school, so to plan its program that each process receives greatest emphasis at the time when pupil need is greatest and pupil interest is highest.³⁴ Planning for group guidance classes carefully as to timing and content, and so as to supplement other guidance activities will doubtless give them value.

It seems wise at this point to discuss the guidance work at the Highland Junior High School, in which the results of this study of group guidance will be utilized.

Guidance at the Highland Junior High School

This school of nearly seven hundred pupils, operating under the K-6-3-3 plan as a part of the Louisville Public School System, was opened in January 1928 to pupils of the seventh, eighth and ninth grades. It was one of the two junior high schools opened at that time, the first in the city's new junior high school system.

At the beginning of each twenty-week semester - early in June and late in January, new 7B pupils enter from various sources. The

34. Ibid., pp. 281-282.

largest number come from the three neighboring public elementary schools -- Belknap, Bloom and Longfellow. A smaller number come from other local public schools in optional territory, because they have moved to the district, or have obtained special permission to attend. From nearby parochial, private, and county schools, and from out-of-the-city schools a few more come. As these pupils advance to 7A, to 8B, to 8A, to 9B, and to 9A, a few withdraw from the school, and a few enter. When a class is 9B in September, its personnel is augmented by the addition of about one hundred fifteen pupils who come principally from county and parochial schools from which they have been graduated under the 8-4 plan. A few come from other public schools, from private schools, and from out of town.

A majority of the withdrawals during any school year is caused by pupil's moving from the district and entering another school. During the school year 1942-43, four pupils left for other reasons. Two found employment, one remained at home because of illness, and another to keep house because of the illness of a young brother.

School records show that 95 per cent of the 9A graduates enter local public senior high schools. About 98 per cent of these girls graduated enter the J. M. Atherton High School for Girls, the remaining 2 per cent enter the Theodore Ahrens Trade School. About 65 per cent of the boys graduated enter the Louisville Male High School, 33 per cent go to duPont Manual Training High School and about 2 per cent go to the Theodore Ahrens Trade School. This 5 per cent not entering local public senior high schools become absorbed

by other schools or industry.

At graduation time, about 60 per cent of those leaving indicate their intention to secure advanced training beyond the junior high school. All but a few expect to become graduates of senior high schools. While no formal study has been made to indicate the permanence of these plans, oral reports from senior high school principals indicate a high correlation between tentative plans and accomplishment.

Serving this school population, is a faculty composed of a principal and thirty-one teachers, including teachers of English, mathematics, social studies, science and health, foreign languages, art, music, household arts, industrial arts, and physical education, a librarian, a visiting teacher, a health counselor, and a guidance counselor. There is one office clerk. At the time of this writing, eleven teachers hold master's degrees, nineteen hold bachelor's degrees, and one has three college years. Of the nineteen holding bachelor's degrees, twelve have done graduate work. Five of the twelve are now writing master's theses with which they hope to complete requirements for the master's degree. Eleven have had special courses in guidance, and several more have had some work in this field in connection with other courses. Individual study and faculty discussions have been of aid to others. Twenty-three of the thirty-one teachers sponsor homeroom classes, meeting their groups daily for fifteen minutes and for a forty-five minute period in alternate

weeks.

An understanding of curricular offerings for a junior high school is dependent on knowledge of its aims and purposes. In 1920 Briggs listed these five specific purposes, which are even now quoted as worthy:

1. To continue, in so far as it may be wise and possible, and in a gradually decreasing degree, common integrating education.
2. To ascertain and reasonably to satisfy pupils' important immediate and assured future needs.
3. To explore, by means of material in itself worth while, the interests, aptitudes, and capacities of pupils.
4. To reveal to pupils, by material otherwise justifiable, the possibilities in the major fields of learning.
5. To start each pupil on the career which, as a result of the exploratory courses, he, his parents, and the school are convinced is most likely to be of profit to him and to the State. 35

The Highland Junior High School curriculum contains as constants for the three years, English, mathematics, social studies, general science, and physical education.

The variables by grades are:

7B -- clothing or simple mechanics, health study, library instruction, art, music, and group guidance.

7A -- foods or woodwork, health study, art and music.

6B -- clothing or metal, art, and music.

35. Briggs, Op. cit., pp. 162-175.

8A -- foods or woodwork, art, music, and guidance.

9B -- choice of algebra or general mathematics.

-- choice of Latin, French, art, junior office training, foods, clothing, woodwork, metal, band or orchestra.

9A -- same as 9B

While this is a basic curriculum planned with attention to junior high school purposes, it is by no means rigid. Special provisions are made for any pupil whenever need is demonstrated. In addition, either band or orchestra work may be substituted for any offering on any grade level if it is felt that the substitution will be beneficial in effect. This flexibility of the curriculum is fundamental to any guidance program.

It may be apropos to mention here the senior high school curricula. Beginning in 1931, there came into use in the Louisville Public School System the major-minor system of requirements for graduation from the senior high schools. Material from thirteen subject matter fields is offered, and:

... For graduation a student must, in addition to eight credits in English, complete at least a major of six credits in one field and two minors of four credits each in each of two other fields. After satisfying the requirements that are constant for all, and after satisfying the requirements as to the major and minors, pupils may select, with the approval of parents and the principal, courses for remaining credits.³⁶

36. Assistant Superintendent of Secondary Education, The Organization and Administration of Instructions in the Senior High Schools of Louisville, Kentucky, pamphlet, 1936.

Still another stipulation which has guidance significance is this:

Beginning with the ninth grade, credit for work done is applied toward graduation from a senior high school. Graduation from senior high school is based on completion of thirty-four half-year courses (or seventeen full-year courses), beginning with the ninth grade. Twenty-four of the thirty-four credits, exclusive of two required in health and physical education, must be taken on the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grade levels. The remainder may be counted from ninth grade work.³⁷

Highland offers as fundamental parts of the school's program certain things frequently referred to in educational literature as "extra-curriculum" offerings. Such activities as home-rooms, clubs, self-governing organizations, assemblies, school publications, special programs, school or class parties, and after-school games and contests are in integral part of the school's work. Each activity is carefully planned, is continued only as long as there is pupil interest, and is faculty sponsored. Assemblies are held weekly or bi-weekly, special programs honor special days, and club meetings are held before or after school, during lunch, or during study periods, as members desire. Short daily homerooms and the longer by-weekly ones are devoted to orientation and whole-school projects, as well as to routine matters of attendance.

Under the leadership of the principal, the school's purposes and guidance philosophy are brought to the attention of the teachers.

37. Assistant Superintendent of Secondary Education, The Organisation and Administration of Instruction in the Junior High Schools of Louisville, Kentucky, pamphlet, 1936.

Those basic concepts quoted in this chapter from the writings of Hamrin and Erickson are held up as desirable ones. Every faculty member, whether he serves as homeroom teacher or classroom teacher, is encouraged to employ worthy guidance principles in his work with pupils. Every one is urged to form friendly contacts with pupils, to aid in pupil orientation, to be alert to sense individual needs, and to arrange for helpful remedial measures that will remove handicaps and develop citizenship and right attitudes. The scheduling of classes receives attention for several reasons: first, lunch hours, shop periods, physical education periods, and other classes in which pupils are physically active are spread out over the six or seven period day; second, seventh grade pupils are assigned to one teacher for two or three of the daily periods so that their orientation in the new school will be easier; and third, special adjustments are made on individual or class schedules to remedy any conditions considered to be militating against pupil welfare.

The health counselor coordinates all health work and initiates any projects capable of improving the physical welfare of pupils. As teacher of 7B and 7A health study classes, she becomes personally acquainted with the entire pupil personnel, and paves the way for all later individual health counseling.

The visiting teacher is the co-ordinator between the home

and the school, and between the school and any other organization with which it works in the interest of the child. The efficiency of this worker at Highland is increased by virtue of the fact that she serves in the same capacity in the three "feeder" schools, and knows and is known well in the neighborhood. The successful interpretation by this worker of the child, his school, or his home, is an important guidance service. Collaboration of the school with the school system's Bureau of Research, with the Mental Hygiene Clinic and with civic, religious, and recreational projects is effective in remedial work.

The librarian renders special service in teaching 7B classes how to use the library facilities, in selecting varied materials, and in encouraging their use.

Teachers of academic subjects as well as of household and industrial arts and fine arts are requested to give cognizance to the exploratory function of the junior high school, in order to stress the vocational and avocational aspects of their fields of work as well as their every-day living values. The efficacy of certain teaching methods can be ascertained to some extent by the school's testing program. The testing program, however, is used more to obtain a picture of the individual than for any other purposes. Standardized group tests of mental ability, general achievement tests, and achievement tests in single subjects are

used principally. Interpretation of these test results is made in terms of individual pupil progress. Until the present time, no use has been made of any interest inventories or adjustment tests except single home-made checks used to measure interest or adjustment as of the given date with special notation of the lack of constancy in interest and adjustment in the junior high school years.

The guidance counselor, as coordinator of the guidance program, has a part in all previously mentioned activities. In addition, this worker is responsible for the installation and upkeep of the school's individual record card system, making provision for the entrance thereon of information concerning students entering from other schools, and passing the whole on to the senior high schools which receive this school's graduates. The creation of special forms to simplify the gathering of information about students is usually effected by a committee composed of the principal, visiting teacher, and guidance counselor who submit their recommendations for faculty suggestion or approval before final printing or mimeographing. A third responsibility of the counselor is in the realm of individual and group counseling.

Provision is made for individual counseling by naming advisors for each grade. To aid in pupils orientation and promote friendly relations with the home, the visiting teacher acts as advisor to 7B.

The principal serves in this capacity with 7A and 8B, and the guidance counselor with 8A, 9B, and 9A. In this manner, articulation between the elementary and the junior high school is promoted by the visiting teacher. Likewise, articulation between junior and senior high schools is aided by the guidance counselor.

Mention must be made here of the stress laid on individual counseling by the school staff. This work is of paramount importance.

In using this important guidance tool, the school's effort is directed at giving the individual an opportunity to solve his own problems. It is true that much guidance is aimed at manipulating the school environment to make it more conducive to wholesome personality development. But when an individual in this improved environment has a problem to solve, he must be given the right to solve it in his own unique way. The school may give him the information he needs, but it cannot go beyond a certain point in offering its help. For the "solution" is a solution only when the individual has reached it by using some of his own power. Whether the help for this solution has come by individual or group counseling is unimportant. Whether the help was given consciously or unconsciously by the school is unimportant. The essential nature of guidance is such that the help is given to the individual in such a way that he can utilize it, and at a time when he knows he needs it.

Group counseling with emphasis on pupil orientation and exploration is offered to 7B. It supplements homeroom guidance and individual counseling. Because of the curriculum choices to be made for the 9B semester, and because of the large influx of new students in 9B, group counseling is again offered in 8A and 9B. This, too, is in addition to homeroom guidance and individual counseling.

The purpose of this thesis is to suggest the subject matter for this group guidance work. The Louisville Public School System has no director of this service for the city as a whole, so that initiative is encouraged in various schools. It is because of the constant encouragement of the principal of this school and of her enthusiasm for and interest in the guidance viewpoint that the matter has received faculty support.

Generous endorsement of the program is usually accorded by the parents, too. Interest in the Parent-Teacher Association and in special meetings for parents is indicated by good attendance. Meetings for 7B parents to inform them of the school's program were attended by 60 per cent of the parents during the school year of 1942-43. Athletic events, art and shop exhibits, and musical programs are well attended and supported by parents and friends.

The focus of attention in a guidance program is always on the individual. To serve him wisely one must know him well.

For that reason, the next part of this study will identify the junior high school pupil and then scrutinize him carefully.

**THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PUPIL,
HIS NEEDS, AND HIS GOALS**

CHAPTER II

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PUPIL, HIS NEEDS, AND HIS GOALS

This part of the study identifies the junior high school pupil as being in later childhood and early adolescence. He is found to be, with few exceptions, entering into adolescence at some time during his stay in the seventh, eighth, or ninth grade. Something of ^{his} physical and mental make-up is described. His needs as originators of his behavior are studied, and their importance noted. His social and emotional development as he strives toward certain goals is given consideration. These adolescent goals as further explanation of his behavior are taken in some detail because they give rise to so many of his problems.

A Definition of the Junior High School Pupil

The junior high school pupil cannot be identified with a single definition. He can, however, be analyzed from the point of view of age, of growth in general, and of physiological maturation. If he has entered the first grade at the age of six he is ready to enter the seventh grade of the junior high school at the age of twelve. Smith attempts to picture an average this way:

It is customary, however, to allow a range of one full year for each half grade, so that a child who enters the six-year elementary school at six or

seven and completes it at twelve or thirteen is regarded as making normal progress. On this basis a junior high school pupil is considered of normal age if he enters the seventh grade at twelve or thirteen and completes the ninth at fifteen or sixteen.¹

Because in actual practice, not nearly all pupils in a given grade or school are of normal age, Smith added:

The age for a given grade or half grade constitutes, therefore, essentially a distribution.²

From the viewpoint of guidance procedures and particularly that of the group guidance class, the age distribution is of importance in determining content if such content is to be provided on sound bases.

Computation of the age-grade distribution of Highland Junior High School pupils as they entered classes at the beginning of the second semester of the school year 1942-43 and of the range of ages within the classes, affords an illustration of Smith's statement. Table I shows the age-grade distribution of the school's enrollment. Separate ranges for boys and girls have been prepared. Thus, 13 boys who were eleven years old, 16 who were twelve, and 3 who were thirteen formed the total of 32 boys who entered 7B. Only 9 girls who were eleven and 9 who were twelve entered 7B. Distribution of ages in the various grades shows some overlapping. The thirteen and fourteen year columns are of especial import in this study as other material in this chapter points out. Table II, showing the lowest and highest age

1. William A. Smith, The Junior High School, New York: Macmillan Company, 1925, p. 102.

2. Ibid., p. 103.

TABLE I
AGE - GRADE DISTRIBUTION OF ENROLLMENT
AT
HIGHLAND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
AT
BEGINNING OF SECOND SEMESTER OF SCHOOL YEAR
1942 - 1943 *

BOYS						
AGE	11	12	13	14	15	16
GRADE						TOTAL
7B	13	16	3			32
7A	3	41	19			63
8B		14	17	4	2	37
8A		7	47	14		68
9B			11	16	10	37
9A			5	77	14	1
						97
GIRLS						
AGE	11	12	13	14	15	16
GRADE						TOTAL
7B	9	9				18
7A	5	56	10			71
8B		16	12	2	2	32
8A		5	44	3		52
9B			9	11	5	1
9A			18	99	12	
						129

* Computed from Report of Promotions,
Louisville Public Schools, First Semester, 1942 - 43.

TABLE II.

RANGE IN AGES AMONG PUPILS
ENTERING CLASSES OF HIGHLAND
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AT BEGINNING
OF SECOND SEMESTER OF SCHOOL YEAR
1942 - 1943

RANGE IN AGE	BOYS	GIRLS
GRADE		
7B	11 ¹ to 13 ⁶	11 ⁶ to 12 ⁹
7A	11 ⁵ to 13 ⁷	11 ⁷ to 13 ⁵
8B	12 ⁵ to 15 ¹	12 ³ to 15 ⁰
8A	12 ¹ to 14 ⁹	12 ¹ to 14 ⁸
9B	13 ⁰ to 15 ⁶	13 ⁵ to 16 ⁰
9A	13 ⁶ to 16 ⁰	13 ² to 15 ⁸

*Computed from Report of Promotions,
Louisville Public School, First Semester, 1942 - 43

in each class, is significant in showing that a teacher of any grade deals with pupils of many ages. For example, a 7B class contains a boy as old as thirteen years and six months, while a 9A class contains a boy as young as thirteen years and six months.

Physiological maturation usually begins during the ages found in these tables, and has significance in determining school procedures.

Smith describes it as follows:

Beginning with the second decade of his existence, and sometimes a trifle earlier, the individual enters upon a period of development which prepares him for procreation. The developmental process which takes place during this interval is commonly spoken of as physiological maturation. It begins the moment that the changes involved in the establishment of this function set in, and terminates as soon as the function as such has become definitely established. ... physical maturity, with which biological fitness for marriage is closely identified, implies a fairly close approximation to complete bodily growth, in height at least; and this the individual does not attain until some three years after he has reached physiological maturity.

The term puberty is quite commonly used to designate the interval, or age, during which physiological maturation takes place. ... it covers a period of approximately three years immediately preceding the time at which the interval reaches maturity. ... This is the interval during which the adolescent spurt in growth, in so far as it takes place, occurs. We shall speak of the interval as such as the period of early adolescence.³

Schwab, writing of early adolescence, lists acceleration of physical growth, mental expansion, and glandular activation, as:

3. Ibid., p. 115-116.

... three important items in the growth and development of the adolescent at this period which are important in the process of adjustment that is so plainly going on.⁴

Strang⁵ lists as unquestioned facts about physical growth the prepubescent acceleration in height and weight and the precedence of girls in this accelerated growth by a year or two, and adds that it is difficult to estimate the duration of the growth spurt or the time that it will appear because of the wide variation in the time of the onset of puberty. Brooks⁶ states that puberty among girls begins, on the average, about the thirteenth year, and, among boys, about the fourteenth year, but notes that there are wide variations. Studies that have been made of boys show:

The pubescent growth and pigmentation of fine hair are often taken as a sign of approaching maturation, although it is hardly adequate to determine precisely the first secretion of the sperm cell. ... the dawn of puberty occurs at no one or two chronological ages exclusively. At any one age not more than forty or fifty per cent of the boys are likely to be maturing; the others are either pre-pubescent (immature) or post-pubescent. (matured) ... Dr. Godin has regarded puberty as definitely established among boys when: (1) the downy pubic hair gives way to the thicker, kinky growth; (2) the voice changes; and (3) hair appears in the armpits. ... This stage of sexual growth probably is reached by American boys at the average age of 14½ or 15 years.⁷

4. Sidney I. Schwab and Borden S. Veeder, The Adolescent, His Conflicts and Escapes, New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1929. pp. 63-64.

5. Ruth Strang, Behavior and Background of Students in College and Secondary Schools, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1937, pp. 366-367.

6. Fowler D. Brooks, The Psychology of Adolescence, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929, p. 1.

7. Ibid., pp. 41-43.

If one checks the last sentence against Tables I and II showing ages and age ranges among the Highland Junior High School pupils as he will conclude that the ninth grade class contained more boys who had reached puberty than the eighth grade, that the eighth grade contained more than the seventh grade, and that it is possible to have boys who can be classified as early adolescents in every class at this school.

The same conclusions can be reached about the girls of the school:

Among girls the commonly accepted criteria of puberty are undoubtedly more valid than those used with boys. The evidence of sexual maturing are the first menstrual flow, enlargement of breasts, the appearance of subcutaneous fat, and axillary hair. The median chronological age of maturation is approximately thirteen and one-half to thirteen and three quarter years for American girls, but the age at which puberty begins also varies greatly among girls who are normal physically.⁸

Brooks⁹ further describes the physical development of the early adolescent by noting: (1) the greatly increased breathing capacity at the dawn of puberty which appears a year sooner among girls than boys, (2) close relationship between height and weight and breathing capacity, (3) rapid increase of muscular power, (4) yearly increase in ratio of strength to height; (5) greater motor abilities, and (6) continued decrease in the amount of motor fatigue, if fatigue is defined as a decrease in the amount of work

8. Ibid., p. 42.

9. Ibid., pp. 44-56.

done in a given time.

Strang, with her constant interest in the behavioral aspects of adolescence, notes this:

The growth spurt occurs definitely earlier for girls than for boys. In girls an increase in rate of growth has usually taken place by twelve years of age, the twelfth year frequently being the time at which they make their largest annual gains in height. Boys lag behind girls by one or two years in their physical development. Thus for a period of time, boys between eleven and fourteen years of age ... tend to appear at a physical and sometimes at a social disadvantage. The teacher should be sensitive to the greater maturity of the girls in his class, for this cognizance will frequently aid him in the interpretation of the behavior of both boys and girls.¹⁰

This same author¹¹ points out several aspects of physical development which may create problems requiring guidance. Unusual spurts of growth or the lack of them as well as uneven or inappropriate growth causing variations in weight may worry the child. Pituitary deficiencies causing overweight, drowsiness, mental sluggishness and menstrual irregularity, and thyroid deficiencies causing slow-thinking, restlessness, and irritability are common glandular disturbances. Chronic fatigue causes irritability, restlessness, inertia, twitching, lack of concentration, circles under eyes, pinched look, sleeplessness, and loss of appetite. Ignorance of the cause of acne is responsible for much distress of early adolescents suffering from this skin blemish, which also

10. Ruth Strang, Pupil Personnel and Guidance, New York: Macmillan Company, 1940. p. 30.

11. Ibid., pp. 30-36.

causes feelings of inferiority. Malnutrition and physical defects also do much to prevent optimum development.

That varying growth rates have implications for social and emotional adjustment is rather generally accepted today.¹² Recent writers have made this statement which has significance for this study:

There is some evidence to indicate that when children understand the growth process ... they develop more wholesome attitudes toward their own physical development and are more tolerant and understanding of the growth patterns of their peers.¹³

The junior high school pupil is more than a physical being. His mental, social, and emotional growth, too, make up the "whole child" with which guidance concerns itself. Smith ¹⁴ says of his mental development that it is gradual rather than saltatory, but that there can be fluctuation in it along with fluctuation of physical growth. Some research shows "waves or nodes" in mental development, points to high correlation between superiority in physical traits and mental growth, and shows that different attitudes, emotions, and interests are held by the more physically matured. Writers are agreed as to the extreme importance of the early adolescent's sense of personal worth.

12. Maurice C. Ahrens and others, Physiological Aspects of Child Growth and Development, Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1941, p. 6.

13. Ibid., p. 10.

14. Smith, Op. cit., pp. 130-135

Schwab says:

... a new sense of personal awareness gradually unfolds. The complete organism asserts itself and a personal entity makes itself felt in the consciousness of the adolescent. The adolescent ... begins to feel himself and to establish a precise sense of personal worth.¹⁵

And another writer affirms:

With the onset of puberty, a boy or girl becomes increasingly conscious of himself as a person: his purposes, his role in life, and ambitions. There emerges a rapidly increasing struggle for independence in choices and actions. ... he wishes to be respected as a person and to be in on any situation which involve him or his program. ... seeks freedom from family control even more than from school control.¹⁶

What Schwab¹⁷ describes as the adolescent's absorption in self and his fascination in becoming acquainted with it is important to the individual undoubtedly, but is of no less importance to society in a democratic state. Full development of each individual's power is needed in a democratic society. From the point of view of the individual, this awareness of self may be justification for a group guidance class for the consideration of personal problems. In addition, this marked interest in abstract conceptions may be utilized to establish standards of conduct.

Undoubtedly, a large number of pupils in any junior high will be found to be early adolescents. A majority in the 8A and 9B grades of the Highland Junior High School will certainly be. To serve them

15. Schwab and Veeder, op. cit., p. 65.

16. Lois Hayden Meek, and others, The Personal Social Development of Boys and Girls, New York: Progressive Education Association, 1940. p. 105.

17. Schwab and Veeder, op. cit., pp. 65-66.

according to their needs, some attention to what these needs are has been given next.

Early Adolescent Needs

Psychologists have long told us of human urges and or drives. Howard and Patry^B writing in 1935, gave this list of the fundamental urges of man: (1) bodily needs; (2) craving for success, achievement, mastery; avoidance of failure, thwarting and disappointment; (3) craving for recognition, approval, admiration, (dependent on attitudes of others); (4) craving for sympathy, affection, intimacy, and deeper understanding of oneself; (5) urge for security, freedom from physical want, sense of possession, freedom from anxiety, worry, and feelings of insecurity; (6) cravings for adventure, new scenes and experiences, exhilarating activity; distaste of monotony; (7) sex urge.

Their very great importance was stressed thus:

These urges are the inescapable facts of human nature as real as the forces and elements of the physical world, and we cannot ignore them or deny them some measure of satisfaction. The hygienic problem is to provide for outlets on higher or sublimatory levels and to see that none of them assume a disproportionate place in personality.¹⁹

The concept of need on the part of individuals is receiving increasing attention from those who deal with people. Realization that society and its institutions are frequently at fault when people misbehave is more widespread. Prescott has this to say:

18. Frank E. Howard and Frederick L. Patry, Mental Health, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1935. pp. 51-52.

19. Ibid., p. 53.

By denying to individuals the opportunity to satisfy basic human needs, society creates the psychic and emotional maladjustments which underlie some of the most critical problems that society then seeks to remedy by punishment or re-education. There is evidence here that society should seek consciously to reorganize itself in such a manner as to make available to each individual the opportunity to satisfy his basic personality needs.²⁰

This functional concept of need, first offered for appraisal by Kurt Lewin in the early nineteen thirties, was developed by Dr. Henry A. Murray, of the Psychological Clinic at Harvard University. On the basis of case studies he evolved a statement of "psychogenic needs" that is, needs growing out of psychological processes.²¹

The needs of developing children fell naturally into three categories representing three major aspects of the life of a person. These categories of need can be called: (1) physiological, when describing needs that spring primarily out of structure and dynamic biochemical equilibria; (2) social or status needs, when describing the relationships that it is essential to establish with other persons in our culture; and (3) ego or integrative needs, when describing needs for experience and for the organization and symbolization of experience through which the individual will discover his role in life and learn to play it in such an effective manner as to develop a sense of worthy selfhood.²²

Because behavior has unity, Prescott begs no one to think of these categories and the specific needs within them as separate and independent drives because there is a functional interrelation between them.²³

Preservation of physiological equilibria demands air, appropriate

20. Daniel Alfred Prescott, Chairman, Emotion and the Educative Process, Washington, D. C.: American Council of Education, 1938. p. 112.

21. Prescott, loc. cit.,

22. Ibid., p. 113.

23. Ibid., p. 114.

food and liquids, and such clothing and shelter as will maintain proper temperature. Regulation and adequate elimination of the body's waste products, freedom from poisons from spoiled food, alcohol and tobacco, and freedom from fecal infections are necessary. Rhythm of activity and rest is particularly necessary for children and young people. A final physiological need is for sexual activity.²⁴

The social of status needs of the individual grow out of the fact that life must be lived in contact with others. There is a fundamental need to live in a relationship of affection or love with one or more persons. The child must also expand the scope of his activities into successively wider social gatherings so that functioning in them will give him a feeling of belonging. Affection and belongingness develop security. He must have a certain likeness to others, and may be different only if the difference is something applauded by those whose opinion he values. Even those differences caused by variations in temperament, intelligence, or experience may cause an individual to feel guilt or set-apartness and may bring about shyness or ineffective social behavior.²⁵

The third category of needs - the ego and integrative - are included because of the individual's necessity for a sense of worthy and effective self hood based upon the maturing of an integrated personality.

24. Ibid., pp. 114-116.

25. Ibid., pp. 116-118.

And this is based upon the attainment of six separate but related needs. The first is for rich and varied experience with the realities of matter and energy, with social forces and institutions and processes operating in our culture and others so that the attitudes and behavior patterns formed by the individual fit him to meet all aspects of life. He must have contact with reality.²⁶

The second need is that he achieve mental organization which will result in his harmony with reality. He must get help from science, philosophy, religion, and aesthetics.²⁷ The third need is for progressive symbolization. This comes because the human mind is able to organize experience, to establish logical arrangements of ideas, and to arrive at general concepts. Children need expert help in this process -- help which arranges the experiences leading to generalization, the checking of these generalizations against new experiences and against the generalizations of others, and the requirement by adults that they be stated in accurate terms. Symbolization needs to be progressive, evolutionary, and continuous so that personality development is not stagnated at immature levels.²⁸

The fourth need is for increasing self direction. Patterns of dependency persisting in adult life can be prevented only if growing children are given the privilege and responsibility of initiating and regulating their own behavior at the same time that they

26. Ibid., p. 119.

27. Ibid., pp. 119-121.

28. Ibid., pp. 121-122.

are aided in the development of value concepts and standards. This is a long and gradual process.²⁹ A fair balance between success and failure is a fifth need. A child who finds continuous difficulty in doing what others do easily cannot mobilize his knowledge and integrate his energy output into effective behavior patterns. He must feel adequate in a fair number of the increasingly complex situations which he is called on to meet.³⁰ The last need is for attaining selfhood or individuality. As the first five needs are met a person will sense how his own personal worth has increased and will feel his part in maintaining the welfare of the group. Thus socially useful conduct becomes the road to personal satisfaction and self-expression.³¹

Strang's description of integrative behavior contains this statement:

The person who possesses this quality listens to other persons, incorporates their ideas into his thinking and feeling, takes a constructive attitude toward them, finds a common purpose among differences and cooperates with others in group enterprise.³²

In a very recent book, Langer writes thus of the concept of need:

The point is that the behavior of the organism requires an expenditure of energy. This energy must come from some source within the individual. We do not know its fundamental nature. We only know the effect it produces. We assume that a dynamic entity, which we have called a need, exists and motivates and directs the subsequent behavior of the organism.³³

29. Ibid., pp. 122-123.

30. Ibid., pp. 123-124.

31. Ibid., pp. 124-125.

32. Ruth Strang, Pupil Personnel and Guidance, op. cit., p. 55.

33. Walter C. Langer, Psychology and Human Living, New York: D. Appleton Century Company, 1943, p. 62.

Langer presents as physical needs -- the need for food, for moisture, for relaxation, for urination, and for defacation.³⁴

His second category is that of social needs, psychogenic in nature. The need for affiliation may be diffuse, in which case the individual's need for human companionship extends to anyone and everyone, or it may be focal, in which case gratification can come from only a few. The need to love and be loved is another goal to which man strives. A third need for nurturance has as its goal aiding the weak and needy. Langer adds that these three social needs have as a common characteristic the attainment of a human relationship.³⁵

The third category, the egoistic needs, is also psychogenic. The need for dominance may show itself in moral, social, intellectual, political, and spiritual spheres. Those in whom the need is strong are referred to as masterful authoritative, executive and forceful.³⁶ A need for autonomy, the tendency to free oneself from restraint or coercion, shows itself to be strong in the people we call independent, rebellious, irresponsible, free, resistant, or uncooperative.³⁷ The need for achievement may show itself in physical, intellectual, or social pursuits.³⁸ A need for acquisition, the tenden-

34. Ibid., pp. 41-62.

35. Ibid., pp. 63-74.

36. Ibid., pp. 75-77.

37. Ibid., pp. 77-78.

38. Ibid., pp. 79-80.

cy to acquire tangible objects, is most readily seen in those we call greedy, acquisitive, avaricious, covetous, grasping, or demanding.³⁹ People who have a well-developed need for retention of what is acquired are stingy, miserly, economical, parsimonious, frugal, thrifty, and saving.⁴⁰ If we assume a need for cognizance (knowing) we explain man's inquisitive, inquiring, and exploratory behavior.⁴¹ The show-offs, the conspicuous, spectacular, dramatic individuals prove a need for attention.⁴² A final need in this group is that of destruction. It explains actions which tend to belittle, degrade, attack, injure, or destroy objects or people.⁴³

Langer emphasizes that these social and egoistic needs are present in all of us in varying degrees of intensity. Their gratification, never complete but always relative, can be obtained in our culture. Partial gratification acts as an incentive for further efforts in the same direction. His incomplete list of needs, Langer adds, contains the most important ones.⁴⁴

Prevention of gratification of a need taps a new source of energy which directs behavior toward gratification, and this he calls a need for retaliation.⁴⁵ It may be well to mention here that

39. Ibid., pp. 80-81.

40. Ibid., p. 81.

42. Ibid., p. 82.

42. Ibid., Cit.

43. Ibid., pp. 82-84.

44. Ibid., pp. 84-85.

45. Ibid., p. 95.

retaliative behavior on the part of a young person in a classroom situation is a frequently misunderstood process. However, if a teacher possesses understanding of basic needs and realizes that the environment at the moment is not conducive for the gratification of certain needs, she does not call the pupil "troublesome", nor set about to prescribe punishment. Instead she manipulates the environment to make possible some form of gratification which is not in conflict with the culture. This may be a large part of the guidance viewpoint.

Langer offers constructive help for the person who hopes to improve behavior. He says, in part:

An understanding of the dynamics of behavior is, therefore, the first and most important requirement for any intelligent program designed to modify your own behavior patterns or those of other people.⁴⁶

We all carry remnants and residues of our infancy into adult life, and we can save ourselves many feelings of shame, inferiority, and guilt by recognizing this fact.⁴⁷

We may substitute a new mode of behavior for the outworn or undesirable one. ... The individual must then, be introduced into the proper situation in order that he may discover that it produces greater pleasures than the course he has been pursuing.⁴⁸

Even in adult life it is often necessary to manipulate the environment to fit the needs of the individual. A person may find himself in an occupation in which some of his needs cannot be gratified. It may be necessary for him to initiate a program of creating possibilities for their expression.⁴⁹

We must not shrink from any new experience. On the contrary, we must seek them out and participate in all

46. Ibid., p. 265.

47. Loc. Cit.

48. Ibid., p. 266.

49. Ibid., p. 270.

kinds of activities even though, on the conscious level, they may not appeal to us immediately. Not knowing what the ungratified need is, we are in no position to know what activity may prove to be an outlet for its expression.⁵⁰

It is possible for a single course of action to satisfy several needs.⁵¹

Our interests are determined by a fusion of several needs.⁵²

If we are free to choose for ourselves, our choice of work and our future careers will be determined by such fusions of needs.⁵³

Beside these interests which persist and dominate our lives, some are transitory. ... As a result the gratification of these needs temporarily takes precedence over the more enduring fusions of needs. ... When a number of strong needs can be fused, - and the environment is favorable, we lose ourselves completely in the resulting activity.⁵⁴....

... happiness is intimately related to the expression and gratification of dominant needs.⁵⁵

It is possible that one of the strongest arguments that Langer⁵⁶ uses to encourage adults to give credence to the theory of "needs" is the expression of his belief that democracy can survive only if its backbone is composed of individuals who are broad-visioned and well adjusted and sufficiently grounded in personal security to be generous, tolerant, and fair with others. He says that a democracy is no stronger than the human relations existing among its individual members.

A definition of the early adolescent and his needs does not describe him fully enough. For he has certain goals toward which he is striving, goals which are peculiar to his stage of development. A

50. Ibid., p. 272.

51. Ibid., p. 87.

52. Ibid., p. 88.

53. Ibid., p. 89.

54. Loc. cit.

55. Ibid., p. 90.

56. Ibid., p. 280.

discussion of these goals concludes this chapter.

Adolescent Goals

The early adolescent is striving toward something which must be clearly understood if education is to serve him. Morgan⁵⁷ asserts that the fundamental habits of a person are established very early in life. We are told by other writers⁵⁸ that the growth of the child from birth to adulthood is a continuous process that cannot be divided into carefully specified states. Still another writer,⁵⁹ one conversant with adolescent personality, writes of the major adjustments in emotion and conduct which young people in contemporary American culture must make in order to make later, adult adaptations. Barr, Burton, and Brueckner⁶⁰ take the stand that the objective of all education is to provide opportunity for continuous growth on the part of the individual so that he may function happily in a co-operative democratic society.

In getting his satisfactions from life, the early adolescent has certain major adjustments to make. Blos⁶¹ tells us that these adjustments are directed toward the three adolescent goals of emanci-

57. John J. B. Morgan, The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child, New York: Macmillan Company, 1931, p. 282.

58. A. S. Barr, William H. Burton, and Leo J. Brueckner, Supervision, New York: D. Appleton Century Co., 1938, pp. 581-582.

59. Caroline B. Zachry and Margaret Lighty, Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence, New York: D. Appleton - Century Company, 1940, p. vii.

60. Barr, Burton and Brueckner, op. cit., p. 163.

61. Peter Blos, The Adolescent Personality, New York: D. Appleton - Century Company, 1941, pp. 321-322.

pation from the family, heterosexual adjustment, and vocational, ideational, and economic self determination. They must be recognized and understood by the school and the home to be attempts on his part to secure those satisfactions which Prescott has described so fully as being his "needs."

The adolescent seeks emancipation from the family and home.⁶²

His constant need for status during childhood is heightened when pubertal growth brings change to his body. He desires to attain adulthood immediately. Because he believes that adults seem rather free from the direct control of other persons, he seeks this freedom. He may feel better able to exercise discretion in choices and may find that adults expect a higher degree of self-determination from him. Again, that bond existing between the early adolescent and the parent of the opposite sex may create moods of jealous resentment toward the parent of the same sex and so cause strained relationships. His hero worship of other adults and his interest in young persons of the opposite sex heighten the desire for freedom from the authority and protection of his home. The adolescent deals with his perplexing home situation by evading it. He welcomes diversions which take him away from it. Again he may revolt against parental firmness and be aggressively antagonistic. Fluctuating feelings about his parents' way of life may occasion moods of defiance

62. Zachry, op. cit., pp. 271-345.

against their standards. With older adolescents, rationalization of rebellious feelings occurs. Hostile generalizations about the adult generations as a whole are made in many cases. And yet in spite of all of this, the adolescent may be finding companionship with his parents in many ways if they are serene and respect his individuality.

Even while the adolescent seeks to show his parents that he can stand alone he leans heavily on other adults. Because they are superior to him in wisdom and strength and because they have less reason to control him, he leans on them in order not to have to become too independent all at once. Siblings or relatives of the same sex are often chosen for this purpose. The teacher, the clergyman, or the group leader who shows liking and respect for him as an individual may be given this role. If this person plays it well, he may help the adolescent to develop a more responsible use of freedom from supervision.

The second goal of hetero-sexual adjustment is of extreme importance.⁶³ The child's attitude toward peers of either sex goes through many stages. Babies respond to other babies in a manner different from their response to other ages. The small child is inclined to feel rivalry with others for the love of adults. Young school children show little tendency to form a group. The relationship seems to flow mainly between teacher and child, but the wise

63. Ibid., p. 346-399.

teacher can develop attitudes of co-operation and sharing. In later childhood there is rivalry between sisters, between brothers, and among them all. At the same time, there is a large measure of fellow feeling which can be encouraged by wise parental action. There follows a period in which the child is absorbed in friendships with contemporaries of his own sex. His emotional readiness for this step comes from his basic security with the adults close to him. Mutual interests cause warm comradeships. The early adolescent continues to like his own age - sex mates, selecting those who are at about the same stage in intellectual development. Both boys and girls say that one important function of friendship is discussing problems and mutual activities. Their concerns seem to be with life-adjustment tasks. Mixed groups often discuss problems of heterosexual adjustment, though with some constraint and uncertainty. As adolescents pool problems, so they share resources in solving them. That the adolescent takes up with peers his personal problem suggests that among his friends he feels a responsibility for his own adjustment, of meeting their expectations, and of changing himself. Some adolescents, insecure in home relationships, find it hard to reciprocate the friendship offered by peers. Others offend with boorish or sullen attitudes if something in childhood developed such habits. Lack of previous opportunity to make friends through isolated living causes some early adolescents to withdraw into themselves. Others are

too preoccupied with themselves. Young adolescents often quarrel because of dissimilarities which they discover in each other; others are drawn together by them. Parental attitudes often influence such actions.

The early adolescent of junior high school age is not always able or ready to become interested in those of the opposite sex. He may be occupied with time-taking activities such as athletics, he may have vague fears centering on sexuality, or he too busy with school success or money-making exploits. Lack of opportunity to know members of the other sex may be due to his school placement with those in a different stage of development or to segregated high schools. Parental or teacher attitudes may not encourage such relationship. Through companionship, boys and girls find increasing satisfaction in one another as persons who, though alike, yet are essentially different.

The third and final goal of adolescence is vocational, ideational, and economic self-determination.⁶⁴ Early in adolescence the job situation may look so ominous as to dwarf other interests, even to the person adjusting well in present circumstances. To boys, a job sometime in the future is a certainty. To some girls, it is secondary in importance to a career in homemaking. To other girls, as to boys, a job in the near future is an economic necessity and often a device for more success. Successful competition in the adult order is their way of proving their

64, Ibid., pp. 425-465.

adequacy. Financial independence from the family is looked forward to because it is a final step in emancipation from the home, it demands adult respect, and constitutes an important means of induction into adult society.

But there are more important and less obvious implications. Certain conditions of the occupation and the nature of the work to be done may offer various satisfactions, such as those found in good workmanship, in constructive use of aptitudes, and in the satisfying of deeper emotional needs. In addition, the nature or relationships with superiors, colleagues, and subordinates characteristic of different occupations may have significance in offering satisfaction.

Certain fears are bound to beset the young adolescent. High rates of unemployment among the young, uncertainty of future interests, and lack of knowledge of personal marketable aptitudes may disturb him. His knowledge of present-day technological change and a doubt of his ability to grow in his occupation doubtless disturb him further.

Children are accustomed from early age to being questioned about their future occupations. So many factors should enter into vocational choice that an incomplete appraisal of them may result in later incompatibility. Economic circumstances leave no choice at all to some. If a job is needed immediately, the first available one is taken. Economic conditions also determine the length of the training

period during which a young person may be supported by his family. His own industry determines how much he may supplement insufficient family allowance. A second factor in choice is the young person's state of health, his general strength index, and physical disabilities as they favor or negate certain jobs. One's intellectual resources, another important item, are partially responsible for the quality of one's past experiences and thus determine interests. Because desire for success is paramount in human beings, they tend to choose vocations of which they are capable. Feelings of inferiority or superiority and the influence of others may inflate or deflate ambitions to the wrong level.

Certain emotional factors, too, are involved in the process of choice. Intellectual analysis of a vocation is accompanied by an evaluation that is influenced by one's attitudes. Predispositions toward some kinds of work and away from others have bases in unanalyzed attitudes, as have floundering in and evasions of choice. Attitudes to self and others, and to work and play, developed in past and present experiences are brought to bear in the process of choice. Interest - fusion of thought and feeling -- is important. Another strong influence is early preferences. Interest in successful play activities during childhood may freeze choices, as may strong parental advice. Failure or success on the part of parents may influence this advice. Family patterns of occupations may cause unques-

tioned conformity to tradition.

The early adolescent participating successfully in a variety of activities, successful in human relations and achievements, is not concerned with anxiety about a choice. Nor is the one who fears that he will fail in vocation as he has in other ventures. The gifted child finds satisfaction in many fields and has a multitude of interests; so he is puzzled and may choose to postpone a choice. Still a few others are disinclined to assume responsibility for choice.

Certain developmental experiences affect vocational leanings. Interest in children caused by such things as desire for one's own children, desire to protect, longing for affection, sensitivity to people and awareness of their needs, arising in part from past experiences, may cause a girl to express an interest in teaching or nursing. Difficulties encountered in one's own childhood interest others in occupations that care for the sick, troubled or oppressed. Insecurity may lead one to want an occupation with a high degree of prestige. Numerous other illustrations of the expression of the longing for ego satisfactions could be given. It is highly important for the guidance program to recognize the part that developmental experience plays in any expressed vocational choice, for these choices may be only secondary and may never become primary ones.

Attitudes to sex membership inevitably creep into vocational

choice. The young person who is confused about his sex role may strive either consciously or unconsciously to work out his difficulty in a vocation. Sympathetic adult guidance may help him to a solution not connected with vocation.

Occupational preferences of boys and girls are influenced in other ways by their feelings about themselves and others. Longings for continued dependency may cause one child to elect a job in which he can continue to be dependent. Outgoing young people may choose jobs which they believe offer scope for manipulating others. The thrill of pioneering in new and adventurous fields leads others to choose to play a part, even a small part, in some new field. Longing for attention influences other choices. Desire to avoid attention or inability to compete with contemporaries in various ways may turn some to work in which people are less important. The adolescent unsure of himself with people may substitute materials or concepts for them in his thinking. Similarly, a love of precision or a thirst for knowledge may lead to occupations in which people are of less prominence. The desire for something greater than self may lead to a job dealing with the forces of nature or the pursuit of social goals. The creative and interpretive arts of painting, music, poetry, or the dance may provide refuge for others avoiding personal relationships.

The urgency for solutions of difficulties through vocational

choice may be diminished as the adolescent gains a firmer hold on his problems and grows in competence. Therefore, those who deal with adolescents may aid in the solution of their problems and give them wiser enduring bases for vocational choice. Due recognition must be given to the transitory quality of some choices.

Just as a counselor expects the young child to be interested in adventurous roles, so, too he expects those in late childhood to be interested in the manipulation of things and in exploration.

Just as certainly can he expect those in early and late adolescence to express temporary interest and needs in vocational choices.

Zachry warns that a young person cannot see what his interests and inclinations will be in maturity. The older adolescent is more likely than the early adolescent to take objective circumstances into account in his planning. Thus he is more likely to select an occupation which holds enduring interest and to lay the foundation for later vocational adjustment. Too often the long preparation for a trade is over-emphasized at the expense of emotional adaptation.

Her conclusion has significance for this study:

The youngster who must decide, in the eighth or ninth grade, whether to enter a vocational or general high school, or who, indeed, must choose among schools each of which specializes wholly in preparation for one industry or trade may be seriously handicapped in emotional adjustment to his work.⁶⁵

65. Ibid., p. 460.

This chapter has described the early adolescent and has studied his needs and the goals which motivate his behavior. It is understandable that he will have problems in his daily living because so much of his environmental situation is not conducive to the attainment of these goals. Further attention is given to problems in the next part of this study.

ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS OF PUPILS

CHAPTER III

ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS OF PUPILS

The universality of adjustment problems in the lives of human beings is cited by many writers in the field. Woodworth has this to say:

The great problem before the individual is how to live and get along in his environment. ... He masters the environment as far as possible and for the rest adjusts himself to it. Or, he adjusts himself to the environment as far as possible and for the rest masters it. ... No one can get along with mastery alone or with adjustment alone. ... Problems of mastery and of adjustment dovetail all through the individual's life.¹

Langer points out the school's responsibility in the matter when he says:

It becomes the duty of the school, therefore, to help prepare the individual to meet the extensive demands of the larger environment in an effective and fruitful manner.²

In order to meet this demand the school must inform itself as adequately as possible about the problems of the pupils for whom it is responsible. For that reason this part of the study analyzes the nature of student problems on the secondary school level and points out that thorough understanding of common problems is necessary to any improvement in human engineering. Analysis is made of conditions in the home and school environment which are known to give rise to

1. Robert S. Woodworth, Adjustment and Mastery, New York: The Century Company, 1933, pp. 9-11.

2. Walter C. Langer, Psychology and Human Living, New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1943, p. 149.

problem behavior. And finally, this chapter describes a study of student problems made in the spring of 1943 at the Highland Junior High School.

Studying Student Problems

An adult armed with knowledge of the adolescent is bound to sense some or all of the problems inherent in his nature. Apropos this point, Peckstein and McGregor have said:

Around this trilogy of adolescent behavior - individualism, sexualism, socialism - accrue the mass of educational problems and practices of the educational institution for the adolescent, namely -- the junior high school.³

While these writers have used different names for the adolescent goals described so fully in the last chapter, the meanings are fairly similar.

Methods of studying student problems range from a mere listing of problems to a thorough psychological analysis of individuals, depending on facilities available, resources of the analyst, and purposes of the study. Strang's list of methods includes:

... students' own statement of their problems, records of problems brought to advisers, analysis of deficiencies and needs in the background and activity program of students, problems revealed in interviews and tests, and combinations of these methods.⁴

3. L. A. Peckstein and A. Laura McGregor, Psychology of the Junior High Pupil, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924, p. 61.

4. Ruth Strang, Behavior and Background of Students in Colleges and Secondary School, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1937. p. 7.

Each method, the author⁵ adds, has its good and bad points. Students' statements may contain problems uppermost in their minds but contain errors in analysis or untruths in reporting. Check lists may remind students of temporarily forgotten items, but overemphasize trivial matters. If no attempt is made to obtain quantitative estimates of frequency, results have little value. The questionnaire method may identify, early in the year, cases of incipient maladjustment and may yield accurate and useful information. On the other hand, it may tell little. Records of problems brought to guidance workers are objective in nature and show pupil need, but such records may never contain serious types of problems not generally brought to any guidance officer. The analysis of deficiencies and lacks in background and activities of students and inferred from personality results is objective, but is also indirect. Personality tests have not yet been proven to be valid. Observation of individuals as they deal with actual concrete problems in the classroom, the home, social situations and the dormitory is the most direct and rewarding method of studying student problems. However, the observer must be aware of the adaptation the individual is making to the demands of his nature and of the environmental situation. Validity of the interview as a device is dependent on the interviewer's skill. This technique may reveal significant strains and tensions,

5. Ibid., pp. 12-14.

but may be influenced by the bias of the interviewer. The author's summary says:

... a combination of methods is most effective in making a comprehensive survey of student adjustment. No one method will disclose all the problems that the students themselves recognize, those that annoy other people, those that mental hygienists recognize, and developmental problems common to most individuals.⁶

Ham rin and Erickson⁷ agree that daily observation is one of the best devices, and suggest three additional ones: Use of records from contributing schools, informal and unsigned questionnaires, and a question box into which pupils put unsigned questions.

Available references on the problems and needs of secondary school students were said by Strang⁸ in 1937 to consist chiefly of the opinions of students, teachers, and administrators and of records of problem cases referred to guidance officers and clinics. At that time, a number of studies gave the students' viewpoint on their problems. In one investigation, the need for counsel, understanding, and sympathy were emphasized as well as for opportunities for recreation, vocational training, and social and civic responsibility. Another study reported desire for serious, frank, and truthful consideration of their confidences, and admitted the use of a person for this purpose who was in most cases, neither a parent nor a teacher. Another study disclosed that money was a far greater problem to a large number of boys than it was to girls.

6. Ibid., p. 14.

7. Shirley A. Hamrin and Clifford E. Erickson, Guidance in the Secondary School, New York: D. Appleton - Century Company, 1939. pp. 268-272.

8. Strang, op. cit., 14-15.

The boys were more interested in safety, health, civic affairs, recreation and study than the girls, but were less interested in personal attractiveness and social skill.

Teachers, too, reported on the types of problems⁹ which they found prevalent. Poor academic achievement was ranked first. Low mental ability and discrepancy between a student's intellectual ability and his school program and what the home expects of him are undoubtedly common sources of school problems. Adolescent behavior which is annoying to teachers or to others in authority was reported often. Sex offenses, stealing, and truancy were named in another study. Other teachers reported problems of social development, truancy, and "nervousness" as occurring frequently in junior high schools. Still others gave greater emphasis to such personality deviations as timidity, day-dreaming, oversensitiveness and lack of sociability, and emotional stability. Nail-biting, stammering, and masturbation were noted by some. One classic example of poor teacher analysis of student problems is that reported in the Wickman¹⁰ study. In it the author shows that teachers need to have a more general knowledge of what constitutes normal child behavior in order to identify problems. He shows that symptoms of behavior problems are often treated as problems and not

9. Ibid., p. 15.

10. E. K. Wickman, Teachers and Behavior Problems, a digest of Children's Behavior and Teacher's Attitudes, New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1938. pp. 1-40.

merely as the surface manifestations of the real problem. He urged that there be:

... a general shift of emphasis from the psychology of learning and of mental and intellectual differences in children to the psychology of the social development of children with particular reference to the essential differences between child and adult behavior. The need for understanding the sexual development and sexual behavior of children is especially indicated.¹¹

Strang¹² found many administrators primarily concerned about academic problems, but found that others recognized other adolescent needs; to be understood; to be assisted in achieving adult independence, in gaining expression along creative and social lines, in acquiring accurate information in social relationships and matters of personal conduct and sex as well as in standard school subjects; to have adventure; to enjoy companionship of elders in whom the adolescent has confidence and to participate in group responsibility. Other administrators were found to be willing to assume the problem of supplying cultural lacks in the students' home background and of helping to make their sons and daughters social assets.

Still another source of information about student problems was clinical records.¹³ While this source was excellent because it involved analysis by workers trained to recognize maladjustment, it failed to provide fair samplings of the secondary school population.

11. Ibid., pp. 39-40.

12. Strang, op. cit., pp. 15-16.

13. Ibid., pp. 16-18.

One clinic dealt with cases that were predominantly mentally retarded, and another with mentally superior boys and girls who had behavior difficulties. The dangers of generalizing about adolescents from such studies is apparent. These clinical studies, however, did point the way to more effective methods of studying and dealing with adolescent problems. They called attention to the necessity of taking into consideration the situation in which the problem behavior occurs and of including information on the meaning to the individual of certain behavior in a particular situation.

From the standpoint of adolescent adjustment, rebellious behavior under certain circumstances may represent good adjustment - an attempt to find a way out of a difficult situation or to gain emancipation from too possessive adult authority. Under those circumstances submission and docility may be considered abnormal. But in another situation a student's defiance of rules and his clashes with authorities are indications of his inability to "maintain his ego courteously" under present social conditions. He will encounter various rules and regulations throughout life and must learn either to adjust to them in a reasonable way or if they are intolerable to work constructively to modify them.¹⁴

In the six years that have intervened since Strang's publication of these statements, much illuminating information about the adolescent has been made available through numerous research projects. This study has used freely the writings of Prescott, Zachry, Blois, Meek, Rogers and Langer whose contributions were designed principally to help educators to a better understanding of student behavior and needs. Generalizations underlying adolescent

14. Ibid., pp. 16-17.

development have been presented in these writings, but with a warning that we note individual variations. Concerning this point, Taylor wrote:

In any consideration of the principles underlying adolescent development, it is important to recognize that there is as much individual difference among adolescents as among people of any other age. ... Though it is helpful to understand the main outlines of what to expect during this period, it is equally important to develop sensitivity to the unique pattern of our own adolescent's development.¹⁵

Significantly enough, this last quotation comes from a book written by a parent for parents. That the home is responsible for much constructive action in the wholesome development of its young people is the theme of Taylor's book. In it, adolescent needs are analyzed from the point of view of the home.

In a discussion of maladjustment, Woodworth has said:

What society needs is not so much a cure for the neuroses as prevention. The best hope lies in study of the problems of the child and of the adolescent, and in preparation during early life for the adjustment problems that are coming in adult life.¹⁶

The seriousness of the matter is stated by Thorpe in this quotation:

... personality disturbances be they mild or serious, are in the end the natural aftermath of excessive thwarting of the fundamental life drives toward a balanced satisfaction of egoistic, social, and psychological needs. A temperate realization of these imperious needs leads, theoretically at least, to the development of a well ordered and unified personality, while undue frustration

15. Katherine Whiteside Taylor, Do Adolescents Need Parents? New York: D. Appleton - Century Company, 1938, pp. 76-77.

16. Woodworth, op. cit., p. 112.

frequently eventuates in serious conflicts with society and with self. Tensions attendant upon these struggles, if not alleviated, carry the organism along toward eventual disintegration in the form of neurotic and psychotic pathology.¹⁷

Precautionary measures to avoid serious maladjustment can be taken. When student problems have been ascertained, then an analysis of conditions which gave rise to these problems can be made. Correction of disintegrative conditions may prevent further maladjustment for some and may also serve to aid in easier adjustment for others.

The next part of this chapter analyzes conditions which have been known to give rise to problem behavior in adolescents.

Conditions Responsible for the Problems of Adolescents

In their everyday living in their home, schools, and communities young people find conditions not conducive to the attainment of their goals and the satisfactions of their needs. Often through lack of knowledge or through unwillingness, parents, teachers, and other adults fail to provide the requisite setting.

In Chapter II of this study, certain conditions which may give rise to adjustment problems were mentioned. Those which have to do with parents can be summarized thus; unwillingness to grant greater freedom from supervision, failure to acknowledge child's increased

17. Louis P. Thorpe, Psychological Foundations of Personality, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938. p. 386.

discretion in choices, unnecessary firmness and unwillingness to weigh circumstances, unwise handling of sibling rivalry, objection to influence of other adults, and failure to change with the times. Parental failure to provide opportunities and places for social activities, so earnestly sought by the adolescent, may result in poor social adjustment of the young with their peers, may even result in withdrawal into self. Forced occupational choice, insistence upon too early choice, or insistence upon unnecessary early entrance into the vocational world may be other home conditions causing unwholesome development. Inadequate medical attention to certain physical conditions may prevent optimal development and cause fatigue. Malnutrition, whether it is caused by faulty metabolism or by neglect and poor habits of eating, or by a bad economic system, exacts its toll in terms of pupil progress.

But there are deeper home conditions, some of them of life-long duration, which cause student behavior that is not easy to understand at times, and is difficult to deal with in the school situation. So often neither the school nor the child knows what conditions caused the behavior, so they deal with it a bit blindly. Sibling rivalry causes some children to feel unloved. On the other hand, an only child may be over-protected. The order of birth may cause some children in a family to feel unwanted or less secure. Orphaned children may lack love and affection. Too much or too little

causes maladjustment. Any deprivation of needs causes difficulty.

The unwanted child who is rejected¹⁸ by a parent or parents may be subjected to neglect, harshness, severity, undue punishment, cruelty, strictness, over-ambition, too-high standards, or general parental dissatisfaction. But, paradoxically, he may be given oversolicitousness, only restricted activities, little respect, and affection that is given in return for obedience. The rejected child may be aggressive, rebellious, hostile, jealous, attention-getting and may show such delinquencies as truancy, thieving, and lying. He may feel worthless, isolated, humiliated, and unwanted, conditions known as "affect hunger." He shows emotional frigidity or the opposite, and gets attention in any possible way.

Then there is the child who is dominated¹⁹ by a parent. He is obedient, orderly and submissive. While he may make home and school life a great deal more quiet, it must be remembered that our culture seems to demand people who are independent, aggressive, forward, self-confident, and strong. Maternal over-protection makes a child dependent, submissive, and infantile. It guards a child against bad ideas, bad companions, sickness, and accidents. The over-protected child refuses to tolerate even mild frustration, does not adjust to routine and authority, is bad mannered, and dislikes monotony and

18. A. H. Maslow and Bela Mittelman, Principles of Abnormal Psychology. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941, pp. 245-251.

19. Ibid., pp. 254-261.

routine to an excessive degree. If the over-protected child is also dominated, he may become anxious to please, submissive, and sweet.

The bad effects of these conditions may be grouped into three categories:

- (1) the undermining or destruction of the feeling of security, of being loved, wanted and accepted;
- (2) the undermining or destruction of self esteem, self-respect, strength and adequacy, and
- (3) poor or inadequate socialization in which wrong ideas are internalized, taboos and inhibitions remain inadequate, and bad social habits are learned.²⁰

The importance to the school of knowledge of personality problems lies principally in the fact that the school may create situations designed to counteract these bad conditions. Unless a child is helped to adopt patterns of behavior acceptable to others in his culture, he will not progress in his development. The school may also take some share of the responsibility for parental education.

The home is not alone in the creation of conditions engendering problem behavior. The school, too, is responsible for some. It is ~~probably not an~~ exaggeration to say that every condition mentioned herein as being due to parental behavior may be duplicated by teacher behavior. Some changes have been effected in recent years in American education. They have improved mental health somewhat. Ryan²¹ mentions as constructive changes the following: attitudes of friendliness

20. Ibid., p. 265.

21. W. Carson Ryan, Mental Health Through Education, New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1938. pp. 8-9.

and sociability in schools having young children; attractive schoolrooms in some communities; educational programs build on worthwhile experiences instead of academic subjects; opportunities for creative expression in the arts; tendencies toward natural, normal situations in the classroom; and awareness by teachers of children as individuals. Unfortunately, he says, these changes are not wide-spread and have been more evident in schools for younger children. In his presentation of eight suggestions for improvement, he makes this statement:

It happens that most of the key things on which mental health in schools depends - smaller numbers, less formality, more understanding of individual youngsters, better teacher - child relationships - are only possible with subordination of machinery.²²

Better teacher - child relationships cannot be built easily. Too often boys and girls in school are faced with pressures²³ in various directions because the teachers differ in what they believe in and in what they expect: Some teachers expect formal social behavior, others are easy and friendly, while others let children do as they please. One teacher helps students evaluate rules and interpret their own behavior in terms of the situation, but another holds strictly to all rules. With such differences in philosophy and attitude, are found differences in teacher's own behavior. Students faced with these conflicting cultural pressures are left insecure.

²². Ibid., pp. 296-297.

²³. Lois Hayden Meek, The Personal - Social Development of Boys and Girls, New York: Progressive Education Association, 1940. p. 42.

Conflicts within the school are no harder for them to resolve than are those between school and family culture. Such difficulty manifests itself in withdrawals, inhibitions, resentments, undertainties, anxieties, or other emotional exhibitions.

Teacher - child relations are not improved by the assignment of tasks that are too difficult or without interest or purpose to the pupil. Insecurity is born of inability to accomplish what one is expected to do, and of unfriendly atmosphere during the doing. What is often called "the emotional climate of the classroom" - the general atmosphere of a school or of a classroom, the warmth or coldness, tension, coddling, unwarranted anger, cold criticism or sarcasm - appears to be largely the result of the teacher's own personality.²⁴

Improper attention to physical conditions of the classroom and entire school building, whether it is the responsibility of teacher or administrator, does create classroom problems.

Junior high school pupils are prone to consider the necessity of making curricular choices as a condition creating problems for them. Certainly it is true in many cases that the conflict which results when a pupil and his parent disagree about a choice results in a serious situation. A pupil's desire for emancipation from parental authority and a parent's unwillingness to surrender his

24. Ryan, op. cit., p. 12.

authority come into such strong conflict on occasion that the issue of whether the pupil will be permitted to practice in the band or will be required to work in the metal shop at an elective period becomes lost in the larger struggle. Unquestionably this type of problem requires careful handling if the pupil's progress in gaining independence from the home is not to be jeopardized.

Meek has observed:

He wishes to be respected as a person and to be in on any situations which involve him or his program.²⁵

For further analysis of problems on the junior high school level, the remainder of this chapter is devoted to describing a study of student problems made at the Highland Junior High School during the spring of 1943. Analysis of the returns on the questionnaire submitted to pupils, parents, and teachers is made. With full knowledge of the weaknesses of this method in locating problems, it was chosen because it seemed most feasible in the situation. It is believed that it may serve as a valuable adjunct in determining curricular materials for the school in which it was made.

Student Problems at the Highland Junior High School

In building up the questionnaire to ascertain what were considered to be adjustment problems faced by the student, it was decided to get the viewpoint of students primarily, but to include

25. Meek, op. cit., p. 105.

opinions of parents and of teachers as well. About 30 boys and girls in the 8A, 9B, and 9A grades, always responsive to pleas for help, were told the purpose of the study and were asked not to sign their names.

In compiling the list, special care was taken to duplicate the wording used by the students in so far as it was possible to do so and make the meaning clear to others but no ranking was given the items. This composite list was then submitted to the principal, health counselor, and visiting teacher who offered two additional items, and to four parents who had no further suggestions. When it was mimeographed, returns were sought from 40 boys, 40 girls, 40 fathers, 40 mothers, and 10 teachers.

Fifty volunteers among 8A, 9B, and 9A boys were secured and a like number of girls. Questionnaires were checked in the school counselor's classroom, at times convenient to both students and counselor. The average time consumed by a student was fifteen minutes, though some used only ten and others needed twenty minutes. No undue excitement was caused by the activity, possibly because this method of getting student opinion is frequently used in the school. However, interest in it was evidenced by the large number of volunteers from among whom the desired number had to be drawn by lots, as well as by frequent requests for a summary of results.

Volunteers to solicit the help of parents were obtained in like

manner. Twenty fathers of boys, twenty fathers of girls, twenty mothers of boys and twenty mothers of girls cooperated in the survey, submitting their returns within two days. Apparently the children's interest in their parents' reactions was greater than in their own statement. They returned the parent's questionnaire in a remarkable state of preservation, promptly and without a single loss. Very slight pressure had been brought to bear to insure promptness in returning them because of the approaching close of the semester. The survey was completed within one week during the end of May and first part of June.

The principal of the school, health, counselor, visiting teacher, two teachers of social studies, and one each of science, English, mathematics, foreign language, and commercial work, submitted their opinions, too, at the same time.

The check list as it was submitted to pupils, parents, and teachers is reproduced in the appendix of this study. A summary of the results is also included.

Analysis of some of the figures in the summary shows significant differences in ranking given by boys and girls. Girls listed first in order of importance: dates; personal grooming and make-up; reasons why others like or dislike us; how to get good marks in school; choosing courses in Grades 9 through 12; methods of acquiring good study habits; people and their moods; admission to college; analyzing

abilities; getting along with teachers and other adults; planning a life work; and getting along with younger sisters and brothers. The emphasis on personal-social relationships is noticeable, and is in sharp contrast with boys' statements. The girls named as least important: Child Labor Laws, dropping subjects, and school itself and its functions. The boys named as most important: choosing courses in Grades 9 through 12; school subjects that help in a job; admission to college; analyzing abilities and weakness, acquiring good study habits, requirements and training for jobs; program of home study; planning a life work; the school itself and its functions; number of jobs in war time; absenteeism at school; and budgeting time so as to provide for both play and work. That junior high school pupils are greatly affected by matters of the moment is known. That fact may explain to a great extent the boys' preoccupation with school and work matters in this list. Shortly before this time they had been quite impressed by the thoroughness of the Federal Government's investigation of former school records as a preliminary measure to the assignment of tasks in military service. ²⁶ Interestingly enough, they ranked lowest people and their moods, personal grooming, and war time entertainment. The great importance of schooling and preparation for later jobs which they indicated among their first choice certainly may be attributed to some extent to wartime exigencies.

²⁶. Educational Experience Summary (Secondary School) Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, Form 16-33621-1.

That the parents of boys are deeply concerned with schooling and jobs is shown by listing the rank which they assigned: courses for Grades 9 through 12; admission to college; analyzing abilities, budgeting time; acquiring good study habits; planning a life work; programs of home study; personal grooming; school subjects that help in jobs; requirements and training for jobs; reasons why others like or dislike us; and summer jobs in wartime. They diverged considerably from the boys' choices by their insistence upon personal grooming and the study of why others like or dislike us. But they put war time entertainment lowest and put dates nearer the bottom of the list than had the boys.

The parents of the girls made choices which reflect somewhat the girl's selections. They put high up in the list these items; budgeting time so as to get in work and play; acquiring good study habits; programs of home study; choosing courses for Grades 9 through 12; analyzing abilities; getting along with teachers and other adults; admission to college; personal grooming; planning a life work; getting good marks in school; reasons for jobs; and dates. To Child Labor Laws, dropping subjects, and war time entertainment they assigned lowest rank.

Still another analysis was made to see if the whole group of forty mothers varied to any extent from the forty fathers in their selections. Wise budgeting of time was put first by mothers and third

by fathers. Planning courses for Grades 9 through 12 was given fourth place by both groups. Both included in the upper half of the list these additional items, given combined ranking here; acquiring good study habits; analyzing abilities; admission to college; program of home study; planning a life work; requirements and training for jobs; how to get along with teachers and adults how to get along with parents; and school subjects that help with jobs. Both groups put Child Labor Laws and dropping subjects at the bottom of the whole list.

Item 26 was inserted on the list for the addition of other items considered important. So few items were written in that their importance is considered negligible for this study. Possibly because of the overlapping which they found in the twenty-five items, a few people added closely related points which could easily be included in an original item.

Some limitation may have been imposed on those who assisted in the study by the statement that these adjustment problems were to be taken up for study in the group guidance class. Some may be skeptical about the possibility of using the group guidance class to help individuals with their adjustment problems. Others may be unaware of the possibilities for constructive help in this guidance device.

In the next chapter, its practicality will be investigated and possible values pointed out.

**POSSIBILITIES IN GROUP GUIDANCE
FOR ENRICHING THE CURRICULUM**

CHAPTER IV

POSSIBILITIES IN GROUP GUIDANCE FOR ENRICHING THE CURRICULUM

Just as educators realize that the school can take but a limited responsibility for meeting the needs of the adolescent, so do guidance workers realize that they, too, are limited in what they can accomplish as they employ the techniques that have come into common use. At the present time, the two principal types of methods of helping pupils to gain insight into their problems of school and life adjustment are the group and the individual methods. Each complements the other. Many problems can be approached and some may be entirely solved by the group attack; others may require the individual method used alone or in conjunction with the group method.¹

Possible values in the group guidance technique will be analyzed in this chapter. Following that, a study of principles and practices of construction of courses of study will be made. The final part of the chapter will be devoted to an examination of the unit plan of organization.

Possible Values in Group Guidance

Certain possible values to be found in the use of the group guidance class become apparent. In this discussion an attempt will

1. Shirley A. Hamrin and Clifford E. Erickson, Guidance in the Secondary School, New York: D. Appleton - Century Company, 1939, p. 274.

be made to cite them with as little repetition and overlapping as possible.

The first value concerns the possibility of introducing into the curriculum new materials which satisfy pupil need and interest. For the pupil, group guidance formally introduces into his daily life a device set up for his good.

A second possible value is that such a class may aid adjustment by justifying to the pupil the school's methods of serving him. In the junior high school, for example, the pupil's purpose will come to be the exploring of his abilities and interests if in some way the school can make clear to him what such exploration can do for his present and ultimate welfare. In helping him to recognize his problem of exploration and in presenting him with possible ways of exploring is the school doing effective guidance.

A third possible value lies in the indirect guidance that may result in any school if those in charge of group guidance classes are sufficiently analytical to be able to point out trends in pupil action and behavior that can be helped by manipulating or changing some conditions in the environment. Administration usually welcomes such direct assistance.

A fourth value comes because of the fact that a large share of all human activity is social in some degree. Woodworth points out this fact:

Why ... do men engage so largely in group activity? ... We do it for mutual help and practical advantage.²

We enjoy society because it gives each person a chance to display himself and to outclass his fellows in some way or to dominate over them.³

... the liking for group activity and team-work. ... It is exhilarating to participate in good team-work, where each individual's action fits into the action of the team as a whole.⁴

Group activity gives a chance for the personalities of the individuals to show themselves in interesting ways.⁵

Group activity, integrating the acts of individuals towards a common goal, is not only the most productive type of human endeavor, but the most satisfying to the individual.⁶

Strang⁷ states that although the group discussion of student problems is less personal and may lack the therapeutic value of an intimate interview, it has certain other values. Group thinking on a problem may evoke ideas that would not occur to a few individuals. Its additional value, she adds, is that it adds the force of public opinion to individual decisions and encourages objectivity of approach. If the discussion is individualized to the extent of giving concrete suggestions to members of the group, its value is enhanced.

In another discussion, Strang⁸ shows how the group discussion may suggest methods of attacking problems and may aid further by show-

2. Robert S. Woodworth, Adjustment and Mastery, New York; The Century Company, 1933, p. 129.

3. Ibid., p. 130.

4. Lee. cit.

5. Ibid., p. 131.

6. Ibid., pp. 136-137.

7. Ruth Strang, Behavior and Background of Students in College and Secondary Schools, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1937. p. 41.

8. Ibid., p. 10.

ing that difficulties which loom so large to one may be faced by many.

Meek⁹ urged that especially during puberty and adolescence the school help the young person by offering numerous opportunities for social contact. Interestingly enough, she points out:

... boys and girls become increasingly conscious of these needs for emotional support through belonging to a group of their peers and through personal friendships.¹⁰

There is an overwhelming desire among these typical junior high school children to be with other children, to understand themselves in their relations to others in their age group.¹¹

Other writers point out the therapeutic value of conforming in a group and thus of belonging.

A fifth value of this group work is its economy. Such matters as school routine, study of graduation requirements, college entrance requirements, and other kinds of information sought by many people can be efficiently disposed of with great saving of time. Meek¹² points out the emotional value to the student of knowing that certain reasonable things are expected of him, and adds that not knowing these matters increase his confusion.

That certain kinds of information needed for effective guidance of individuals can be obtained only in group situations gives us a sixth use for it. Daily observation of pupils when one is consciously searching for specific behavior reactions is fruitful. Deviations from a hypothetical norm can be noted and used constructively to improve

9. Lois Hayden Meek, The Personal-Social Development of Boys and Girls, New York: Progressive Education Association, 1940, p. 66.

10. Ibid., p. 16.

11. Ibid., p. 18.

12. Meek, op. cit., p. 68.

behavior. General impressions of a pupil are not enough. It is necessary to see his relations with peers, how he meets difficulties, how he takes criticism, his leadership qualities, and numerous infinitesimal traits before anything remedial can be done. Often, the timing in the giving of general information or in the introduction of certain units of work can be based on such observation.

A seventh value of group guidance classes is that of assisting students to gain insight into human behavior. Many writers mention this as being important. Strang has put it well:

In the school there are many opportunities for the direction of emotional behavior along constructive lines. Among these are the choosing of tasks possible of accomplishment, the working out of methods of securing success, the giving of insight into human behavior and the assisting of individuals to meet the daily problem situations in the most effective way.¹³

The nature of educational and vocational choices requires such knowledge and insight as the discussion of vocational choices in Chapter II pointed out.

The eighth value comes because a class is primarily concerned with pupil development, and can "set the stage" in its varied program so as to counteract some of the bad conditions causing problems. Special attention can be given to drawing out, for example, the withdrawn child or to harnessing the energies of the aggressor. Some easily corrected mannerism, unattractive to peers and adults, can often be handled without publicity. It is because the focus of attention is

13. Strang, op. cit., p. 89.

on the pupil principally and not on a body of factual matter, that this is often accomplished.

In ninth place can be put the effective part that the class can play in creating better relationships between school and home and between pupil and parent. Zachry¹⁴ points out that the young person at odds with his environment needs adult assistance in dealing with it. She suggests that the teacher can often be a mediator between school and home or between pupil and parent. Class exercises, directed at pupil improvement, may win parental support for pupil strivings toward maturity and for school practices.

In the building of attitudes may be found a tenth use for the group methods. Dewey explained the importance of this by saying:

Perhaps the greatest of all pedagogical fallacies is the notion that a person learns only the particular thing he is studying at the time. Collateral learning in the way of formation of enduring attitudes, of likes and dislikes, may be and often is much more important than the ... lesson. ... For these attitudes are fundamentally what count in the future.¹⁵

The direction which attitude forming should take is stated by Prescott who says:

... Adjustment will be impeded unless he is given experiences which will engender attitudes sufficiently in conformity with the various mores of his society to permit him to find a useful and

14. Caroline B. Zachry and Margaret Lighty, Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence, New York: D. Appleton - Century Company, 1940, pp. 416-417.

15. John Dewey, Experience and Education, New York: Macmillan Company, 1938. p. 49.

secure place for himself.

... Certain general attitudes undoubtedly furnish to life the core of meaning about which the whole personality is organized. ... uniformity of attitude is equally important within large or small segments of society which have special duties, privileges, or needs.¹⁶

Dewey delineates the role of the teacher in attitude formation:

... he must ... be able to judge what attitudes are actually conducive to continued growth and what are detrimental. He must, in addition, have that sympathetic understanding of individuals as individuals which gives him an idea of what is actually going on in the minds of those who are learning.¹⁷

Zachry¹⁸ goes a step ahead of this, pointing out that the teacher's adult attitudes, both in the classroom and in individual relationships may influence pupils in their acceptance of their own sense of worth, a thing so important in early adolescence.

The definition of attitude as given by Allport is:

... a preparation or readiness for response. The attitude is incipient and preparatory rather than overt and consummatory. It is not behavior, but the precondition of behavior.¹⁹

In his discussion of the genesis of attitudes, he points out four ways in which this readiness comes about; through the accretion of experience, by differentiation, by traumatic experience, and by

16. Daniel Alfred Prescott, Emotion and the Educative Process, Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1938, pp. 42-43.

17. Dewey, op. cit., p. 33.

18. Zachry, op. cit., p. 251.

19. G. W. Allport, Attitudes in Handbook of Social Psychology, Carl Murchison, Editor, Worcester, Mass.: Clark University Press, 1935, p. 805.

imitation of parents, teachers, or playmates.²⁰ It is with all of these, but with the first and last especially, that the teacher of a guidance class is concerned. Because most of the important attitudes are formed in adolescence and endure throughout life,²¹ the influence of the teacher is far-reaching.

An eleventh reason for assigning value to group guidance is its usefulness in providing opportunity for boys and girls to look ahead together in the formation of life plans. As home-makers, as well as in vocational and avocational pursuits they will have distinct parts to play. Their potential roles as grown persons in the adult scheme of things holds fascination for them. Their common concerns, Zachry²² points out, differentiate them from adults, and give them the security that is found in solidarity. They are encouraged in their struggle for emancipation from adults. By looking more and more to those who are equal in strength, not stronger, do they advance further from childlike dependence. However, Williamson²³ shows that in the large fields of educational and vocational planning, there is definite need for some adult assistance. Early and repeated diagnoses of educational aptitudes and interests can

20. Ibid., pp. 810-812.

21. Loc. cit.

22. Zachry, op. cit., pp. 346-356.

23. E. G. Williamson and M. E. Hahn, Introduction to High School Counseling, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated, 1940. pp. 14-15.

be made on the best known bases. Broad tentative choices²⁴ in occupational areas may be made safely if the choices are reviewed at regular intervals. In view of the consequence of unwise selections, vocational counseling for all is a requisite.

The last point to be discussed here is the contribution to happiness that may be the result of definite and conscious constructive efforts to improve human relationships. To be understood, to be helped to be and feel more adequate, to be assisted in the development of courteous, considerate, and social patterns of behavior will achieve for children acceptance by their fellows and belonging in the successive social groupings into which they will be thrown. And this, says Prescott:

... should be recognized as a genuine curricular objective.²⁵

If the course for group guidance classes is to meet the test of pupil needs and interests and assist them with their problems, then certainly careful attention must be given to its construction. The course will have to be developed cooperatively. Students will submit their problems and they and the teacher working together will determine what will have to happen both in and out of the class-room day by day in order that the students gain the power to solve those problems. Student problems will vary as to type and intensity, so the course must be flexible and experimental. Certain problems may be

24. Ibid., p. 50.

25. Prescott, op. cit., p. 217.

termed permanent in the sense that all boys and girls in early adolescence will face them; others may be called temporary because they occur only when certain conditions call them forth. Thus only certain offerings will become permanent in the course. Difficulty in selecting materials may be somewhat increased on the junior high level because of the variation in ages and stages of development found in classes. Grouping in public high schools is usually not done on the basis of social development.

Principles and Practices of the Construction of Courses of Study

The importance of the course of study is stated by experts in that field in this statement:

Probably no single source better reflects the basic concept of an educational program or indicates more clearly general school practice than does the course of study.²⁶

Varying concepts regarding the functions of the courses of study are evident in the variation of published courses of study. In speaking of a course of study which is broad in concept, Caswell and Campbell say:

... the course of study is a guide for teachers in the selection of pupil activities, the materials to be used in connection with these activities, and the manner in which they are to be organized. It is believed that the course of study should be a source book with materials and suggestions to assist the teacher in organizing instruc-

26. Hollis L. Caswell and Doak S. Campbell, Curriculum Development New York: American Book Company, 1935. p. 448.

tion. It should be flexible and easily revised. It ... limits the scope of the work by defining the general areas through which work should progress. ...²⁷

Risk²⁸ states that certain important factors affecting the selection of material to be used and the organization of it should receive consideration by anyone constructing a course. These principles are: (1) that the work of a particular course be adapted to the needs, capacities, and interests of members of the class; (2) that the work be correlated and co-ordinated with the work of other courses in an effort to promote maximum development without needless repetition or duplication; (3) that the time allowed be sufficient for a group to attain the objectives of the course; (4) that the attainment of objectives depends on pupil experiences which are adapted to the materials and facilities available; (5) that the subject matter, considered a means to an end, should be chosen because of its significance in developing a field of knowledge, its importance in helping pupils acquire desired abilities and understandings useful in contemporary or adult life, and its appeal to interests and needs of individual pupils; and (6) that provision be made to adapt the work to individual needs during the progress of the course.

In setting up objectives for a course, it is well to remember

27. Ibid., p. 451.

28. Thomas M. Risk, Principles and Practices of Teaching in Secondary Schools, New York: American Book Company, 1941. pp. 260-263.

that:

The objectives are guide posts that center attention upon the goals of achievement and thus aid in preventing unfortunate digressions and waste of time and effort.²⁹

They should aid specifically in selecting subject matter, in selecting the learning exercises (pupil activities), in determining teaching methods, and in measuring pupil achievement and progress. When they have been stated, they can be evaluated by use of a set of guiding principles. The objectives should: be an outgrowth of the field and of the aims of education; have value in meeting pupil need and in preparation for other courses; be definite enough to indicate the scope of the course, the types of activities needed, and to indicate the type of subject matter needed; be attainable by pupils; be related to or an extension of past experiences of the pupils; and be interesting to pupils; or capable of being made interesting through study.³⁰

Selection of subject matter content requires that subject matter be defined. Risk says that it is:

... whatever in the way of facts, items of information, rules, definitions, principles, generalizations, objects, or materials is needed to attain the desired ends.³¹

Again certain guiding principles for judging content may be set up.

29. Ibid., p. 264.

30. Ibid., pp. 264-266.

31. Ibid., pp. 267-268.

Hopkins³² comprehensive criteria stress that content should: have frequency in occurrence in common activities of present day social life, but not be taught by an outside agency, and should have value for the next generation; be of interest to pupils and within their capacity, training, and experience; serve as a basis for acquiring more learning and be of value in meeting basic needs of a possible future career; include topics of greatest value out of total possible range of topics; give intensive treatment to few topics rather than extensive treatment to many; include the same topics in succeeding grades only when there is new material, or a new objective, approach or outcome; have maximum amount of desirable indirect content; correlate with other subjects; and be selected to reach the objectives. The final point mentioned is the ultimate test.

The next step in constructing a course of study is planning its scope. The scope is usually organized basically by topics, by problems, by projects, or by units. Risk states that:

In the newer courses of study, the unit plan is the predominating form of organization.³³

Because this study uses the unit plan of organization, an analysis of that plan is given in the final part of this chapter.

32. Ibid., pp. 268-269.

33. Ibid., p. 270.

The Unit Plan of Organization

The gradual acceptance of the unit in the last two decades as the basis for the organization of courses of instruction has come largely as the result of recognition of the fact that learning in units can be made more effective in meeting the needs of pupils than is possible under the traditional, fragmentary, lesson-assigning and lesson-learning procedure.³⁴ In discussing the outcome of unit activities, Risk notes that:

... the primary objective of a Pupil Work Unit is to develop certain primary understandings, abilities, or appreciations. ... a large proportion of the attitudes, appreciations, and interests that we desire will be concomitant outcomes.³⁵

Any planning done in advance can be only tentative because the units must be adapted to the needs of the particular group for whom they are planned.³⁶ Risk³⁷ also suggests that differentiating assignments are helpful in providing for individual differences in rate of learning or mode of learning. They may also aid in effecting improvement in individuals in the matter of socialization, initiative and self-expression, or any other habit considered important for these particular individuals. In short, Risk's text is based on the belief that the important thing that happens in a

34. Ibid., p. 279.

35. Ibid., p. 290.

36. Ibid., p. 287.

37. Ibid., pp. 291-292.

classroom is the thing that develops special capacities and interests, and desirable attitudes, appreciations and habits of conduct.

Finally, this same writer, has set up certain specific principles which constitute criteria for the construction and evaluation of pupil work units. They are:

- (1) Pupil work units should be based upon comprehensive and significant aspects of our physical environment, of life activities, or of culture as found in organized sciences, in the arts, or in social behavior to which or about which personal adaptations are needed or desired.
- (2) Significant adaptations of personality concerning the unit, or some worth-while accomplishment involving the acquisition of related personality adaptations, should be set up as goals upon which the activities of the unit should be centered.
- (3) The unit should provide or consist of essential and desirable activities or experiences through which the goal or goals may be attained effectively economically.
- (4) In the choice of learning activities careful consideration should be given to the principle of simultaneous learnings.
- (5) The units should provide for individual needs, interests and abilities.
- (6) In selecting the activities or learning experiences of the unit, ample provision should be made for pupil purposing, the development of initiative and ability to plan, and the socialization of pupils.
- (7) Units of work should as far as possible reproduce or approximate life situations and utilize materials as they occur in life.
- (8) The units should be practicable under school conditions, that is they:
 - (a) Can be carried out as planned-material and equipment should be available.
 - (b) Should be properly related to other units of work, fitting into the desirable sequence where this is important.
 - (c) Should be adapted to the time available.
 - (d) Should contribute to school needs as well as everyday needs and individual needs.³⁸

38. Ibid., pp. 292-294.

When an individual actually sets out to construct a unit, he sets up a complete list of objectives, putting together those which are similar in nature.³⁹ Next he outlines the nature and scope of essential factual material, giving attention to the relative value and importance of the material.⁴⁰ The third step is the selection of pupil activities that will contribute to the desired outcomes. These activities, considered valuable psychologically, are: (1) observing and experimenting; (2) reading and gathering information; (3) organizing and generalizing activities (discussion and problem solving); (4) drill or practice activities; (5) constructive activities; (6) fine art activities; (7) dramatization activities.⁴¹ Those needs which Prescott called "ego and integrative needs" are recalled by this list of pupil activities.

A fourth step, introducing the unit, gives pupils a preview or overview of the unit. It serves to orient, motivate, and guide the pupils and introduces important phases of the work. Either teacher or pupil may tell, illustrate, or demonstrate something of current interest to win pupil attention in the work. Newspaper clippings, moving pictures, cartoons, drawings, and pictures are interesting materials to use. The introduction must relate to previous work and other pupil experiences, show principal divisions of the unit, note interesting phases and in some way point out the methods of study that will be used.⁴²

39. Ibid., pp. 296.

40. Ibid., pp. 296-297.

41. Ibid., p. 297.

42. Ibid., pp. 300-301.

The next step, a culminating activity, must be a means of measuring progress. This test may be of any type, provided it is adapted to the ends sought. It must be planned in relation to the learning activities, and may be objective or subjective in nature.⁴³

The final step in the preparation of a unit is the selection of reference and teaching materials. One list should consist of books, pamphlets, magazine articles and other references which should be used to carry out the activities planned. A second list consists of materials, charts, maps, pictures, and anything else considered as essential to particular activities.⁴⁴

The purpose of this study was stated to be that of suggesting curricular offerings for group guidance classes at the Highland Junior High School. Chapter V. presents this material.

^{43.} Ibid., pp. 301-302.

^{44.} Ibid., p. 302.

**SUGGESTIVE COURSE OF STUDY FOR
GROUP GUIDANCE CLASSES
AT THE
HIGHLAND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL**

CHAPTER V.

SUGGESTIVE COURSE OF STUDY FOR GROUP GUIDANCE CLASSES AT THE HIGHLAND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

In this chapter, there are presented the curricular offerings in group guidance for Grades 7B, 8A, 9B and 9A, at the Highland Junior High School which this study endeavored to produce. This course is constructed with the assumption that the school will continue, at least for the time being, its policy of scheduling: (1) each 7B class for one weekly period, (2) each 8A and 9B class for two weekly periods, and (3) each 9A class for a number of periods, usually six or eight, near the close of the semester. It has also been assumed that each period will continue to be fifty-five minutes in length.

general objectives for the proposed course of study are stated. Divisions of these objectives are as follows:

- A. Generalizations and principles believed to be necessary.
- B. General attitudes, with the suggested dispositions, tendencies, or inclinations to be stressed in working for the fulfillment of each.
- C. Certain knowledge which should be possessed by all who have taken the course.
- D. Certain skills which are judged to be necessary and possible

of acquisition through the work outlined.

The next part of the chapter outlines briefly suggestive subject matter to be included in the eight units of work proposed for the course of study. While the work is submitted in a general way, an attempt has been made to show how the study of the needs of adolescents, the study of problems of pupils at the Highland Junior High School, administrative practices in the Louisville Public School System, and conditions in this particular school have led to the selection of subject matter in the construction of the units and in their grade placement.

The final part of the chapter contains two units worked out in detail. Units III and IV were selected for illustration.

OBJECTIVES OF THE COURSE

Generalizations and Principles:

(1) A belief that young people should be assisted in social development that is in accord with their needs which have been ascertained by scientific means.

(2) A belief that young people should be given adult assistance and guidance in the solution of their problems.

(3) A belief that the school is only one of many agencies which educate the young.

(4) A belief that a secondary school pupil can help to bring about his maximum development through: (A) understanding of the organization, philosophy, and practice of the educational institution he attends; and (B) understanding of himself and his part in realizing the values extant in the school's program.

(5) A belief that critical self study can lead one so to adjust himself that he can enjoy greater achievement in his daily living.

(6) A belief that careful planning of individual programs for every-day living requires the giving of appropriate weightings to social, recreational, health, vocational, and avocational activities in order that mental and physical health be maintained.

(7) A belief that an individual's best educational and vocational development are brought about by the realization of his interests and abilities.

(8) A belief that educational planning for the college level should be begun no later than the ninth grade.

(9) A belief in the wisdom of distributing individuals to occupations which give promise of utilizing their talents as completely as possible.

(10) A belief that only broad tentative plans can be made for a pupil's educational and vocational careers; that temporary choices must always be checked in the light of new findings.

(11) A belief that life planning should include attention to the homemaking roles of both men and women.

Attitudes:

(12) ADJUSTMENT; The recognition of the role that must be played by the individual in making demands on others and in meeting their demands; in living in a social world and adapting one's self to its existing demands sufficiently to maintain optimal mental and physical health.

Suggested Dispositions, Tendencies or Inclinations

(13) The disposition to mingle with others freely and profitably in social, recreational, health, educational, vocational, and avocational activities.

(14) The disposition to study the nature of these social, recreational, health, educational, vocational, and avocational activities, so as to facilitate the adjustment of

individuals in these activities both in and out of school and thus bring about maximum achievement and security and minimum maladjustment.

(15) The tendency to adapt one's self to the thoughts, feelings, and actions of one's associates.

(16) The tendency to feel that one may earn freedom and happiness in a democratic society.

(17) APPRECIATION: The quality of recognizing or feeling the value of the abilities, talents, efforts, and accomplishments of oneself and others; of recognizing the necessity of utilizing these abilities, talents, and efforts to bring the highest possible development to the integrated individual and to society.

(18) A disposition to regard a well-integrated personality as the highest possible achievement in society.

(19) A feeling of respect for all those abilities and talents different from one's own. A recognition of the value to society of the varied abilities found in the individuals in any given group.

(20) A high regard for worthwhile achievement; a desire for mastery of one's daily tasks.

(21) COOPERATION: the act of working with others or of combining for a given purpose; joint endeavor; united effort.

(22) The inclination to engage in group activity based upon desirable common interests.

- (23) The disposition to work and plan with others without friction.
- (24) A tendency to consider the common good above that of the individual personal desire; to know that through realization of the common good the individual can gain greater freedom.
- (25) A tendency to regard group activity as a highly desirable means of studying people so as to bring about better understandings.
- (26) INDEPENDENCE: The state or quality of being free from unnecessary control by others; of being competent to direct one's self without compulsion.
- (27) The desire to become self-directing.
- (28) The tendency to formulate individual standards of acceptable conduct that will bring about maximum personality development and the privilege of self-direction.
- (29) A tendency to question current customs and beliefs constructively.
- (30) INTELLECTUAL HONESTY: The quality of being definite, precise, accurate, impartial, objective, open-minded, and self-critical in planning one's mode of living; the willingness to recognize relationships between cause and effect.
- (31) The disposition to respect facts.
- (32) The tendency to suspend judgment.

- (33) The disposition to regard a controversial issue as a matter requiring further study and research.
- (34) The inclination to believe in universal cause and effect relations.
- (35) The tendency to be objective in settling one's own problems.
- (36) The willingness to match educational and vocational ambitions with abilities and opportunities.
- (37) The tendency to desire to maintain a high standard of attainment for oneself and others.
- (38) The disposition to question the accuracy of statements so as to be able to discriminate between facts and unproved theories.
- (39) SELF CULTIVATION: An active interest in exploration of human talents; self-analysis which leads to constructive life-planning.
- (40) The urge to discover some dominating interests.
- (41) The desire to discover and develop one's interests and capacities.
- (42) A willingness to search for possible interests and abilities in new types of endeavor.
- (43) A disposition to see life as a whole and to analyze and explain it.
- (44) A determination to grow, regardless of age.
- (45) A tendency to accept criticism cheerfully.

(46) Freedom from worry, fear, and a sense of inferiority.

(47) TOLERANCE: The disposition to endure beliefs, practices, or habits differing from one's own; the disposition to suspend judgment; a recognition of the usefulness of varied types of abilities found in individuals.

(48) The desire to show sympathy and understanding to those whose social, cultural and educational backgrounds differ from one's own.

(49) A disposition to gain an understanding of those whose educational, vocational, and avocational activities differ from one's own. An inclination to recognize the worth, the contributions, and the hardships experienced by such groups.

(50) A recognition of the importance of different types of abilities.

Knowledge:

(51) Knowledge of the various types of schools found in the United States.

(52) An understanding of the position and function of education in democracy.

(53) Knowledge of local public school offerings on the elementary, junior high, and senior high levels. Detailed knowledge of the total offerings of the local

public senior high schools which members of the group are eligible to attend. This knowledge will include a mastery of the provisions of the major-minor system.

- (54) Knowledge of the means of both formal and informal education.
- (55) Knowledge of today's adult education offerings and of trends in that field.
- (56) General knowledge of the exploratory function of the junior high school and of the techniques that the student may use,
 - (A) To enlarge his interests,
 - (B) To recognize his limitations,
 - (C) To recognize and to develop his abilities,
 - (d) To identify his vocational interests.
- (57) Knowledge of the different types of institutions of higher learning.
- (58) General knowledge of the variety of offerings in colleges and universities and of the type of students best suited to attend them.
- (59) Knowledge of present college entrance requirements and of trends that are evident.

- (60) Knowledge of extent of and causes of student mortality on elementary, secondary, and college levels.
- (61) Knowledge of the costs of education to the individual and to society.
- (62) Knowledge of the means of getting vocational information.
- (63) General knowledge of local occupational opportunities.
- (64) General knowledge of the occupational opportunities on various levels of training.

Skills:

- (65) Read discriminatingly all materials related to the subject so as to recognize facts, theories, and propaganda.
- (66) Read a bulletin of senior high school offerings.
- (67) Learn to skim a book on vocations to find desired information; to read thoroughly to find needed details.
- (68) Work out an individual home study program on each grade level that provides adequately for
 - A. sufficient mastery of assigned work
 - B. sufficient time for recreation, rest

sleep, etc.

C. sufficient amount and wholesome
utilization of free time.

- (69) Formulate, in a one-hundred-word essay, a plan of one's tentative educational and vocational plans.
- (70) Represent graphically one's proposed school life.
- (71) Understand admission requirements as stated in college bulletins.
- (72) Identify the more commonly used college degrees.
- (73) Evaluate any tentative senior high school schedule submitted for analysis by checking it against these criteria:
- A. Does it meet high school graduation requirements?
 - B. Does it fulfill the requirements for any future training as stated in student's proposed educational and vocational plans?
 - C. Does it qualify the student to enter those vocational fields in which he believes himself to be interested at the present time?
 - D. Is it so planned that it permits easy change when his interests change?

Suggestive Subject Matter for the Course.

In selecting certain subject matter for inclusion in this course it was necessary to weave together those principles of adolescent needs and development as determined by scientific research with the practical problems of everyday living in the home, the school, and the community as they are seen by pupils, parents, and teachers.

A fundamental need of the early adolescent has been shown to be that of security.¹ This security may come to him: (1) through familiarity with his physical surroundings; (2) from knowing that his role as an individual in a democratic society demands initiative and self-direction for full development; (3) through understanding of himself and his in-between stage of development and the major adjustments required of him; (4) with an understanding of his home, his school, and the community institutions which touch his life; (5) with knowing what the group culture demands of him in his everyday living, and in conforming to the requirements; (6) from looking ahead into the future sufficiently to envision the demands to be made on him in an adult world; and (7) from long term planning on a tentative basis to meet those future demands with the necessary background of personal requirements and training.

In proposing that the work to be offered in Grades 7B, 8A, 9B, 9A be divided into eight units, it is believed wise to offer the

I. See Chapter II.

young 7B the first unit of work devoted to orientation in the new school, with an analysis by the pupil of all he finds that is strange to him. Comparison of his elementary school with the new secondary one and a study designed to help him to an appreciation of the latter seem necessary if he is to be led to full participation in the school's program and thus to gain a feeling of belongingness.²

A second unit of work, offered in 8A, can help the rapidly developing child³ with an analysis of his daily life as he enters into the early stages of adolescence and of the necessary part that he must play if he is to explore fully the junior high school's offerings. He can be assisted at this level, as well as in succeeding grades, in planning a home study program with ample provision for both work and play.⁴ He can be led to effect economies so as to improve his study habits.⁵ In looking ahead to prepare for the election of two subjects in his six-hour day in 9B, mulling over with others the problems involved in selection, and sharing resources in solving the problems, he finds deep satisfaction.⁶

A third unit can be offered in 8A to bring about personality improvement. That strong adolescent desire for likeness to others.⁷

2. See Chapter II.

3. See Chapter II.

4. Need shown in Chapter III.

5. Need shown in Chapter III.

6. As shown in Chapter II.

7. As shown in Chapter II.

can be capitalized in a study of manners, personal grooming, worthwhile activities, and character traits. Home strivings in these matters can be re-enforced. Still another unit in 8A can be directed to the bringing about of improvement in social relationships. The adolescent urge for emancipation from parental direction⁸ can be utilized in a study of the family as an organization and of the requirements of its constituent members that will help to bring about an understanding that freedom is earned, not given. The need for heterosexual adjustment⁹ requires that boys and girls understand their peers of both sexes. They admit that they want to know "reasons why other people including classmates, like or dislike us", are interested in "people and their moods", and asks for help in "getting along with parents" and in "getting along with teachers and other adults."¹⁰ Knowledge of the tools and techniques which aid human beings in becoming acceptable to others bolsters up the rather uncertain and often-misunderstood adolescent.

When a 9B class is increased by the addition of about one hundred fifteen members in the September semester, a unit of work must include provision for the orientation of the new students, representing about one half of the total class. This unit must also give the pupils security,¹¹ through the planning of tentative

8. See Chapter II.

9. See Chapter II.

10. See Chapter III and Appendix.

11. See Chapter II.

schedules for Grades 9 through 12, should assist in wise budgeting of hours spent away from school, and in improvement of study habits to bring about more effective retention.¹² Emphasis on analysis of individual strengths and weaknesses requires the use of certain testing techniques.¹³ Again there is satisfaction for the young person in solving common problems with the help of peers.

Because the long-term educational planning required by the major-minor system in the Louisville Public Schools involves some vocational planning, and because, as has been pointed out in detail in Chapter III, the selection of a vocation is of extreme importance to the young adolescent, another unit in 9B may consider the whole subject of vocation. Parents as well as pupils in the Highland Junior High School frankly stated their need of school assistance in both educational and vocational planning.¹⁴ The many possible factors influencing vocational choices, and wise bases for choices need careful attention if later adaptations in the vocational field are to be made without maladjustment.¹⁵

A final 9B unit recognizes that successful adult living requires adjustment in one's daily home life as well as in vocational life.¹⁶ Men as well as women have certain responsibilities as

12. See Chapter III.

13. See Chapter II.

14. See Chapter III.

15. See Chapter II.

16. See Chapter II.

homemakers if others in the home are to be permitted wholesome social development. Keeping up and improving the standards of living in one's culture demands that certain cultural activities be propagated. Avocational activities, too, with their power of promoting mental health must be included in life planning.

Special provision must be made near the end of the 9 A grade for the checking of the tentative choices of subjects for the 10B grade which were made a semester earlier. In the light of new interests and new findings, these choices are either made permanent or replaced by new ones.¹⁷ One unit of work must be provided for this checking after time has elapsed.

To summarize, it is proposed that the eight units comprising this course be as follows:

Unit I -- 7B - Orientation in the new school; an analysis of everything that is new to the students.

Unit II -- 8A - The daily life of the junior high school pupil who is growing up.

Unit III - 8A - Improving personality.

Unit IV - 8A - Improving social relationships.

Unit V - 9B - Planning tentatively for future schooling; providing for orientation of pupils new in the school.

Unit VI - 9B - Planning tentatively for a vocation.

17. See Chapter II.

Unit VII -- 9B - Planning for one's private life as an adult:

(1) in homemaking responsibilities of men and women, (2) in cultural and avocational pursuits.

Unit VIII -- 9A - Checking of tentative plans for senior high school work in the light of increased knowledge of abilities; registration in senior high schools for IOB work. (No provision on schedules is necessary for this unit. It can be cared for in two weekly periods given to special elective work, to study, and to preparation for graduation activities.)

It is definitely believed that the work sketched for the eight units will meet Prescott's demand for contact with reality.¹⁸ If wisely handled in the classroom situation, they can be made to contribute to the integration of personality.¹⁹

Two illustrative units, offered here in detail, suggest possible approaches, techniques and learning activities designed to aid in attainment of the objectives.

18. See Chapter II.

19. See Chapter II.

Overview of Units III and IV

The teacher may give pupils a good overview of Units III and IV through a discussion of the lack of improvement in human relationships to match that in technological pursuits. Attention may be called to the results that can be observed daily in business failures, persistent patterns of unemployment, and unhappiness and unrest in the home life of many adults. The importance of the personal element as a causative factor may be stressed.

A discussion of possible solutions to the personal problem will probably bring out the statement that (1) by improving oneself, and (2) by improving one's relations with others, any individual can increase his potential powers.

From this start, a unit of work can be planned to improve personality. Another unit can be designed to aid in improving social relationships.

Unit III - Improving personality

Objectives of this unit:

Numbers 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 20,

21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 30, 35, 37, 39, 42,

43, 45, 46, 48, 54, 56, and 65 as stated in

Objectives of the Course. (See Pages 98-106).

Introduction to teacher - When teaching units of work to junior high school pupils, the teacher must keep clearly in mind the function of the school in revealing to pupils the possibilities in the major fields of learning. A broad overview must not be sacrificed for countless details, even when knowledge of the latter is considered important. Understanding of principles produces better attitudes and increases security.

The purpose of this unit must be clearly understood to be to learn some of the possible ways in which one can bring about improvement in self. The approach to Units III and IV suggested on the preceding page is one of many ways to introduce the topic. A newspaper clipping, a cartoon, an article in the school paper, discussion of a radio program or movie, or a skit prepared in advance by several pupils may be used to launch the work. It is of extreme importance that the problems to be included in the study should come out of a discussion of what class members con-

sider to be factors in improving personality. The teacher should not hesitate to guide the discussion to include all possible topics and to supplement when necessary. Topics will probably include: good manners, general appearance, manner of dress, voice and speech, participation in worthwhile activities, development of good character traits, and a study of what one's home and school can do to bring about improvement.

Problem I -- What are considered good manners?

Note to teacher -- If pupils are to enter wholeheartedly into this work, they must be encouraged to suggest the kinds of manners they want to know about. When they outline the situations in which good manners seem important to them, the teacher can be sure that the study will meet their needs. The work can be divided for committees to finish outlining.

Topics will probably include these and others:

A. Manners in the home - in greeting people, with older people, at the table, using another person's property, respecting privacy, teasing others, disturbing others.

B. Manners at school -- in the assembly, in the cafeteria, in classrooms and halls, in relations with faculty, janitors, and maids.

C. Manners in public places - on street cars and buses, in corner drug stores, on the street.

D. Manners when introducing people of various ages and stations, - parents, teachers, friends of various ages, maids.

E. Good manners for a guest - promptness, willingness to enter into activities, consideration of family, expressing appreciation.

F. Good manners for a host - consideration of guest's interests, stating time for visit or entertainment, making guest comfortable.

Pupil activities:

1. See what you can score on the Quiz Kids' ten questions about good manners.

2. See what you can do on a real test of one hundred items -- Test of Knowledge of Social Usage. You will score your own tests, recording privately your errors. Make a frequency table of total class errors to signify need for further study.

3. Serve on a committee to study good manners at home, at school, or in public places. Select a partner in the group and prepare dramatizations or pantomines for remainder of class to illustrate materials which you find as you read books for information.

4. Dramatize introductions of various types:

based on models given in tests.

5. Prepare blackboard lists of rules for a guest in war time -- DO and DO NOT -- Another group may do the same thing for a host in war time.

6. Prepare an unsigned list of the rules discussed in this problem which were new to you. Submit it to a committee for compilation.

Problem II. How can one's personal appearance be improved?

Note to teacher - Permit pupils to outline this topic in detail. Such outlining gives the teacher information as to pupils' present knowledge of the subject, shows where the emphasis needs to be placed, and paves the way for differentiated assignments. Content outline will probably be like this:

A. Through eating proper foods - use of all types of foods, vitamins, minerals, other protective foods; selection of lunches at school.

B. Through getting amount of sleep and rest considered necessary for the individual -- age, growth, and vigor as determining factors.

C. Through cleanliness and neatness - bathing, change of clothing, need of exercise.

D. Through good posture to improve carriage.

Pupil activities:

7. Select one of the four parts of the problem for detailed study. Read available materials. Committee on foods borrow charts from home economics class to illustrate talks to class. Committee on sleep and rest consult health counselor for additional materials; draw blackboard graphs to show adequate amounts of each for yourself. Committee on cleanliness and neatness give planned demonstrations of right and wrong habits. Committee on good posture consult physical education teachers for aid in checking on posture of each student in class.

Problem III. Find out what is considered attractive and suitable clothing for school, for wearing to church, and for any special occasions of interest to pupils. Consider accessories as important parts of costume.

Note to teacher - Have pupils outline details of this topic - dress, shoes, gloves, hats, jewelry, and others. All 8A girls will have made some study of this topic in their home economics courses. It will be well to draw on their knowledge and not permit repetition except with a new emphasis. It may be well to vary the procedure with the boys, having them work alone in another classroom.

Include activities other than 8 and 9, if interest warrants it.

A simple style show for a lower grade or for parents could be arranged.

Pupil activities:

8. Read all available materials, noting carefully the dates of publication. Discuss flagrant violations of the rules of good taste that are apparent in our own community.

9. Discuss the effect of the war on our habits of dressing and caring for clothing.

Problem IV. How can one's voice and speech be made to increase one's charm?

Note to teacher -- If possible, solicit the aid of the music teachers in the school in conducting voice clinics in their classes with these pupils; or arrange a talk and demonstration by a voice teacher. Take care that no pupil with a bad voice suffers embarrassment in class, but arrange for remedial work for him.

Pupil activities:

10. Name your favorite movie voice, radio voice, and telephone voice. Which teacher's voice is most pleasing to you?

11. Analyze these voices in the light of what you can read about voice and speech as aids to charm. (This work

cannot be made too technical for pupils of this age. It is well to stress pitch, enunciation, and suitable language.)

Problem V. Participation in worthwhile activities makes people interesting to others. What are the activities which interest young people like you? Consider those that are athletic, musical, artistic, and intellectual in character.

Note to teacher -- This problem can be a valuable aid to the teacher in finding out interests of the pupils. It can also serve to aid pupils in self-analysis. Emphasis should be placed on encouraging varied activities for all pupils as a part of exploration.

Pupil activities:

12. Prepare a poster on paper or blackboard that will show all possible activities for one of your age in any one of the four fields named. Put your initials under each one in which you take part now. Put P under those you liked in the past. Put F under those you would like sometime in the future.

13. Prepare an exhibit of these posters. Name persons in this school who have excelled in each of the activities shown. Name adults who have won fame in each activity. Name the radio programs which feature such activities.

Problem VI. What are the desirable character traits and qualities which help in our everyday living?

Note to teacher: Devote one lesson to discussion of this problem as stated so as to suggest a list of traits that will form a background for the pupil activities listed for this problem.

Teacher must maintain an objective attitude . Class will probably list as desirable traits: honesty, fairness, poise, cheerfulness, tolerance, open-mindedness, tact, self-control, humor, cooperation, sportsmanship, loyalty, and others.

Pupil activities:

14. Name any movie in which a character showed certain good traits. Tell what he did to demonstrate it. Select some movie star and discuss the good traits which he shows consistently in the roles he plays. Examples -- Spencer Tracy, Mickey Rooney, Walter Pidgeon.

15. Give an outline of some story about a good character which impressed you deeply when you were young.

16. Read a story of a successful person. Tell which traits dominated his life. Select your book from the 920 shelves in the school library or use any other source.

17. Make for your private use a simple rating scale with five divisions for any five of these traits. Indicate your place on that scale.

Culminating activities:

A good summary of the unit can be made by having each pupil to do one of the six activities listed here preliminary to arranging them into an exhibit or program for an audience.

Pupil activities:

18. Draw sketches or prepare lists that tell what Highland does for your physical development.
19. Same for mental development.
20. Same for character development.
21. Draw sketches or prepare lists that tell what a good home can do for the physical development of its young people.
22. Same for mental development.
23. Same for character development.

Evaluation:

- A. Objective test of 25 items composed chiefly of materials obtained from Pupil activities 1, 2, and 6.
- B. Name any character traits which you are consciously trying to inculcate into your daily living.

C. Prepare a list of activities that are physical and mental in character in which you believe it would be well for any adult to participate. Name 10 good qualities you would like him to have.

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NOTE: All materials listed in this bibliography are available at the Highland Junior High School.

Unit IV. Improving relations with others.

Objectives of this unit:

Numbers 1, 2, 5, 6, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18,
 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 35,
 37, 39, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 56 and 65 as
stated on Pages 98 - 106.

Approach: The approach to this unit may be made through a discussion of adolescent goals or of stories of successful people, in connection with a movie or radio program, through a discussion of post-war planning, or through phases of pupils' work in social studies which deal with foreign relations or internationalism. While it is possible to extend the unit to a study of governmental relations it may be better to confine it to personal relationships and avoid duplicating work done in social studies. One suggestive approach is given here in detail:

I. Recall to pupils that during the study of Unit II at the beginning of the semester, the point was made that the junior high pupil is in the "growing-up" age, that he is neither child nor adult. However, in this period he is developing toward adulthood and has within himself the power to make the development easier. In Unit III, some ways in which he could improve himself were studied. In this unit, some ways in which he can improve

in his relations with others will be studied.

2. Teacher may lead discussion of the three goals toward which the high school student strives:

A. development of individuality and gradual gaining of independence from parental direction.

B. development of stronger social relationships with boys and girls of one's own age.

C. development toward a vocation.

3. Bring out the fact that the attainment of these goals requires some skill in dealing with people; that the young person should work consciously toward attaining them.

4. Have class work out a list of all the groups with which young people must work out satisfactory relationships, at the present time and in the future. This list will probably include: parents, sisters, brothers, and others in the home; boys and girls of one's own age, younger, and older; neighbors, family friends, teachers, ministers, employers, employees, and co-workers:

Note to teacher: It may be wise to throw full responsibility for Number 4 as stated, on the pupils as an additional means of motivating the work.

Problem I. How are families organized for effective living?

A. Model home consists of father, mother, and children; in many cases relatives, friends, or boarders become members of the

household.

B. Reciprocal relations in the home.

Family owes the child care, protection, affection, interest, education in various aspects of life, opportunities for schooling, training in obedience and discipline, and a united home.

Child owes the home sympathy, adjustment to others in the home, share of work.

C. Child absorbs culture from the home -- language, tastes, habits, ideals, religion, hobbies, and morals.

Pupil activities:

1. List on the blackboard all members of your family, - father, mother, sisters, brothers, grandparents and others. List them to see how many variations in patterns there are in this class. Total the number of each group to get a picture of the average family.

2. Discuss and evaluate statement B in this problem. Give examples of each point from your own experience. Question or challenge any statement you doubt. Add anything you wish.

3. Tell the class about the customs and traditions in your family.

4. What are the by-words of your family?

Write a long list to read to class.

5. Prepare a short talk on "Strict Rules in My Home."

6. Write a list beginning like one of these:

In my home, we don't _____

Daddy won't let me _____

Mother says I may _____

Note to teacher - Very little textbook material for secondary school students is available for use in Problem I. If generalizations are made following each pupil activity, and if children are able to feel that their contributions have helped, they will gain an understanding of the family as a unit. The teacher should be alert to opportunities to have anything said or done in the classroom which causes a child to feel pride in his family and home. In such ways is his security in both home and school increased. One good summary for this problem would be a class discussion of statement C, with pupils giving numerous illustrations of each point mentioned.

Problem II. How do members of the family cooperate in work? as a financial unit? for security?

A. The father earns the money; the mother manages the household but may be employed away from the home: the income is budgeted to cover food, shelter, clothing, recreation, medical care,

and savings; the children's development is supervised; the children study, work, and play in order to develop into happy and useful citizens.

B. Each member of the family feels financial, social, and emotional pressures from the outside which cause him to adjust. Inside pressures, too develop through the necessary sharing of the telephone, car, living room, bathroom, and radio.

C. The home is a place where one finds understanding and security.

Pupil activities:

7. Show your family patterns of financial arrangement by finding out what per cent of the total income is earned by each member of the family.

8. Boys -- Report to the class the types of expenses incurred in operating your home. Compare lists of house-dwellers with apartment-dwellers. Compare home owners with renters.

9. Girls -- Read texts on homemaking to compile lists of duties of women in the home. What knowledge and skills are required?

10. Boys -- Select a working partner and list your responsibilities in life. Make a composite list for the class.

11. Girls -- Same as 10.
12. Compare and contrast 10 and 11. Summarize.
13. Consult your parents to find out the outstanding pressures that operate in their lives. List those which operate in your life.
14. Serve on a committee to suggest rules for sharing any one of these: telephone, car, living room, bathroom, radio. Submit to class for suggestion.
15. Write a set of rules for one of these for your own home and submit it for acceptance.
16. (Teacher read to class the short story Surprising the Family.) Relate or write an account of a hectic time in your home.
17. Write a report of a very happy time with your family.
18. Show in a drawing five things which you like to have your family do for you.
19. Show in a drawing what you do about your mother's and father's guests in the home.

Note to teacher - In Problem II, as in I, little textbook material is available for family use. Some time should be given to discussion and generalization at the end of each pupil activity. The

concept that there are values for the individual in family life should be kept uppermost in these discussions. Serious discussions can feature humor as well as dignity and still point out clearly that all members of the family face problems of adjustment in living together.

Problem III. How do young people learn to become independent of parental supervision?

- A. They learn adult ways through father-son, father-daughter, mother-son, and mother-daughter relationships.
- B. They prove their readiness for self-direction in some ways.

Pupil activities:

20. Girls -- Form a group with two or three other girls. Analyze the things about the adult world which you learn through relationship with your father; with your mother. Summarize.

21. Boys ---- Same .

22. Girls --- Select one of your best girl friends in the class to work with. List all the ways in which your family has already given you certain privileges of independence. Read list to class,

telling how you earned this opportunity to become self-directing. Discuss. (Emphasize)

23. Boys --- Same.

Note to teacher: It is difficult to outline the content for Problem III. Because so much depends on the maturity of the pupils, it is hard to predict where they will throw the emphasis. Very little direction should be given for Pupil Activities 20 and 21. A composite list to be used by individuals as a check list may be effective. Such matters as manners, dress habits, speech habits, ways of talking and thinking, and attitudes about politics, religion, race, and human relationships will probably be included. Emphasis should be on helping the pupils to outline the facts submitted. The activities suggested may evoke enough interest to carry over into home discussions. The teacher may utilize reactions by having them reported on in class, and should seize opportunities to express appreciation of good homes. A good summarizing activity would be to request pupils to ask their parents to write short reports on "How My Son (Daughter) Has Earned Some Independence." As a corollary activity, pupils may write on "How Much Independence I Can Stand." Pupils who do not volunteer for these activities may be asked to produce quotations on the subject from books and magazines.

Problem IV. How does one get along with peers?

A. Determine by survey method the traits that boys and girls like in each other and the types of activities they like best.

B. Develop an awareness in pupils of opportunities in the environment for social contacts.

C. Study social skills most needed and admired by this age - group.

Pupil activities:

24. Arrange a survey to get data for A Guide Sheet to Success for Junior High Pupils.

Each member of class stating his age, and sex, may submit an unsigned paper on each of these:

Traits I like best in boys
Traits I like best in girls

Committees compile lists under appropriate headings:

What boys like best in boys
What boys like best in girls
What girls like best in girls
What girls like best in boys

25. Conduct a survey on types of social activities most enjoyed. Ask for five items from each person.

26. (Optional; supplementary) Round-table discussion on Good Parties I Have Attended.

27. (Optional; supplementary) Any who have already read Boy Dates Girl may give skits to advertise it to class.

28. Show in quick sketches or by short dramatizations the opportunities for social contacts offered by the school, the home, and the neighborhood.

29. Show how good introductions with leads of information can bring about easy conversation. (Emphasize)

30. Deliver a monologue that represents a skillful telephone conversation. (Emphasize)

Note to teacher: In this problem, too, it is difficult to predict the content. Maturity of the pupils will determine it somewhat. It is possible that statement A will bring forth data on manners, dress, moods, and character traits. C will probably bring forth data on conversation, repartee, introductions, entertainments, and such attributes as friendliness and sympathy. The teacher will be wise to arrange for pupil committees to supervise the activities. She can serve best if she keeps in the background.

Problem V. How does one get along with adults?

A. Friendships are fostered by such qualities as faithfulness, loyalty, trust, sincerity, honesty, tact, appreciation, broadmindedness, respect for

privacy and confidence, and sympathy.

B. Friendships are hurt by bad tempers, intolerance, discourtesy, selfishness, stubbornness, grumbling, and critical attitudes.

C. Charm smooths all relationships.

Pupil activities:

31. List the adults with whom you have contacts.

32. List for class discussion the qualities you admire most in adults.

33. List for class discussion the traits which have ever spoiled friendships for you. Discuss details.

34. Sir James Barrie once defined charm this way -- "If you have it, you don't need to have anything else - and if you haven't it, it doesn't matter what else you have."

Write a description of someone you know who has charm.

35. Cartoon traits you like or dislike.

36. Some people win eternal fame and the affection of others because they know how to deal with people. Cite examples.

37. Have a question box for personal problems left unsolved by this unit. (There may still be some questions

about sibling relationships.)

38. If you have some personal problem which you would like to discuss privately with the counselor, arrange for an interview.

39. Ask your English teacher to suggest the titles of books on the accredited reading list which give the reader an insight into human nature.

Examples - Alice Adams by Booth Tarkington

Bent Twig by Dorothy Canfield Fisher

So Big by Edna Ferber

Suggestive culminating activities:

40. Arrange for a panel discussion on improving social relationships or becoming self-directive. Invite parents to participate.

41. Invite as a speaker an adult known to be skillful in dealing with young people. Children suggest topics.

Evaluation:

Ask each pupil to prepare a Guide Sheet to Success For Junior High Pupils. Suggestions for relations with the home, the school, and the neighborhood are to be included. Pupils may be permitted to spend some time in groups planning

for this work. Much of it must be done at school so that teacher can observe those who need assistance.

A second evaluation activity may be interesting to pupils and may direct their thinking into new areas. Read to the class Albert Edward Wiggam's test of 45 questions for scoring one's relations with others. Pupils may keep their own scores.

Still another type of evaluation may be used here. Give one of the following inventories to get a profile of adjustment as measured by the test:

- A. California Test of Personality - Intermediate
 - B. Symond's Test -- What Kind of Year Are You Having?
 - C. Judgments Characteristic of the Socially Competent Person -- Mott and others.
 - D. Hildreth's Personality and Interest Inventory, Elementary Form.
 - E. My Personality Growth Book -- McCall and Herring
- (Use inventory results as possible bases for improvement)

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SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study of A Group Guidance Course for Grades 7B, 8A, 9B, and 9A in the Highland Junior High School in Louisville, Kentucky, was initiated by a desire to build a course that would assist the pupils in that school to meet their adjustment problems courageously at the same time that it promoted their social development.

Guidance philosophy has been analyzed. The forces of the guidance movement from its incipience in Boston, in 1908 to its present-day stature has been indicated. The strong insistence that the individual -- the whole child -- must be viewed in all aspects of his development, has been shown to have become the accepted basic concept of guidance. Hope has been expressed that the nature of the guidance offered to the young be determined by what psychology reveals to be the best ways to aid in wholesome personality development. Evidence that the individual should be equipped with better tools with which to solve his own problems is clearly indicated by the statement by Rogers that nobody but the individual himself can arrive at the solution that is appropriate and workable for himself.

The development of group guidance classes as media for in-

roducing new subject matter into the curriculum was pointed out, and the wide variety of present-day offerings was noted. The guidance program of the Highland Junior High School was described briefly so as to show its philosophy and its provision for individual and group counseling.

Literature on the junior high school pupil was studied to gain a clear picture of what he is like. He was found to be one who is either in the stage of later childhood or that of early adolescence. Because this early adolescent may be found in every class in a junior high school and because in being an "in-between" he has a difficult role, special attention was given to investigating his nature so that the course proposed by this study would meet his needs. The concept of need was reviewed, and an attempt made to show how the adolescent strives to get the things he needs. In his struggle for emancipation from the home, for better heterosexual adjustment, and for economic self-determination is he seeking basic satisfactions.

Because the transition from the dependency of childhood to the self-direction of adulthood is difficult, many problems confront the young person. However, it is not only the nature of his being which creates conflicts. Many conditions in his environment contribute their share. The home, the school, and other institutions which touch his life may have dealt with him in such ways that symptoms of

deep-seated conflict become evident. By such influences is the young adolescent prevented from enjoying normal social development which leads him on to realization of his goals.

A report was given on the study of adjustment problems of students at the Highland Junior High School, conducted in May and June of 1943. Due recognition was given to the weaknesses of the questionnaire method used and to the small number involved in the study, but the results were illuminating and enough in accord with other findings that they could well be used as one guide-post in building a course to meet pupils' adjustment problems.

In the group situation itself, many values were found. Numerous ways in which the group guidance class can contribute to pupil welfare were cited. Next in order, the construction of course materials received attention. Accepted criteria by which such courses are evaluated were ascertained. And finally, the unit plan of organization was described as being an effective way to present materials.

In light of the findings about pupil needs and student problems as revealed by the questionnaire, an attempt was made to cast up a course of study in group guidance for pupils in the Highland Junior High School. Objectives and subject matter were presented and brief outlines of the eight units into which it is

proposed that the work be divided were offered. Two units, worked out in detail, illustrate the way in which the subject matter is made ready for classroom use.

It could well be hoped that continuous social development might become a major objective of the education of the young, in both the home and school. The steadily increasing interest in the individual and his adjustment and the belief that he has a "right" to all the elements of a satisfying adjustment has been described by Rogers as "one of the outstanding phenomena of our times." And that "interest in the processes through which he may find help" surely will lead to general understanding of the real nature of guidance -- that helping the individual means helping him to solve his own problems.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS

May - June 1943

The following list is submitted to you so that you may check those items which you believe could be worked on in the 8A and 9B Group Guidance Classes at the Highland Junior High School. Please check only those items which, in your opinion, would be of value to the students. This check list will help us to get a list of adjustment problems faced by students in these classes.

Indicate here in which of these groups you are:-

_____ An 8 A boy
_____ An 8 A girl
_____ A 9 B boy
_____ A 9 B girl
_____ A 9 A boy
_____ A 9 A girl

_____ A father of a boy
_____ A father of a girl
_____ A mother of a boy
_____ A mother of a girl
_____ A teacher

- _____ 1. Planning for war time entertainments
- _____ 2. Working out a program of home study
- _____ 3. Summer jobs in war time
- _____ 4. Good study habits and how to acquire them
- _____ 5. How pupils can get along with younger sisters and brothers
- _____ 6. Study of personal requirements and necessary training for certain jobs
- _____ 7. Personal grooming, make-up, etc.
- _____ 8. Dates
- _____ 9. Getting along with parents
- _____ 10. The school itself and its functions
- _____ 11. Choosing courses to take in Grades 9 through 12
- _____ 12. Dropping subjects in the middle of the term

SUMMARY OF QUESTIONNAIRE.

QUES TION	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	PARENTS		TOTAL	PARENTS		TOTAL	FATHERS		TOTAL	MOTHERS		TOTAL	TEACH ERS	GRAND TOTAL
	Total	Total		of Boys			of Girls			B.	G.		B.	G.			
				F.	M.		F.	M.									
	40	40	80	20	20	40	20	20	40	20	20	40	20	20	40	10	170
1	7	14	21	1	4	5	1	3	4	1	1	2	4	3	7	3	33
2	26	13	39	112	12	24	13	9	22	12	13	25	12	9	21	10	95
3	24	9	33	7	9	16	4	5	9	7	4	11	9	5	14	6	64
4	34	25	59	15	12	27	17	12	29	15	17	32	12	12	24	10	125
5	12	18	30	6	10	16	6	4	10	6	6	12	10	4	14	7	63
6	27	15	42	13	8	21	6	8	14	13	6	19	8	8	16	10	87
7	7	31	38	9	13	22	5	13	18	9	5	14	13	13	26	9	87
8	8	32	40	2	5	7	5	8	13	2	5	7	5	8	13	7	67
9	12	15	27	8	6	14	8	5	13	8	8	16	6	5	11	7	61
10	25	7	32	5	6	11	4	5	9	5	4	9	6	5	11	9	61
11	39	26	65	16	14	30	10	12	22	16	10	26	14	12	26	10	127
12	12	6	18	5	2	7	1	1	2	5	1	6	2	1	3	6	33
13	20	19	39	10	6	16	11	8	19	10	11	21	6	8	14	9	83
14	36	22	58	15	15	30	12	7	19	15	12	27	15	7	22	9	116
15	35	20	55	15	15	30	9	13	22	15	9	24	15	13	28	10	117
16	17	30	47	11	8	19	5	11	16	11	5	16	8	11	19	9	91
17	23	18	41	12	16	28	15	16	31	12	15	27	16	16	32	10	110
18	13	4	17	3	5	8	1	0	1	3	1	4	5	0	5	5	31
19	26	19	45	13	13	26	7	10	17	13	7	20	13	10	23	9	97
20	5	25	30	3	6	9	4	4	8	3	4	7	6	4	10	6	53
21	15	13	28	4	2	6	8	3	11	4	8	12	2	3	5	8	53
22	37	14	51	13	9	22	4	6	10	13	4	17	9	6	15	10	93
23	21	29	50	8	7	15	10	7	17	8	10	18	7	7	14	8	90
24	24	14	38	6	7	13	3	5	8	6	3	9	7	5	12	10	69
25	14	8	22	2	6	8	2	3	5	2	2	4	6	3	9	8	43