DOCTORAL DISSERTATION SERIES

TITLE DESIGN AND EVALUATION OF AN IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAM FOR TEACHERS IN CHILD GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

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UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN DATE 1952

DEGREE Ph.D. PUBLICATION NO. 3766



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DESIGN AND EVALUATION OF AN IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAM FOR TEACHERS IN CHILD GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in the
University of Michigan
1952

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to acknowledge a deep debt of gratitude to the lecturers who have taken part in the in-service training program described, and to the teachers who participated in making it a success.

To Dr. Harlan C. Koch, particularly, who was instrumental in helping to establish the program and who offered invaluable assistance and encouragement during the course of its development.

The writer wishes also to thank Dean Willard C. Olson, Professors Howard Y. McClusky, William Morse, and Doctor Douglas Carroll for their incentive and counsel.

To Ila Holmlund, wife of the writer, for much inspiration and seeing it through.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS		ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS		iii
INTRODUCTION		vi
CHAPTER I.	Background and Setting of the Evaluation	1
	The Plan	2
	Roster of Lecturers	3
	Course Requirements	6
	Method of Teacher Selection	9
	Teacher Evaluation	10
CHAPTER II.	Review of Related Literature	14
	Parker School District Experiment	22
	Plan at Michigan State College	25
	University of Illinois Experiment	28
	In-Service Program at Austin, Texas	30
	In-Service Programs in Oregon	33
	In-Service Project in New York City	34
	Summary	35
CHAPTER III.	The Content of the Course	38
	Psychological Aspects	38
	Psychiatric Factors	39
	The Role of the Family	50
	General School Factors	56
	Physical Health of the Child	63
	Utilization of Community Resources	66
	Group Dynamics	67
	The Teachers' Mental Health	71
CHAPTER IV.	Analysis of Results	
	Experimental Design	75
	Evaluation Instruments	76
	Results of Test Given at beginning of Course	80
	Results of Test Given at end of Course	82
	Analysis of Results of Age Groups	86
	Computation of t-Scores	89
	Principals' Evaluations	89

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

		Page
CHAPTER V.	Résumé of Results and Conclusion.	95
APPENDIX.		97
	A. LECTURE SCHEDULE (1951-1952).	98
	B. CASE HISTORY OUTLINE FOR THE STUDY OF CHILDHOOD BEHAVIOR.	101
	C. READING ASSIGNMENTS TO ACCOMPANY LECTURES (1951-1952). . . .	107
BIBLIOGRAPHY.		109

LIST OF TABLES

		Page
1.	Graduate and Undergraduate Participation According to Teaching Levels	77
2.	Average Scores Made by the Experimental and Control Groups on "A Study of Barry Black" at the Beginning of the Course on Child Growth and Development.	81
3.	Average Scores Made by the Experimental and Control Groups on "A Study of Sam Smith" at the End of the Course	83
4.	Changes in the Relative Positions of the Control and Experimental Groups at the Close of the Course on Child Growth and Development	85
5.	Significance of Difference of Mean Total Scores by Ages of Experimental and Control Groups on "Barry Black" and "Sam Smith" Instruments at the End of the Course	88
6.	Principals' Ratings of Experimental and Control Groups on Three Desirable Characteristics	93

INTRODUCTION

To a greater degree than ever before during the past decade the focus of attention in education has been gradually turning towards the individual child, and as a result certain problems have emerged that warrant attention. Among the most important of these problems is that of a child's adjustment to his school, home and community. His attitudes, thoughts and feelings greatly influence his rate of academic progress and the crux of the problem is to how we can help the classroom teacher, who is in daily contact with the child, become more aware of incipient behavior problems and how these problems can best be managed.

Schools have traditionally looked to specialists for the solution and treatment of many pupil behavior problems and there is still a need for this type of service for the severely emotionally disturbed child. But the role of the classroom teacher continues to be most important and it has been our feeling that by strengthening her hand we are strengthening one of the basic structures of our educational system.

An awareness of these general conditions led to the proposal of an interesting experiment which is the basis of this study. It seemed that classroom teachers who are actually "on the firing line" and therefore in a strategic position to 1) spot trouble signs which might suggest the development of potentially severe emotional problems;

2) do something to help these children make a healthy adjustment; and 3) make referrals to available specialists. It seemed that the classroom teacher could be helped to diagnose and treat certain problems and where necessary, make the most efficient use of available specialists. In short the classroom teacher was in a strategic position and any help she could be given would be supplied at the point where a significant job of prevention could be done.

The Mechanics of Implementing the Idea

In order to provide training and support for classroom teachers, an experimental course was designed by the writer and Flint Public School Administrators together with faculty members from the School of Education of the University of Michigan. The course was developed as an in-service program within the public school system of Flint, Michigan. The first meeting was in the fall of 1946 and it has been in continuous operation since that time. There were two principal ingredients in the course plan. One was that each teacher should make a continuing, detailed case study of two of her pupils; one of a student presenting behavior problems, another who might be classified as "normal". These studies provided a chance for specific application of the second ingredient: a series of lectures presenting the points of view of experts from different fields and with sometimes conflicting points of view. The course runs for two semesters, has 32 meetings and is a credit course in the Graduate School of the University of Michigan.

The Theory of the Program

The theory underlying this program is that when classroom teachers are exposed to the best current knowledge of child growth and development in a setting that is highly conducive to learning, these teachers will, after completing the course, develop a more accurate diagnosis of emotional problems in children and be better able to propose effective treatment.

The Need for Objective Evaluation

After five years of continuous operation there were unmistakable signs of enthusiasm on the part of participants. Increasing enrollments and frequent evidence obtained in the course of the writer's activities as director of the Mott Visiting Teacher Program were highly suggestive that the course was having its desired effect. These evidences are subjective. As a consequence it was felt that a careful, objective evaluation of the results of this experiment would be most helpful. An examination of the literature failed to disclose any programs which were comparable to this. Moreover, there was no evidence of attempts at objective evaluation of any in-service teaching programs in child growth and development. This seemed an important gap in the field - there are many proposals for such programs but nowhere have their results been carefully measured.

The Study Design

Given the need for an evaluation, it remained to work out a fair and impartial method. Many different methods were discussed and finally one was chosen which could be carried through by an individual within the necessary limits thus imposed by time and funds.

The Theory Behind the Design

The basic assumption of the evaluation is that which applies to most educative efforts: information properly given and absorbed will change attitudes and a change in attitudes will result in behavioral changes in the direction proposed by the instructors.

Design

The design consisted of a list of the extent to which the course had increased the ability of participants to diagnose pupil behavior and suggest remedial procedures. In addition observations of principals were obtained on behavioral aspects of experimental and control groups to see if the changes in behavior were in the direction anticipated. Post-course evaluation sheets were obtained from participants in order to supply some picture of the participant reaction. Together it was hoped that these facts would produce a check on the effect of such a course and suggest the extent to which it might be achieving the purposes its architects had in mind.

Plan of Report

Chapter One deals with the environment, inception and general description of the experimental setting.

Chapter Two gives a review of related literature in order that the reader may see the extent to which this program is unique and may obtain some idea as to the need for such evaluation.

Chapter Three will describe the content of the course in detail so that the reader may see the nature and method of the course and be prepared for the use of selected evaluation tools.

Chapter Four will report the results of the evaluation and the measures of reliability, and Chapter Five will provide a summary and a statement of general conclusions.

Chapter I

Background and Setting of This Evaluation

The following study is one that was started in Flint, Michigan, in 1946 by a group of teachers and administrators who felt that something should be done to strengthen the teacher's understanding of childhood behavior. There had been in the school system a visiting teacher program since 1938 designed to help the youngsters with behavior problems, but it became apparent, in time, that if real results were to be obtained something more would have to be done in the field of prevention. At this time the course is in its sixth year and interest continues strong as evidenced by the verbatim comments of the teachers as well as the heavy advance registrations.

Flint is a city of 165,000 people of which approximately ninety-one per cent are white and eighty-one per cent are native white. The chief industry is the manufacture of automobiles, parts and accessories, spark plugs, carburetors, duco-products, fabricated steel, screw machinery, and trailer coaches.

There are thirty-nine public school buildings, one junior college, two senior high schools and one technical high school. The combined enrollments of these schools is approximately twenty-seven thousand with 913 teachers.

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South, which has placed a strain upon the educational system in terms of numbers and problems that heretofore have not existed. In this setting - a large industrial city with its manifold social and economic problems - the following study was undertaken beginning in the fall of 1946.

The plan at first was to have one teacher selected for the course from each of the elementary schools, preferably by the principal, and these teachers would act as building representatives to carry out many of the principles and practices learned in the course. As an inducement to attend it, it was stated that the Mott Foundation, a privately financed philanthropic organization, would underwrite the tuition costs and that the University of Michigan would assist in the instruction and issue two hours of credit per semester. The course itself would run for two semesters covering the list of topics that are discussed more in detail in the chapter dealing with content. The main purpose of the course was to give the teachers a thorough grounding in the modern dynamics of child behavior as brought to them not only through written material, but by visiting lecturers who are experts in their respective fields and who came from the University of Michigan and from other centers of education each week.

The uniqueness of this course lies not only in the fact that it covers a period of thirty-two weeks of intensive, integrated study under trained leadership ubt also that case

studies are prepared of children needing individual assistance with whom the teachers have daily contact. This makes the instructional program realistic, one in which the teacher learns by doing. She has a personal interest in the outcome since she has daily contact with the child she is studying. This situation takes the course out of the theoretical realm and identifies it with her daily experience in how to help children find a better and happier adjustment to their environment. The payment of tuition by the Mott Foundation and the issuance of credit by the University of Michigan encouraged teachers to participate in the course and gave them a tangible return on their investment of time and energy over and above the strengthening of their understanding of child behavior.

Following is the roster of those who have appeared as lecturers since the inception of the course. As one can see, they have been drawn from various centers and represent a variety of disciplines.

ROSTER OF LECTURERS, 1946-52

Anderson, Irving H.	Professor of Education	U. of M.
Booth, Herbert J.	Former Director Flint State Child Guidance Clinic	
Bordin, Edward S.	Chief of Counseling Division Institute for Human Adjustment	U. of M.
Donahue, Wilma T.	Lecturer in Psychology in the University Extension Service and Research Psychologist in the Institute for Human Adjustment	U. of M.

Dorsey, John M., M.D.	Chairman of Department of Psychiatry	Wayne University
Dybwad, Gunnar	Lecturer in Sociology	U. of M.
Farrell, Teresa A.	Associate Director Flint Council of Social Agencies	
Greene, Katharine B.	Lecturer in Education	U. of M.
Himler, Leonard E.,M.D.	Associate Professor of Mental Health in the School of Public Health	U. of M.
Holmlund, Walter S.	Supervisor, Mott Visiting Teachers, Flint Public Schools and Lecturer in Education, University of Michigan	Flint Public Schools
Hughes, Byron O.	Associate Professor of Child Development in the School of Education	U. of M.
Ingram, Vivien	Supervisor of Tests, Measurements, and Guidance	Flint Public Schools
Jordan, Paul H., M.D.	Director, Flint State Child Guidance Clinic	
Koch, Harlan C.	Assistant Dean of the Horace H. Rackham School of Graduate Studies; Professor of Education and Graduate Advisor to the Michigan Colleges of Education	U. of M.
Lundberg, Lawrence L.	Assistant Superintendent of Schools	Flint Public Schools
McClusky, Howard Y.	Professor of Educational Psychology and Consultant in Community Adult Education	U. of M.
Moloney, J. Clark, M.D.	Psychiatrist, Detroit	
Morse, William C.	Assistant Professor of Educational Psychology and Director of the U. of M. Fresh Air Camp	U. of M.



Newcomb, Theodore M.	Professor of Sociology and Psychology	U. of M.
Olson, Willard C.	Professor of Education Professor of Psychology, and Director of Research in Child Development	U. of M. Elementary School
Rawlings, J. Mott, M.D.	Associate Director, City Health Department, Flint	
Taylor, Mary N.	Instructor in Social Work, Institute of Social Work	U. of M.
Treat, David B.	Director, Clara Elizabeth Fund, Flint	
Tuuri, Arthur L., M.D.	Director, Mott Foundation Children's Health Center	
Van der Slice, David M.D.	Non-resident Lecturer in Public Health Practice and Director Flint School Health Program	Flint Public Schools
Woody, Clifford	Professor of Education and Director of the Bureau of Educational Reference and Research	U. of M.
Zander, Alvin	Assistant Professor of Educational Psychology and Program Director of the Research Center for Group Dynamics	U. of M.

Each lecturer was chosen for his qualifications in the field as well as his ability to present his subject matter in a way that would coincide with the purposes of the course. Each lecturer knew that the teachers were engaged in the preparation of case studies and his presentation was directed towards assisting in the development of it.



Every method of instruction was used that would facilitate the teaching process. Among those included were movies, tape recordings, field trips, and role-playing. As a result the course proved doubly valuable in that it not only gave the teachers the most modern concepts of child development but it brought to their attention educational devices that make for more effective teaching in the classroom.

Course requirements. The main requirement of the course is the preparation of a case study of a child that the teacher selects who she feels would profit from individual attention. The following instructions are given to all teachers at the beginning of the course.

> It is not intended that a teacher should select for study a child who has a serious behavior disturbance. Cases that require specialized handling by trained workers should be referred through the principal to the proper community agency. Instead, one that does not necessarily show serious behavior abnormalities or indicates a trend or a tendency in that direction is preferred. It may be a child who for some unknown reason is not doing the type of school work that is in line with his ability or who does not appear well or is absent from school a great deal or seems unhappy most of the time. Then, too, the teacher may choose a youngster who has difficulty in getting along with others. Such a child may be overly aggressive or exhibit withdrawal tendencies, seeking to be by himself. This type perhaps is more in need of attention than the aggressive individual whose behavior is more obvious.

The teachers were further advised that no hard and fast rule of selection for case study should be followed; rather they were encouraged to exercise their own judgment in the matter. However, only cases should be selected on which material could be easily obtained. For instance, home factors



would or would not lend themselves to the gathering of family history material. The teachers were also urged whenever possible to select children from their own grades or home rooms so that counseling arrangements could easily be made.

It was also pointed out that, in general, the child who best lends himself to study is one in whom the teacher is personally interested and who the teacher feels would profit from a period of individual attention. The writer, who serves as the director of the course in child development, assured the teachers that he would assist them, if need be, in selecting children for study who would fit the above description.

Finally, the thought was emphasized that the preparation of a case study provides a given teacher with experience in gathering important information regarding an individual child. It was pointed out that this process is best facilitated when a child is selected that does not have too severe a personality disorder and for whom information is readily obtained and concerning whom there would be no difficulty in securing family cooperation.

The basic textbook for the course is Willard C. Olson's Child Development published by D. C. Heath & Company, Chicago, Illinois. To facilitate the preparation of case studies, a detailed outline was given to each teacher indicating the four main points to be covered; namely, personal data, family

history, psychological and medical information, and school adjustment.

The lectures were planned to coincide with the development of the case study first bringing in the psychological and psychiatric consultants and later utilizing the people who were experts in group dynamics, home and family living, health, and certain academic fields. The lecture material presented by these individuals has been summarized. It can be found in the Appendix. Also included in the Appendix is a copy of the Case History Outline prepared for the group by Dr. Leonard E. Himler, of the University of Michigan, which has served as a guide in the preparation of the required case studies mentioned above. Ample time was given for informal discussion of these cases and notes were taken for distribution at the next meeting. Along with the preparation of the case study of a "behavior problem child," each teacher was asked to present a case study of a "normal child," one who apparently was making a good adjustment to his home and school invironment. This case study was not developed in such detail as the other, but when the two were finally completed at the end of the year the modified factors in each emerged. Thus, the teachers found by actual observation just what was making these youngsters behave as they were behaving. Two facts have been emphasized throughout the course: that behavior is symptomatic and that, in order to understand it, one needs to know some of the basic causes of it.

The first year fifty-one teachers took the course and turned in as many case studies. All of them were very enthusiastic about their experience. The method of teacher selection was not satisfactory, however, inasmuch as many more teachers wanted to take the course than had been budgeted for. The following year the number was increased to seventy-five with the hope that all who wanted to enroll could be accepted. This change has worked out very well: the third year there were ninety, the fourth, one hundred, and the fifth, one hundred ten. To avoid disappointment, nomination for enrollment by building principals as a method of selection was abandoned after the first year and all qualified applicants have since been accepted. As a result the budget necessarily has increased but we have felt that the money was well expended. To gain an idea of its effectiveness, at the end of each year the work has been evaluated by those who took it. Information so secured proved valuable in planning the program for the new year. As a result of these suggestions the succeeding programs have been modified. Some items have been omitted, others added, and still others more heavily emphasized in keeping with the teachers' wishes. The most recent evaluation is reported below.

CHILD GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT EVALUATION

Education C275

1951

A. When you compare your experience in Child Growth and Development with that acquired in other courses, do you

feel that you have profited by it?

More 76 Less 1 About the Same 21

Comments:

"Beneficial to teacher in developing proper approach and technique needed in classroom."

"We've drawn on vast resources to broaden our views."

"Fine experience, every teacher should take this course."

"Good to get many speakers' views on such a controversial subject."

"Acquired new experiences through actual case study work."

"Has been helpful to study child in my room at the same time as studying growth of children in class."

"Good to hear speakers that are specialists in their field."

"By far the finest course I have ever taken."

"Am using many of the principles daily."

"Realized to a greater degree my responsibility in helping the troubled child."

"Lectures and personal contacts helped me a great deal."

"Especially enjoyed the emotional and mental aspects of the lectures."

"Has made me more aware of child as a whole."

"Stimulated me to study children as individuals."

"Practical and realistic--much more so than many college courses."

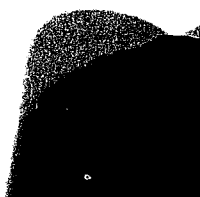
"Better understanding of problems of children."

"Good for older teachers."

"Meeting different members of the family because of the home calls."

"Case study was great help."

"More comprehensive than other courses."



B. Estimate the growth you feel you have made in the following areas:

Where attitude is defined as "the way you feel," would you say that you have

(1) Stabilized your attitudes? Yes 66 No 7

(2) Changed attitudes? Yes 45 No 18

(3) Acquired new attitudes? Yes 80 No 5

Are these changes

Many 21 Some 52 Few 15 None 1

When purpose is defined as "doing things," would you say that you have

(1) Done things you only talked about before? Yes 73 No 12

(2) Stopped doing things you used to do? Yes 60 No 16

Has your "doing" changed:

Much 15 Some 71 Little 10 None 0

Can you name one such change?

"Searching for a reason behind an attitude rather than simply accepting it."

"In administering punishment."

"More human relationships with students."

"Better realization of the sensitivity of children."

"Seeing better the problems that the subnormal child has."

"The use of conversations held by children, estimating and aiding the unfortunate."

"Making case studies."

"Making sociometric tests."

"Home calls."

"I've tried to get away from the Don't Don't technique."

"Using praise more and talking over problems with child in more personal way."

"I feel that I have learned more about handling the students and have greater understanding."

"I am trying to teach children rather than subjects."

"I have become less critical of school achievement as such."

"Disciplining my son."

"Give the students more initiative."

"Interview approach, emphasis upon importance of the individuality of a person."

"I try even more not to pass judgment on my students' activities when consulting them about problems."

"Becoming a better 'listener'."

"Ability to confer with parents in a friendly atmosphere which creates better understanding and cooperation."

"Concentrating on the potential good in the child."

"Making snap judgment about a child before really understanding him."

"Reading."

"Discipline sometimes administered when reasons for action were not considered."

"More patience."

"Keeping an even climate in the room."

"More and greater attempts to make each child feel important, loved, and secure."

"Stopped dictating as much."

"More sympathetic understanding of background and its effect on children."

"Try to understand my groups as individuals."

"Working with children at disliked activities, such as cleaning up room, rather than directing them."



"Better able to see situations through eyes of child."

"Learned how to go about getting help for a maladjusted child and have acquired new attitudes and appreciation for those who work with these children."

"Trying to apply many of the mental hygiene points on my own thinking and to help an adult friend also."

"Interviewing students."

"Changing place with the youngsters."

"More tolerant of children's shortcomings."

"Increased persistence in working through a problem situation."

"Counseling, identifying problems."

The comments by the teachers indicate that the case study technique has been a successful device in bringing the teacher and pupil closer together. By first hand observation she has been able to observe the child's behavior over a period of nearly ten months and to supply remedial measures when necessary. From home visits and parent conferences she gleans insight into environmental factors in the child's background.

The preparation of the case study, which requires a rather comprehensive evaluation of one child, is an experience that is easily carried over into the teacher's relationships with all of the other pupils under her supervision. The case study technique emphasizes the concept of "learning by doing" and helps to transfer theory into practice.



Chapter II

EXAMINATION OF RELATED INFORMATION

In the related literature many examples were found of in-service training programs designed for a variety of purposes. In Teacher Education In-Service[1] many of these are described. Among them are:

A. The significance of teacher participation in administration.
B. Reading problems in Houston.
C. A study of community resources in Des Moines.
D. A study group in the Philadelphia Workshop of 1942 which was based largely upon school, community relations.
E. Personnel study as a means of improving staff relations.
F. County-wide study of community problems.
G. The elementary junior high division during 1941, 1942, and lessons from the co-operative study from teacher education.

One can see from the above that there are many areas of education which have invited teacher participation for their solution. All of them have come under the broad heading of "In-Service Training For Teachers", but the one that will be described here is the child study project that took place in the Parker School District, Greenville, South Carolina, from April, 1940, to June, 1942, inasmuch as this project was carried out under the auspices of the American Council of Education and reports in a rather detailed way what was done. We can then compare with it the program in Flint. In this way the reader can get a general picture of the difference that exists between the two.

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[1]Charles E. Prall and C. Leslie Cushman, "Teacher Education In-Service," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1944, p. 503.

The Parker District includes an area of approximately twenty square miles located to the North and East of Greenville, and has a population of approximately thirty-five thousand. Its economic life is largely industrial in nature. The superintendent was a professionally minded man who had developed various additional programs that attracted national attention. Although there were present in this school system many aids to education, such as pictures, charts, books, maps, films, etc., it became apparent that these were not enough and that "the chief weakness appears to have been that the prevailing understanding of children was not adequate to the educational objectives which have been set."[1] As a consequence a child study program was developed in the Parker Schools and an outside consultant was obtained to give leadership to the project which was provided by the Commission. He spent some time in the school system meeting with principals and teachers, all of whom expected that he was the expert who was going to provide them with many of the answers having to do with difficult behavior problems. Some of the questions that they asked him were, "What would you do with a kleptomaniac?" and "What are ways of stopping so much inattentiveness?" The consultant stated that those questions served to point out the limits of the teacher's understanding of children. They wanted specific answers and were not too much interested in the basic motivations.

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[1]op. cit., p. 151.

The plan that was inaugurated involved twenty-five teachers on a volunteer basis. Each participant kept a record for a year or more of the behavior of two children, one a "normal" youngster and the other a "difficult" one. Members of this trial group met once a week to report what they were doing, to tell about their records, and what they were doing. Later another group was organized from among seventy-five volunteers. Both groups were finally consolidated into one large group.

During the second visit of the consultant he read some of the records that the teachers had been keeping and felt that they were very much in need of guidance in order to make and record their observations, because he found that very little, if any, writing had been done. Many of the statements he examined had little to do with the actual causes of behavior. However, the consultant felt that teachers were beginning to look for underlying causes of child behavior as a result of this anecdotal-record keeping and that they were beginning to see that child study was going to be useful to them.

In September, 1941, another study group of twenty-two members was organized and meetings were held regularly once a week. The consultant made four visits to the district and during those times he saw the teachers individually and gave them practical suggestions for the development of the case study. He also gave talks before all of the teachers in the district on some topic of general concern.

The supervisor of this project was a local leader who attended the Commissions Workshop in teacher education held at the University of Chicago in 1941. As a result of her experience there, more attention was given to the physical development of children and also to the social relations of the individual child with his associates. Another change in procedure during the second year was an attempt to keep records of a modified sort of all of the teacher's pupils. This latter plan, however, was not very successful. During the second year also, emphasis was placed upon such topics as the youngsters early home life, physical maturity, interests, and their participation in school activities.

Finally, the records were sent to the consultant for analysis. The following are some of the conclusions:

1. The teachers felt that no one incident was adequate for judging a child.
2. The teachers felt they should know the facts about the child's stage of physical development.
3. There is no way that is always best for changing a child's behavior.
4. Co-operation is necessary from parents as well as from the pupils in order to deal effectively with children.

The authors of the study hastened to say that all of the improvements listed were not necessarily attributable to the course, but felt that the work in child study was the major contributing factor.

The program also resulted in some changes in the content of the curriculum, utilizing the "centers of interest" point of view and looking at the child's individual capa-

cities for learning. The assignment of pupils to particular rooms was facilitated by this study. Three other changes were promoted:

Use of the observation school.
Reports to parents.
Cumulative record keeping for teacher's use.

Verbatim comments by classroom teachers seem to express the general opinion that they were consequently more interested in the motivations that underlie child behavior than in the factors which are more often noticed. In conclusion, the authors pointed out that the marvelous co-operation rendered by the administration was in no small measure a deciding element in the success of this program.

One may point out that this program was left largely up to the local leadership with only four visits by the consultant during the eighteen-month period of its operation. No description on the content of the subject matter that was presented to these teachers from week to week was given; neither is what occurred after the Commission terminated its project outlined. After the foregoing fashion did one rather progressive school system attempt to train its teachers in the understanding of child growth and development. An examination of other projects and systems with comparable objectives reveals that Greenville was among the most advanced. A description of the Flint plan later in this study will bring out certain basic differences between the two.

Broadly conceived, in-service education includes all activities of employed teachers that contribute to their professional growth and development.[1]

Lins described in a historical study a variety of systematized activities that have been classified under the heading of in-service education. The major ones are: teacher's institutes, reading circles, correspondence instruction, extension classes, summer schools, supervision, sabbatical leaves and workshops.[2]

The Flint plan described in this study would be classified under the last category as it involves considerable teacher participation as well as formal instruction. Teacher evaluations of the course from year to year have emphasized the point that a great deal of benefit is received from group discussions; role-playing, and generally from all opportunities that lend themselves to the exchange of ideas. This type of activity seems to be desired by teachers who have had some teaching experience and have ideas that they would either like to have clarification upon or to share with others.

Ade emphasized this fact strongly in his study of the teachers of Pennsylvania in which he states that "no amount of time spent in college or university will complete the preparation of the teacher."[3]

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[1]A. S. Barr, Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Revised Edition, The MacMillan Company, 1950, p. 1421.

[2]L. J. Lins, "Origin of Teacher Improvement Services in the United States," Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 38, (1945), pp. 697-707.

[3]L. K. Ade, "In-Service Education of Teachers", Bulletin No. 155, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, Department of Public Instruction, (1939), p. 23.

As stated by Gray this need for in-service training is "not due to the ineffective preservice education of teachers, but to the fact that we are continually facing new and challenging problems."[1]

As a prelude to the variety of in-service programs now in operation there was in the early days considerable emphasis placed on teaching problems.

Barr and Rudisill stated that the difficulties of beginning teachers centered around pupil control, recognition and provision for individual differences, subject matter presentation, lesson plans, working conditions, psychological and achievement measuring devices of all types and matters pertaining to general discipline and operation of the classroom.[2]

In recent years the attention has been shifted from the above fields to that of personal and social adjustment. As the trend moved from teaching subject matter to that of teaching children it was only natural that more consideration be paid to the individual and his needs. This refers not only to that of the pupil but to the teacher as well in that if the "whole child" comes to school the "whole teacher" comes to school likewise.

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[1]W. S. Gray, "The Professional Education of the College Teacher," In The Study of College Instruction National Society of College Teachers of Education, Yearbook XXVII, University of Chicago Press, (1939), pp. 248-66.

[2]A. S. Barr and Mabel Rudisill, "The Inexperienced Teachers Who Fail and Why," Nation's Schools, (February, 1930), pp. 30-34.

The work of Symonds has been influential in this regard and it is through his first hand contact with teachers at Columbia University that the emotional problems of teachers have been brought forward and analyzed and remedial procedures suggested.[1]

His method of using teacher autobiographies to determine specific needs has helped to shape the Flint Plan in that we included many informal experiences in the form of discussions, plays, square dances, group singing before each class, dinners, snacks and trips to other community agencies. This was done in order to help relieve strain and tension which the teaching job seems to generate.

The general evaluation form which has been administered to the group at the end of each year has assured that the subject matter content of the lecture schedule would include problems that teachers consider important and have a desire to know more about. In this way our program incorporates the suggestions made by Symonds[2] and others that the proper emotional climate be provided for the best possible learning environment.

The program in Flint coincides closely with the objectives which Armstrong and Cushman state as being basic in the effective program of in-service education for teachers:

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[1] P. M. Symonds, "How Teachers Solve Personal Problems," Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 38, (1945), pp. 641-52.

[2] P. M. Symonds, "Needs of Teachers as Shown in Autobiographies," Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 36, (1943), pp. 662-77.

(a) learning takes place best when it begins with matters of real interest and concern to the learner (b) the rate of learning is likely to increase as the area of his concern is extended (c) continued learning is dependent upon the development of the individual's particular interests and potentialities.[1]

Weber has stated five basic goals to keep in mind as the objectives of in-service education of teachers:

"(a) democratic participation (b) opportunities for problem solving (c) opportunities for creative thinking (d) healthy emotional climate in the classroom (e) to afford maximum opportunity for engendering biological vigor."[2]

Evaluation of in-service education programs. In view of the limited time in which in-service training programs have been functioning, the literature discloses very few evaluative studies. Earlier studies by Von Eschen who found that the improvement program was most effective in those areas where it was most concentrated,[3] those of Seay and Meece who described the results of an attempt to modify the nutritional habits of school children,[4] and of Wright-

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[1]W. E. Armstrong and C. L. Cushman, "Evaluating the In-Service Program," National Elementary Principals, Vol. 21, (1942), pp. 485-96.

[2]C. A. Weber, "Basic Assumptions for Evaluation of Techniques Employed in Secondary Schools for Educating Teachers In-Service," North Central Association Q, Vol. 17, (1942), pp. 19-27.

[3]C. R. Von Eschen, "The Improvability of Teachers in In-Service," Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. 14, (1945), pp. 135-56.

[4]Mildred A. Dawson, "Practical In-Service Teacher Education," New Forms of In-Service Teacher Education, Twenty-third Yearbook, Part II, National Association of Supervisors of Student Teaching, (1943), pp. 16-18.

sone and others who report the findings of an attempt to introduce certain types of child practices in the schools of New York City.[1]

There has been some effort to obtain teacher evaluation of in-service training programs with the studies of Weber being perhaps the most conspicuous. He reported the reactions of teachers to a variety of in-service methods by means of a questionnaire. One group used co-operative techniques; another used principal-centered or traditional techniques. They could be characterized further as being democratic in the first case and autocratic in the second. He concludes that co-operative effort in the making of school policies, solving of common school problems, planning and conducting faculty meetings is the most satisfactory to the teachers. When they themselves have a hand in the administration of school policies they obtain a greater degree of satisfaction than from any other effort described.[2]

It is for this reason that the Flint Plan included teachers, administrators, and university staff from the beginning, in order to arrive at a course that would be satisfactory to all. The yearly evaluative studies have

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[1] J. W. Wrightsone, Margaret Parke, and Mary Bressler, "Introducing Child Study Practices in Selected Schools in New York City," Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 37, (1944), pp. 512-20.

[2] C. A. Weber, "Reactions of Teachers to In-Service Education in Their Schools - School Review," North Central Association Q, Vol. 51, (1943), pp. 234-40; Vol. 17, (1942), pp. 195-98.

continued to strengthen the program by dropping items that lacked purpose or interest and by adding content that was more significant. In another study Weber reports one hundred and two devices considered acceptable for the education of teachers in-service.[1]

The importance of evaluation has been further stressed in a pamphlet issued by the Michigan State Board of Education[2] which states that "self-evaluation must always remain the heart of the appraisal program of in-service education." As in Weber's studies previously mentioned, teacher growth flourishes best in an atmosphere of friendliness and confidence.

It is for this reason that the Flint Plan has stressed informality by promoting class suppers and dances, by arranging "mixers" that would help the teachers get acquainted, and by bending every effort through group singing, and by the playing of recorded music while the class is assembling, to give the meetings a warm, personal, relaxed atmosphere.

Most of the literature reviewed up to this point leans heavily towards stating the need; very few studies show how to meet the need in a way that will be effective from the scientific point of view and satisfying to the teachers themselves.

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[1]C. A. Weber, "Techniques of In-Service Education Applied in North Central Secondary Schools," North Central Association Q, Vol. 17, (1942), pp. 195-98.

[2]Michigan State Board of Education, Lansing, Recognition and Evaluation of Teacher Growth in Service, The Michigan Co-operative Teacher Education Study, Lansing, (June, 1942).

DeLong, of Michigan State College, in co-operation with the Holt Michigan Public Schools, has instituted a six-year program described as "a longitudinal study of individual children."[1] Its main purposes are as follows:

1. Research to determine the relationship of the child's growth and development to the school program.
2. Observation of children as part of a program for training teachers to understand better the principles of child growth and development.
3. Service to the school and thus to the child involved in the program.

DeLong asserts that not only do the college students benefit from the first hand observation of children, but they render a service to the school system by bringing to the teachers in it pertinent material regarding the growth and development of children which otherwise would not be available. They bring not only their detailed observations of children, but the consulting service of Michigan State College as well, all designed to aid the classroom teacher in her daily contact with children. This is a rather unusual approach to the problem of helping teachers better understand children, but as the author states, this study has not yet progressed sufficiently to bring data to bear upon the question of how effective it really is.

The teachers of the Colquitt County and Moultrie Schools (Georgia) summarized the following conditions in

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[1] Arthur R. DeLong, "A Longitudinal Study of Individual Children," Michigan Education Journal, Vol. 29, (November, 1951), pp. 237-39.

response to the question, What are some of the conditions conducive to teacher growth?[1]

1. Teachers grow when they have a feeling of achievement and when they have the respect of others.

2. Teachers grow when they set up clear and worthwhile purposes within their reach.

3. (The) clarity of (the teachers) purpose increases as they see definite results in the lives of students...On the other hand, as teachers try many types of things and see results, they come to have an increasing clarity of purpose that will act as a guide for future action.

4. Teachers grow when they have many varied, free, and open avenues of communication with others.

5. A feeling of belonging to the group is necessary for teacher growth.

6. Teachers must have freedom to experiment with their own hypotheses and plans, and must not be limited too much by established procedures.

7. Teachers grow when school activities are centered around environmental problems.

8. Co-operative efforts among teachers in which they feel themselves a part of the group, find common purposes, and work together to break down barriers make for teacher growth.

9. Teachers grow as they participate in experiences leading to an understanding of the total school program.

10. Teachers grow as they have responsibilities they are capable of fulfilling.

11. When personal matters are satisfactorily adjusted, teachers tend to grow.

12. Teachers grow when they are working in jobs they are trained to handle and for which they are emotionally and physically adapted.

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[1]Maurice E. Troyer and C. Robert Pace, Evaluation in Teacher Education, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., (1944), pp. 300-301.

13. Teachers grow as they are able to develop gradually and when they do not have to take on duties and responsibilities they are not ready to assume.

14. Free and easy relationships with children promote teacher growth.

15. Teachers grow when they find economic security and have sufficient money to live the "good life," to buy the small things necessary to mental ease, and when they do not have to make teaching a continual battle against penury.

Beasley[1] has offered the following pertinent points regarding the underlying assumptions of in-service programs:

1. In-service programs are educationally desirable.

2. In general, what benefits any of the teaching personnel professionally also benefits the child.

3. In-service growth of educational personnel can be stimulated by planned in-service education programs.

4. Programs of in-service education are most fruitfully designed for the typical majority group of educational personnel.

5. For the purpose of this report, programs of in-service education are for non-deficiency (qualified and regularly certified) educational personnel.

He further describes the five major characteristics of an ideal in-service program:

1. An ideal program of in-service education is one in which motivation for participants comes from within the individual.

2. An ideal program of in-service education is cooperatively planned.

3. An ideal program of in-service education is adapted to the needs of the participants.

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[1]N. C. Beasley, "Evaluating In Service Programs," The Teaching Profession Grows in Service, being the official Group Reports of the New Hampshire Conference held at Durham, June 20--July 2, 1949, held under the auspices of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the N.E.A., pp. 45-47.

4. An ideal program of in-service education provides for an interpretation to the public of both purposes and outcomes.

5. An ideal program of in-service education provides a plan for continuous evaluation and improvement of the effectiveness of the program by all concerned.

Gaier and Jones[1] recently asked ninety-six teachers enrolled in a summer session at the University of Illinois to list, in order of importance, the ten classroom behavior problems which they believed most important for investigation in a course in mental hygiene. These teachers listed six hundred ninty problems which were grouped into broad behavior areas. In gross frequency of response, lack of academic adjustment, poor personal-social adjustment, and violation of school rules were indicated in that order.

The conclusion of the foregoing investigators is important here. They stated that educators engaged in teacher-training should find evidence from their study that all too little in the way of understanding child behavior or of its consequences is gained through present teacher-training programs. If this is true, and their evidence tends to support their contention, then the Flint program is based on the solid fact that it is serving a need that is not taken care of otherwise. This is true of course, only if the situation described in the Illinois study is representative.

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[1] Eugene L. Gaier and Steward Jones, "Do Teachers Understand Classroom Behaviors?," Understanding the Child, Vol. 20, (October, 1951), pp. 104-109;121.

Studies have been made to show how in-service training should be implemented. A point frequently mentioned is that "the State should help pay for the education of teachers in service".[1] This belief, say the writers in question, is based on the fact that the improvement of educational opportunities for all its people is a proper function of the state. The state, therefore, should provide for the proper training of supervisors of instruction and pay their salaries. The state should make funds available for special experimental phases of teacher education and should furnish consultative services for guiding and evaluating such programs.

In Flint this provision has been carried by the Mott Foundation, a privately financed philanthropic organization, created by Charles Stewart Mott, a retired vice-president of the General Motors Corporation. This suggestion for state leadership in the sponsoring, promoting, guiding, and financing of in-service training programs varies fromstate to state depending on their respective financial resources and professional leadership. Ideally the state plan would be the best but it will remain for local school districts in co-operation with their educational institutions of higher learning to take the initiative until such a time as state leadership is available.

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[1]Report of the Teacher Education Workshop, In-Service Education of Elementary Teachers, Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, (1945).

Baker reports that[1]

> An in-service program is effective to the extent that it fosters friendly and co-operative working relationships among the participants.....as teachers grow more secure in their relationships with their colleagues and sense the contribution this makes to their job efficiency, they should recognize more fully the effect upon pupil learning of students inter-personal relationships as well as student-teacher relationships. A happy classroom and a happy school are essentials to efficient learning.

By example, the Flint program has stressed continuously the advantages of an informal, relaxed classroom atmosphere with the thought that the teachers would create this same emotional climate in their own classrooms. It lies beyond the scope of this paper to scientifically validate this observation, but evidence from many classroom visits indicates that it is a positive phenomenon.

In the Austin, Texas, public schools, twenty days of the conventional one hundred eighty are used for special in-service education. Baker reports that these twenty days are used as follows:[2]

> Four days for pre-planning before school opens in September...Three days for special "Curriculum Days" during the school year...Thirteen days after school closes in June.

The four pre-planning days are used in (1) special orientation of new teachers; (2) orientation of all teachers into plans for the new year; (3) departmental study of materials; (4) discussions of special services, such as guidance programs, visiting teachers program, special education, etc.; and (5) study of teachers handbook.

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[1] T. P. Baker, "What is an Effective In-Service Education Program?", Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Vol. 35, (March, 1951), pp. 45-56.

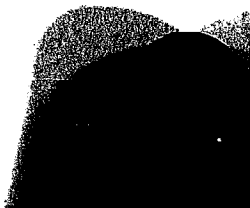
[2] Ibid.

Three special curriculum days are spaced throughout the year, coming on Fridays. On these days, two general types of programs are followed: (1) one-half day on some general problem that is common to the entire faculty, such as reporting to parents, public relations, etc., and (2) one-half day on special interest areas, such as language, arts, mathematics, health, etc.

The teachers have the opportunity of going into one of five programs in the period after school closes in June--fifty per cent of faculty work in curriculum work--shops; fifteen per cent of faculty may teach in summer schools, local or otherwise; twenty-five per cent of faculty may attend summer school; five per cent of faculty may travel; and five per cent of faculty may be involved in related educational projects.

Baker further points out that all first-year teachers must work in a workshop, and only in special cases may a teacher be involved in the same activity, other than a workshop, for consecutive summers.

The workshop program referred to above consists of the study of broad areas, such as child growth, basic concepts of education, human relations, promotional policies, etc. The general topic varies from summer to summer. One-half of each day is devoted to this part of the program. The day begins with a general meeting of one hour at which regular consultants and special guests speak--all speaking on some phase of the general problem under study. After the general session, the teachers meet in small groups for intensive work on the general problem. These small groups are composed of teachers and administrators from all levels, i.e., elementary, junior high, and senior high.



One hour is set aside for lunch. During this hour, there is a continuous showing of educational films, playing of transcriptions, etc., for preview purposes. Interested teachers drop in for this. The daily bulletin carries a listing of films, records, etc., to be shown and heard. Likewise, craft centers are open at noon for recreational purposes.

The other half of each day is devoted to curriculum construction, development of source units, techniques of teaching in certain areas, and other special interests.

One can see that the program in Austin covers a large number of topics in widely scattered areas. The attempt is made to give the teachers as wide a variety of offerings as possible to meet specific needs.

Austin, being near the University of Texas, has drawn upon the resources of that institution. The University has provided late afternoon and evening classes, as well as special courses in such subject matter areas as arithmetic and the language arts. Listed also are such activities as attendance at conventions, school visits, and the utilization of library facilities. It is interesting to note that such relations with the University of Texas fall more or less into a conventional pattern whereas in Flint, the in-service program was built around a specific need which the teachers themselves expressed, and was set up on a thirty-two week basis to insure complete and thorough treatment of the topics involved.

That there is need for in-service programs is substantiated by the findings of Woodl who conducted an extensive survey involving two thousand, four hundred, and thirty-four teachers in the State of Oregon during 1949. He reached some important conclusions, among them being that about one-half of the teachers polled did not feel, among other things, competent in the guidance of young people, and that two-fifths did not consider themselves competent in working with parents and laymen.

Wood found further that teachers not only recognize the need for help, but want it, and two-thirds of them believed that in-service training should be required by the board of education. Four-fifths thought it whould be recognized in salary schedules.

Wood states further that, "teachers have considerable faith in the potential value of courses and work conferences" but low ratings were given to institutes, correspondence, extension and summer school courses. The real challenge of the study as Wood states, is for those responsible for planning the in-service activities to make them as worth-while as possible. The teachers in Oregon apparently are interested most in those things that have utility and can be used in the every day process of teaching. The Flint plan has stressed this point from the very beginning - Case work involving

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[1]Hugh B. Wood, "In-Service Education of Teachers-An Evaluation," Curriculum Bulletin, No. 81, University of Oregon, (July 1, 1950).

children with whom she has daily contact gives the teacher an opportunity to learn by doing and see tangible results from her efforts. These efforts are not always of a positive nature but at least by dealing with actual behavior problems she can come to grips with the real situation and see the progress that is being made. Other studies have stressed the same point that Wood has made, namely to make the courses practical.

Kanzer[1] describes an in-service training program in the schools of New York which involved thirty-two elementary and high-school teachers and had as its basis actual problems that currently arose in their classrooms. The course consisted of fifteen two-hour meetings and covered such standard procedures as the use of anecdotal records, sociograms, compositions, drawing and play, in gathering information about children.

Some resistance to the course was noted at the beginning as evidenced by the teachers' dependence on the psychiatrist and little belief in or desire for the development of their own resources in handling their classroom problems. As the course went on, informal discussion progressively developed and many of the problems which the teachers were facing, emerged. There was considerable questioning of techniques by the class members with the instructor assuming the role of an impartial observer.

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[1] Mark Kanzer, M.D., "Psychiatric Case Studies With Teachers," Mental Hygiene Magazine, Vol. 36, (January, 1952), pp. 44-55.

Cumulative records were used adeptly to trace the origin of individual problems and to evaluate the personalities of the parents as well. Many unsolved problems were left with the teachers. Some were, how deeply to go into their investigations, what to impart to parents, and how to deal with parents impervious to the needs of deeply disturbed children. On the positive side some decisions did emerge, such as, that pupils can be helped; that parents can be taught (with patience); and that teachers can relieve their anxieties and guilt feelings by conferences with one another. A psychiatrically oriented advisor for each school was suggested as a result of the course.

Kanzer summarizes this project as follows:

> The introduction and development of psychological insight among teachers is one of the most important problems of prophylactic psychiatry. Such orientation must be in terms of educational, not therapeutic goals, and the establishment of productive interchanges between educators and psychiatrists raises many problems. Each has much to learn from the other, however, and there can be no doubt that future trends will integrate education and mental hygiene with increasing certainty.

SUMMATION

The literature reveals that there are many types of in-service training programs in operation throughout the country. Grouped under this phase of education one finds practically every type of activity from selection of textbooks to visiting lecturers. It is true that all of the activities that have been described should be properly classified under the term of in-service training, but in

so doing the reader should be alert to the fact that there is this wide range and that the term by itself carries but little meaning.

It would seem that various school systems are sponsoring programs that have meaning for them and hence the wide variety of offerings.

During the spring of 1950, the writer assisted in conducting a survey of seventy-seven cities in the United States having populations between 100,000 and 500,000 with the purpose of determining the types of in-service training programs used and it was found that forty-eight cities listed extension courses and workshops conducted by University personnel; forty-nine stated they used the committee form to study child development and the curriculum; forty-three listed visiting days, when teachers visit other classes, other schools, or homes; and forty-one stated that their teachers participated in policy making. These facts give some idea of the variety and number of in-service activities although a detailed description of each is lacking. Nowhere in the literature was the writer able to discover a program in child growth and development, offered in conjunction with a large University, which would compare in any way with the Flint plan either in scope, content, philosophy or time span.

Most of the activities in this field have been of brief duration and largely of an experimental nature. When interest has flagged on the part of the professional leadership or cost items have entered, the programs have often been dis-

continued. There keeps coming through the literature the urgent need for something to be done. The Illinois study cited is a case in point. These surveys are highly valuable from the diagnostic point of view but offer little in the way of a remedy. It is for this reason that the Flint Plan was devised, and each year revised to bring it as close as possible to the interests, needs, and purposes of the teachers who are participating in the program. This continual self-evaluation goes forward simultaneously with the revision and improvement of the curriculum each year. It is only in this way that in-service training programs can be kept vital and purposeful.

Chapter III

Content of the Flint Course in Child Growth and Development

The following material is a condensation of the lectures presented during 1950-51. Olson's Child Development[1] was used as the basic text. However, each of the lecturers presented individual viewpoints which were summarized by a recorder and thenmade available to each class member at the next session. It is necessary to gain a view of the nature and variety of the topics considered in order to become familiar with the basic concepts that were developed during the course. However, not all of the principles were utilized in the evaluation but only those that pertained to the child, school and the home. It is important that the teachers obtain a secure grasp of the fundamentals of human behavior as their success not only with their case study but upon their rating on the evaluation instruments depends upon it.

The following topics, oriented to child behavior, were discussed:

1. Psychological Aspects
2. Psychiatric Factors
3. Role of the Family
4. General School Factors
5. Physical Health of the Child
6. Utilization of Community Resources
7. Group Dynamics
8. The Teacher's Mental Health

Each of these topics will be described below.

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS

The psychological emphasis was on the uniqueness of the individual. The lecturers pointed out the differences in

[1]Willard C. Olson. Child Development. D. C. Heath and Company. Chicago-Boston. 1951.

individual potential as determined by reliable instruments of mental measurement.

The following statement by Miss Vivien Ingram indicates the importance attached to this general topic:

> Mental measurements have a very important place in the understanding of children. One should never rely upon any one test alone when making a study of a child. Be sure not to use only the I. Q. in planning for children. In child guidance clinics not much emphasis is placed on the I. Q. as such. They are more interested in the type of intelligence which the child displays, and the way in which he is using his intellectual capacity.
>
> We don't know very much about what intelligence really is, but we try to measure it and we know some things about it. The I. Q. is merely a way to show how a child compares with others of his age and to measure his innate ability or capacity to learn. It might be mentioned that testing should be presented to the child as fun, not as discipline. The child should be given some reasonable reason for making the study.

PSYCHIATRIC FACTORS

The following quotation from Children in Distress by Katz[1] indicates one of the main concepts that was propounded throughout the course:

> Since maladjustment and neurotic behavior have their beginnings in infancy and early childhood it appears necessary, it not essential that teachers become familiar with psychodynamic process and with the more common symptoms of psychological maladjustment.
>
> The teacher faced, for example, with disobedient and tense children has in the past attempted to use force, ridicule, and similar measures to correct these conditions. Many teachers have believed that children wilfully resort to so-called bad behavior. However, increasingly

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[1] Barney Katz. (Guidance reprint). Chicago, Illinois: Science Research Associates. 1948.

more teachers are becoming aware that these behavior patterns are evidences of emotional distress. Children do not consciously seek to suck their thumbs and bite their fingernails; they do not desire to be negativistic and disobedient; they do not care to get a "sick feeling" when they have to go to school. Reactions of this nature are outward signs of internal tension. An appreciation of this fact is necessary to the proper understanding and sympathetic guidance of children.

Inadequate handling of children is the most common cause of feelings of insecurity and inferiority. Every child tries to maintain his sense of personal worth in all situations and under all conditions, and will resort to any number of devices or mechanisms to satisfy his desire for security and a sense of adequacy is readily satisfied. Feelings of this kind are dependent upon the assistance of gentle, understanding, and self-confident parents and teachers. Love and kindness make the child feel safe and comfortable; praise and approval make him feel confident and worthwhile. Undesirable forms of adult behavior are: harshness of speech, severe (and sometimes cruel) punishment over strict discipline, evidences of disapproval by scolding, nagging, scorn, disgust, ridicule, threats, unreasonable demands, and direct statements to the effect that the child is not wanted. Under such unfavorable circumstances the child cannot develop a feeling that there is someone upon whom he can depend in times of stress. Instead he feels that the world is hostile and dangerous; that something is likely to happen to him at any time that may hurt, and that he is worthless and inadequate. Such a child may develop feelings of fear, helplessness, and inadequacy.

The insecure and inferior-feeling child is a frustrated child. The anger aroused by frustration seeks an outlet, and is often directed toward the individual or individuals at fault. Not infrequently such anger is released in connection with an unrelated or innocent person. For example, a child who is frustrated by his mother may express his emotional tension by attacking another child in his class or by harrassing his teacher. In some instances the hostility is projected against the child's own personality in the form of depression. In others it is expressed as negativism and quarrelsomeness.

> Thumb sucking, nail biting, tics, "sick feeling," temper tantrums, "nervousness" and enuresis are symptom patterns indicative of emotional distress in children. Others that could be mentioned include: nightmares, night terrors, phobias, obsessions, compulsions, somnambulism, insomnia, and such anti-social behavior as fighting, bullying, destructiveness, negativism, argumentiveness, disobedience and defiance. Children do not disobey or defy teachers and parents because they are inherently bad or stubborn but because they are attempting to satisfy certain legitimate psychological needs. Socially undesirable forms of behavior in children are not necessarily designed to plague and irritate their teachers and parents; instead they are significant distress signals which should evoke intelligent and constructive remedial measure on the part of elders instead of the all too frequent anger and hostility which intensify children's emotional maladjustments.

Another major objective of the Child Growth and Development course is to encourage the teacher to be more understanding of the child's behavior and to try not to place unnecessary obstacles in his way.

It was pointed out that children grow best if they are happy and interested in what they are doing. Specifically, it was brought out that a teacher cannot mold another person's personality: she can aid and nurture it. No adult ever solved a child's problem. The child must and can work it out by himself if given the chance. The pupil should be allowed to talk and be given reassurance of good feeling regardless of what he says or does.

Other aspects of the psychiatric phase of the course include the following pertinent points gleaned largely from the lectures of Dr. Leonard E. Himler and Howard Y. McClusky:

1. A team-work approach is the first principle. All whose life touches the child should work together. We first must know the individual and individualize the approach.

2. In attempting to aid the other person we must get as many facts as we can get, not as data on paper but as out-flowing, out-growing, closely related data which give to us some idea of the emergent process which we call growth and development.

3. The "take him by the hand" attitude is important. Many times for suffering human beings "taking him by the hand" is often all that is needed.

4. In the treatment of children, relapses are the rule rather than the exception, and all we can hope for is gradual improvement.

5. Many things which we labor to teach a youngster he will gradually come into through the process of maturation.

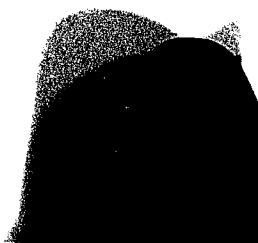
6. The child's environment ought to have an element of permissiveness because the growth process will take care of this if the environment is a congenial one.

7. Use finger-tip control. Give them a little rope, but keep hold of it. As the saying is "on tap, but not on top".

8. A person's conduct is really symptomatic of his motivation. Happiness becomes a matter of making external and internal adjustment to reality. Social integration is one of the most important ingrediants of happiness.

9. A "pill" may become a "pillar" in the community.

10. Maladjustments do not come all at once. They are the outgrowth of an evolutionary development - really a process. Maladjustment is not a <u>disease</u>, but an evidence of the child's <u>reactions</u> to life.

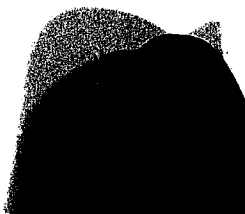


11. Behavior is caused. The behavior of everyone is purposeful to that person. Try to find that purpose. Postponement of evaluative judgments is important. What is the child accomplishing by his behavior?

12. What the child becomes is the result of the interaction of his environment with himself, plus how he feels about what happens to him. What is important is how one feels about something.

13. Conduct disorders on a more conscious level involve hostility against almost the whole world. These are found most frequently in the child who was emotionally impoverished during the first years of his life. He has never formed a really meaningful emotional relationship with anyone and is still back in the narcissistic stage emotionally. He hesitates to form an attachment to anyone. He can't advance from the narcissistic to the next stage until he forms a strong emotional attachment.

14. Difficult children require a tremendous investment on the teacher's part. It may take six months, but, if successful, the teacher can give him the greatest gift he's had to date. Remember one can't have any effect on a child until one has first established a satisfactory relationship with him. Lectures are not effective until the child feels something toward the lecturer. In a primary behavior disorder the child has <u>never experienced a deep and satisfactory relation with anyone</u>. He is self-centered, narcissistic. He will only pass from on psycho-sexual stage to the next when he has had satisfying emotional experiences necessary to <u>grow</u> to the next level. The child has no conscience unless he has moved beyond the true primary behavior disorder stage. Once he has formed a strong emotional attachment he creates a conscience and is able to develop other emotional attachments. When a child makes a good identification with a good person, this is one of the best groupsex experiences he can have.



15. Where there is a disturbed child there are parents almost as much disturbed. Don't expect the parents to be cooperative. Approach them as though they needed counselling.

16. Be realistic. The first principle of mental hygiene is: "What is, is."

17. The level of aspiration is important. A task must be difficult enough to provide a stimulus and challenge, but not so hard as to make the child discouraged and unwilling to try.

A full answer to the question frequently asked, "What makes us tick?" must go beyond merely labeling the motivating forces. It should also indicate the direction and objectives toward which all of us are striving, whether we are always fully conscious of the process or not. The goal of personal happiness which everyone seeks in life seems on the surface to vary greatly from one individual to another. But when it is boiled down to its basic ingredients, happiness inevitably depends on the satisfaction of three basic needs: physical and mental health, comfort, and security; acceptable adaptation to society; and proper development and expression of sex drives and needs. For convenience these are sometimes referred to as the three S's of life: Self, Society, and Sex.

From the mental hygiene point of view, behavior is much more than mere individual caprice or volition. No matter how stoutly he may maintain it, behavior is seldom entirely of an individual's own making. One should pause before applying the term, "wilful behavior", and consider rather the forces which molded the individual and which caused him to respond in a socially unacceptable manner. No one selects his own parents or has any say in choosing the influences which shape the all-important first three years of his life. The child who is later labeled as "spoiled" had nothing to do with the over-protection or rejection, as the case may be, which led him progressively, but often imperceptable, into undesirable behavior patterns. Children who undergo such unfavorable early environmental influences receive a handicap as great as if they had a crippling disease, yet they may not know it themselves until years have passed during which they are hurt, misunderstood, unhappy and poorly accepted by others.

> Influences which have left their mark before conscious memory is established; that is before the age of three, develop pathways in the nervous system which are like grain in wood. Some of these which have such far-reaching effects on later personality are habits of eating, and sleeping, responses to people, and to love or the lack of it, and so on. These experiences can leave unconscious scars on the personality which are more serious than many which can be seen.[1]

Dr. Himler outlined the following stages in personality development:

1. Six to twelve years
   A period of barbarism. They need the care that simple savages need. Appeal to the imagination and suggestability of this age to make them tractable.
   a. Self: First becomes conscious of self as a growing person. The child exhibits temperament, and develops habits. Physical habits are well established by this time.
   b. Society: Begins to feel comfortable with people. Needs work, rest, play, and worship to make a well-rounded individual.
   c. Sex: A latent period of sex. (Made up in the 12-15 year period.)

2. Twelve to fifteen years
   a. Self: A great growth in spirit.
   b. Society: Has many friends, develops a fondness for people. If carried too far concerning members of own sex, it results in homo-sexuality.
   c. Sex: There are tremendous conflicts here with puberty acting as the "rock on which many flounder." Parents should instruct children as to menstrual cycles and seminal emissions.

3. Twenty-one years
   a. Self: Re-establishing self.
   b. Society: Making new friends.
   c. Sex: Getting a wife.

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[1] Leonard E. Himler, M. D. Lecture, November 7, 1949.

4. Thirty-six years
   a. Self: Established self.
   b. Society: Found many friends.
   c. Sex: Created a family.

Maturity is part of the inner growth pattern and shows the ability of a person to live up to his chronological age. It also includes social, vocational and economic factors. Problems are due to emotional difficulty; we do not deal with a person with just a complaint but with a history. We have to study the working personality to discover how much of the trouble is organic and how much is functional. Always take the organism as a whole. There often are some hidden organic disturbances that we don't always find. Thought and emotion have organic components.

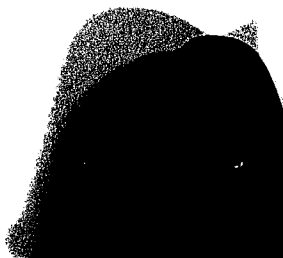
There is nothing that ever happens that is unimportant when it comes to building a personality. A personality is an entity that is more than the sum of its parts. We must know how a personality grows. Why do individuals behave as they do? We do not come into the world with a personality. A baby is a physical organism only. Personality is a resultant of nature and nurture. Teachers should know a great deal about endocrinology, not to diagnose but to recognize as personalities change over a period of months when a thyroid condition develops.

We may compartmentalize a child for study and isolate the parts, but we are not really studying the youngster until we synthesize him and put him back together and add meaning to him which we call personality.

One finds many types of disorders.

1. Behavior disorders
   a. Habit - nailbiting, thumbsucking, adverse eating habits, sleep problems, speech.
   b. Conduct - truancy, stealing, fire setting, lying, sex offenses, temper tantrums.

2. Associated physical conditions. Neurological brain defects without diminished intelligence.
   a. Spastic - condition of hypertension of muscles resulting in stiff awkward movements due to upper motor neuron lesion.



b. Encephalitis - inflammation of brain.
c. Epilepsy - snydrome consisting of brief seizures accompanying loss of consciousness.
d. Partial blindness.

3. Physical disorders and unhealthy compensations.

4. Psychosomatic - psycho and soma must be considered together as a single biological and functional unit.

5. Neurotic - if a person uses a complaint of physical trouble out of all proportion he is a neurotic.
   a. Anxiety - painful state of expectation.
   b. Compulsions - an uncontrollable urge toward some silly or inappropriate act of speech.
   c. Obsession - uncontrollable urge to dwell upon some thought or perform some unnecessary actions.
   d. Phobia - fixed, morbid fear.

6. Mentally deficient.

7. Psychotic - includes insane children should be referred to a psychiatrist.

In order for us to help these children with various disorders it is important that we have a knowledge of the various techniques in counseling, but to know them is not enough unless first we have built up a good relationship with the child. If we disregard the "good manners" of counseling we build up a resistance in the patient and find it difficult to help him.

A. Levels at which you must function in counseling

   1. Get the facts of the case. This includes getting the basic information, some of which may be done through testing.

   2. Give advice and educational counseling. This is weaker type of counseling; keep to the minimum.

3. Use top range of professional counseling. This involves a series of techniques, some of which are:
   a. Work on rapport. People respond to your interest in them. Develop an emotional bond between you and the patient.
   b. Know limitations.
   c. Study the situation and the individual.
   d. Use sound psychology of counseling which is helping people, not passing judgment on them.

B. Some "Don'ts" on counseling

1. Don't advise.

2. Don't admonish.

3. Don't become emotionally affected yourself.

4. Don't lecture, preach, or moralize.

5. Don't mobilize more anxiety than you can handle.

6. Don't use your authority. With good counseling you don't need discipline.

C. Principles of education that apply to counseling

1. Don't use a vocabulary that is above the heads of those with whom you work. Define your terms as you go.

2. Don't overload a person with more than he can swallow at one time.

3. Don't try to teach a person something when he is emotionally upset.

D. Qualifications of a counselor

1. Must study in this field.

2. Years of experience.

3. Maturity for own age range.

4. Well balanced as a person, free from prejudices, "blind spots," and stereotypes.

5. Must know how to deal with transference. This means the transferring of an emotional situation so that the counsellor now becomes the recipient of it. The spoiled child wants the teacher to react just as her mother does. All counsellors get transference, which is later transferred to another person.

E. Rules of procedure in conducting

1. Have an entry, an opening.

2. Show that you respect confidences and provide privacy for the interview where you can be alone with the patient without interruption.

3. Be attentive to the patient.

4. Put person in the darker side of the room, sit in the light yourself.

5. Don't stare at the person; get the child on your level and show that you are interested in him.

6. Expect ambivalence and learn to deal with it.

7. Begin with "what is on top" first. Listen, respond, question. Avoid questions that produce "yes" and "no" answers. While listening, seek the feeling of the person as whether it is friendliness, fear, insecurity, defiance, or aggressiveness.

8. Understand the "you feel" technique of non-directive therapy.

9. Learn to use the "expectant pause" intelligently.

10. Be conscious of your rate of procedure. Don't go too fast.

11. Don't make him lie to defend himself; never cross examine to get the truth.



> Thus it should be clear that the task of the counsellor and therapist is not to tell an individual what to do, or to merely hand out advice. It goes far beyond that to a study and clarification of the elements in the individual's past life which are significant in handling his present situation, and which when understood and assimilated will free him from the fears and complexes preventing his self-direction. It goes without saying that the effectiveness of any counselling relationship can be greatly deepened and extended by knowledge of biologic and psychologic factors underlying behavior as above outlined. It is on such a background that the specific techniques and procedures employed in counseling are to be interpreted andapplied.

What can we, as teacher do to promote better mental health? Dr. Himler believes, "The teacher's primary influence should embody implicitly, not explicitly, the principles of mental health. The teacher's life should be some sort of model. And the teacher should promote a higher standard of human relations; develop social skills. School experiences may impair the growth of an outstanding personality or they may correct distortions started at home."

THE ROLE OF THE FAMILY

The role of the family in the personality development of children is becoming increasingly significant and needs to be better understood by teachers who make home calls in the development of their respective case studies.

The teacher can become a real friend and counsellor of the family. Furthermore, she can easily enlist its support if she understands the dynamics of family living and if she can appreciate the cultural pattern that the family represents and work in terms of it.

David Treat, who lectured on this topic, is the director of the Clara Elizabeth Fund of Flint, an organization established by the late William Knudsen for the improvement of maternal and child health. Treat's observations are paraphrased below. There are several factors here.

> The family situation may be thought of as a composite of factors, acting more or less as a unit that affects the growth of the family in general. Bickering parents may be one; a chronic invalid in the home is another; self-controlled, firm, yet gentle parents acting in harmony are still another. Family life is a series of family situations. Some are harmonious and wholesome, others are disruptive not only of family life but of the individual's adjustment.
>
> Parents set the child's behavior pattern so that by the time the child attends schoolhis personality traits have been quite firmly established. He may be influenced to a degree by groups at school, but not so very much. Therefore, the shift of emphasis to adult education becomes an important factor. Education needs to be more focused with parents as adults to reinforce the family and help them to do better and to build good attitudes which will in turn ease the school problem. Also, if the teachers will take into account the personality development of the child before school, the task will be easier. We have missed some of the important opportunities of working with parents and young children.

Treat believes that one area in which parents have failed is that of sex. Either the child is given too much information or too little. The parents should have the first opportunity to give adequate information to the child, prepare him for the task of growing up, accepting bodily changes, etc., and give encouragement and satisfaction. Home is the best place for preparation; however, the school

will also have to aid in clarifying some misconceptions. Earlier parent and child relationships need to be developed, so that when the school steps in it will not have been first to impart vital information. This is a subject which must be approached wholesomely and with family love, for the family cannot start too early to put its stamp of approval on family life. The importance of instilling healthy attitudes is all important. Here the parents are primary for they are examples and set the pattern of thinking of their children.

Family situations tending to maladjustment may be grouped in four general divisions with innumerable subdivisions, some of which are given in the following outline. It must be remembered that in few families no single factor is at work, but a complexity of factors so interwoven that the main threads are often hard or impossible to disentangle.

I. Poor Personal Relations

- A. Domination by one member.
- B. Interfering relative.
- C. Favoritism.
- D. Unwanted child.
- E. Clash of authority.
- F. Dissension between parents.
- G. Over-solicitude.
- H. Over-severity.
- I. Neglect.
- J. Jealousy.
- K. Step-parents.
- L. Ineffectuality of parents.

II. Disabilities

- A. Physical
  - 1. Deafness of family member.
  - 2. Blindness of family member.
  - 3. Crippled member of family.
  - 4. Invalidism.
  - 5. Acute illness.



B. Mental.
   1. Mental defect in either parent.
   2. Mental defect in family member.
   3. Neurotic member of family.
   4. Psychotic member of family.

III. Maladjustments

A. Social.
   1. Racial differences.
   2. Nationality differences.
   3. Religious differences.
   4. Differences in conventions or standards.
   5. Foster home.
   6. Institution home.
      a. Divorced mother.
      b. Widowed mother.
   7. Broken home.
      a. Imprisoned member.
      b. Member in sanitorium.

B. Moral.
   1. Broken home.
   2. Deserted home.
   3. Disgraced home.
   4. Immoral situation.
      a. Acute.
      b. Chronic.

IV. Economic Pressure

A. Insufficient income unaided.
B. Insufficient income aided.
C. Mother working out.
D. Father out of work.
E. Undigested wealth.

The lecturer concluded his treatment of this topic with the assertion that a knowledge of these facts will help the teacher to appreciate better the conditions which influence children outside the school and that it becomes absolutely essential that she recognize these basic cultural elements for what they are worth. Awareness of these conditions not only makes a teacher more sympathetic with the

child's behavior but creates the opportunity of cooperating with other community agencies, such as the Family Service Agency in the solution of whatever the problems are.

Every teacher during the process of preparing her case study made at least one home call, often more, to counsel the parents if need be as well as to obtain what family history might be available. The importance of family life was stressed and particularly the "emotional climate" of the home which is often referred to as the incubator in which personality develops. The course with which we are dealing emphasized the point of view that parents should have deep satisfactions in the home. If parents are neither secure nor mature, that condition is reflected in their relationships with their children.

Good mental hygiene in the family is marked by recognition of every member. Each is respected and accepted. No one can take the place of any family member for every person in the same family lives in a uniquely different environment. It is a sad fact that parents do not always think of every child with the same respect. There is the whole gamut of response from rejection to "smother love." Some children are never welcomed at all as attested by the very high rate of abortion in the United States.

The implications of all of this for teachers were emphasized by various lecturers as follows:

A. Problem children should not be blamed as much as the environment behind them. Get back of their behavior and understand them.

B. Know more about the home. Visit it with intelligent understanding.

C. The ideal relationship between parent and child should exist between teacher and pupil.
   1. Be careful to treat the child as an equal.
   2. Do not neglect the "in between child" (the one who is neither a fine student nor a problem).
   3. Try to approximate the same sense of interest that the parent shows. Enjoy the child, take a deep interest in him, enter into his life as much as possible.
   4. If you cannot do all these things at least try a host-guest relationship.

D. Remember the object was of education.
   1. Help the child to be a happy, resourceful, and well-adjusted personality.
   2. Stress child development, not subject-matter development.
   3. Help him to live well today in the hope that he will have the ability to meet everyday problems. Then he will be prepared to live well in society.

E. 1. Give the sick child a boost in courage - help him over a few difficult places to give him confidence and enthusiasm.
   2. Reclassify the immature child.
   3. Reclassify the child upward if his acceleration is generally upward.
   4. Make "talk-contacts" with the children at which time they may talk about their troubles.
   5. Find something at which the child can be successful. Inflate his ego by assigning him to committees, exhibiting his work, and the like.
   6. Use bibliotherapy. Use books or stories in which children of similar status have overcome their difficulties.

The material described thus far extends into the latter part of October and it is at this point that specific instructions are given for the preparation of the case study. It is felt that teachers need a general review of basic principles of child growth and development as well as time

necessary for a general orientation to the course before the case study itself is taken on. This period of preparation appears to be psychologically sound although some teachers are ready earlier than others.

GENERAL SCHOOL FACTORS

Under the above heading a variety of subjects were discussed that pertain to the everyday job of teaching. Grouping of children to their best advantage has always been a concern to the teacher. McClusky discusses this point. The matter of grading pupils, another controversial topic, was presented by Travers and others.

A philosophy of attendance was also presented from the point of view as a symptom and not a cause.

In regard to the grouping of pupils, McClusky made the following suggestions:

A. Advantages of homogeneous grouping
   1. Prevent frustration.
   2. Offers more security.
   3. Easier for the instructor to provide for one level.

B. Disadvantages of dividing
   1. It tends to accentuate social stratification.
   2. No incentive.
   3. The slower student is often stimulated by the faster student.
   4. Often the slower ones are conscious of the fact that they belong to the slow group.
   5. It offers a false sense of security.

McClusky believes the trend of thinking today is against segregation. The tendency is more toward making groups smaller, with differentiated assignments. One of the great

characteristics of the public school today is that it is, democratically speaking, a "melting pot." At present we're more interested in a pupil as an individual rather than in his academic achievement. Research does not show that grouping makes any noticeable difference in this achievement.

Another important question is that of marks and grades. They can represent an overall appraisal of the growth or change that takes place in the individual. However, they do not all measure the same thing owing to differences in the philosophies of those who gave them.

Three different philosophies of marking were discussed by Travers.[1] They are indicated below with brief comments:

1. The individual is graded on the amount of improvement shown; the greater the growth, the better the grade. Comment: In using this basis it should be so indicated so that those who look at such appraisal will understand it and thereby minimize misinterpretation.

2. Grades indicate ability to go on. Comment: In order to follow this system very definite goals must be set up and defined.

3. Students are arranged in order and marks of A's, B's, C's, etc. distributed on a percentage basis. Comment: Less thoughtful method. Grading by use of curve is really a confession of ignorance of goals.

Marks are arbitrary, thinks Travers. Nevertheless they show achievement of objective; the more specific, the more valuable. If they merely show that a child has failed they might better not be given. Studies show that an evidence of failure is sometimes desirable. A feeling of insecurity has

[1] Robert Travers, Lecture, February 28, 1948.

value for it spurs one to greater achievement. Abolishing marks has resulted in falling off of achievement.

Marks give the child a sense of value. The dull child is not apt to be much disturbed if he knows he is not achieving. It is the bright student who often feels very insecure. An "A" grade gives him a security he cannot get otherwise. Travers believes the traditional type of report card on which letter marks are recorded is best at the present time. A study of the trend to mark children's report cards with "S" and "U" appears to indicate they are less stimulating grades.

"'Failure' should be absent on records," said Travers. "It denotes too many implications. Better list objectives on a goal sheet and send it along with the child's report card. The card itself represents a personal evaluation."

A descriptive type of report card is not very feasible and is out of the picture. After the average person has written five or six reports he is apt to lapse into a stereotyped pattern. Creative, discriminating ability to write is required to employ this type of reporting effectively.

Still another question to consider is, "What should be the basis of promotion to first grade?" An almost universal policy is to group children by chronological ages and pass them along in achievement-age groups. The difficulty is the great difference in learning abilities in such individual groups.



Anderson believes that the number in the group should be limited so children can be handled individually. Then it doesn't make any difference what the ability is. Conditions are such that each child can proceed at his own rate of progress. No pressure should be brought to get them to work faster.

> Basis for promotion must be practical. What will the public - not to say the educational system - permit? Promotion should be based on maturity and readiness for the program of the first grade. If the problem of promotion reduces itself to just a few cases, pass them on. The sense of failure is bad for the personality of the child. It should be made possible for the teacher to individualize the program so the child can get what he needs. If individual cases are very immature and parent can be made to understand and support the teacher, it might be better to hold the child back.[1]

For those who wished advanced work in the field of child growth and development a seminar in Guidance and Adjustment was organized cooperatively sponsored by the University of Michigan, the Mott Foundation and the Flint Public Schools. The seminar was taught by the writer and the following array of principles was developed in it and later integrated with materials for the basic course that we are describing. The principles, gleaned from a variety of sources, are as follows:

1. Be friendly to the child.
2. Be willing to listen. Never blame.
3. Believe in the child and let him know it.
4. Remember that misbehavior is symptomatic. The important thing is to understand the cause of the symptoms. Symptoms have been defined as compensations for desires which cannot be fullfilled. If we remember that all individuals are different and

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[1] Irving Anderson, Lecture, December 16, 1947.

that misbehavior is merely symptomatic of some factors that are operating underneath, we shall be grasping the essential point in sound mental hygiene.

5. Help every child develop a sense of humor regarding himself and others. It is important to help a child meet failure as well as success. It has been suggested by some educators that we give rewards to the best failure.

6. There is a need for more rest and relaxation for children in the schools.

7. The development of adequate social relations is the foundation of society. It is only in satisfactory social relations that the basic needs of children are satisfied. Threats to that relationship - to security - are very important. Schools have a responsibility for trying to foster the security ties of children. Associations in groups must be recognized as a prime experience for all in our culture. One's capacity to become a part of a group is one indication of his being well-balanced, well-integrated. People with psychological difficulties always have them in a social setting.

   Anyone who is "bucking" the group is one of whom we would have a certain amount of suspicion. Either he is using this as a defense or has been so rejected and buffeted that he builds up an "I don't care" attitude. One of the universal complaints of the maladjusted individual is that people don't like him and one of the common fears of group association is the fear of failure and frustration. Neurotic, psychotic, or psychopathic personalities all have difficulties in their relations with others.

8. Group therapy has an important place. It can give the child the chance to achieve success. It can give him the sense of security which comes from being together. It can assure him of his own worth, make him feel that he can contribute something.

9. The classroom is one of the best group-therapy situations. The teacher must always remember that many shy, withdrawn, frightened, rejected children are "threatened" by him. They have had some distortion in their early relations with their parents and the teacher can't avoid becoming a "parent

substitute" because he comes in contact with the child daily and in a position of authority. The withdrawn child is basically a hostile child. He has severely repressed aggressions which he is afraid to express. The value of a group is that very often it can accelerate the initial step in treatment (the establishment of rapport). The members of a group seem to give one another a certain amount of security and support. The individual then feels less threatened by the therapist.

10. Teachers must become increasingly interested in the problem of truancy and must be willing to "face up to" their individual responsibilities for its occurrence. In order to understand truancy it is necessary to understand its causes. What makes a boy go "on the hook"? Is it because he enjoys fishing or swimming more than chemistry or history? Is it because other activities are more appealing than school? Or is it the result of a deep-seated urge to escape something?

Additional insights into the psychological nature of truancy were given due to the prevalence of the problem and procedures were pointed out that would assist in solving this problem in a way that would take for its point of reference the best interests of the pupil.

The following philosophy by Fornwalt[1] was emphasized.

> Studies have shown that most unlawful absence stems from personality conflicts between teachers and pupils. Truancy may be "absence without leave" but seldom is it "absence without reason." Because of one teacher's mind, school may become to Johnny a source of irritation rather than one of inspiration. Teachers who subject their pupils to shame, sarcasm, name-calling, ridicule, and humiliation are directly responsible for more truancy than they realize. Johnny at least has the moral courage to remove himself physically from the classroom. Most pupils indulge only in mental truancy, or day dreaming, as a means of escaping an unpleasant atmosphere or of getting away from an irksome and meaningless routine.

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[1] Russell J. Fornwalt, "Toward An Understanding of Truancy", The School Review, February, 1947.

Truancy is definitely an escape mechanism. It originates in an urge to get away from something rather than a desire to get to anything. In most cases it is the teacher's personality from which the pupil desires to escape. School life is what the teacher has it within his power to mold a child's attitude. While truancy may be a minor problem in most schools, it is not a problem with minor consequences. Workers are constantly made aware of the fact that truancy is the first step on the downward path.

When teachers come to have a more sympathetic understanding of their pupils difficulties, personality conflicts will be fewer, and the number of truancy cases will diminish.

Maturation does not occur in a vacuum. We all have the power of vocalization but what language we speak depends on the pressures in our environment. We all eat, but the manners connected with doing so are also developed by family pressures. All education is made of definite reactions to environment. If you put a child in a glass bottle, he won't develop. The teacher is a positive force in the environment. All factors in the child's environment influence their lives. The school was set up to provide a better educational environment than the home could provide. It was equipped with good teachers and facilities so that it is the most educational force in the community. Teachers have a positive responsibility to see that children get the maximum out of education.[1]

Woody[2] states that if the teacher does not believe she is a positive force, she should quit. He feels that they are important and that they have a part to play in determining the direction of the child's growth. The teacher is not a tyrant, but a democratic force. The teacher should let children grow into a democratic point of view and stay on the job to see that they move in the right direction. They should see that the child improves in his contribution to society and it is the teacher's responsibility to make the best educative environment. They can do a better job than the man on the street because they have been specifically trained for the task.

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[1] Russell J. Fornwalt, "Toward An Understanding of Truancy", The School Review, February, 1947.

[2] Clifford Woody, Lecture, April 26, 1948.

PHYSICAL HEALTH OF THE CHILD

In this course, usually three lectures are given on the physical health of the child. One deals specifically with nutrition as it affects human behavior; another is devoted to reviewing the common childhood diseases and what the teacher's role is in relation to them; and finally the health services available to the school-age child are reviewed, both city and county, and stress is placed upon their utilization by the classroom teacher.

The following quotation strikes the key-note of this phase of the course.

> Behavior, whether normal or abnormal, is usually considered to be in the province of psychology and psychiatry, and to have little to do with nutrition. However, food is the basis of life, and therefore it affects behavior. We all eat and our behavior is affected by what we eat. Emotions affect the body physically also. The lack of the right food affects both the emotions and the mind. Sugar in the diet provides the energy which makes us go. If this stops, we stop--when the sugar is depleted, the body slows down and starvation steps in.[1]

Dr. Rawlings also emphasized the following considerations:

> If the body does not possess all needed elements it tries to provide them but this takes energy and hence lessens its ability to protect itself against disease. Physical defects affect behavior. Those with deformaties try to compensate in behavior but some behavior is not traced to heredity but to food factors. Mental and physical ills often are on a food basis. Behavior depends on how we feel and this on how we run inside.

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[1] Dr. J. Mott Rawlings, Lecture, March 8, 1948.

In order to understand behavior we must know more about the body. We cannot disassociate structure and function. Physiology depends on structure, but nutrition keeps it in repair.

Nutrition has to do with the total intake and utilization of food substances. The physiology of food and its relation to the body could be represented by these four points:

1. Food must be taken in.

2. Food must be digested.

3. It must be transposed from the alimentary canal to the blood stream.

4. It must be converted in liver to
   a. Glycogen } sugar synthesis.
   b. Glucose }
   c. Fat remains as is.
   d. Albumin.
   e. Gobulin.
   f. Fibrinigen.

The body is the ultimate cell. It must have energy. The cell cannot exist without energy (protein rebuilds the cell). It must absorb oxygen and must pass off carbon dioxide. The body is in constant change, and if a normal function goes wrong, it produces behavior which is not normal.

Deficiencies in the body can have many results. The most common deficiency is that of iron. It is in the red blood cell where it forms hemoglobin which in turn transports oxygen to every tissue. The lack of oxygen affects the respiratory system and thus accelerates the heart. Then strain is placed on the lungs and heart. Anemia is the name applied to the condition when there is a deficiency of iron in the blood-stream.

Other minerals are necessary to the body including calcium. Bones contain 99 per cent of the calcium in the body. This must be ingested and the best source is milk.

Thiamin is another important mineral. Our stamina and ability to carry on depend on our intake of thiamin.

For us effectively to use the health services available to children we should have some knowledge of the common physical defects found in school children. These may be outlined as follows:

1. Common physical defects.
   a. Teeth. Dental defects may cause mental hygiene problems if teeth are unsightly or of poor structure.
   b. Vision. Nearsightedness - farsightedness. There is a direct relationship between defective vision and poor school work.
   c. Hearing. Child may appear stupid or become a behavior problem when defects are located here.
   d. Nose and throat. Mouth breathing - enlarged adenoids - frequent sore throats. Sometimes the basis of hearing loss.
   e. Nutritional problems. Thin, fat, listless, apathetic, sleepy, pale, tired, poor workers, bothered by vague complaints.
   f. Lack of sleep and rest.
   g. Speech defects.
   h. Lack of disease protection.

2. Reasons defects are not corrected.
   a. Apathetic attitude of parents.
   b. Fear.
   c. Superstition.
   d. Unconvinced of need.
   e. Ignorance.
   f. Lack of facilities.
   g. Economic barrier.

   Need of health education

3. Facilities to consider in correction.
   a. Private doctors and dentists.
   b. Medical department of Social Welfare.
   c. Mott Foundation Children's Health Center.
   d. City Health Department.
      Immunization clinic.
      Tuberculosis clinic.
      Venereal disease clinic.
   e. Crippled Children's Commission.
   f. Service Clubs.
      Lions, Rotary, Optomist, Exchange, Kiwanis, and Civitan.
   g. Hurley Hospital Emergency Room.
   h. Division of Vocational Rehabilitation.
   i. Public Health Nurse - Public Health Department, Children's Health Center.

> Another medical lecturer said[1], Many physical defects that have a great deal to do with school performance can be corrected. If this is done it is to the advantage of pupils, teachers, and community members for it makes better citizens. We need more money to carry on the program; it is foolish to attempt to educate those who cannot see or hear well.

UTILIZATION OF COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The purpose of this lecture, by Teresa Farrell the Associate Director of the Council of Social Agencies, was to acquaint the teachers with various available community agencies and how they can use them in the service of children and their families.

Stress was particularly laid upon the use of the Social Service Exchange which is a quick source of information on any individual or family that has registered with any of the social agencies. By utilizing this organization the teacher will avoid the possibility of duplicating services. The teacher can often work with agencies actively on a case that she is interested in. Beneficial results will accrue when school and community thus join hands in cooperative effort.

The Social Service Exchange records, although confidential, are open to the teachers in the Child Development Course, a fact that gives them a professional status similar to other qualified social workers in the community.

In keeping with the foregoing observations, as the course has progressed instances of advantageous referrals

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[1] Dr. David Van der Slice, Lecture, January 5, 1948.

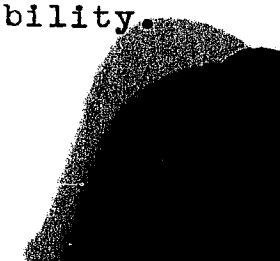
were given - advantageous because the teachers concerned had been prompt in their appeals to the proper community agencies for help. Thus, it has been emphasized, does the classroom teacher serve as a laison person between the school and the home, and it is imperative that she have a thorough knowledge of facilities in her own city.

Through the Council of Social Agencies case conferences are arranged whereby diagnosis and treatment of difficult cases, either individual or family, are discussed on a community-wide basis with all of the interested agencies participating. It is only in this way that intelligent long-term planning can be made. One agency usually assumes the "leadership role" and calls on other resources as needs warrant. The case conferences are scheduled every two weeks and all interested agencies are asked to attend. Cases are also reviewed from time to time to determine whether the plans originally formed are materializing.

GROUP DYNAMICS

Zander stressed the influence of the group on personality development. He said that such influence may have either beneficial or harmful effects. When "cliques" are based on love or hate, certain children may be hurt. The decision of the group puts pressure on the individual and influences his behavior accordingly.

We might ask ourselves, "What makes a group react this way?" Groups have a definite psychological compatibility.



To have a group there must be a feeling of interdependence (this is something that grows) and a strong feeling of identification: "I am able to think as the other members." The stronger the feeling of interdependence and identification, the greater the demands upon members.

Each classroom has something different about it, which we should be able to measure. We must be aware of group activities, many of which undermine what we are trying to teach. Sometimes the group situation precipitates emotional unrest in interpersonal relations, problems in health, fears, moral taboos, freedom, etc. Because of this emotional unrest we see conflicts arising, cliques and friendships developing, pupil-teacher friction, and disorganization of roles that individuals play. Every class has a leader, a stooge, a hero, a clown, a trouble starter, and the like. Maybe every group has to have these people to take these roles. If the leadership is in the wrong hands the roles become disorganized.

We sometimes find disturbances in group climate or basic tone and feeling. The trouble is caused by:

1. Punitive climate in the hands of a tyrant, a person who wants to push others around. Fear, threat reprisal, and shame are used. The results are absolute acceptance or absolute rejection, rebellion and hate, and only a degree of conformity.

2. Emotional blackmail. The teacher loves the children and tells them so. They conform because there is a threat of having that love withdrawn. The teacher says, "I don't like people who act like that," and they feel like "heels" for doing wrong.

3. Hostile competitive climate. Here we get children to compete, and they try to "look good" in the eyes

> of the teacher. We should not be surprised if fights break out, and children cheat to get ahead.

Another phase of group dynamics was brought forcefully to the teachers as dealt with in a study by Lippitt and White[1]. The study involved clubs of eleven-year olds who were subjected to three kinds of leadership: democratic, autocratic, and laissez faire.

> The democratic leader did such things as these: He encouraged the group to discuss policies and procedures and make their own decisions with his active encouragement and assistance. He attempted to help the group attain a perspective of their activities through the discussion of the activities, an understanding of the aim and purpose of the group, and the general steps they would take toward the group goal. If technical assistance were needed, the leader attempted to offer two or more alternatives from which choice could be made by the group members. Everyone was free to work with whomever he wished. The leader attempted to be objective and fact-minded in his praise and criticism of individual and group activities. He tried to be a regular group member in spirit.
>
> The autocratic leader, in comparison, determined almost all the policies and procedures regarding club activities. He told the members how each activity should be carried out, one unit at a time, so the members were given little chance to know about the future. The leader took considerable responsibility for assigning the activity tasks and companions for the group members. He was friendly but remained fairly aloof from group participation, and in his criticisms and praise he kept his standards of evaluation to himself.
>
> The laissez faire leader played a passive role. He left complete freedom for group or individual decision in relation to activity and group procedures. The leader made clear the

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[1] R. Lippitt and R. White, "The 'Social Climate' of Children's Groups," in R. Barker, J. Kounin, and H. Wright, Child Behavior and Development (New York: McGraw Hill, 1943), p. 261.

materials which were available for the club and said that he would supply information when asked. He took a minimum of initiative in making suggestions. He made no attempt to evaluate negatively or positively the behavior or productions of the individuals or the group, although he was friendly rather than "stand-offish."

Adults who carried out these three different leader roles acted as leaders for the various clubs. During the experiments the leaders changed from one club to another, and also exchanged the roles they were assuming. Thus, the clubs had experience with the three types of leaders in different sequences, and there was a check on the influence of the leader's own personality.

From this study several clear differences showed up in the behavior of the boys under different kinds of leaders. In the democratic groups the members were more work-oriented, less dependent upon the leader, and had more group initiative. A greater interdependence among the group members also occurred in this group, accompanied by less member-member aggression and irritability. In general, the democratic atmosphere seemed to produce the most healthy, work-minded, constructive kind of group.

Two different kinds of reactions were found under the autocratic leadership. One group reacted aggressively against the leader and exhibited considerable frustration. The other groups became submissive, dependent upon the leader, and seemed to lack any capacity for initiating their own group action. Both of these groups differed from the democratic groups in their greater dependence upon the leader, and in their members being less friendly with other members.

The laissez faire groups were marked by lowered productivity of the members resulting from the lack of adult guidance and accompanied by some feelings of frustration. These groups also seemed somewhat more work-minded during the absence of the leader than during his presence in the group. Their general level of horseplay, however, was higher than for any other group.

> Here is some definite evidence on the effect of leadership behavior upon the working atmosphere of the group and the relationship between the members of the group.

THE TEACHER'S MENTAL HEALTH

The late G. Stanley Hall once observed that the crux of the classroom situation lies in the teacher's life adjustment; and Zander, in one of his lectures[1], held that the teacher through her attitudes and feelings can transmit to her pupils feelings of tension or of well being.

Since a canvass of the members of the class supported the assumption that the teacher plays an important role in providing the proper "emotional climate," at least one lecture a year has been devoted to this topic.

The lecture material may be summarized as follows:

> That we be well-adjusted is as important as that we be well-educated or in good physical health. There is contagion in emotional tension. A maladjusted teacher can create maladjustments in her pupils not only by her treatment of them but also by imparting her tension to them. Every schoolroom should have an emotional climate which shows warmth, co-operation, and happiness.

The American Association of School Administrators, reporting on mental health in the schools, had this to say:

> The emotionally unstable teacher exerts such a detrimental influence on children that she should not be allowed to remain in the classroom. The teacher with an uncontrollable temper, or one severely depressed, markedly prejudiced, flagrantly intolerant, bitingly sarcastic, or habitually scolding may endanger the emotional health of pupils as seriously as one with tuberculosis or some other communicable disease endangers their

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[1] Alvin Zander, Lecture, January 8, 1951.

> physical health. Such teachers need help, but while they are being helped they should be out of classrooms so their pupils may be freed from the psychic injury, repression and fear which their presence creates. There is need for educators and physicians to devise procedures for protecting children from inhibited, frustrated, distorted personalities.[1]

Earlier the National Education Association had found that 37.5 per cent of teachers were plagued by anxieties which were sufficiently intense to interfere with their efficiency. The causes, in order of frequency, were reported as follows:

1. Financial difficulties.
2. Present economic problems.
3. Serious illness of relatives or friends.
4. Unsatisfactory progress of pupils.
5. Matter of personal health.
6. Being unmarried and without normal family relationships.
7. Disciplinary problems.
8. An official rating by a supervisor.
9. Possible loss of position.
10. Work of a college course.
11. Being unhappily married.
12. Religious questions.[2]

The course lecturers asserted that all teachers should learn the importance of "the ministry of listening," of being adept listeners. They should learn from home calls for there lies the basic motivation of the children's behavior. The home can contribute a great deal to teacher education. In visiting with parents the teacher should always find something good, something constructive to say about the child,

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[1] "Health in the Schools," Washington, D. C.: National Research Association, Bulletin, 1942, pp. 138-39.

[2] "Fit to Teach," Research Bulletin, 1938, p. 37.

and should take time to build up a working relationship. The child reacts better when the teacher knows him.

The teachers were asked, "Have you the qualities that make pupils like you?" In this connection the replies of four thousand high school seniors who were asked the question, "What qualities do you like best in a teacher?" were cited as follows:[1]

a. Helpfulness with school work, one who explains work.
b. Cheerfulness - one who can take a joke.
c. Human friendliness - one who is a companion.
d. Interest - one who understands pupils.

Qualities least liked were:

a. Crossness - one who is crabby, naggy or loses her temper.
b. Sarcasm - this is the most deadly weapon a teacher can use. It hurts herself, tramples on an ego, shows own insecurity.
c. Lack of helpfulness with school work.
d. Favoritism for some pupils, picking on others.
e. Haughtiness - does not know you out of class.

Most children spend from eight to twelve years in our classrooms. They deserve to have during these years the guidance of well-adjusted men and women. It is only during the past two years that we have allotted time to discussing the teacher's mental health. However, the inclusion of the topic came as a request from the teachers themselves. They expressed a definite need for it. There is still a tremendous amount of work to be done in this area as our work up to this point has been largely exploratory.

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[1] Frank W. Hart, Teachers and Teaching, (New York: The Macmillan Company) 1934, p. 284.

The indications are however, as determined by personal conversations and by the verbatim comments in Chapter I, that there is a definite need for instruction in mental hygiene among teachers who tend to worry excessively about their work.

The summary of the lecture material presented during the course indicates a strong emphasis on the full realization of the extent and nature of mental and physical differences in children.

Stress is continually made on the necessity of observing these unique, individual, growth patterns and to work and plan with the child in terms of these patterns.

That children do not grow at the same rates becomes a major concept in each teacher's educational philosophy and as a result, not only tempers his handling of the child's behavior but encourages her to plan wisely for his total growth and development.

Another theme that keeps running through all of the lectures is that, behavior is symptomatic, and that if real therapy is to be effectuated it becomes imperative for the teacher to recognize and deal with basic causes to the best of her ability.

Much of the substance of the remaining lectures assist in developing further these two major points of view.

Chapter IV

Analysis of Results

The experimental portion of this study was devised to determine the growth in a teacher's understanding of child behavior after ten months of intensive training in child growth and development as described in Chapter I. For purposes of evaluation, an experimental group of sixty-nine and a control group of forty-two teachers were selected.

Those who comprised the experimental group came voluntarily into the course, with no effort on anyone's part to encourage them other than such conversation as they might have had with former members of the course. Those who made up the control group were selected from the school directory with effort made to have equal group representation from a given school to facilitate comparison by the building principals as described later. As nearly as possible the two arrays of teachers were made comparable in terms of age, sex, and teaching levels.

There was no effort other than that described above to equate the two groups. It was felt that years of teaching experience, age, and training varied so widely in nature and content that no advantage would be gained by doing so.

Table I reveals that practically all of the teachers enrolled in both groups were on the graduate level. The undergraduates in each case were forty years or more old.

They had delayed their bachelor's degrees for a variety of reasons which lie outside the scope of this study. For some years pressure has been exerted by the State Department of Public Instruction and by the local schools that teachers meet certain minimum requirements in order to continue teaching and to be eligible for salary increments. Such pressure has stirred many of the older teachers to continue their formal training. Needless to say, for such teachers in the Flint schools it has been of great assistance to be able to study at the local Graduate Study Center.

To determine growth in child understanding among the subjects in this study, two basic instruments were employed, one at the beginning of the course and the other at the end to establish "before and after taking" data. The former was "A Study of Barry Black" by Horrocks and Troyer, Syracuse University, 1946, and the latter "A Study of Sam Smith" by Horrocks and Troyer, Syracuse University, 1946. Both of these instruments were developed at the University of Syracuse by John E. Horrocks and Maurice E. Troyer as a part of the Syracuse Test Series in Human Growth and Development. The tests were designed to determine the ability of students to make a diagnosis and to choose appropriate remedial procedures when presented with complex data in the form of a case study. In each test, the data about the case are presented in three parts. After scrutinizing each of the three parts, the student is asked to respond to twenty-five or

Table I

Graduate and Undergraduate Participants
Distributed According to Teaching Levels.

GROUPS	EARLY ELEMENTARY		LATER ELEMENTARY		JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH		SPECIAL		TOTAL	
	Grad.	Under-grad.	Grad.	Under-grad.	Grad.	Under-grad.	Grad.	Under-grad.	Grad.	Under-grad.
Control	15	3	4	2	16	1	1	0	36	6
Experi-mental	23	2	12	0	26	1	5	0	66	3

thirty statements that have diagnostic implications, indicating whether each statement is entirely true in terms of the data, possibly true, possibly false, entirely false, or whether sufficient data for making a judgment are supplied. Following the diagnostic statement are twenty or twenty-five statements about the use of remedial procedures. Here the student is asked to indicate whether or not he agrees with the statement, is undecided or disagrees. Thus, diagnostic and remedial statements appear at the end of the three parts of each case study. In this fashion a diagnostic, a remedial, and a whole score were obtained for each case study.

The two illustrative cases concentrate on different aspects of adolescent development. For instance, Barry Black's precipitating conditions, the crux of his case, center in conflict, frustration, and insecurity in social situations, whereas Sam Smith's problems center around intellectual-academic factors.

Age, intelligence, school and home status, are reciprocally related with the main problems in each case. Sam Smith, twelve years old and in elementary school, is of dull-normal intelligence. Barry's socio-economic status is average and Sam's above average.

The reliabilities of the two cases are .79 $\pm$ .032 for Barry Black and .73 $\pm$ .046 for Sam Smith. The authors state that while these correlations are not high compared

with those based on standardized scores, they do compare favorably with published tests covering complex functions; and that they are substantial enough to make the tests quite useful in appraising the ability of students and teachers to interpret comprehensive case data. There is no item in either test that does not correlate positively with total scores on the test or with sub-scores for the three parts on diagnosis and remedial treatment.

The validities of the respective case studies were derived from construction for adequacy of coverage, expert keeping, item consistency, reliability, and utility. The answer key for each was derived from a combination of ten expert responses to the questions in each study. A weighted scoring system based upon deviation from the modal category of expert choice is used. Thus, as in many real-life situations, there are few entirely right or wrong answers.

Adapted from Instructors Guides and Norms, for Tests in Adolescent Development; John E. Horrocks and Maurice E. Troyer; Syracuse University; Syracuse, New York; 1946.

The significant fact that emerges from Table II is that the control group achieved higher scores on both the diagnostic and remedial portions of "Barry Black" than did the experimental group. The widest difference in total scores, twenty-seven points, occurred in the 30 - 39 age group while the smallest difference occurred in the 50 - 59 interval where the difference was only 0.1 of a point.

If we consider those from twenty to forty-nine as representing the "younger" group and those from fifty and above as the "older," it is in the "younger" that we find the highest scores. As the age range progresses the scores diminish. In this connection the following can be suggested:

It is possible that a selective factor was operating in the formation of the two groups, although there was none intended. As previously explained, the members of the experimental group came into the course of their own free will. They had simply read the explanatory literature and had conferred with fellow teachers about the work. However, these same two factors, we may assume, operated as freely among the members of the control group as among those of the experimental. The teachers chosen for the control group were selected from the school directory at random with only one factor in mind; namely, to choose them

Table II

Average Scores Made by the Experimental and Control Groups on "A Study of Barry Black" at the Beginning of the Course on Child Growth and Development.

	CONTROL GROUP (N=42)				EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (N=69)			
Ages	No.	Diagnostic Score	Remedial Score	Total Score	No.	Diagnostic Score	Remedial Score	Total Score
60-69	1	50	40	90	0	0	0	0
50-59	9	57	38.6	95.6	8	56.6	38.5	95.1
40-49	15	61.1	53.3	114.4	27	54.4	47	101.4
30-39	7	75	53	128	13	57	44	101
20-29	10	72.6	56.8	129.4	21	68.8	53.7	122.5
AVERAGE SCORES		64.8	49.5	114.3		60.4	46	106.5

from the same schools as the experimental. With a total teacher population of 913 this was not difficult to do. The building principals, whose judgment was heavily relied upon, would need to be well acquainted with all of their teachers to guarantee a reasonable degree of comparability between the control and experimental groups. The following point, however, does merit some thought: the teachers who chose to take the course did so because they wanted to. Perhaps they felt the need to know more about the dynamics of human behavior and did not feel adequately equipped to function efficiently in this field. Whatever the cause may be, certain it is that, in terms of the inventory used, the experimental group fell below the control group in all age brackets at the beginning of the course.

Table III, based upon data at the end of the course, shows that the situation in Table II has completely reversed itself. Whereas in Table I the control group made higher remedial and diagnostic scores, now the experimental group is superior in both. On the basis of age, the highest total scores were made by the experimental teachers in the younger brackets (20 - 39) whereas in the control group the highest total score falls in the 50 - 59 interval.

In comparing the total score average of 92.2 for the control with 105.6 for the experimental group, one can see

Table III

Average Scores Made by the Experimental and Control Groups on "A Study of Sam Smith" at the End of the Course.

	CONTROL GROUP (N=42)				EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (N=69)			
Ages	No.	Diagnostic Score	Remedial Score	Total Score	No.	Diagnostic Score	Remedial Score	Total Score
60-69	1	45	47	92	0	0	0	0
50-59	9	61	37.1	98.1	8	59.5	44.1	103.6
40-49	15	37.5	43.5	81	27	51	40.8	91.8
30-39	7	56	30.7	86.7	13	75.8	38.9	114.7
20-29	10	57	39.5	96.5	21	66.3	47.8	114.1
AVERAGE SCORES		53.2	39	92.2		61.6	44	105.6

at a glance that the latter as a whole were able to achieve higher "Sam Smith" scores in spite of the fact that they received a significantly lower rating on the "Barry Black" instrument. It should be remembered of course that "Sam Smith" was administered at the end of the course and that the experimental group had had the benefit of the year's training program as outlined in Chapter III. One is led to believe from these results that it was this course that produced the difference. At the time of the experiment no comparable courses were available at the Flint graduate center. Hence a possible contributing factor that could affect the scores of the control group is eliminated thereby, since it is the custom for local teachers not to enroll elsewhere in large numbers.

Table IV reveals that the entire experimental group achieved higher scores on the "Sam Smith" test as contrasted with the fact that as a group they rated lower than the control group on the "Barry Black" test. This upward change indicates a strengthening of the experimental teacher's ability to diagnose and suggest remedies for children with behavior problems. If this change had happened only in one or two cases, one might well question the validity of the foregoing statement. In view of the complete transformation revealed in Table IV, the conclusion cannot be doubted that the training course which was taken by the experimental group strengthened and deepened their understanding of

Table IV

Changes in the Relative Positions of the Control and Experimental Groups at the Close of the Course on Child Growth and Development.

GROUPS	Average Scores by Age Levels														
	20-29			30-39			40-49			50-59			60-69		
	Diag.	Rem.	Mean of Total Scores	Diag.	Rem.	Mean of Total Scores	Diag.	Rem.	Mean of Total Scores	Diag.	Rem.	Mean of Total Scores	Diag.	Rem.	Mean of Total Scores
"Barry Black" Control	72.6	56.8	129.4	75	53	128	61.1	53.3	144.4	57	38.6	95.6	50	40	90
Experimental	68.8	53.7	122.5	57	44	101	54.4	47	101.4	56.6	38.5	95.1	0**	0	0
Difference*	-3.8	-3.1	-6.9	-18	-9	-27	-6.7	-6.3	-13	-.4	-.1	-.5			
"Sam Smith" Control	57	39.5	96.5	56	30.7	86.7	37.5	43.5	81	61	37.1	98.1	45	47	92
Experimental	66.3	47.8	114.1	75.8	38.9	114.7	51	40.8	91.8	59.5	44.1	103.6	0**	0	0
Difference*	+9.3	+8.3	+17.6	+19.8	+8.2	+28	+13.5	-2.7	+10.8	-1.5	+7	+5.5			

*Point of reference: Experimental Group

**No teachers in this age bracket

child behavior and placed them in a more advantageous position to diagnose and treat these behaviors.

The widest difference between the total mean "Sam Smith" scores occurred at the 30 - 39 age level (28 points). Next in order of greatest difference comes the 20 - 29 age group (17.6) with those in the 40 - 49 (10.8) and 50 - 59 (5.5) following in order.

These facts do not indicate that the highest scores were made by the youngest teachers, but it does show that the greatest difference in scores, with those in the experimental group having the advantage, occurs among the younger age groups. This leads to the conjecture that perhaps our greatest success in the training of teachers in child growth and development lies with this group. Dr. Leonard Himler once remarked, "As we get older we get more 'set' in our ways of thinking and doing". One may conclude, then, that changing our modes of thinking and acting becomes more difficult as we get older - a fact that is reflected in the scores dealt with above.

If we were to combine the positive differences of the first two age groups on the "Sam Smith" test, we would find that they are approximately three times as great as the other two age groups for which statistics are shown, (45.6 as against 16.3). These respective values reveal at what age level the training was most effective. The superiority lies with those below forty.

In computing the significant difference between the mean of the total scores obtained by the experimental and control group respectively, the following Fisher's t formula was used:

$$t = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{\sqrt{\left[\frac{\Sigma x_1^2 + \Sigma x_2^2}{N_1 + N_2 - 2}\right]\left[\frac{N_1 + N_2}{N_1 N_2}\right]}}$$

Where M_1 and M_2 are the means in the two samples; x_1^2 and x_2^2 are the sums of squares in the two samples and N_1 and N_2 are the number of observations, respectively. The denominator as a whole is the standard error of the difference between means, as any t ratio requires.

When we apply the criteria of significance as outlined by Guilford[1], it can be seen that none of the obtained t-scores approached a level of significance (Table V). He states,

> If an obtained t were equal to 1.80, the discrepancy between hypothesis and fact is said to be significant between the 10 per cent and 5 per cent levels of confidence. If a t is 2.75 we would say that it is significant between the 1 per cent and 0.5 per cent levels of confidence. A t of 1.80, or any value below 1.96, however, is ordinarily regarded as "insignificant." A t greater than 1.96 but less than 2.58 is often reported as being "significant" and a t of 2.58 or greater as being "very significant." An investigator may choose any level of confidence he prefers. But he must defend it.[2]

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[1] J. P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1950, p. 200.

[2] Ibid., p. 209.

Table V

Significance of Difference of Mean Total Scores by Ages of Experimental and Control Group on "Barry Black" and "Sam Smith" Instruments as Computed by Fisher t Formula.

GROUPS	AGES OF TEACHERS											
	20-29		30-39		40-49		50-59		60-69		All Groups	
	Mean Total Score	t-Score	Mean Total Score	t-Score	Mean Total Score	t-Score	Mean Total Score	t-Score	Mean Total Score	t-Score	Mean Total Score	t-Score
"Barry Black" Control	129.4	.13	128	.59	114.4	.30	95.6	.01	90	No Score	111.4	.89
Experimental	122.5		101		101.4		95.1		0		105	
"Sam Smith" Control	96.5	.39	86.7	1.0	81	.31	98.1	.09	92	No Score	90.8	1.76
Experimental	114.1		114.7		91.8		103.6		0		107.7	

The t score approaching the highest level of confidence by age was obtained on the "Sam Smith" instrument for the 30 - 39 age bracket in the experimental group where t was found to be 1.0.

The above scores by age groups do not reach any level of significance indicated by Guilford, but t scores based on the mean total scores of all groups reveals a more significant difference (1.76) on the Sam Smith instrument than (.89) achieved on Barry Black.

This fact, coupled with the data as shown on Table III that the mean of the total scores of the experimental group was not only higher than that of the control group in every case, indicates significant growth on the part of the experimental group who started from a negative but ended in a positive position in reference to the control group.

PRINCIPALS' EVALUATIONS

To obtain another measure of the effectiveness of the teacher training program under consideration, the following form was designed and submitted to thirty-three principals. The purpose was to determine whether the principals saw any difference between the teachers who had taken the course and those who had not. Only three questions were asked as shown in the following form.

Teachers Name

_____

In comparison with other teachers in your building---------

1. How would you estimate this teacher's ability to deal with children with behavior problems?

Below average	Average	Above average

2. How would you rate her ability to get along with parents?

Below average	Average	Above average

3. How would you characterize her classroom procedures?

Strict	Moderate	More or less informal

The principals who filled out the form may or may not have known which teachers had taken the course, but there is no evidence that their opinions were "slanted" in either direction. The forms were faithfully filled out; only one principal did not report. Her failure to do so limited the number to fifty in the experimental group and to thirty-nine in the control. Although the questions are more or less general in type they indicate in a relative way certain desirable qualities for effective teaching. The names of the teachers having taken the course in child growth and development as well as those of the control group were listed together without reference as to whether they had taken the course or not.

The first question relates to the teachers ability to understand and cope with the various types of behavior that she observes in her daily teaching. The teacher's skill in picking out youngsters who require special attention

and either (a) referring them to the proper known agencies for treatment or (b) working with the child herself is indicative of insight into the nature of child growth and development. Teacher-competence of this sort aids youngsters to make a better adjustment in the early stages of mal-behavior and to avoid getting into more serious trouble later on. The thesis here is that with a firm knowledge of the dynamics of child growth and development the teacher who has such awareness can deal effectively with children who would otherwise probably develop various deviant behavior problems.

The second question deals with the teachers ability to get along with parents. More and more we are being faced with the realization that there is a very close relation between home life and pupil maladjustment. Therefore, it is imperative that the teacher have some competency in dealing with parents. This requires more than a friendly attitude; rather one that solicits the help of the home and works closely with the parents regarding all phases of school life. To that end home visits are clearly indicated. Here we want teachers to demonstrate a competency that will assure the child that the school and the home are working together for his best interests. Such friendly cooperation should encourage parents to get in touch with the school when problems arise, and the teacher to feel confident in approaching parents whenever occasion demands it. This

general feeling of give and take between teachers and parents is the basic point of reference in the second question.

The third question deals with the emotional climate of the classroom. Although this term has no specific scientific definition it is well understood by almost all people in education. Some teachers conduct their work in an atmosphere that is warm, friendly, relaxed, and highly conducive to learning. Here the pupils enter into the educational program with the teachers and through cooperative planning they embark on an educational venture that carries with it a "we feeling". There is social direction by the teacher in this type of classroom, but there is also considerable freedom within limits for the children to express themselves and to think about and plan their own work. It is in this warm, friendly atmosphere that learning best takes place.

The opposite situation is characterized by strict rules and teacher domination. The atmosphere is generally tense and rigid, and one can often detect fear in the pupils' relations with the teacher. It is understood, of course, that there are various degrees between these two extremes, but the purpose of the third question is to determine to just what extent the principals believe that these conditions exist in the classrooms represented in this study.

The following table records the results of the principals' evaluations.

Table VI

Principals' Ratings of Experimental and Control Groups on Three Desirable Characteristics.

CHARACTERISTICS	Experimental Group (N = 50) *						Control Group (N = 39) *					
	Below Average		Average		Above Average		Below Average		Average		Above Average	
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.
Ability to deal with problem-behavior children	1	2.0	14	28.0	35	70.0	5	12.0	20	51.0	14	36.0
Ability to get along with parents	0	0.0	16	32.0	34	68.0	2	5.0	19	48.0	18	46.0
Constructive classroom procedures	6	12.0	20	40.0	24	48.0	5	13.0	24	61.0	10	25.0
Ratings on all points	7	5.0	50	36.0	93	59.0	12	10.3	63	54.0	42	35.0

* Note: The discrepancy in numbers is due to the fact that one principal did not rate her teachers.

PRINCIPALS' ESTIMATES OF TEACHERS

The principals' estimates of their teachers under the above plan are shown in Table VI. On all counts these estimates favor the teachers with special training in child growth and development.

When the ratings on all points are considered, there is no question about superiority as judged by the building principals: they have chosen the experimental group.

The measurements that have been described point to the fact that the teachers who received special training in child growth and development generally received superior ratings. They were able to achieve these higher ratings because the course was so designed as to not only put the necessary techniques at their disposal for dealing with child behavior but because it oriented them to Olson's growth philosophy which has as its basis the uniqueness of human personality.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of the foregoing evaluations, i. e., the "Barry Black" and "Sam Smith" inventories and the principals' judgments, show that a pattern of experiences aimed at the development of a higher degree of competency in the field of human relations can be deliberately organized and presented and it remains for future plans to deepen and strengthen what has been done up to this point.

Chapter V

RESUME OF RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to describe the design and measure the effectiveness of in-service training programs for teachers in child growth and development. The results show that teachers can be helped to gain a deeper understanding of childhood behavior given proper guidance and training.

The results of the various measuring devices employed indicated the following:

1. Teachers in the experimental group achieved higher scores on the inventory given at the end of the year than did those in the control group. The changes appear to be in the direction desired and although the numbers are small in the several age groups, the total movement appears to be shown at a level of confidence warranting the positive statement that teacher's abilities in this field show improvement. Additional evidence is positive. Both the evaluation of principals and the testimony of participants suggests personal satisfaction and improvement in classroom abilities.

2. Analysis by age groups showed that the teachers under forty years of age achieved higher mean total scores which indicates that this group responded to a greater degree to instruction and guidance in child growth and development than those in the other age groups.

3. The ratings recorded by the various principals' indicate that on all counts they favor the teachers with special training in child growth and development.

4. The verbatim comments by the teachers themselves, revealed that the training had not only been helpful to them in gaining a clearer conception of child growth and behavior, but it had given them, by means of the case study technique, an opportunity to put into practice remedial measures that were suggested by the various lecturers.

In addition, their comments indicated that the new concepts gained during the year had helped to improve their own educational philosophy.

The general conclusion of this study is that in-service training programs in child growth and development, when cooperatively planned, staffed with competent instructors, and taught under informal and relaxed conditions, produces highly beneficial changes in the teacher's understanding of child behavior and in her ability to deal with various types of behavior in a manner that will not only be beneficial to the child, but satisfying to herself as well.

The fact that many points of view were presented during the year from a variety of disciplines cannot be over-emphasized as much of the strength of the course lies in the necessity for each teacher to adjust and formulate her own educational philosophy in terms of all of the concepts presented. This composite philosophy has a uniqueness that, coupled with the opportunity of putting it into practice by means of the case study technique, develops in the teacher a feeling of security and competence. In terms of these objectives the evidence supports the initial thesis that teachers can be helped to achieve a deeper understanding of childhood behavior given the means and the incentive. Further research could well be conducted on the evaluation of the described program from the standpoint of the pupils. How they see and judge teachers would not only be interesting but informative as well.

APPENDIX

CONTENTS

A. Lecture Schedule (1951-1952)

B. Case History Outline for the Study of Childhood Behavior

C. Reading Requirements to Accompany Lectures (1951-1952)

Appendix A

FALL SEMESTER, 1951

Sept. 17: Mr. Walter S. Holmlund
1. Orientation to the course.
2. The Case Study: Its Philosophy and Techniques Adapted to Dr. Olson's Concept of Growth and Behavior.
3. Movie: "Meeting the Emotional Needs of Children.

Sept. 24: Dr. Willard C. Olson
The Relation of the Concept of Total Child Growth and Development to Behavior.

Oct. 1: Dr. Olson
The Relation of Child Growth and Development to Social Adjustment.

Oct. 8: Dr. Harlan C. Koch
Theory and Practice of Guidance and Counseling.

Oct. 15: Miss Mary N. Taylor
What Every Classroom Teacher Should Know About Social Case Work.

Oct. 22: Mr. Holmlund
Progress Reports on Case Studies.
Transcription--"Meet Your Mind."
Movie: "The Feeling of Rejection."

Oct. 29: Miss Vivien Ingram
The Place of Mental Measurements in the Understanding of Child Behavior.

Nov. 5: Miss Ingram
How Interest, Aptitude and Educational Tests Can Be Used to Help Children.

Nov. 12: Dr. Leonard E. Himler
Principles of Mental Health Basic to an Understanding of Child Behavior.

Nov. 19: Dr. Himler
Techniques and Methods of Interviewing.

Nov. 26: Dr. Himler
Demonstration: The Case Conference.
Cases from Class will be used.

Dec. 3: Mr. Holmlund
Mid-semester Progress Reports on Case Studies.
Movie: "Angry Boy".

Dec. 10: *Miss Teresa A. Farrell
The Utilization of Community Resources in the Promotion of Growth, Development and Treatment of Children.

Dec. 17: Dr. Alvin Zander
The Significance of Group Life in Personality Development.

Jan. 7: Dr. Zander
Group Dynamics--Its Theory and Practice.

Jan. 15: (Tues.) **Mr. David B. Treat
The Importance of Family Life in Personality Development.

SPRING SEMESTER, 1952

Jan. 21: Mr. Holmlund
Relation of the Services of the Visiting Teacher to that of the Classroom Teacher.
Movie: "Who Will Teach Your Child?"

Jan. 28: Dr. Harlan C. Koch
Guidance and Counseling as Related to Everyday Teaching.

Feb. 4: Dr. Arthur L. Tuuri
Health Services Available to the School Child.

Feb. 11: Dr. J. Mott Rawlings
The Significance of Nutrition and Pupil Behavior.

Feb. 18: 1. Review of Basic Principles--Part I.
2. Advanced Discussion of Case Studies.
Movie: "Emotional Health."

Feb. 25: Dr. Byron O. Hughes
The Significance of Growth.

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*Meeting in R. S. Bishop Room, Community Service Center.

**Meeting at Merliss Brown Auditorium, Basement of Hurley Hospital.

Time: 7:00 p.m. Place: Central High School Cafeteria.

Textbook: Child Development by Willard C. Olson.
D. C. Heath & Co.--1949--Chicago-Boston.

Mar. 3: Progress Reports; Socio-drama.

Mar. 10: Dr. Howard Y. McClusky
The Teacher's Mental Health.

Mar. 17: 1. Review of Basic Principles--Part II.
2. Final Discussion of Case Studies.
Movie: "The Feeling of Hostility."

Mar. 24: Dr. Katharine B. Greene
Personality Development of the Superior Child.

Mar. 31: Dr. William C. Morse
Understanding the Adolescent.

Apr. 7: Dr. J. Clark Moloney
1. The Cornelian Corner.
2. The Okinawan.

SPRING RECESS

Apr. 21: Dr. Irving H. Anderson
Reading and Behavior.

Apr. 28: Dr. William C. Morse
The Role of Camping in Present-Day Education.

May 5: Dr. John M. Dorsey
Educating for Mental Strength.

May 12: Final Meeting of the Spring Semester.
Summation by Dr. Koch. Closing Features.

Appendix B

CASE HISTORY OUTLINE FOR THE STUDY OF CHILDHOOD BEHAVIOR

I. Identification Data

Source of information
Reason for referral
Statement of problem

II. Family and Home Background

Grandparents and parents
Brothers and sisters
Home and community setting

III. Personal History

Birth and infancy
Childhood to early youth
School period
Health history
Habits and hygiene
Social activities
Work
Hobbies and special interests

IV. Personality

Appearance
Intelligence, knowledge, ability
Emotional reactions
Behavior, output of energy
Attitudes

L. E. Himler, M. D.
Child Development Seminar
University of Michigan
1946

I. Identification Data

Name, age, sex, place of residence, former places of residence. Date and place of birth, racial stock, nationality, religion. Name of father and mother (or substitute parents.)

Source of Information

Name, relationship, and address of all informants.

Reason for Referral

Give reason as presented by referring agent. Explain if this is different from the presenting situation.

Statement of Presenting Situation, Problem, or Complaint

State briefly the main aspects of the immediate problem, when it began, its first manifestations, known or apparent precipitating factors, and subsequent developments in chronological order. Include mention of any previous attempts to handle the problem, and the child's attitude and reaction to his situation in general.

II. FAMILY AND HOME BACKGROUND

Grandparents and Parents

Where born and lived, education, employment, social life, personality, temperament, general health, and cause and age at time of death. General nature of the family stock, including racial and national background. Serious illnesses, alcoholism, or nervous or mental disorders in the family. Home finances and family standards. Marital harmony or discord, type of discipline in the home, and attitudes of parents toward children. Separation or divorce, and resulting attitudes of parents toward the problem the child is having at the present time. (Same for adopted, foster, or step-parents.)

Brothers and Sisters

Number, ages, and order of birth in relation to child under consideration. Personality, health, education, social and occupational adjustment of each. Causes of deaths, if any. Attitudes of siblings toward each other. Rivalry. Was any child favored, overprotected, rejected?

Home and Community Setting

Living conditions, hardships, neighborhood, and social relationships of the family. Family's reputation in the neighborhood. Religious training in the home. Economic factors, adequacy of income, standards of living in the home. Did family move about much?

III. PERSONAL HISTORY

Birth and Infancy

Health and attitude of mother during pregnancy and after birth of child. Was pregnancy planned? Was birth premature or abnormal? Was child injured at birth? Illnesses, attacks of unconsciousness or convulsions during infancy or early childhood. Age of sitting alone, dentition, walking, and talking. Was the child bright, dull, timid, good-natured, difficult to manage, sickly, fretfull, overactive, easily frightened? Was there a feeding problem? Age, methods used, and circumstances of weaning and toilet training.

Childhood to Early Youth

As a young child were there any peculiarities which distinguished the individual from others? Did he learn with difficulty, and did he play normally with others of his age? Was he moody, surly, quiet, disobedient, overactive, over-aggressive, defiant, excitable, unduly dependent, shy, overly sensitive, seclusive, fearful, afraid of the dark, lacking in self-confidence, untruthful, destructive? Did he ever run away, exhibit temper tantrums, or show finicky food habits? Was there ever difficulty sleeping, disturbing dreams, night terrors, sleep walking? Give age when he stopped thumbsucking or nailbiting. If bedwetting occurred after the age of three, give circumstances and methods employed in treatment. Was there speech difficulty or stammering? Were there tendencies toward left-handedness? Was there evidence of excessive daydreaming?

School Period

Age when began school. Chronological account of school progress, grades skipped or repeated, with reasons. Did studies come hard? Were study habits consistent, erratic, or poor? Were there reading, writing, or spelling difficulties? Reasons for interruptions or changes in schools attended. Subjects liked, disliked, and those

which were particularly difficult. Descrepancies between apparent ability and grades received. Was there any difficulty with teachers or with school discipline? Describe attitudes of child, parents, and school authorities toward any special problems. If truancy occurred, give age, frequency, and contributing factors, also effect of attempts to control, and the child's response. Was or is there evidence of special ability, aptitude or talent in writing, drawing, or music? Describe interests and participation in extracurricular activities. State highest grade attained, whether or not the subject graduated, and age when he left school. Give reasons for leaving school. What are the individual's future educational plans? Do these coincide with the plans or hopes of his parents?

Health History

Describe state of health in general. Was the child frail, sickly, underweight, or overweight? List serious diseases, giving age, duration of illness, and any after-effects. Include history of illnesses such as St. Vitus Dance, sleeping sickness, infantile paralysis, tuberculosis, endocrine disorders, heart trouble, stomach complaints, skin infections, allergies, fainting spells or convulsions. Describe any physical defects or handicaps. Give date of any operations, accidents or injuries, including time required for hospitalization, and degree of recovery. Describe any continuing complaints, health handicaps, or chronic conditions. Are there any visual or hearing difficulties? Is the child interested or indifferent in regard to health matters? Is he easily alarmed over the possibility of illness? Is he now under a doctor's care? State degree to which health problems have or are likely to interfere with education or future work. Is there a history of nervousness or nervous breakdown, periods of long-standing anxiety or depression? If so, give known details as to causes, types of symptoms, duration of illness, length of time hospitalized, treatment received, degree of recovery recurrences, or persisting after-effects.

For girls, give age when menses were established, their regularity, and describe any undue symptoms or attitudes relating to the menstrual function.

Habits and Hygiene

Are there difficulties or disorders related to eating, sleeping, or elimination? Are cathartics used regularly? Use of patent medicines, drugs, sleeping pills, or other medication. Attitudes toward dress and personal cleanliness. Orderly care of toys and possessions. Source, regularity and amount of spending money or allowance and how used. Leisure time activities; reading, sports, movies, indoor and outdoor interests. Are favorite recreations active or passive.

Sex: curiosity, questions asked, at what age and under what circumstances. Parents' response, and type of information given. Parents' attitude toward and method of handling any known masturbation, sex play or sex trauma. Attitude of child toward sexual experiences and toward parental control.

Social Activities

Is the child excessively dependent upon parents and members of his family group? How does he get along with companions? Was he ever a member of a clique or gang? What type of associates does he prefer? Has he acquired good or bad habits from them? Does he prefer companions of the same or opposite sex, and why? Describe special attachments, chums, or "crushes." With what individual or group does he identify himself? Does he make friends easily, and does he retain friends? To what extent does religion influence his life? Give history of any delinquent acts, arrests, court charges or sentences.

Work

Interest and plans in regard to life work. Share taken in household work. Earliest jobs outside the home, including part-time work after school. Character of work habits--regular, changeable, fatigues easily, irresponsible. What is the rate of learning on a new job? Note any preference for working alone or in a group. Are there frequent changes in vocational interest? What individuals have influenced child in his choice of vocation. Does his own interest coincide or differ from the desires of his parents? Is he industrious, does he accept or resent supervision, does he work as effectively when not being watched? How does he spend his money? Is he thrifty? Is he frequently absent from his work without adequate reason? Does he attempt work above or below his ability? What are his work ambitions and expectations?

Hobbies and Special Interests

Does the child prefer to play by himself or with others? Does he prefer active to passive games? What other interests does he have in addition to those usually considered play? Is he a leader among his playmates? Does he prefer to be alone much of the time? What interest and experience has he had in driving a car? Does the child posses special skills or talents, and has he had adequate opportunities to develop them?

IV. PERSONALITY

Summarize briefly the outstanding personality characteristics which the child has shown during his past life and which best describe his present status, his attitude toward his situation, and his acceptance of help. Indicate whether the appraisal was based on the child's own statements, or information obtained from others, or on his response to counseling interviews. The following outline gives the main headings and some of the descriptive terms commonly used in such a brief personality sketch:

Appearance

Average, or unusual due to variations in physical development, size, height, or weight. Care in dress and personal cleanliness. Manner, poise, facial expression, conversation, and voice. General response to interview situation.

Intelligence, Knowledge, and Ability

Attention, concentration, observation, capacity for understanding. Capable of making accurate judgments and showing foresight in planning. Mechanical ability. Alert, average, dull, quick, superior, talented, well-informed, practical, possessed of common sense.

Emotional Reactions

Excitable, irritable, sensitive, unstable, insecure, aggressive, self-confident, suspicious, placid, even-tempered, quarrelsome, conscientious, egotistic, introverted, extraverted, phlegmatic, soft-hearted, moody, optimistic, pessimistic, worrisome, impulsive, easily angered, touchy, easily frightened.

Behavior Output of Energy

Over-aggressive, fighting, quarreling, teasing, cruel, over-active, restless, tendency to demand attention, indifferent, lack of interest and drive, poor motivation, vigorous, slow, sluggish, subject to fits and starts.

Attitudes toward self and health, other people, work, school, sex, authority, social standards.

Ambitious, cautious, confident, cooperative, critical, frank, fearful, insecure, loyal, opinionated, rigid, sincere, submissive, reserved, shut-in, honest, affectionate, self-reliant, imaginative, dissatisfied, absentminded, stubborn, bullying, selfish, boastful, guilt feelings, inferiority feelings, superiority feelings, show-off, smart-alec, defensive, willing to accept blame or responsibility.

Appendix C

READING ASSIGNMENTS TO ACCOMPANY LECTURES

Education C275--Child Growth and Development
Textbook---Child Development by Willard C. Olson
D. C. Heath & Co.--1949--Chicago-Boston
1951-1952

			Pages
Sept.	17	Case Study	11,244,266,285,296,298
	24	Chapter I--Growth and Development	3-15
Oct.	1	Chapter II--Growth Periods and Educational Programs	17-30
	8	*Basic Principles and Techniques of Interviewing and Counseling--Himler	
	15	*Practical Techniques of Counseling--Himler	
	15	Chapter V--The Expression and Nurture of Mental Growth and the Case Study Outline	92-102
	22	Progress Reports-- "Towards An Understanding of Truancy"	
	29	Chapter V--The Expression and Nurture of Mental Growth	103-113
Nov.	5	Chapter X-- The Affective Life of the Child	233-260
	12	Chapter X-- The Affective Life of the Child	260-269
	19	Chapter X-- The Affective Life of the Child	269-276
	26	*Progress Reports-- "The Need for Belonging"	
Dec.	3	Chapter IX--The Child in the Home and Community	214-247
	10	Chapter VIII--The Human Relations of the Classroom	192-205
	17	Chapter VIII--The Human Relations of the Classroom	205-211
Jan.	7	*Delinquency Factors (10-year study by the Gluecks)	
		*Classification of Undesirable Family Situations	
Tues.	15	*Children in Distress--Katz	
	21	Chapter IV-- Motor Development and Play	74-89
	28	Chapter VII--The Child as a Whole	163-188
Feb.	4	Chapter III--The Expression and Nurture of Physical Growth	32-68
	11	*Understanding the Adolescent--Holmlund	
	18	Chapter VI-- Growth in School Achievement	118-158

*Material distributed in Class

Mar. 3 *Factors That Produce Faulty and Mature Personalities
10 Chapter XI--The Teacher in Individual and Group Relationships----------282-321
17 *The Need for Economic Security
*Freedom from Fear
24 *The Need for Achievement
31 Chapter XIII--Concepts of Child Development in the Organization and Administration of Schools----------351-376
Apr. 7 *Freedom from Guilt
21 Chapter XII--Concepts of Child Development in Curriculum and Methods----------325-346
28 *The Need for Sharing
May 5 Chapter XIV--
The Philosophy of Growth----------380-386
*The Need for Understanding and Knowledge

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*Material distributed in Class

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