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CHANGES IN CURRICULUM PRACTICES OF TEACHERS  
WHO PARTICIPATED IN CHILD STUDY

By

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## CHAPTER I

### THE PROBLEM

#### I. GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Teachers everywhere are interested in ways of helping boys and girls improve their quality of living, in developing a democratic way of life. In order to accomplish these purposes teachers need to know how to work effectively with children; therefore, certain in-service education programs have been designed for teachers (more rarely by them). These in-service programs are supposed to help them on the job, to do the job better.

This study is an attempt to determine certain curriculum changes resulting from participation in the organized child study program of the Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland, in which teachers are involved in a direct study of children. There are two broad areas of investigation: (1) changes in the ways teachers handle children and the children's responses to these methods of handling, and (2) changes in classroom organization and procedures.

Ways of handling children and children's responses. It is not uncommon for a supervisor, principal, consultant, or any person in a helping-teacher role to believe that he knows how classes should be handled, and so to say to teachers, for example, that he is aware that corporal punishment is an outmoded method of disciplining or handling children. Now he may think this or it could be wishful thinking, but many times the helping-teacher person does not actually know how teachers handle thirty to

forty-five children or an individual child in a classroom situation. Thus, in the area of interpersonal relationships involving teachers and pupils, an effort will be made in this study to determine how present-day teachers handle children. What were the changes, if any, in the ways participating teachers handle children at three successive year levels of this particular in-service program? The study will also attempt to determine how children respond to the various ways in which teachers handle them.

Classroom organization and procedures. In the area of classroom organization and procedures, effort will be made to determine: (1) the classroom working pattern, (2) the indications of classroom organization (democratic or autocratic), and (3) evidence indicating teacher concern for individual pupil interests and needs. Evidences of change will be noted from level to level through the three years of the child-study program. If there were change, was it significant and can it be attributed to the direct study of children?

Thus, the problem is an attempt to determine certain curriculum practices currently existing in the public schools and also to determine significant changes resulting when teachers make a direct study of children.

## II. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Throughout this project reference will be made to the child-study program, the program, in-service program, study of human development, and the direct study of children; for purposes of the investigation, all these terms refer to the same in-service education program as sponsored by the Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland. Since there are several other child-study programs operating in the United States, it seems timely to describe briefly the program that is referred to in this study.

Brief history of the Institute for Child Study program. In 1939 the Commission on Teacher Education wished to promote a study based on human growth and development with emphasis on the development of children. The General Education Board believed that a study in this field was worthwhile, so the Board appropriated funds. To formulate and carry out the project, Daniel A. Prescott was selected to work with the newly created division on Child Development and Teacher Personnel. For five years, from 1939 to 1944, there was experimentation in fourteen public school systems. Operating concurrently with the school systems was the collaboration center at the University of Chicago. The collaboration center provided a store of scientific material and an opportunity for specialists to synthesize old and new concepts. Complementing the scientific material were the findings from the experimental school systems. The program in one of these experimental centers proved much more effective than did the others. This program is outlined in a volume that describes the child study activities carried out by teachers, program leader, and visiting consultants.<sup>1</sup> The procedures developed in the center described in this volume provided the basis for the program as it operates today.

Following the five year experimental study, there have been the contributions of seven years of subsequent work in other school systems. Using a composite of the findings, a three year in-service program for teachers has been developed. Its purpose is to increase understanding of children by teachers in order that teachers will become more and more

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<sup>1</sup>For further discussion of the materials, see Helping Teachers Understand Children, The American Council on Education, 458 pp.

effective with children.<sup>2</sup> (See Chapter III for a more comprehensive account of the child study program.)

With a program involving approximately nine thousand teachers and two hundred seventy thousand children, there is need for continuous evaluation. A descriptive evaluation was given in Helping Teachers Understand Children, but this was during the embryonic stages of the program. Since then, there have been two dissertations completed and several projects in process now are attempting to analyze certain aspects of the program. Perkins's study pertained to the development of scientific concepts by teachers in a child study group utilizing group processes as compared with teachers participating in a study group utilizing authority.<sup>3</sup> He found there was a significant difference in concept formation between teachers from the two groups in favor of group-centered or non-authoritarian teachers. Evidence of less tension and frustration in the democratically organized group was revealed. He also found that teachers in both groups developed scientific human development concepts during three years of the program.

Newly completed is a project emphasizing education in a county school system and an analysis of factors causing those changes.<sup>4</sup> It was found that among fifteen possible factors the child-study program was the most

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<sup>2</sup>Daniel A. Prescott, "Communicating Knowledge of Children to Teachers," Child Development, (Vol. 19, Nos. 1 & 2, March-June, 1948), pp. 15-24.

<sup>3</sup>Hugh Perkins, "The Effects of Social-Emotional Climate and Curriculum on In-Service Group Learning of Teachers." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1949.

<sup>4</sup>Birger Myksvoll, "An Analysis of Educational Changes Attending the In-Service Child Study Program." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Maryland, 1951.

influential factor resulting in change in certain school procedures in that county.

Although other studies have been completed or are in process, reference will be made only to the ones involving change in teachers. A dissertation by Madelaine Mershon was concerned with growth in objectivity of teachers participating in a direct study of children.<sup>5</sup> Her research indicated that teachers develop an awareness of the importance of the following points: (1) studying the behavior of children objectively and giving more consideration to the situation in which behavior occurs, (2) seeing the chosen child in many situations outside the regular classroom, and (3) considering a greater number of evidences with broader scope in interpreting the behavior of the children chosen for study. As a result of Mershon's study it was suggested that additional research was needed to determine whether teachers grow in relating themselves to children (interpersonal relationships) and whether teachers change in classroom and instructional procedures as a result of this in-service program of child study. Thus, she has specifically stated the need for the particular research of the investigator in his project, described herein. Hereafter, the use of the term, investigator, will refer to the person who is doing the investigation throughout this project.

### III. PROBLEMS TO BE INVESTIGATED

The problems to be investigated were in three main classifications. There were specific problems in the area of interpersonal pupil-teacher

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<sup>5</sup>Madelaine Mershon, "Changes in the Records Made by Teachers During Two Years in a Child Study Program." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1950.



relationships; there were specific problems in classroom organization and procedures; and there were general problems with foci on various aspects of these specific problems. Each specific problem was stated in the form of an hypothesis and its significance was later determined using chi-square and the null hypothesis.

Problems in interpersonal relationships of the curriculum.

Was there a significant

- (1) change in the proportion of more positive to more negative ways of handling children at the three year levels of the program?
- (2) change in the more positive ways teachers handle children at the three different levels of the child study program?
- (3) change in the more negative ways teachers handle children at the three different levels of the program?
- (4) difference in the ways teachers handle children in the elementary grades compared to ways teachers handle children in high school? If different, how were they different?
- (5) change in specific ways teachers handled children? When applicable, how did elementary and high school teachers differ in their ways of handling children?

Problems in classroom organization and procedures.

Was there a significant

- (1) change in evidences of more democratically organized classrooms during the three year levels of the child study program?
- (2) change in evidences of more autocratically organized classrooms during three years of the program?
- (3) change during the three years of the program in the ways elementary teachers organized their classrooms as compared to the ways high school teachers organized their classrooms?

Related problems to be investigated.

- (1) What are the different methods teachers use in handling children? What methods are most used by elementary and high school teachers?

(2) What ways of handling children by teachers result in a positive response or a negative response from the child?

(3) Was there a difference in the responses of elementary from high school students?

#### IV. DELIMITING THE PROBLEM

Two areas representing four centers. Although this particular in-service program is operating in about twelve areas, only two areas were selected for investigation. For purpose of this study the Maryland area was comprised of Montgomery County and Prince Georges County; the Louisiana-Texas area was comprised of Caddo Parish and the Fifth District in Louisiana, and Corpus Christi, Texas. Hereafter the former centers will be referred to as the Maryland area and the latter will be called the Louisiana-Texas area.

Grouping of the Louisiana-Texas area was made on the basis of similarity in the way the program was initiated, developed, and operated.<sup>6</sup> For the three years of the program chosen for investigation, the Louisiana centers and the Texas center at Corpus Christi operated alike. Each center carried out the organized child-study program; each center held local two-week summer workshops for administrators, leaders, and teachers; each center had visiting consultants from the Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland, who worked directly with teachers and other school personnel during the school session while the study groups were operating.

Grouping of Montgomery County and Prince Georges County to form the Maryland area was made for the same reasons as given for the Louisiana-Texas grouping. In many ways the Maryland area and the Louisiana-Texas

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<sup>6</sup>Mershon, op. cit. pp. 30-71.

area were similar; the important difference was that in the Maryland area teachers did not have as direct contact with the program as did teachers in the Louisiana-Texas area. The structure of the program was the same but in Maryland the consultants worked through the supervisors and administrators and the local workshops were conducted for them rather than for the teachers. In other words, it was the duty of the supervisors to relay the program to the teachers, while in the Louisiana-Texas area the local workshops were for the teachers.<sup>7</sup>

The Louisiana-Texas area and the Maryland area were selected because they provided sufficient information for the study. Teachers from high school and elementary school were participating in the program; each area had rural, semi-urban, and urban teachers and children represented; and each area represented a variety of school plants.

School sessions selected for study. Three school years or sessions were selected for analysis because the program is designed for three years of experiences. Sessions selected were 1947-48, 1948-49, and 1949-50. As this project was started in the summer, 1950, the school sessions selected were the most recent for investigation. The child-study program has been operating since 1939, so three other sessions could have been chosen but it seemed obvious that if the study is focused on curriculum practices, it would be more purposeful to determine recent practices as well as recent changes in the curriculum.

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<sup>7</sup>Julia Weber, "The Extension of Child Study Into Additional State Areas." Ed.D. dissertation in process. University of Maryland, 1951.

Selection of records for analysis. The project was also delimited by adhering to the following factors in the selection of records for the data.

(1) Random selection. Following the pilot study the records were grouped and a random selection was made of the specific records to be used.

(2) Records of teachers. Data from regular classroom teachers' records were used, including data from vocational teachers, core or common learnings teachers, and teachers of departmentalized subjects. Records of principals, supervisors, guidance teachers, and physical-education teachers were not used because they did not contain enough evidence of classroom procedures.

(3) Records from white schools. Another factor in the selection of records was the use of records from white schools. Justification was on the basis that segregation is practiced in the two areas selected for this study; a pertinent reason was insufficient data from Negro teachers at the high school level available for research.

(4) Records from elementary and high school. The investigation was limited to three elementary grades (four, five, and six) and to three high school grades (nine, ten, and eleven). Since this in-service program involving the direct study of children is concerned with the developmental stage of the child as well as grade placement, then it seemed advisable to look at curriculum practices at the later childhood stage and also at adolescence. If six different grades had been selected, for example, two, four, six, eight, ten, and twelve, it would have been evident that four developmental stages were involved instead of two, as preferred in this project. Throughout the study reference to high school will mean specifically grades nine, ten, and eleven, and elementary will mean grades four, five, and six.

## V. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

Concern for current curriculum practices. Curriculum practices as stated in much of the literature are theories based on the author's empirical knowledge. If his knowledge is inaccurate or inadequate, the theory may be a figment of his imagination with no scientific basis. The danger is evident. Likewise, a consultant, in the helping-teacher role, often states that he prefers to take teachers where they are, to take them at their particular stage of professional development, and work from there. Does he really know where teachers are professionally? What are the present day curriculum problems and what are the practices? What are the concerns of teachers?

Before a problem can be attacked, it must be recognized. If consultants are to be more effective with teachers and if teachers are to be more effective with children, then attention must be given to the things teachers do to and with children, and to the way they organize their classrooms for living.

Concern for evaluation. Reference was previously made to the descriptive account of the initial child-study program as it operated the first five years with the Commission on Child Development and Teacher Personnel. The dissertations by Mershon and Perkins indicated the need for research in the area of change in curriculum practice on the part of participating teachers. With such a vast program, primarily designed to promote change in teachers, there is even greater need for evaluation. Thus, it seems pertinent to determine significant change at various levels of the three year program.

In the previous evaluations of the Institute for Child Study programs,

no attempt has been made to determine curriculum practices of participating teachers. Specifically, no attempt has been made to detect ways teachers change in handling children and/or how they change in organizing their classrooms as a result of participation in this in-service program. Previous research and current questions from teachers, administrators, and consultants have indicated the need to study these questions.

## CHAPTER II

### CONTRIBUTIONS OF OTHER STUDIES RELATED TO THIS PROBLEM

The function of the public school has been a controversial issue for many years. In 1875 the parents of Quincy, Massachusetts accused Francis W. Parker of turning the schools into natural history museums and mud-pie factories. Classes were allowed to leave the school building for trips; arts and crafts received new emphasis; direct experiments in science were advocated; and pupils were allowed to have some voice in deciding discipline appropriate for their age. Parents questioned whether their children were learning the three R's.<sup>8</sup>

Seventy-five years later, in 1950, similar accusations were made of a superintendent in Pasadena, California.<sup>9</sup> School personnel, who place emphasis on the whole development of children and see subject matter as being adjusted to children's needs and developmental level, must often face accusations similar to those which Francis Parker and the Pasadena superintendent faced.

#### I. NEED FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION

What is the function or the purpose of the public school and education? There are those who believe that the school's purpose is teaching

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<sup>8</sup>J. Wayne Wrightstone, Appraisal of Newer Practices in Selected Public Schools, (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935), p.3.

<sup>9</sup>For further discussion see David Hulburd, This Happened in Pasadena, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1951).

the fundamental, academic skills in language, writing, reading, and arithmetic. There are others who believe these skills are important, but in addition the school has a broader purpose, the whole development of the child. It is important for school personnel and the school society to know the purposes of the educational system if there is to be a meaningful working philosophy. The teacher's philosophy is influential in determining the way he will handle boys and girls and how he organizes his classroom for living. If public schools are to make their best contribution to the on-going of civilization and if teachers are to rethink their philosophies with the changing society, it is imperative that educational evaluation be a continuous process.

The process of evaluation<sup>10</sup> is the process of determining to what degree the educational purposes and objectives are actually being met through the curriculum.<sup>11</sup> If evaluation is to be meaningful and serve as a basis for change, it must be approached critically and scientifically.

In the field of education there has been a tendency to be philosophical and theoretical. Too often an educator has taken some bit of empirical knowledge and arrived at conclusions without testing his ideas experimentally. Frequently the literature on educational subjects is merely the author's theory in which he gives generalizations based on insufficient evidence. A review of related studies in this chapter will include investigations that have employed more of the scientific method.

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<sup>10</sup>Ralph W. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 69.

<sup>11</sup>Throughout this study reference to the term, curriculum, has a broad connotation, meaning all the child's experiences influenced by the school.



Effect of functional education. Ideally, the reason for evaluation would be the promotion of change in the direction of preferred goals. However, the following example shows degrees of variation from this accepted tenet. To solve the dispute in Quincy, Massachusetts and the charges against Francis W. Parker,<sup>12</sup> the state board of education conducted an examination. The purpose was to determine the pupils' progress, if any, in reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, and history. The results of this examination showed that with Francis W. Parker's more experience-centered curriculum and less rigid method of teaching, his Quincy pupils actually achieved greater proficiency in academic subjects than did those pupils who had been drilled on subject matter.

A study of Wrightstone's appraisal of elementary school practices reveals that he selected experimental and conventional schools that he could equate. Equation was made on the basis of socio-economic conditions of the communities. Teaching conditions were comparable as to training, experience, salaries of teachers, and pupil-teacher ratio. The experimental school was more concerned with the whole development of the pupil while the conventional school emphasized subject-matter alone. The controlled observation technique was used as well as anecdotal records of pupil behavior.<sup>13</sup> Results indicated that pupils from the experimental group who utilized newer practices were more self-initiated, critical, and in the social field they achieved far more than the conventional group.

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<sup>12</sup>Wrightstone, op. cit., p. 3.

<sup>13</sup>Wrightstone, op. cit., p. 219.

From Wrightstone's findings he made the following hypotheses:

The newer practices are equal to or better than the conventional practices for the acquisition of skills and habits in the instrumental subjects of reading, spelling, language, and arithmetic. The selected experimental schools not only provided systematic instruction in the skills through individual diagnostic and remedial materials, but stimulated the use of these skills and correlated them with meaningful pupil activities in units of work. In these skill subjects the conventional schools provided systematic lesson assignments. Materials were taught in piece-meal fashion according to a daily schedule, and were unrelated to any central ideas, themes, or pupil activities outside the lesson itself.

The second hypothesis is that the central units, or topics, of work do not necessarily detract from the achievement of instrumental skills in academic areas of the curriculum. If the teacher guides the pupils' interests and activities wisely, a progressive development in reading, language arts, and arithmetic ensues. The experimental school curriculum devotes less time than the conventional curriculum to actual drill in academic skills and habits, but through a correlation and integration of these skills and habits with children's social activities in vital units of work, provides for equal, if not better, mastery and understanding.<sup>14</sup>

The Eight Year Study is probably the most comprehensive one that has been made in the area of functional education. It is one of the few longitudinal studies. The work, which continued from 1933 to 1941, has been reported in five volumes.<sup>15</sup> About three hundred universities and colleges agreed to waive the usual requirements and examinations as a basis for enrolling the student. Graduates of the thirty schools who formed the experimental group were matched with the same number of graduates from other schools who were adhering to the customary entrance requirements; the latter constituted the control group. The results were

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<sup>14</sup>Wrightstone, op. cit., pp. 219-220.

<sup>15</sup>Thirty Schools Tell Their Story, Adventure in American Education, (New York: Harpers Bros., 1943), p. xvii.

that students from the thirty schools, the experimental group, did as well in scholastic achievement as the students from the college preparatory schools. In many aspects of social development the experimental group excelled.

Judging from the statements of high school teachers and observations of classroom procedures it seems that the curriculum of most secondary schools is college preparatory. Some educators think that teachers are reluctant to change; some educators think change will result in chaos; other educators feel that change is necessary if secondary education is to improve. These points were tested in the Eight Year Study. The evidence favors change from the stereotyped, academic, college preparatory approach which has characterized the high school.<sup>16</sup>

The Eight Year Study also has implications for college revision, especially college entrance requirements. Certainly the demands of the colleges have tremendous influence in determining the objectives of the public schools. One reason for this influence is the continued prestige of college education in American culture. A college graduate is automatically granted status in society. The college professor has a high status position although some present day laborers may surpass him in salary. Because of his prestige position and possibly because of his specialized work, it is more difficult for him to change; new methods might entail loss of these things that have become so meaningful. Thus, it may be easier for less specialized, less status-conscious elementary school teachers to change than high school teachers or college professors.

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<sup>16</sup>Ibid., p. xix.

Yet some college teachers are aware of need for change. Marie Rasey<sup>17</sup> at Wayne University exemplifies this desire. Other college professors are examining their roles as college teachers and seeking more effective methods.<sup>18</sup>

It seems that if progress is to be made, evaluation and change are needed at all levels of education. The investigator's project is chiefly concerned with teachers' change at the elementary and high school level, but this does not eliminate the need for change in primary grades and college teaching on the basis of new findings.

One area that is receiving emphasis in light of present day objective evaluation is democratic pupil-teacher procedures as part of the less rigid, more flexibly organized classroom. Interpreters of the meaning of democracy almost unanimously agree that the survival of the democratic way of life and even of world civilization depends upon the extent to which people succeed in planning and working together for the common good.<sup>19</sup> Democracy will gradually fade away and die when man is not allowed a voice in the decisions that affect him. If children learn what they live, then the school has an obligation for fostering democracy. Pupil-teacher planning and working together are the bases of the democratic approach to the curriculum.<sup>20</sup> It provides an opportunity for pupils and teachers to

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<sup>17</sup>Marie Rasey, This Is Teaching, (Boston: Harpers Bros., 1950), 214 pp.

<sup>18</sup>Nathaniel Cantor, Dynamics of Learning, (Buffalo: Foster and Stewart, 1947), pp. 151-184.

<sup>19</sup>Harold Alberty, Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum, (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1950), pp. 338-339.

<sup>20</sup>Thirty Schools Tell Their Story, op. cit., p. 739.

work through to meaningful objectives based on interests and needs of individual group members. A skillful, resourceful, and understanding teacher is needed for optimum development of each pupil.

The child is free to do whatever he can get away with in the class of the autocratic teacher. With the laissez-faire teacher the child lacks purpose and/or direction; the result is chaos. To assume that the teacher is no longer the authoritarian, and that each pupil is free to do what he pleases is to assume that the only choice is between autocracy and anarchy. However, there is another choice, democracy.<sup>21</sup> Pupils learn the process in school through democratic participation. It is new to them. In order for pupils to assume more meaningful responsibility, there should be opportunities for the development of responsibility in accordance with the readiness and inherent abilities of each individual. The situation under consideration here has been facetiously stated in a story about a boy who came to school one morning and asked, "Teacher, do I have to do what I want to do today?" The story was meant as a humorous attack on functional school practice. Although the answer of the teacher was not given in the original story, she could have answered, "Yes, Johnny, you will have to assume responsibility today, and every day, for your work, your play, and your relationships with others. You cannot get me to assume your responsibility by telling you what to do. This is your day, and you cannot look to others to be responsible for the use you make of it."<sup>22</sup>

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<sup>21</sup>Earl C. Kelley, Education For What Is Real, (New York: Harper Bros., 1947), pp. 94-95.

<sup>22</sup>Ibid., p. 95.

It is timely to note a word of caution from John Dewey, an educator identified with the so-called "progressive" movement in education.

It is a ground for legitimate criticism, however, when the on-going movement of progressive education fails to recognize that the problem of selection and organization of subject-matter for study and learning is fundamental. Improvisation that takes advantage of special occasions prevents teaching and learning from being stereotyped and dead. But the basic material of study cannot be picked up in a cursory manner. Occasions which are not and cannot be foreseen are bound to arise wherever there is intellectual freedom. They should be utilized. But there is a decided difference between using them in the development of a continuing line of activity and trusting to them to provide the chief material of learning.<sup>23</sup>

It follows that the objective in this chapter is to continue the review of related research in order to see how the findings contribute to the development of the investigator's project.

Effect of teacher participation in child-study on pupil achievement.

There are those who think that pupils of child-study teachers may achieve less academically. Waetjen found in his research that pupils of teachers who were members of study groups participating in a direct study of children achieved as much in subject matter skills as pupils of teachers who were not participating in a child study group.<sup>24</sup> Achievement was measured by the pupils' scores on standard achievement tests. It should be remembered that subject-matter achievement tests measure mainly the extent that skills and information have been acquired.<sup>25</sup> They do not

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<sup>23</sup>John Dewey, Experience and Education, (New York: Macmillan Co., 1938), pp. 95-96.

<sup>24</sup>Walter Waetjen, "A Study of the Influence of Teacher Participation in an In-Service Program of Child Study on Pupil Achievement." Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation. University of Maryland, 1951.

<sup>25</sup>Wrightstone, op. cit., p. 5.

measure other objectives such as values, attitudes, critical thinking, creativeness, spontaneity, and leadership. One of the investigator's basic assumptions throughout his project is that these more intangible objectives are as important as subject-matter achievement and the public school has an obligation to meet these phases of the child's development.

## II. EFFECTIVE TEACHING PERSONALITY

Percival M. Symonds' observations. There is a recent study by Symonds based on observations of teachers in classroom situations.<sup>26</sup> The purpose of his study was to orient himself to the personality of present day teachers preparatory to seeing the relationship in personality of teachers to mode of teaching and to pupil response in the classroom.

Twenty-four teachers were selected: twelve in elementary school, four in junior high school, two in classes of retarded children, one teacher from a special class of delinquent pre-adolescents, and five from a probationary school at junior high level. Either Symonds or a fellow observer made an effort to spend a whole morning with each class. As observers, they kept diary notes of classroom events, teaching methods, and teacher-pupil relationships. The observers attempted to talk with the teacher after class to ascertain something concerning his attitude toward his work.

From these observations and findings Symonds states that it would be difficult to type an effective teaching personality. He did conclude that personality and teaching methods of teachers were interrelated and

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<sup>26</sup>Percival M. Symonds, "Reflections on Observations of Teachers," Journal of Educational Research, 43:686-696, May, 1950.

complex. He found that underneath superficial matters of procedure were the more realistic and significant matters of teacher attitude, her ability to give and take with the pupils, and an uncanny sensitivity to pupil needs that were rooted in her own personality. Teaching methods and practices may be modified with relative ease, but feelings and attitudes involving pupil-teacher relationships represented more of the inner core or self of that teacher, and change becomes more difficult. This may imply that change in the area of interpersonal relationships could be very threatening, and therefore progress or change will usually be slow.

In professional as well as lay circles common reference is made to the "effective" or the "best" teaching personality. Symonds said it is difficult to state characteristics of the "good" teacher as Paul Witty did in "An Analysis of the Personality Traits of the Effective Teacher." There is, as yet, no composite of the "good" teacher. There is need of more effective instruments for insight into effective teaching personalities.

As a result of his research, Symonds concluded it was easy for a teacher to disguise her feelings and under observation and through interview the teacher could appear to be 'what she wasn't'. But he found that in many instances the personality of the teacher could best be studied by watching the reactions of her pupils. For example:

If a class does not take advantage of a teacher who is easy going, if a class jumps willingly to the bidding of an apparent task, one knows that underneath the teacher's attitude is an essential kindness, acceptance and understanding. But if a class is restless, jumpy, sullen, resistant, or rude, it is a sign that something is wrong.<sup>27</sup>

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<sup>27</sup>Symonds, op. cit., p. 689.



Symonds concluded that children can assume responsibility in classrooms if the opportunity is provided. (This is corroborated by the findings of the investigator, Chapter VI). The teacher's personality is an influential factor in the accomplishments of children. Symonds summarizes his observations of the teaching personality in the following statement:

These random reflections on the observations of teachers lead to the conclusion that the personality of the teacher is a very important factor in the educative process, and that personality of the teacher must be taken into account..... It is not clear that there is a "teaching personality" and it is obvious that teachers must and should represent the diversity of personalities that our culture develops. But care should be taken that seriously disturbed and insecure individuals should not go into teaching. The desirable teacher is one for whom teaching satisfies deep wishes, who finds teaching interesting, and who is interested or more interested in the boys and girls she teaches than the subject matter she teaches them.<sup>28</sup>

Most observers would probably agree with Symonds that it is difficult to type the effective teacher.

Paul Witty made that attempt. He analyzed approximately twelve thousand letters accumulated as the result of a radio broadcasting program (Quiz Kids).<sup>29</sup> The contest stated that a scholarship would be awarded to the teacher most convincingly described by the pupil writing on the subject, "The Teacher Who Has Helped Me Most".

The twelve traits mentioned most frequently by the children were:

1. Cooperative, democratic attitude
2. Kindliness and consideration for the individual
3. Patience

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<sup>28</sup>Symonds, op. cit., p. 696.

<sup>29</sup>Paul Witty, "An Analysis of the Personality Traits of the Effective Teacher," Journal of Educational Research, 40:662-675, May, 1947.

4. Wide interests
5. Personal appearance and pleasing manner
6. Fairness and impartiality
7. Sense of humor
8. Good disposition and consistent behavior
9. Interest in pupils' problems
10. Flexibility
11. Use of recognition and praise
12. Proficiency in teaching a particular subject.

Carson Ryan and the effective teacher. Much attention should be paid to the selection of potential teachers, because what pupils think about their teachers is important for the learning process.<sup>30</sup> More learning will result when interpersonal relationships between teacher and pupil are filled with understanding, harmony, cooperation, and mutual respect. He advocates teachers with pleasing, wholesome personalities. This is especially important if it is true that students tend to develop traits displayed by their teachers. A review of Alva Graham's research on this subject will be presented later in the chapter.

Tiedeman's findings concerning teachers' effective personality traits.<sup>31</sup> He made a scientific study of what junior high students like and/or dislike about teachers in the way of personal characteristics and practices. Tiedeman used the following method to obtain his data: four hundred fifty students from the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades were given a blank sheet of paper with a request to write a list of all the things each disliked about any teacher from first grade to present. Then, each was asked to make a similar listing of all the things he liked especially well about any teacher. From the tabulated responses it was

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<sup>30</sup>Carson W. Ryan, Mental Health Through Education, (New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1938), p. 23.

<sup>31</sup>Stuart C. Tiedeman, "A Study of Pupil-Teacher Relationships", Journal of Educational Research, 35:657-664, May, 1942.

evident that pupils at the junior high level disliked: (1) the teacher who is autocratic and domineering; (2) the teacher who uses sarcasm, nags; (3) the teacher who threatens and frightens in order to control; (4) the teacher who fails to provide for individual differences; (5) the teacher who has disagreeable personal peculiarities; (6) the teacher who shows partiality.

On the contrary the junior high students liked the teacher who is: (1) kind, friendly, cheerful; (2) glad to help children; (3) explains clearly; (4) fair to everyone; (5) neat and well groomed; (6) has a sense of humor; (7) understands children and their problems; (8) allows children to do things for her; (9) friendly and polite at all times.

Tiedeman summarizes the best liked teacher, seen through the eyes of junior high students, as being one who understands children and their problems, who recognizes the individual differences of children and allows sufficient freedom or permissiveness in the classroom, and who helps create a classroom climate that is not laissez-faire or so permissive that chaos results.

The importance of pupil-teacher relationships is given by Torgerson  
in the following excerpt:

The fundamental importance of teacher-pupil relationship is self-evident, because it is essential to the promotion of optimum conditions for learning. Certain attitudes, traits, and procedures are undoubtedly necessary to establish teacher behavior patterns that contribute to wholesome relationships in the classroom. A study of the integration of the teacher's attitudes, traits, and practices necessary to create and maintain such an environment is a challenging problem that may throw<sup>32</sup> considerable light on the problem of measuring teaching success.

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<sup>32</sup>T. L. Torgerson, "The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Ability", Review of Educational Research, 7:246, June, 1937.

There is no direct attempt to determine how children learn or how children develop attitudes either in this chapter or related research or throughout the investigator's project. It is hoped, however, that much of the current research, where the focus is on the child, will serve as a tangible basis for learning about this profoundly complex matter of how children learn.

One of the assumptions of the investigator is that the less formal, less rigid, child-emphasis teacher with more democratic classroom procedures would help to develop more democratic attitudes in the child. Do children learn what they live and is it possible that attitudes are caught as well as taught? Advocates of the stereotyped, rigid, subject-matter emphasis approach discredit this assumption.

### III. EFFECT OF DEMOCRATIC CURRICULUM PRACTICES

A review of the literature reveals little experimental work to detect attitude development as the result of democratic teaching or the effects of democratic procedures. A summary of some pertinent research follows.

Alva Graham's research in the area of democratic practices. Graham used the Duniway School in Portland, Oregon, and selected nine teachers for the experimental group.<sup>33</sup> These teachers believed and practiced democratic methods with pupils participating in selecting goals, in evaluating work, in planning and organizing, and with pupils assuming much responsibility for their own activities. These nine teachers' primary

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<sup>33</sup>Alva W. Graham, "Do Teachers Who Use Democratic Methods Develop Democratic Attitudes?", Elementary School Journal, 47:24-27, September, 1946.

concern was interest in, and knowledge of, each pupil's personality development.

Nine other teachers, who matched the experimental group in ability, formed the control group. These teachers believed and practiced autocratic methods. There was complete teacher direction and control with pupils following direction rather than helping with the planning. Where the experimental group was chiefly concerned with the whole development of the personality of the child, this control group's primary concern was subject matter with emphasis on its acquisition and the development of certain academic skills.

Both groups of teachers involved in the experiment were asked to check statements of philosophy which would reveal their attitudes. The two groups were observed to determine whether different outcomes in terms of selected attitudes would be produced by two contrasted factors in the learning situations, namely: (1) the teacher and his personality and (2) the classroom methods he employs, including the types of activities and materials used. Graham selected varied attitudes to be checked in order to provide a sampling of many areas. The teachers were carefully observed employing proceedings described in Mort and Cornell's, "A Guide for Self-Appraisal of School Systems". The teachers knew they were being observed, but they did not know it was part of an experiment.

Eighth grade pupils were used. They were matched at the beginning on the basis of sex, intelligence, and economic factors. An attempt was made to determine their attitudes. There was a close correlation between the two groups of pupils at the beginning of the experiment.

After four months a second battery of scales was given to the pupils in order to determine any change in attitudes. The experimental group

showed statistically significant changes in four of the six areas. This tends to confirm the influence of the democratically organized classroom and child-concerned teacher. It is also significant that in the control group with its autocratic procedures the attitudes of the pupils were less favorable at the conclusion of the experiment than at the beginning. In contrast, the experimental group moved in a positive direction.

Graham's study is limited because it covered the brief span of four months. Research should probably cover years instead of months on such a complex subject as attitudes. Attention should be given to the more permanent effects of democratic teaching on children's attitudes. Is it just a temporary change? Since this experiment included only eighth grade pupils, additional research is needed at other grade and developmental levels.

From Graham's study came the following significant conclusions:

(1) present day school children are lacking in many of the attitudes needed for a democratic society; (2) traditional teaching procedures do virtually nothing to develop democratic attitudes and may actually work toward autocratic attitudes; (3) there is experimental evidence to support the hypothesis that teachers using democratic procedures have a measure of success in establishing democratic attitudes. What are the implications for furthering democracy? If autocratic teaching methods tend to counteract the professed democratic way of life, and if it is scientifically proved that more democratic teaching methods tend to develop democratic attitudes and thereby enhance the democratic way of life, then is it not timely for teachers to take a more analytical look at their relationships with children?

Harold H. Anderson and associates focused on democratic and auto-  
cratic interpersonal relationships. Anderson was concerned with the  
 ways teachers handle their pupils and the effect.<sup>34</sup> In the study,  
 "Domination and Socially Integrative Behavior", he arrived at his  
 definitions of "dominative" and "socially-integrative" from direct  
 observations in schools and in homes. He defined by citing examples.  
 An example of "socially integrative" behavior is:

In a second grade during singing period one of the children asked for the song about the organ-grinder and the monkey. Another child volunteered the page number. After the children had sung it, the teacher asked, "I wonder if you would like to play it (act it)?" There was general agreement. The boy who had asked for the song was to choose the organ-grinders. He designated three, who in turn chose their monkeys. Two monkeys had been chosen. James was hesitating, although several hands indicated that he could have a monkey.

"Why don't you choose, James?" the teacher asked.

James looked over the room again and said, "I want a little person and I want somebody who wants to be a monkey." A hand shot up from a little girl who fitted James' specifications and she became the third monkey.

After the children had sung the song while the organ-grinders and their monkeys performed at the front of the room a child asked, "Don't they go down the street?"

"The organ man decides that," the teacher replied. The organ-grinders and the monkeys and the other children together seemed to decide it. The monkeys and the organ-grinders took positions at the head of the aisles and the other children began to reach with ostensible gestures into imaginary purses for imaginary pennies to drop into imaginary cups. They sang the song again and the teacher, adding her imaginary pennies, remarked, "Well, I hope you enjoyed their song, and the monkeys received lots of pennies."<sup>35</sup>

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<sup>34</sup>Roger G. Barker, Jacob S. Kounin, and Herbert F. Wright, Child Behavior and Development, (New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1943), pp. 459-484.

<sup>35</sup>Ibid., p. 460.

Thus it was evident that the teacher handled children in such a manner as to foster spontaneity and creativeness, and to permit and invite interplay so that children had an opportunity to differentiate. This is an example of the teacher interacting as a member, promoting the process of recognizing differences. With the integration of differences something new is created involving differentiation; thus the term "socially-integrative" behavior.

The antithesis is "dominative" behavior. Instead of harmony of differences there is conflict of differences. An example of this type of teacher behavior and pupil reaction is illustrated here:

A group of kindergarten children were making May baskets. Terry had folded his basket on the lines which had been drawn on the material the night before by the teacher. He had pasted the flaps as he had been instructed and had the handle fastened in place. The teacher had cut out of other paper a handful of diamond-shaped pieces which she had distributed four to a child. These were to serve as decorations to be pasted horizontally on the basket. As she walked about the room she noticed Terry pasting his diamond decorations vertically.

"Oh, oh, Terry," she said, "The decorations are to be pasted on lying down and not standing up."

"But I want to paste mine this way," said Terry.

"Well, that isn't the way they are supposed to do. Here now, just paste it this way." And she turned the diamond horizontally and pasted it before Terry seemed to know what had happened. She remained while Terry at her instructions pasted two more shapes horizontally. Then she turned away, leaving Terry to paste the fourth.

At the end of the period Terry had only three decorations on his basket. When the teacher inquired about his basket, Terry, pointing to the undecorated side of his basket, said that he did not want one there.

"Oh, but every basket should have four. Here is one your color. We'll just paste it on quickly." And with Terry speechless and transfixed she pasted it on quickly.

Mary Lou had observed that at her table several handles did not stick. "I guess I don't want a handle," she remarked to



the boy seated next to her. She cut up the handle of her basket and pasted the pieces as decorations all over the basket. The teacher's remark to this "fait accompli" was, "Oh, you've spoiled yours, Mary Lou; yours is all messy and doesn't have a handle."<sup>36</sup>

Instead of fostering creativity, spontaneity, and thinking for oneself, these very phases of growth and development of Terry and Mary Lou were blocked. Thus, their teacher's dominative behavior tended to stifle differences, made for rigidity of pupils' responses, and reduced the interplay of differences and made for conflict in differences. There was no opportunity to detect common purposes in these differences.

Anderson gathered data by the observation method. He used third grade children in his study. Helen Brewer used a similar approach with two teachers and thirty-two kindergarten children. She found there was a correlation of .62 to .68 between not-approved children's behavior as classified by the teacher and dominative behavior contacts of the teacher.<sup>37</sup>

Joseph E. Brewer observed second grade children by using the framework for categorizing data that Anderson developed.<sup>38</sup> Mary Frances Reed did a similar study with sixth grade children and their teachers as a doctoral thesis.<sup>39</sup>

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<sup>36</sup>Ibid., pp. 459-460.

<sup>37</sup>Helen M. Brewer, "The Measurement of the Behavior of Kindergarten Children in Relation to the Teacher's Dominative and Socially Integrative Contacts," Master's Thesis, (Urbana: University of Illinois, 1939).

<sup>38</sup>Joseph E. Brewer, "The Measure of the Behavior of Second Grade Children in Relation to the Teacher's Dominative and Socially Integrative Contacts," Ph.D. Thesis, (Urbana: University of Illinois, 1941).

<sup>39</sup>Mary Frances Reed, "A Consecutive Study of the Schoolroom Behavior of Children in Relation to the Teachers' Dominative and Socially Integrative Contacts," Ph.D. Thesis, (Urbana: University of Illinois, 1941).

Bernice Baxter and interpersonal relationships. Baxter states that changing social conditions make it necessary to evaluate the school's purpose. The school must assume more of the responsibility for the social development of children because of social changes in the home. Using the observational method, she made a study of certain human relations of teachers with children.<sup>40</sup>

Certain generalizations may be drawn from these studies which were pioneered by Anderson and Baxter. It is evident that children in the public schools or elsewhere cannot practice one thing and learn another. If America believes in democracy, if schools are recognized as training agencies, if democratic principles are to become operative in children's lives, then it is imperative that teachers look at their ways of handling children. Graham believes that children come to school with many traits and attitudes that are contradictory to the American democratic way of life.<sup>41</sup>

Lewin, Lippitt, and White study of classroom climate. These investigations compared the behavior of children in an autocratic classroom, a laissez-faire classroom, and a friendly democratic classroom situation.<sup>42</sup> In the democratically organized group there was less tension, the children did not become disciplinary problems, and they were more cooperative and willing to share with one another in solving common goals.

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<sup>40</sup>Bernice Baxter, Teacher-Pupil Relationships, (New York: Macmillan and Co., 1941), 166 pp.

<sup>41</sup>Graham, op. cit., pp. 24-27.

<sup>42</sup>Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and R. K. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created Social Climates," Journal Of Social Psychology, 10:271-299, 1939.

In the autocratic group tension was higher, spontaneity and creativeness were lacking, discipline problems were greater, and there was more domination among the children themselves.

Thus, these studies indicate the school has a tremendous effect on children. The teacher's behavior can favorably influence emotional health and development of the child, or a teacher through his own domination can increase anxiety, tension, and hinder the development of his pupils.

#### IV. THE CHALLENGE TO TEACHERS

The work of Ruth Cunningham and associates. Ruth Cunningham and three teachers have indicated some of the things teachers can do in the way of understanding boys and girls.<sup>43</sup> The major portion of this work was done by three teachers, working with a first grade group, a fourth and fifth grade group, and an eighth grade group. These teachers had learned by experience and study that success is more likely if all the people who may be affected have a part in the planning and in the doing. Thus, they induced pupils, parents, teachers, administrators, and consultants with special competence to participate. All of these different groups had a part. During evaluation, participants felt that more was gained from the process than from the results alone. In so doing they helped Earl Kelley refute the assumption, "the answer to the problem is more important than the process." Some of the reactions of experienced teachers who were engaged in the process of investigation were:

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<sup>43</sup>Ruth Cunningham and Associates, Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls, (New York: Columbia University, 1951), pp. 293-315.

"I have learned the fun of exploring and experimenting."

"I have learned that teaching is more interesting when one knows more about the children in the group. Problems become challenges."

"I have learned to what a great extent a group can handle its own affairs if it is given an opportunity."<sup>44</sup>

## V. IMPLICATIONS

There is need for additional evaluation. Participants in the Mid-century White House Conference on Children and Youth, realizing the value of human relations, recommended experimental research in this area. Quoting from the Fact Finding Committee, the needs and difficulties are expressed as:

Many of the moot questions in curriculum construction would long since have been resolved were available methods of evaluation equal to determining outcomes in the total personality. Then it would have been possible to put any given proposal for achieving goals in child development to the test. But the growth process is not easily amenable to statistical measurement, because it is inherently irreducible to discrete units..... In recognition of such difficulties, new methods of appraisal---like anecdotal records and behavior journals, a wide variety of projective techniques, and some sociometric devices---are finding increasing favor.<sup>45</sup>

For some time man has known that he has moved beyond the day when he could stand alone against his environment and be the captain of his ship. The scene has changed and now he continues to live because his neighbors will it so. With this reality the problem of human relations, inter-personal relationships, becomes more serious, more profound.

What are the implications for teachers and schools? In a small way

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<sup>44</sup>Cunningham and Associates, op. cit., p. 313.

<sup>45</sup>The Committee on Fact Finding, "A Digest of the Fact Finding Report to the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth," 1950. pp. 112-113.

this limited survey of studies helps to clarify purpose and give direction in education. Current research indicates that schools will have an important influence in determining the quality of living. "The point in history at which we stand is full of promise and of danger. The world will either move toward unity.....or ....."<sup>46</sup> But most significant to teachers is this further phrase, "We have a chance....."

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<sup>46</sup>Ibid., pp. 394-396.

## CHAPTER III

### CHILD STUDY PROGRAM

There are several child-study programs operating throughout the United States. Although they may vary in certain specific purposes, they do have a common interest, children. The greatest variation is in methods of operating, in procedures for reaching specified goals. This project is concerned with the program of the Institute for Child Study with its center at the University of Maryland, formerly at the University of Chicago. The purpose of the program is to help teachers understand children in order that teachers will be more effective in improving the quality of living.

#### I. GUIDING PRINCIPLES OF THE INSTITUTE FOR CHILD STUDY PROGRAM

Certain human development principles underlie the work of the Institute for Child Study. They serve as guiding principles. Some of them are scientific generalizations while others are value judgments, modifiable with the advent of new evidence. Participants in the program try to do more than verbalize these principles, realizing that to be effective in understanding and working with children one must take the next step and actually use these guiding principles.

Each child is a unique individual. Each child is the product of various factors operating in and on him. The physical and environmental forces are always shaping personal development. These developmental factors are so complex that no two individuals are exactly alike. Thus,

in order to increase in understanding children one must know more about the individual child. Although each child is different, all children go through similar developmental stages. To understand a particular child at a specific stage of development gives a teacher general insight into the needs of all children at that level of growth. For example, to make a thorough study of an adolescent youngster will help in understanding other youngsters at that stage of development.

There are reasons for the things children do, (or behavior is caused and the causes are multiple, complex, and interrelated).<sup>47</sup> To look at the reasons for behavior is not a simple process. Snap conclusions about human behavior without sufficient evidence are not compatible with scientific reasoning. Understanding why is prerequisite to knowing what to do. If behavior is the result of the physical organism interacting with its environment, there are always underlying basic reasons for any specific behavior. This would imply that there are profound causes for the on-the-surface, symptomatic, actions of people.

A child is an indivisible unity. He cannot be taken apart and dealt with in terms of separate processes. All influential factors are inter-related and operate through time; thus, all processes must be taken into consideration when understanding children.

Each person is worthy and valuable. In a democracy this tenet is fundamental. To believe that this is true makes it easier to accept any person for his human possibilities and potentialities, regardless of what

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<sup>47</sup>For additional information see "An Approach to Understanding and Helping People." Unpublished paper by Glenn C. Dildine, 1951.

he is or does.

The scientific method of study is the most effective way to understand children. Recognizing behavior problems, obtaining pertinent data about the problem, forming hypotheses, testing and retesting each hypothesis against evidence are fundamental processes in a scientific approach to understanding. Analytical reasoning, critical thinking, and scientific interpretation are encouraged.<sup>48</sup>

These basic principles are the fundamental beliefs of the child study program referred to throughout this project. They form the guiding principles for the development of the three year organized program of study. It is opportune to describe briefly the in-service education study as it operated in the two areas under investigation during the school sessions, 1947-48, 1948-49, 1949-50.

## II. THE THREE YEAR ORGANIZED CHILD STUDY PROGRAM

Background of the program. Five years of experimentation followed by seven years of work involving thousands of teachers, administrators, and children in various school systems throughout the United States has resulted in an organized three year study program. In their study group meetings, teachers assume individual and group responsibility employing democratic processes. The groups range in size from four or five to fourteen or fifteen participants. Although teachers take part voluntarily and are at liberty to decide procedures, oftentimes it is necessary to

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<sup>48</sup>Daniel A. Prescott, "Communicating Knowledge of Children to Teachers," Child Development, XIX:20-27, March-June, 1948.



provide some direction. Hence, a flexibly organized set of experiences is suggested for each of the three years.

First year of the organized child-study program. Teachers are oriented to the program in various ways: by participating in a summer workshop, by listening to an orientation lecture, and/or by a descriptive account of the program by some person who knows this plan of in-service education.

Although participation in the program is voluntary, all members agree to meet for professional study for two hours, twice each month during the school session. There are usually fifteen meetings; the first one is held about three weeks after school begins and the study continues until approximately one month prior to the close of school.

Every member chooses a child for study. Usually he chooses one that interests him. He is advised not to choose a child with serious problems. Since the teacher is to share what he learns about his case study with other members of the group, each teacher is hopeful that his choice of a child will also be interesting and profitable to the other group members.

Right from the beginning, the teacher begins observing and recording information about the particular child chosen for study. For scope, data are gathered from at least six sources: (1) direct observation of the child; (2) conferences about the child with other adults, as teachers, scout-master, school nurse, guidance counselor, school principal, and Sunday-School teacher; (3) home visits; (4) the environment or life space of the child; (5) analysis of his creative work, writings, paintings, dramatizations, and other media of expression; and (6) school records.

If teachers record data from each of these six sources, they are reasonably certain to get a whole picture of the child. Recorded facts

are shared by each member at the study group meetings. In this way each teacher can gain insight into all the children who are selected for intensive study.

Skill is developed in observing and recording information about children that is significant and trustworthy. The anecdotal description should be non-interpretative, non-evaluative, more objective and less subjective with accurate and inclusive evidence.<sup>49</sup> Increasing one's ability to see and record information that is significant, objective, and specific helps to build skills conducive to realizing one of the basic principles of the Institute for Child Study (the scientific method is the most effective way to understand children, page 37 of this chapter). If the aforementioned criteria of recording information about children are met then the anecdotal record serves as a rather valid basis for understanding human beings. It is obvious that recording through time is necessary in as much as it is easy to misremember.

After some reliable information has been obtained, recurring patterns of behavior are revealed. The oft-repeated threads or patterns of behavior, types of actions, and situations which keep cropping out show a related sequence and reveal a person's inner organization (self). There are no instruments, as X-rays or microscopes, to detect these internal, intangible, human patterns of self organization but insight can be obtained by observing the end-products, the actions of a person.<sup>50</sup> The recurring behavior of a child or adult is much more significant than a single incident.

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<sup>49</sup>Glenn C. Dildine, "An Approach to Understanding and Helping People." Unpublished paper, 1951.

<sup>50</sup>Ibid., pp. 8-10.

These reappearing patterns of behavior will invariably indicate problems the child is working on and his particular ways of meeting them. Multiple, tentative hypotheses are made as to possible reasons for certain patterns of actions. These hypotheses are supported or rejected by the recorded evidence. Although there may be insufficient data in some cases for final decisions, the record can be summarized by stating tentative generalizations based on the following questions: (1) What was the child working on during the period that he was being studied? (2) What was he up against during the period of study?<sup>51</sup>

The first year of the program is concerned with objectivity in observing and recording behavior of a child, utilizing the six sources of data. Effort is also made to become accustomed to using the scientific method in determining possible (not final) reasons for patterns of behavior observed in the child.

Second year of the program. As in the first year, study groups are formed and each teacher selects a different child in whom he and other members are interested; specific information is obtained objectively from the six sources. Again these facts are shared and discussed with the group for approximately the same number of meetings as in the first year.

It soon becomes evident, if it hasn't during the latter part of the first year, that there is need for some way to handle all the information collected so that it will have more meaning. As a result of the experimental work of the original study sponsored by the Commission on Teacher Education, a six-area framework was developed for the purpose of organizing the collected data so that: one may sort, check, and see the scope of

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<sup>51</sup>Daniel A. Prescott, "Child Study Program." Unpublished paper, 1950.

information about a child; one may select and relate observation about children with pertinent scientific information about child growth and development; one may organize information, see relationships, and grow in analytical and critical thinking. All of these factors should result in deepening insights into behavior. There are six major headings used in classifying all significant data:

1. Physical processes -- including health and nutrition, characteristic rate of energy output and normal rhythm of activity and rest, rate of growth and level of physical maturity achieved, coordination of movements and management of body, physical handicaps and blemishes, attractiveness of physique and grooming.

2. Affectional processes -- including the emotional climate in his relationships with mother, father, siblings, other adults, the teacher, best friends, and including the parents' relationships to each other.

3. Peer group processes -- including the child's knowledge of the codes and customs of his maturity-level peers, his own abilities and interests in relation to activities esteemed by his peers, the roles he actually plays in peer-group activities, and the status accorded him by his peers.

4. Socialization processes -- including the particular cultural patterns of knowledge, attitude, and action operating in his family and community and already internalized by him, the relationships between these cultural patterns and those of his peers and his teachers, the cultural aspirations of the child and his family, the cultural conflicts occurring in the child's community, and the impact on the child of events in the community, nation, and the world.

5. Self-developmental processes -- including the child's capacities

and aptitudes, experience background, knowledge and skills, his interests, his attitudes, his values, and his short-term goals and long-term aspirations.

6. Self-adjustment processes -- including what situations and experiences create pleasant and unpleasant emotions in the child, how the child acts when he is emotional, what mechanisms operate as he defends, reassures, or comforts himself, whether his concepts, attitudes, goals and aspirations are consistent with each other and constitute a well-knit organizing core for his personality.<sup>52</sup>

In the development of skill in classifying facts into the six areas, it should be remembered that it is a technique for analyzing data for the purpose of understanding behavior, not an end in itself. Recurring patterns of behavior are detected within each area as evidence accumulates and is classified; tentative multiple hypotheses are made to explain the observations. Near the end of the school session an integrative summary of the information in all the areas is made by answering two questions:

- (1) What developmental task was the child working on this school session?
- (2) What adjustment problems was the child up against?

Third year of the program. Experiences as described in the first and second years of the program are carried on with greater breadth, scope, and understanding throughout the third year. Another child is chosen for intensive study, objective information recorded from the six sources, and the data classified in the six area framework. In addition, the participant gathers sociometric data, using various techniques (such as sociograms) and observes closely the interaction of the child in peer relationships and

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<sup>52</sup>Daniel A. Prescott, op. cit., pp. 20-21.

cliques. About the twelfth, thirteenth, or fourteenth meeting the six areas are interpreted similarly to the way it was done in the second year. In addition the first four areas are related to the last two "Self" areas by asking two questions: (1) How did the processes in the physical, affectional, peer group, and socialization areas affect the child's development as a self? (2) How did processes in these four areas affect the child's adjustment as a self?

The highlights of the three working levels have been described briefly. Because the coming together of participants in regular meetings is important for realization of child study purposes, it seems appropriate to look at some of the dynamics of one of these study groups.

### III. A STUDY GROUP MEETING

What takes place within the group is important for the achievement of professed child-study goals. The original experimental work by the Commission on Teacher Education revealed that study group meetings have certain values for teachers, as cited in Helping Teachers Understand Children.

Certain values that accrue from these group meetings are quite obvious. For example, the pooling of information about a child actually supplies a broader base for judging his motivation and needs and permits initial hypotheses to be checked against additional facts. It also demonstrates individual differences among teachers, for different teachers have noticed different things about the child and show their various sensitivities by the variety of information they are able to supply. This leads the members of the group to value the observations of others and to look to colleagues for significant facts to supplement what they themselves are learning.

An almost parallel set of advantages is found in the group interpretation of the child's behavior and needs. One teacher knows and recalls an explanatory principle that the other teachers do not know or remember. By pooling the facts and generalizations that are known to all members of the group a

more adequate body of scientific knowledge becomes available for the use of every member . . . . . Furthermore, individuals will notice the tendency in themselves to lean heavily upon certain principles to explain behavior or development while others are seen to appeal more often to different generalizations. In this way all members of the group are trained to recognize the fact that a broad framework of scientific principles is necessary to the sound understanding of a child, the first explanation that pops into the mind may not be the correct one, and that there is danger of oversimplifying the interpretation of a child's behavior . . . . .

Another common value accruing from the group meetings was the tendency of the teachers constantly to re-examine their own attitudes toward children as well as their techniques for dealing with them.<sup>53</sup>

Nevertheless, it is difficult to capture the emotional atmosphere or "flavor" of a study group meeting. Employing democratic procedures, with participants eager to share their observations of children, and with teachers interested in deepening understanding, each bi-monthly meeting has a spirit all its own. Assuming that it is difficult to capture these intangible dynamics, which are so vital for the on-going of the study, an attempt will be made to give an objective account of a group meeting. From this it is hoped that the reader will be able to see more clearly what takes place. The following presentation is an observer's record of a group meeting in the first year of the study.<sup>54</sup>

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<sup>53</sup>American Council on Education, Helping Teachers Understand Children, (Washington: American Council on Education, 1945), pp. 133-135.

<sup>54</sup>The study group meeting selected actually took place on January 18, 1949. The area, Louisiana, and the school session, 1948-49, are factors in the investigator's project.

Background information about the group as recorded by the leader

who was a third grade teacher.

Our group is composed of fourteen elementary and high school teachers, including the principal. It is an entire faculty of a rural school. There was consensus that we should like to approach the study of children together and this was a common problem for all of us. We all keep and share individual anecdotal records, experiences, and knowledges about children. Thus, in addition to seeing our own individual case study, we hear a detailed account of needs of thirteen other children.

We selected Tuesday afternoon, after school, as our best meeting time as it did not conflict with our duties in community affairs. We meet on alternate Tuesdays for two hours and we are now in our first year of study. Although I am the third grade teacher, the faculty asked me to be the leader for this session. To prepare myself as leader for the group, I attended a local two week child-study workshop. There I learned more about the program and new concepts of leadership. If we really 'learn what we live' then we hope we are growing in our understanding of group processes and human relationships by trying to live the basic principles of the child-study program.

Observer's account of the seventh meeting.

At three P.M., Tuesday, January 18, 1949, twelve of the fourteen members were seated in a circle (to facilitate discussion). Before the group began, a member said that Mrs. James, seventh grade teacher, would be a few minutes late. Afterwards it was learned that Mrs. James was preparing some refreshments for the group to be served later in the meeting.

The meeting began with Mr. Caney, high school social studies teacher, reviewing the high points of the previous meeting. Since there were two weeks between meetings the recorder's brief review of the previous meeting served to focus attention of the group on common problems. Mr. Caney's review stimulated a brief discussion of the problems and purposes for the group coming together. Again it was agreed that the big purpose was to work together toward a better understanding of the boys and girls in order



to be more effective as teachers. (At this time, the vocational agriculture teacher came in; he had been home with one of the boys concerning a farm project.) Now all members were present.

The leader sensed the group was ready to begin with one of the records so she asked if someone would like a discussion of a particular problem. Mrs. Bossier, the second grade teacher, had a great deal of data about Mary Ann, a little girl in her classroom, whom she had chosen for specific study. All the group members knew Mary Ann, her background, home life, and her school problems since they had been following the objective data that Mrs. Bossier had compiled. They seemed anxious to share in the developments as Mrs. Bossier read from her record:

Excerpts of background information about Mary Ann.

Mary Ann, a girl in the second grade, will be eight years old February 5, 1949. She is 47  $\frac{3}{4}$  inches high and weighs 41 pounds. She is the only girl in a family of three children, and she is the youngest member of the family. Mary Ann was a year old when her oldest brother was accidentally killed while hunting. Her other brother is sixteen years her senior. She had pneumonia and a kidney disturbance when she was in the first grade, missing twenty-five days from school. When Mary Ann was in the first grade, she wrote with her left hand but she did not like to write and never did learn to write very well . . . . . Then during the summer her mother made her use her right hand. When school first began this year, she used her right hand but soon began to switch from one hand to the other. Mary Ann has poor muscular coordination and gets about clumsily. She is not able to open her jar of milk and drink without spilling it. She can spell but often misses words because she makes b's for d's and m's for n's. She is still reading on the first grade level. She has had her eyes examined by two different optometrists -- one said she was near-sighted, the other said she was far-sighted. She wore glasses for a while but seemed to do better without them so she is not wearing glasses now.

Mary Ann's teacher read the following anecdotes at this meeting:

January 10, 1949, Monday, 11 A.M. -- I had put some combinations on the board for the group to copy and instructed them to go ahead and start copying them and I would come around to show them just how each number should come directly under the other

one, etc. As I approached Mary Ann, she was writing with her left hand. I sat down with her to help by writing some of the numbers for her . . . . . When I handed her the pencil for her to continue writing, she picked up the pencil with her right hand and began copying the combinations, using her right hand.

January 12, 1949, Wednesday -- Mary Ann went to the blackboard to write a new spelling word (d u c k). She picked up her crayon with her right hand and started to write. Instead of writing d u c k she wrote b u c k. When I called her attention to what she had done, she put down the crayon, picked up the eraser with her left hand and erased it. Then, with her left hand she wrote d u c k.

January 13, 1949, Thursday -- Mary Ann and another girl were throwing the rope for others to jump. She was throwing with her right hand but it was going in the opposite direction from the way the girl at the other end was throwing. The children, who were trying to jump the rope, complained. Then Mary Ann tried it with her left hand . . . . . She continued to throw it in the opposite direction from the other girl. The jumpers complained again and asked for a replacement for Mary Ann.

January 14, 1949, Friday -- When in the lunch room today, Mary Ann went to her table to eat. She held her fork with her right hand but used her bread, holding it with her left, to push the black-eyed peas upon her fork. She continued to hold her fork with her right hand until she finished her lunch. However, in picking up her cup of hot chocolate she used her left hand but found difficulty using only her left hand to hold the cup so she used her right hand to steady the cup.

Another teacher asked Mary Ann if she would like to bring her a glass of water. She seemed eager. As she brought the water she was gripping the glass with both hands, very unsteadily, and spilled about one-fourth of it.

January 17, 1949, Monday -- (I have tried not to show too much concern about the quality of her writing and act pleased with whatever she does.) She brought a paper to me that she had done; the quality of the writing was poor, as usual, but I said to her, "That's fine Mary Ann". She smiled and skipped away.

At this time Mrs. Bossier, Mary Ann's teacher, asked for suggestions and comments. The group recalled that she had shared her findings with them at other group meetings and from the information there was evidence of recurring behavior regarding Mary Ann's inability to determine hand

preference. There was much interaction in the group concerning the problem. Comments from different members of the group were:

The first grade teacher -- "Do not disturb her . . . . she may be experimenting . . . . or she may be a "switch writer" and it may be that she is changing hands just to see if she can do as well with one hand as she can with the other."

The home economics teacher -- "I wonder if it might not help Mary Ann to let her find accomplishment through the performance of simple tasks not pertaining to scholastic achievements."

Mary Ann's teacher -- "What do you mean, Mrs. Colson? Do you have any suggestions or specific examples that I might try?"

Mrs. Colson -- "I was thinking about anything that she does well, besides writing or reading . . . . . We know she is inadequate with those skills. How about taking up the lunch money? Is that a job that she could do better? She seems to be such a fearful and unsure little thing and everyone needs to be able to do something well. I have noticed her at church with her mother and she does not appear sure of herself even when her mother is present."

The fifth grade teacher -- "You mentioned the mother, I wonder if we could find out more about the expectations of the mother? You recall that her next older brother is sixteen years older than Mary Ann, which makes me ask if this child were really planned for and wanted . . . . . In another part of the record that you read to us before Christmas, we had evidence of over-protection on the part of the mother. Is this true mother love? Furthermore, does the mother still demand that Mary Ann write with her right hand?"

The commerce teacher -- "In that connection, I would like to look at the role of the father in the life of Mary Ann. We know he is a passive, easy-going type of person and we might even say he is "hen-pecked". Could these inconsistencies in the home be a part of the cause for Mary Ann's inconsistent pattern of writing?"

At this point there was general discussion on the part of the group as to home conditions. There was a tendency at one point for the members to talk about conditions that were irrelevant to a better understanding of Mary Ann and her needs, at which time the leader, Mrs. Hamilton, tactfully guided us back to our professional purpose. The group continued:

The principal -- "We should look at Mary Ann's behavior in as many different situations as possible. We do know that she is uncertain when she writes; it may be that she is ambidextrous. However, if we find that she prefers to use her left hand, we should provide a desk that is more comfortable. Have you noticed that in using her left hand (looking at Mrs. Bossier) what an awkward position she assumes, i.e. especially when writing? That is also true of other left-handed children in school, so we should look into the matter of desks for them."

The coach -- "You know it is important to have the proper desk for a left-handed child. In reality this is a right-handed world. Everything is made for use by the right hand. I find that true of baseball mitts and gloves; however, we are able to get suitable ones for our left-handed baseball players."

The primary teacher, again -- "I have been concerned about my responsibility with reference to handedness. Should I force primary children to change? Since we have been looking at this problem, I have been reading on the subject and some child psychologists question the advisability of forcing a child to change from left hand to right hand if it has been proven that the child naturally prefers to use his left hand."

The fourth grade teacher -- "Is it not true that children have not had enough manual experiences to determine hand preference?"

The agriculture teacher -- "There is a test, I think it is called "The Keyhole Test"; it can be used to determine hand preference."

He was asked to explain more about this device or test. He asked to be given time to check on it more thoroughly and that he would report to Mrs. Bossier as soon as he could; also that he would report to the group at the next meeting.

The coach -- "You could observe the way she holds a ball and also watch her in many natural situations to see what hand she prefers."

Mrs. Bossier, Mary Ann's teacher -- "You will recall that I have done much of that and she is, so far as I have been able to see her on the playground, in the lunch room, at church, and at home, inconsistent but I will continue to watch."

The leader -- "As we have been looking at Mary Ann it is pointed up that this inconsistency is a symptom and we need to look for deeper underlying causes for this symptomatic behavior."

To look at the symptoms is a way of getting at the causes but for us to be helpful we must detect causes, try to correct them, and the symptoms will disappear."

The English teacher and librarian -- "I feel that we need more scientific information about the problem. There are several sources of reading matter pertaining to the subject of infancy and early childhood and handedness with that stage of development."

The home economics teacher -- "You know I have been taking my own little girl to a pediatrician and when I take her Saturday, I'll ask him if he can suggest causes for the inconsistency in use of hands and maybe he will give some recommendations." (There was a pause.)

The leader -- "Do we have any other suggestions?"  
(Continued pause.)

Mrs. Bossier, second grade teacher -- "I feel the group has been helpful and with the suggestions it seems that we will come out with a solution . . . . or it could be there is no solution, but there is consolation in knowing that. I do know that I need to know more about Mary Ann and the thirty-one other children in my room if I am to be an effective teacher."

At this time two of Mrs. James's seventh grade girls brought in the cake that she had made the night before. Home economics girls assumed responsibility for the coffee.

General description of the remainder of the meeting by the observer.

As the group ate cake and sipped coffee, the leader moved them on to another record which concerned a fifteen year old boy in the tenth grade, who would soon be sixteen and eligible to leave school. Mr. Caney, the high school social studies teacher, had selected Ted for a more careful study hoping that through the study of this boy we might find reasons for many of the students dropping out when they reach the end of compulsory school age, sixteen.

Background information was briefly reviewed by Mr. Caney in order to bring the group up to date on the particular student. He also read

anecdotes that he had not shared with the group. From the record, it was noted that Ted missed school each Monday; he had written excuses giving varied reasons for his absences; yet, evidence indicated that Ted never gave the real reason for his absence because he spent most of his out-of-school time, including Mondays, on the bayou, hunting and fishing. There were many hypotheses for this behavior. Although there was information offered by different members and discussion by the group, no conclusions were reached. The group moved on to a second and probably more significant aspect of Ted's case.

The objective anecdotes also revealed that Ted was definitely planning to leave school the day he became sixteen, which was three months later, April 15th. This stimulated a look at the role of teachers and the purpose of the school. The discussion centered around Ted's stage of physical and social development, his life expectancies, and the purpose of school as seen through Ted's eyes. Information that had been gained from reading scientific writings on this stage of development, adolescence, was shared by several members. There was discussion as they saw implications for Ted and other teen-age youngsters.

No conclusions were reached at this meeting. The group adjourned after giving a pledge recalling the professional nature of the meeting, promising that happenings and proceedings of the meeting were to be kept within the group for obvious reasons.

Leader's comments to the observer after the meeting.<sup>55</sup> While the leader and the observer were having a second cup of coffee some pertinent

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<sup>55</sup>At the seventh meeting referred to herein, the observer was visiting the group for the second time. He had met with them at their first meeting.

information and reactions about the group emerged. The leader stated:

"I believe groupness is growing in the group although there are varied interests projected by the elementary and high school teachers. Could you detect the respect for one another, the feeling of belonging and oneness that is evident now but lacking in our first meetings?"

(The observer urged the leader to continue the private, informal conversation.) She continued:

"Maybe this oneness and respect for each other grows from the concerns about common problems. When professional problems become challenging, there is no time for petty differences. This does not mean that we always agree but there is harmony in the differences . . . . Yet, you know it is easy for us to move out on irrelevant tangents, just as we did today when talking about certain phases of Mary Ann's background. That is always a pitfall. We need to sharpen our ability to detect the significant and pertinent from the irrelevant. But don't you think we are seeing behavior more objectively, and certainly we are avoiding hasty conclusions without enough facts to support it, aren't we?"

The observer assured her with reference to the question and also said, "It was evident that participants were seeing rather clearly certain recurring patterns of behavior. I thought they were seeing the problems the child was working on through these recurring behavior patterns. For example, one teacher pointed out Mary Ann's difficulty and the possible underlying causes were cited by several members. With Ted, the principal noted that this fifteen year old boy was absent each Monday and there were multiple hypotheses as to reasons for his absence. This indicated, to me, breadth of thinking, and when participants explore the many possible reasons for behavior, one may be fairly certain that critical thinking is taking place . . . . But what did you think of the discussion of Mary Ann's left and right handedness?"

The leader pondered the question and evaded a direct answer by saying, "I think that the suggestions pertaining to Ted were probably more important. Maybe it is because I feel that when the group gets around to seeing, though not completely as yet, the curriculum as being fitted to the needs of Ted and others like him instead of the reverse, then I am able to see something more worthwhile . . . . It could be that I just want the group to see that phase . . . . (pausing pensively) It seems that I have evaded your question about Mary Ann. (pause) Anyway, one might question whether we shall ever solve the problem of handedness because there may not be enough scientific evidence present to solve it. On second thought, couldn't this

be an example of where the process is more important than the solution?"

The short informal conference ended as the leader and observer agreed that it would be interesting and helpful to follow the development of the two cases as well as the twelve other children being studied intensively.

It was evident that the group was understanding more about children; that they were developing skill in recognizing problems of children; that they were learning the basic principles of child-study; and that they were moving into the operational stage of doing more with the children so that the quality of living would be improved.

The study group meeting described herein was not identical with other meetings; neither was it characteristic of other groups; and neither was it a superb or a mediocre group meeting. Each group develops characteristics that are unique. However, they are alike in that all groups have a common purpose and they work to achieve similar, positive outcomes.

#### IV. POSSIBLE OUTCOMES OF THE CHILD STUDY PROGRAM

With many teachers the completion of the organized three year study does not mean the end of studying children. It may mean the real beginning; new avenues and possibilities emerge. More likely than not, the study serves as a basis for more intensive work on curriculum problems and groups may continue for a fourth, fifth, or indefinite number of years. These usually take the form of special interest groups and they work on such problems as: reporting to parents, pupils learning to assume responsibility, children with reading difficulties, pupil-teacher planning, community resources, fitting the curriculum to the child, and/or how children learn.



Some of the immediate outcomes of the Institute for Child Study program were indicated by the research of Madelaine Mershon and Hugh Perkins, staff members of the Institute.<sup>56</sup> Some less valid but subjective, significant, evaluative statements of teachers have been recorded:<sup>57</sup>

High school social science teacher -- "When I began teaching three years ago, it seemed as though the child's needs were not in the foreground. My study with this group has made me more aware of my responsibilities to children. It has been the means of my growth as a teacher. I realize more fully than ever that every child is entitled to a chance. I have a responsibility for planning with children so that every child has the opportunity to develop to his fullest. Furthermore, I have become aware of the fact that I must continue to grow as a person and as a teacher in order to meet the child's changing needs."

Second grade teacher -- "We have ceased to think that the quiet child in the classroom who does not give us any trouble is the one that is making the best adjustment to living and will necessarily be a happy adult. Each child is an individual and to work effectively with that child we must first accept him. Of course, we have an obligation to accept ourselves before we can accept others, even children.

We also know that a child may be adequate without being secure. If he comes to us with that feeling of insecurity, as some do, then we, as teachers, have the privilege to help that child find the security that is so necessary for his full development."

Principal of a combined elementary and high school -- "My interpretation of what learning is and how learning takes place has changed because of my experiences in this in-service child study program. I think now that we have learned those things that have become a part of our living, through use, and that everything in the environment influences this learning or "self" and that it is one's behavior that reflects what life has been like to him, and also, what he really is, rather than what he can speak of so freely. That is why I hesitate to say what this study has meant to me because I believe I understand that what I do speaks louder than what I say. I am aware that often we think we are at a particular place in our growth when in reality it is something we talk about and until we have

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<sup>56</sup>For more detailed account of the research, see Chapter I.

<sup>57</sup>Selected from approximately two hundred evaluative statements by teachers from Louisiana-Texas area.

used the scientific knowledge in our work with children,  
it isn't ours."

There are many similar statements of teachers that could be given. An analysis of the statements that have been made by participants concerning the program coupled with the observations of consultants, coordinators, and leaders of the in-service program reveals that teachers who had completed a three year direct study of children recognize:

- (1) that there are reasons for the things children and adults do, and there is need for determining underlying causes;
- (2) that in order to help a child, one must be concerned with the whole child and not separate facets; the child is an indivisible unity;
- (3) that emotional acceptance of a child is prerequisite to understanding him and that realizing the worth of each person is conducive to acceptance;
- (4) that people are so different, each child is unique, and that the understanding of individuals is preparatory to understanding groups;
- and (5) that the avoidance of generalizations without sufficient evidence is concomitant with analytical, critical, and scientific thinking.

Recognition of the basic principles of child-study by teachers is usually prerequisite to applying the principles in school situations. However, knowledge or recognition of principles does not necessarily mean that they become operational. There is need for scientific evaluation of changes in teachers that can be attributed to the efforts of the Child Study Program of the Institute. An attempt will be made in the remainder of this project to present an objective account of how teachers change in certain curriculum practices as a result of participation in the program.

## CHAPTER IV

### SOURCE OF DATA AND THE FRAMEWORK FOR ORGANIZING DATA

For research, a researcher must have trustworthy data available. The source and validity of data are basic factors in determining whether the study is worthwhile and if the conclusions are valid. Also, the method of organizing or classifying the information is as important as the source.

At this time the investigator is concerned with the source and reliability of his information, the pilot study, and explanations of the organizational framework. These procedures for handling the data are preparatory to the next chapter on classifying and analyzing them.

#### I. SOURCE AND VALIDITY OF DATA

The source of data for the project was anecdotal records on file at the Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland. As a part of the field program experience each teacher keeps an anecdotal record. Most of these records are sent to the Institute at the end of each school session. Between seven and nine thousand records are now on file at the University of Maryland.<sup>58</sup> The investigator selected records at random (see Chapter V) from the Louisiana-Texas area and from the Prince Georges-Montgomery Counties, Maryland area. Elementary and high school records were used representing three school sessions, 1947-48, 1948-49,

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<sup>58</sup>Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland, "A Report to the Grant Foundation." Unpublished report, November, 1950. p. 13.

1949-50.

One of the basic assumptions of this investigation is that these anecdotal records provide a valid source of information for this project. Reasons for the assumption are: (1) Teachers are concerned in their anecdotal writing with recording the behavior of the child; unknowingly they reveal certain curriculum practices. In this way the record serves as a projective technique with the teacher unconsciously projecting his own role and classroom organization into the written record. (2) Objectivity in records is emphasized throughout the three year study. Distinguishing fact from opinion and avoidance of the subjective element are stressed. Thus, if objectivity is a criterion of the recording, the records would tend to be valid. (3) Anecdotal records were accepted as a basis for research in Madelaine Mershon's dissertation. One thesis recently completed by Charles Caldwell and another in progress by Fred Thompson are using teachers' anecdotal records as the source of data. (4) The Committee on Fact Finding for the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth stated that anecdotal records are being approved as a basis for appraisal of certain interpersonal and curriculum practices related to child development.<sup>59</sup> (5) Anecdotal records on file at the Institute contained the data with which this project was concerned. There was an average of 25.9 evidences per record specifically related to the problems under investigation. (6) There was a high percentage of agreement of judges with the investigator in classifying the data. There was also a high correlation among the three judges. (For further information on judges' classification of data, see Chapter V.) Although these

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<sup>59</sup>The Committee on Fact Finding, "A Digest of the Fact Finding Report to the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth," 1950. pp. 112-113.

six points do not in the true sense of the term scientifically validate the anecdotal records, they do give the bases for the investigator's assumption.

## II. PILOT STUDY

The purpose of the pilot study was twofold: to see if the records contained the type of information needed for the project, and to develop a framework for handling the data based on the investigator's self-recognized value judgments. The first ten records analyzed indicated that the variety and scope of desired data which were necessary for proceeding with the project were available in teachers' anecdotal records. Subsequently, a total of thirty records was used in evolving a framework comprehensive enough to classify pertinent data from each record.

Value judgments played an important part in developing the organizational framework. This is because an individual acts in terms of values that are important to him. Yet some values have been adhered to by certain civilizations for so long that they are referred to as rather permanent "articles of faith", such as, the worth of the individual human being. To be specific, this was one of the guiding principles that was kept in mind when developing ways of handling children and types of classroom organization.

Accepting the fact that value judgments have influenced the development of the framework and likewise that they will be reflected in the subsequent classifications of data, it is noteworthy that these are based on a philosophy of education shared by many specialists in the field. (Refer to Chapter II, studies related to the project.) If one should push basic philosophical principles or even scientific concepts back to

the beginning, the initial concept would be based on value judgment.

A philosophy of education becomes what it is to an individual because of values he has integrated into his dynamic self. Thus, he follows characteristic patterns of behavior which emerge from his philosophy of living. However, the philosophy is subject to change because one's values are ever-changing as a result of new experiences and more scientific evidences . . . . When the idea is applied to the present study, it is apparent that the investigator now uses certain values or guiding principles---"articles of faith"---and that he will continue to use these unless they become modified by future experiences and scientific evidence. Careful analysis of the organizational framework and the subsequent classifications used in this study will reveal that they have been developed from basic commitments or guiding principles of the Institute for Child Study presented in Chapter III.

The pilot study also revealed that it was less cumbersome and more fruitful first to process the record for ways a teacher handles a child and the child's responses, and then to re-process the record for evidences of classroom organization.

### III. THE WAYS TEACHERS HANDLE CHILDREN AND THE CHILDREN'S RESPONSES

The pilot study showed that teachers in the child study program were involved in varied pupil-teacher relationships. The framework developed for this study involved several aspects of interpersonal relations: the more positive ways of handling children, the more negative ways of handling children, and the children's responses to the ways teachers discipline or handle them. The teacher's behavior toward a child, for the purposes of this study, was classified as more positive if the developmental needs of

the child were enhanced by the specific teacher's behavior toward that child. On the contrary the teacher's behavior was classified as more negative if the developmental needs of the child were threatened or thwarted by the teacher's behavior. If there were insufficient evidence to determine the classification or if the evidence were undeterminable, it was not used in this study.

Involved in the interpersonal relationships of the teacher and child was the child's response to the way the teacher handled him. The child's response could be positive (+) or it could be negative (-). Sometimes there was no response, no response recorded, or from the recorded evidence it was not possible for the investigator to determine whether the child's adjustment to the teacher's behavior was positive or negative, in which case it was marked (0).

It should be remembered that anecdotal records are written by teachers who are primarily interested in recording the behavior of a child. Therefore some of the examples may not fully cover certain aspects of the curriculum and the reader may wish that an illustration was more comprehensive. It should also be noted that the illustrative anecdotes are presented herein as the teachers hurriedly wrote them. In spite of these drawbacks, it was possible to identify and classify relevant data from the anecdotal records available. Clarification of the method of classifying the data will be made in the following paragraphs.

#### More Positive Ways of Handling a Child and the Child's Response

Howard H. Anderson, Brewer, and Reed<sup>60</sup> found in their research

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<sup>60</sup> Additional data pertaining to the studies and examples are reviewed in Chapter II, pp. 28-31, of this project.

pertaining to domination and socially integrative behavior applied to teacher-pupil relationships in classrooms, that the best definitions were examples; the investigator in this project reached the same conclusion. The examples given herein were taken from records used in this research and they are given for the purpose of helping the reader see how the investigator classified certain data. It is hoped that by examples and some explanation the reader will understand the organizational framework.

Group I - praise, recognition, concern

Praise -- The following anecdote shows a teacher using praise in handling a teen-age girl:

All the year Mary, a junior high school girl of fifteen, had been concerned about establishing herself favorably with the opposite sex. Everything was not in her favor, she needed to know more about how to dress, fix her hair, and use make-up as her complexion had been affected by the particular stage of growth she was in. However, this spring morning Mary came strutting into my class with a new dress on and a new "hair-do" so I said (where all the boys could hear), "Why, Mary! You look beautiful this morning. I like the new way you are wearing your hair and that dress is prettier because you are in it."

She beamed a broad smile, showing her pretty, white, even teeth and said, "Thank you, Miss Thompson," as she walked "stately as a queen" by the boy she has been trying to impress.

The investigator classified this anecdote under "more positive ways of handling children" within the category of "praise". Mary's response to the teacher's praise was marked positive (+), because of her smile and expression of appreciation as she "walked stately as a queen".

Praise does not always result in a positive response from the child. Here is an example of negative response from the teacher's praise on the part of an eleven year old, fifth grade boy:



Praise, with negative child response

Ronald was on the schoolground with Tom, Jerry, and Alfred. He was watching the other three boys as they engaged in a rough give-and-take battle of wrestling. They were all over the ground and at times I felt that I should caution them about being so rough, but I didn't. Ronald did not get into the fracas but he was looking at every move. Later the bell rang and the four boys came in. What a sight! --- and what a contrast! --- There was Ronald, clean as a pin contrasted to Tom, Jerry, and Alfred, smeared with dirt and sweat. Since cleanliness was one of our standards for the week, I said, "Gee, Ronald, I'm certainly glad you are holding up the standard of cleanliness for the group. You are to be complimented and maybe you will set an example for Tom and his gang. We are all proud of you, Ronald."

He just said, "Aw heck," and frowned as he walked back to his seat. I just can't understand Ronald's behavior. I don't know what has come over him, he is changing so.

The investigator classified this teacher's behavior toward Ronald as praise. Due to Ronald's frown and adverse statement his response was classified as negative, with the symbol (-).

Recognition and concern, as used by teachers in interpersonal relationships with children, are related to praise since the three (praise, recognition, and concern) have some common dynamics. Therefore, they were grouped together. In classifying the teacher's behavior with a child, recognition was used when the child was attempting to get attention or wished to be recognized in any way and the teacher recognized the child. Recognition was an "on-the-surface" type of handling and many times rather superficial. For example, if the teacher casually remarks to one of his girls, "You have on a new dress," without elaborating further, the anecdote was classified as merely recognition, not praise. However, if the teacher showed deep concern and there was more emotion involved, the data were classified under "concern" as in the following anecdote:

For the past two days I had noticed Edward was not feeling up to par. This was especially evident during physical education period when the varsity team was working out. Edward is a skilled forward on the high school team and is one of the key players, the high-point scorer for our team, in all the competitive matches. During practice period today, about ten minutes prior to the close of the period, Edward had to go to the lounge with nausea. I went to the lounge later to see how he was feeling. He was pale and nauseated. I called the school nurse and she gave him something to alleviate the discomfort. Edward was unable to play the game that night against our rival, Denham High. The next day he was absent. Since there had been a polio scare in the community earlier in the year, I was unusually concerned about his condition. After school, on the day he was absent, I drove by to see him. Since I was already acquainted with his family I felt free to do this. I was pleased to find him much better and that he would be able to be back in school the next day. I asked him and his mother if he had been eating properly.

Edward's mother answered, "You know, Mr. H., I think Ed is just kinda run down from playing ball, studying, and now he has him a girl --- he will be back in shape and in school by tomorrow."

Edward seemed happy that I had dropped by and as I left he said laughingly, "This is one way to get your teacher to come see you - just get sick on him." We all laughed.

The investigator saw evidence of real concern on the part of the teacher for the youngster. The anecdote was classified as "a more positive way of handling a child" involving "concern". The reaction of Edward was positive based on his laughing and cordial statement to his teacher. Therefore, the response to the teacher's concern was indicated as (+), denoting positive.

Group II - opportunity to participate, supportive, comforting,  
helpful, encouraging

Opportunity to participate -- If a teacher is instrumental in providing an opportunity for a child to do something so that he will

enhance his own concept of self, then the teacher's actions are classified as "more positive way of handling" by providing an opportunity for a child to participate. The following is an example of a teacher providing such an opportunity for a lower class girl, who has been forced to be in school by the compulsory attendance law, to participate in a situation which may be conducive to the wholesome development of the girl:

Velma seems to be unable to adjust to school. She is not accomplishing much in her academic subjects, failing four of the five subjects. Today I tried something new. Some of the ninth grade girls had chosen cleaning and beautifying the school grounds as part of their free activity program. This group met for that purpose for one hour on Friday afternoon. On a home visit, I had detected that Velma did a superb job of cleaning the home yard of leaves and rubbish by using a home made broom. As the girls left the room for their activity, I suggested, "I'll bet Velma can help this group a great deal if you will encourage her." The girls were interested and encouraged her.

Velma took some branches from witch-hazel bushes, tied them together in such a way as to make a "brush-broom". Then she was unusually skillful using the witch-hazel broom for cleaning the school grounds. The other girls looked on in amazement.

When Velma completed, they asked if she might join their free activity group. Velma's response was, "I'd like it; in fact, I'd enjoy helping make the school grounds pretty, instead of reading something in the library that I'm not interested in." The group unanimously accepted Velma and immediately they all started planning additional ways of beautifying the grounds.

In this anecdote the teacher provided an opportunity for a girl to participate which might help her feeling of belonging, a fundamental emotional need.<sup>61</sup> The investigator classified the teacher's actions as

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<sup>61</sup>Louis F. Rath, An Application to Education of the Needs Theory, (Bronxville: New York, Louis Rath Company, 1949), pp. 6-8.

"more positive way of handling a child", with a sub-classification under the specific heading, "opportunity to participate". From the evidence, the girl's response was marked positive (+).

Supportive -- Closely associated with providing an opportunity to participate is the supportive role a teacher can play in his interpersonal relationships with a child. The following episode involving fifth grade boys indicates the way a teacher can be supportive:

I had to leave the room for a few moments during study period. When I returned, Fred was standing in a pugilistic pose, head down, fists up. He was crying, so he did not see me as I entered. The others scurried to their seats.

"Now, what's the trouble?" I asked.

"Fred's got on a girl shirt," said Jackie and Tom simultaneously. When they said this, Fred started to cry even harder.

"My goodness, Fred, your shirt is clean," I said, "and it does cover your nakedness." (Jackie's bread-basket is always shining out.) "And besides that, it's your shirt, and that means it can't be a girl's shirt because you are a little boy."

By this time Fred had quit crying and was brightening considerably.

The teacher was supporting Fred in a threatening situation and his response was positive.

Comforting and Helpful -- Mary Jane is ten years old and an average fourth grade girl. Like many of the other girls at her stage of development, she is concerned with learning how she should conduct herself as a little girl. The following brief excerpt from the teacher's anecdotal record illustrates how a teacher handled an incident:

May, 1950. It was a beautiful spring day, ideal for the picnic that we had planned. The children had selected a green meadow near a small stream for the outing. We arrived at twelve o'clock and had lunch; afterwards a series of games were started by the children. Some of the group tired of the organized games, began to probe the banks of the little stream for insects, flowers, etc. Mary Jane was in this group. Everything moved along without a mishap for fifteen or twenty minutes when Arnold, for some unknown reason to me, pushed Mary Jane into the mud and partly in the water. Her plaid gingham dress was half-wet and her shoes and legs were covered with mud as she ran to me crying, "Look what a mess I'm in. My dress is wet and my shoes are ruined. Just look at this sticky mud. Arnold pushed me."

I took her shoes off and said, "Let me clean your shoes for you, Mary Jane, and with this pan of water we can wash your legs. Your dress will soon dry in this hot sun."

By this time she had stopped crying. Her shoes were clean and her legs were freshly washed. "Now doesn't that feel refreshing? You have just had a mud-pack on your legs instead of on your face as they get at the beauty parlors."

"But my dress is not dry yet and what about that pesky Arnold?" she asked rather anxiously.

"We will see about Arnold later. Since we are here, let's enjoy the picnic and while we are enjoying ourselves the dress will dry on its own accord. Come, Mary Jane, let's pick a bouquet of wild flowers."

Mary Jane soon joined into the spirit of the picnic.

The way Mary Jane's teacher handled her in this frustrating situation was by comforting and helping to relieve an unpleasant event. Comforting serves to enhance the child's concept of a worthwhile self by soothing threatening situations. In the act of comforting, helpfulness is involved.

Encouraging and Helpful -- Closely associated with comforting is the way a teacher can help children by encouraging them. Helpfulness is involved again.

Jackie came in late this morning. He said he had to help his mother was his excuse. He also said that he had not studied his spelling which was a part of home assignment. (Knowing the deplorable home conditions I could understand and accept the fact that he had not.) Since he had not studied his spelling he asked if he might study while the others were writing their spelling; otherwise he knew he would miss at least half of them.

I encouraged him to work on his spelling for a few minutes and I helped him with the definitions. He seemed to have more assurance and took the words along with the other members of the class. He missed only six out of thirty-six words which is good for Jackie.

The investigator classified the teacher's actions as encouraging and helpful, the child's response as positive because he did better than usual in his spelling.

### Group III - indirect, permissive, agreeing

Indirect -- Sometimes a teacher will not approach a child directly, but by handling the situation indirectly he may be able to be as effective without the personal threat.

The fifth grade boys and girls were dancing a Norwegian folk dance at physical education period. From the beginning Ralph was disrupting the rhythmic movement of the dance by giving his partner an additional twirl, which in turn would throw the group out of step with the phrasing of the music. I was rather certain that he knew the routine as we had danced it many times before.

Finally I stopped the phonograph and stated without mentioning Ralph's name or looking at him specifically, "There are some of us who are disrupting the dance by not following the music or routine of the dance. If anyone has forgotten the dance we will be glad to help you."

Ralph or no one asked for help. I started the phonograph again and Ralph danced perfectly along with the others.

The investigator classified this anecdote as an indirect method of handling a child and Ralph's response as positive because he danced perfectly.

Permissive -- Wholesome teacher-pupil relationships often accrue as a result of the teacher's realization that a student has good reasons for acting as he does and therefore permitting him to do what he (the student) thinks is important, but not to the degree that bedlam results. Here is an example of a ninth grade boy and the way the teacher handled him:

Tom came to music class the third period and sat very quietly. (He usually comes in talking and laughing.) He did not participate in any class work for about ten minutes. I asked, "Tom, what is wrong with you?"

Lowell spoke up and said, "He didn't make the basketball team."

Tom immediately came back with, "Well, smarty, you don't have to tell everybody." He then turned to me and said, "Mrs. Howard, please don't make me sing today, I'm not in the mood, and I just want to sit today."

I said, "All right, Tom," as kindly as I could, thinking that basketball might mean more than I would ever know and besides we should not expect every person to want to sing every day.

Tom sat, staring into space, biting his fingernails.

The anecdote was classified as permissive based on what the teacher allowed Tom to do. The investigator was unable to determine whether Tom's response was positive or negative from the recorded information so it was marked (0), the symbol denoting "unable to determine" or "no response".

Agreeing -- Closely allied to permissiveness is agreeing. Usually it is a situation where the teacher merely agrees with a child on something that is important to him.

Group IV - sharing, rapport

Sharing -- One way of facilitating better pupil-teacher relationships is by sharing with a pupil. It may be in the form of a ride home from school, a loan of money for school lunch, a gift, or even food as in the following example:

For some time I have known that Jackie's home conditions did not make for a proper diet. Today at noon I was looking for him as I had two extra sandwiches. I found him sitting in the first grade room in a small green chair reading to the first grade children, who had not gone outside because it was raining. (Jackie is a fifth grade boy.) They were listening intently. Jackie did not see me. When he finished, I told him that I had something for him in my room.

Soon after he came to our classroom he accepted the sandwiches and began eating them.

"Y'know what I been doin'?" he asked with his mouth full of sandwich.

"What?"

"I been a-readin' a second grade book to them little first graders. And you know they liked it almost as well as I like this sandwich."

The response to the teacher's sharing was positive based on Jackie's acceptance of the sandwiches, eating, and his statement about it.

Rapport -- One can readily see the increased degree of rapport between pupil and teacher as a result of sharing in the above anecdote. However, rapport may be established in other ways. One way is by an interest in the child as exemplified by the teacher for the same boy, Jackie:



At the close of the school day Jackie said, "I'll be glad to git home. I'm tired of stayin' at Grandma's."

"How long have you been there, Jackie?" I asked.

"Since day before yestiddy. Papa, he's gone to Bay City to look for a job and he took George with him."

"Oh, I see. You'll be glad to see your father and George."

"Yes'm, I sure will."

Group V - reasoning, guidance, reflective thinking, ignoring, avoidance of threat

Reasoning--If a teacher explains circumstances to a child and the explanations are appropriate to his developmental level, it was classified as reasoning.

In the baseball game, Jackie sprained his right forefinger and the palms of his hands had several skinned places on them. During geography class he got up, went to the table at the rear of the room, took gauze from the medical supplies, dropped the roll and the bandage unrolled itself all over the place. I tried to explain to him that the bandage was no longer sterile and that it was better to keep his hands clean and not bind them with the soiled bandage from the floor. He went to his seat without replying.

The teacher's behavior was classified as reasoning. There was insufficient evidence about Jackie's response to the teacher's way of handling so his response was marked (0), indicating insufficient evidence for a decision.

Guidance -- Reflective thinking and reasoning are involved when a teacher uses guidance in handling children. The teacher who handles a youngster in this way is usually concerned with his wholesome development.

James was very anxious to read orally the goat story in our reader, and since he had seemed to get something

from it when he was reading it silently, I let him try. He stammered over three paragraphs; the class started shuffling their feet and whispering.

At the first opportunity for me to intercede, I asked James if he would like to read some with me at free reading period later in the day because we might like to share by allowing someone else to read now. He did and we worked some more on the goat story. He also read the story aloud at home. The next day, he did a superb job of reading the goat story and the class was attentive and pleased. So was James.

This example shows a teacher guiding a child in academic accomplishment which results in Jackie achieving a pleasant effect from his peers. The child's response was also positive based on the evidence that he was pleased. The principle of guidance used by teachers in their relationships with children also applies in many situations outside the classroom.

Avoidance of Threat and Ignoring -- When a teacher avoids a "could-be-threatening" incident from the child's point of view, he is also ignoring the incident to some degree. However, a teacher may ignore, i.e. pretend not to see what is happening and it would not necessarily be threatening. Ignoring, pretending not to see, does not involve the emotional stimulus that is present in avoidance of threat. Ignoring is more superficial, not as meaningful to the child as in the following incident when the teacher protects the child from threat:

Just before the bell rang Bob said, "Hey, Mrs. A., somebody's took my money."

I said, "Bobby, look in all your pockets and in your desk. You know we don't take things in this class."

Bob looked all around, and several boys helped him. The money was gone. Bob continued, "Mrs. A., you saw me put it in my glasses case."

"Bob, somebody's playing a joke on you. Nobody in the fifth grade steals. Now whoever is teasing Bob give him his money as it is time for the bell," I stated

reassuringly.

Jackie reached into his pocket and drew out the money. "Here it is, Bob, I was just teasin' you."

Since Jackie was an unkempt lower class boy and information about Jackie from the record would lead the class and Bob to suspect Jackie, the teacher protected him from a "could-be-threatening" situation for Jackie. Jackie's response was classified as positive (+), as he did bring forth the money.

If the teacher in the incident above had passed on it lightly by saying, "Oh, Bob, let's not bother about your money now," (feeling that it would be replaced later) that would be ignoring. A more common occurrence is: a child tries to attract the attention of his peers with some antic; the teacher realizes this and merely pretends not to see or to ignore instead of making an issue of it.

Reflective thinking -- The investigator has used reflective thinking synonymously with critical and analytical thinking. There is a degree of reflective thinking in reasoning, guidance, ignoring, and avoidance of threat as it involves reflecting on the issue prior to action. However, some anecdotes indicate reflective thinking more specifically as in the following example:

(Continuing the previous anecdote concerning Jackie taking Bob's money, it was found that Jackie did not return but 65 cents of Bob's 75 cents although Jackie said that he had returned all that he took and that he did not have the additional 10 cents.)

I told Jackie to stay in a minute after school. When the time came, I weighed the problem and I was puzzled as to the procedure to take or just what to do. (Pause)  
We discussed catfish instead, as Jackie is fond of catfish and had brought several to school.

Sometimes it is best not to do anything than to do something wrong in disciplining a child. In this example, there was evidence of reflective thinking because after the teacher analyzed the situation her decision in view of the evidence was to do nothing about the real issue but to discuss something else instead, like catfish. From the anecdote, there was no evidence of Jackie's response; therefore, it was indicated with the symbol (O).

Group VI - child-recognized ethics and empathy

Ethics -- Interpersonal teacher-pupil relationships operate on personal attitudes toward values, standards, and morals. A person believes what he values. The self is permeated with attitudes and values which predetermine how a person will feel and react to a situation, or specifically how a teacher will react toward a child. The investigator is concerned here with standards and values that are pertinent to the child; they are termed ethics. Under more positive ways of handling children, the concern is with ethics that the child can recognize as purposeful. The child's ethics are determined by the developmental stage he is in and what he is working on.

Most teachers feel that cleanliness is a standard or value that should be adhered to. However, the great majority of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade boys of these teachers do not recognize this adult standard. Conversely, taking one's turn at the water fountain or being served in logical order in the cafeteria line or paying back borrowed money is a standard or an ethical value that fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children and high school students can recognize. An example of child recognized ethics is:

Sam, one of my fourth grade boys, did not have access to the proper diet at home per evidence gathered from my home visit and neither did he eat regularly at the school lunch room. He had borrowed enough money from me on two previous occasions on the pretense of buying his lunch at school, only to take the borrowed money and purchase bubble gum, candy, and cokes.

This morning Sam greeted me with, "Mrs. T., can I go to the store to get some gum?"

"Later on possibly, maybe at recess," I answered.

"Here then, you keep this nickel because if you don't I'll sure lose it and will not be able to buy any bubble gum at recess."

"Sam, have you ever thought that you might pay me some of the lunch money you owe instead of buying bubble gum?" I asked, trying not to offend or make him feel bad about it.

He replied rather earnestly but with no malice, "Okay, you keep that nickel and I'll pay part of the rest that I owe you on Monday . . . I know I'll not be able to pay it all at once but I'll pay what I can."

Reassuredly I tried to explain to him that when you owe a person money, you have an obligation and should not spend money on such unnecessary items as bubble gum until the debt is cleared.

He said, "Yes'm, you are right. I was just not thinking about it like that. I guess I wasn't even thinking. Anyway, you were good enough to loan me money and I should be good enough to pay you back (pause) and I will."

It is rather obvious that the child recognized the ethics involved. Invariably when the child recognizes the standards, he is more likely to abide by them. Sam's response was positive to the way the teacher handled him in the situation.

Empathy -- The ability of a teacher to feel emotionally with a child, to see the situation through the eyes of a child, to project himself into the role of a youngster, is called empathy. There is acceptance and much understanding when a teacher handles a child with empathy. Here

are two short examples of a teacher indicating empathy for one of her underprivileged fifth grade boys:

Bob was given football shoes yesterday. Jackie is my only other boy large enough to play football. He asked, "Where's my football shoes?" I thought he had them. I hurried to find the principal, who was in charge of the football group and who had issued Bob's shoes, to ask why Jackie had no shoes.

The principal said, "Bob got shoes because he is working in school and Jackie is not."

I said, "But Mr. S., Jackie thinks he is working. He is working for him."

As his teacher I know how much it means to Jackie to get those football shoes. Mr. S. just does not realize what it means to him or he would not deprive Jackie because of low academic standards alone.

Herein is another example of empathy by the same teacher concerning Jackie:

Jackie was rather quiet today. He stayed at his desk most of the time except when he was asking to go to the toilet. At 2:30 P.M. he asked to go again, the third time today. He seemed embarrassed when he asked, although I had not questioned his going.

He asked plaintively, "If I stay in all recess tomorrow, may I go to the basement once more, right now?"

"Jackie, you don't have to stay in (pause) I know you are not feeling well. Mother must have given you some medicine."

"Yes'm, black draught," he answered as he went out the door.

In each of these examples the teacher's empathy was indicated by feeling with Jackie and seeing the situation through his eyes. It might be inferred that his reaction to her was positive; yet, when one examines the evidence supporting his response there is not enough information to really determine how he reacted. So far as Jackie's response, the investigator marked each of them (0), meaning insufficient evidence or none.

Group VII - intrinsic motivation and intrinsic competition

When teachers recognize the inner, native, underlying interests, drives, or hungers of children and when teachers make use of them in their teaching, there will be a new era in education and in what is accomplished.<sup>62</sup> Children in the primary grades are infinitely curious, intrinsically interested, and motivated to work from within. The resourceful teacher detects these interests and handles the child accordingly. The teacher who is able to understand the intrinsic motivating drives and the teacher who is able to help a child compete against himself for the attainment of purposeful goals, is a person who understands much about child growth and development. He understands that capitalizing on children's intrinsic drives is more important for developing mature individuals than grades, gold stars, honor rolls, and winning competitive ball games. The following are examples that may illustrate each type:

Intrinsic motivation -- Again this is an anecdote from the case of Jackie, a fifth grade boy from a lower class home attending a rural school.

We had a noisy arithmetic class, measuring every rectangle in the room. Jackie and Tom argued over measuring the map. After arithmetic there was discussion of various geography reports. Pansy did not want to do her report on cotton so Jackie interrupted with, "Give it to me, Mrs. Andrews, I know lots about cotton." I did not answer at that time but when he asked for the report again later, I agreed.

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<sup>62</sup>Earl C. Kelley, Education for What Is Real, (New York: Harper Bros., 1947). pp. 67-69.

When I gave Jackie the report on cotton I did so figuring Jackie to be more important than the report because he does not put much into the preparation and his manner of talking is not one that holds the interest of the other pupils, but he seemed so interested in cotton. However, he made a good, clear report without reading a word from the notes he had prepared. When he gave the uses of cottonseed, he mentioned "meal and hulls" for cowfeed.

Kent said, "You feed a cow too much hulls and she'll blow up in the stomach and go blind."

"Aw naw, she won't," said Tom. "I feed ours two buckets of meal and two buckets of hulls every day and they ain't blind."

"Well, you had better watch out or they will go blind," said Kent.

"Naw they ain't," answered Jackie quietly. "Now y'all shut up and listen to this here report." He continued.

(These are the notes he wrote in orange crayon but did not refer to while he was talking).

You can make close out of cotton. You pick the cotton first and then you send it to the meal and have all the seed took out. You can make thread out of cotton, and spend it into cloth and make a dress or a serght and a suit and gloves.

You have to fertilize to grow cotton from the cotton seeds. The seeds will sprout and you have to chop the cotton and watch out for the boil weevil.

To the investigator the teacher took advantage of the real interest Jackie had in cotton. As a result he did well (for Jackie) in giving the report and he also wrote the report which was unlike him. The teacher capitalized on Jackie's intrinsic motivation.

#### Intrinsic competition --

I had Edward in tenth grade science class but I also observed him at physical education period. He was a member of the varsity ball team but when there was an opportunity he practiced "free throws" by himself. I had seen him doing this on several occasions.

Today I asked Edward why he was so interested in "free throws" and if he were practicing for a contest.



He answered, "No, Coach told us that the important thing was not winning the game but the real question was, did I play my best for me."

"So you have been concerned with what you can do as Edward, eh?" I asked.

"Yes, that is the reason I have been practicing "free throws" by myself . . . . just to see how I can improve."

"Have you improved any?"

"Yes, I have," he answered. "At first I could make only three out of ten attempts at the basket but through practice I can now make an average of seven out of ten."

"That's fine, Edward. You have been competing against yourself, haven't you?" I then asked him if he could see the relationship between improving himself in "free throws" with the ball and improving himself in science.

He looked to be in a pensive mood for about a minute and then said, "I should learn science because I'm interested in it and I should learn more about it because it helps one to live better. I guess I shouldn't be trying to beat the other kids by trying for the best grade but just do the best I can --- yes, like the coach said --- to do the best for me."

This surprised me because I always have students in my science classes who are vying with each other for the best test grade as well as the best grades on the six-week report card.

In each of the two previous examples involving motivation and competition there is evidence of intrinsic interest on the part of the student. There was also a positive response from the student to the teacher-pupil interaction.

#### Group VIII - Humor

Humor -- Standing apart as an effective method of disciplining is the teacher who treats the situation or child with humor. Some situations which could be threatening become enhancing when touched with a teacher's sense of humor. Effective as it is in interpersonal relationships, it is probably the most difficult to cultivate as it is a spontaneous part of

the personality. Avenues of acceptance are cleared and rapport is easily established with the teacher who possesses a wholesome sense of humor.

We went on a field trip this afternoon as it was a beautiful September day and one way for me to become better acquainted with my group of new pupils.

As soon as we got to the woods, Jackie climbed up a tall pine to get some needles and cones for the class. I admired a small green pine cone Bruce had. Jackie climbed back up the tree and threw me several. He found "grand-daddies" in the grass and would take them and chase the girls. We flushed a rabbit accidentally. Jackie ran and stuck his hand in the rabbit's resting place. They said the rabbit would not come back to his resting place after that. We found a new tall bush. One of the children asked what it was. I suggested that it might be a kind of ash.

Jackie laughed and said, "Lend me your pocket-knife, Tom, and I'll show the teacher something." The boys started laughing. Jackie cut off a piece of bark and said, "Here, teacher, chew this . . . . It has a funny taste," giving it to me.

I chewed it a moment and my tongue began to prickle and was rather paralyzed and my lips were drawn.

Mary said, "Aw, Jackie, you shouldn't have given the teacher none of that old tickle-tongue bark."

I felt it was best to be a good sport and make the most of it so I puckered up my lips and tongue, exaggerating the condition greatly, and made an awful face, muttering, "Now, uh, uh --- you will --- (sputter) --- just have to watch me --- (twisting mouth and tongue) --- look and talk like this --- (more mannerisms) --- all the year."

We all laughed and the boys, including Jackie, were really amused. Then we moved on looking for insects.

At the end of the field trip I felt we knew one another better and were far more relaxed due chiefly to the tickle-tongue incident.

Another example of humor from the same record was:

Jackie brought an oven thermometer this morning and a small bream to place in his catfish jar. The boys kept

putting the thermometer on the heater and then in the window. We talked about it.

Later the bream died. Jackie took it out of the jar and asked if he might throw it away. We tested it and found it dead. As he went to lunch he asked me if I wanted to have the little catfish for my very own. I told him I liked it very much and that we would keep it in the classroom. "What for, Mrs. A.?" he asked.

"Oh, Jackie," I answered, "so that it would be an educated catfish."

He laughed.

It should be noted that there are several groupings of more positive ways of handling children based on common dynamics in the components of each group. For example, there was a grouping of praise, recognition and concern, while sharing and rapport formed another group. The exception is humor. It stands apart from all the other ways of handling children; it is a unique way and it almost invariably stimulates a favorable response if not used to hold someone up to ridicule, etc.

Throughout the research, evidences of more positive ways teachers handle children were classified under these twenty-three different classifications. Pertinent data were taken from each anecdotal record and classified on Form A. (See Form A, p. 81.)

An attempt has been made to define items in this part of the organizing framework by example, plus additional explanations. It is difficult to give comprehensive examples of terms used; thus it might be stated that in the definition of terms, the illustration used in each case was the type of evidence one might look for, but the various examples chosen were not all-inclusive. Specifically, the example given of praise illustrated only one way a teacher used this means of handling a child; there are many other types of praise which teachers can use.

FORM A

MORE POSITIVE WAYS TEACHERS HANDLE CHILDREN  
AND CHILDREN'S RESPONSES

Evidences _____	# _____				
Group I .....	#	+	0	-	
Praise _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Recognition _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Concern _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Total...	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Group II .....	#	+	0	-	
Opportunity to participate _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Supportive _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Comforting _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Helpful _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Encouraging _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Total...	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Group III .....	#	+	0	-	
Sharing _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Rapport _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Total...	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Group IV .....	#	+	0	-	
Indirect _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Permissive _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Agreeing _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Total...	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Group V .....	#	+	0	-	
Reasoning _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Guidance _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Reflective thinking _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Ignoring _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Avoidance of threat _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Total...	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Group VI .....	#	+	0	-	
Ethics (child recognized) _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Empathy _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Total...	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Group VII .....	#	+	0	-	
Intrinsic motivation _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Intrinsic competition _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Total...	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Group VIII .....	#	+	0	-	
Humor _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
GRAND TOTAL...	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Symbols: # number of evidences					
+ positive pupil response					
0 no response or undeterminable					
- negative pupil response					

Attention will be given in the following pages to other ways of handling children, the second aspect of teacher-pupil relationships.

### More Negative Ways of Handling a Child and the Response

The counterparts of more positive ways of handling children are more negative ways of handling. Here the concern will be with the ways teachers use shame and degradation instead of being supportive and encouraging, punishment instead of praise, and motivating boys and girls to learn by extrinsic methods such as tests, grades, and honor rolls instead of using their intrinsic motivation. The objective is not to say that these more negative ways are necessarily bad or good; it is believed that these methods when used continually are not conducive to the wholesome development of boys and girls. An attempt will be made to make the different terms more meaningful by continuing with examples and explanations of the categories used, remembering that single examples cannot be too comprehensive.

#### Group I - punishment, threat, physical punishment, reprimand, deprivation

These more negative ways of handling children are grouped together because they all have a common characteristic of punishment in one form or another.

Punishment -- Physical punishment is treated separately and will be discussed later. The purpose here is to control the child without necessarily reprimanding, depriving the child, or harming the child physically. As in other forms of punishment, the teacher usually resorts to this form of discipline after the child has committed some unfavorable act. It may be punishment by having the youngster write five hundred

designated lines, memorize poetry, make an apology, or keep him guessing as to the type of punishment he has in store. Maybe an example of a sixth grade boy, James, will help clarify how the term punishment is used:

Bobby has been teasing James all day. I asked the two to remain in after school yesterday afternoon for disturbing the class. The school bus came and James had to leave. I kept Bobby for a short while . . . just long enough to point out to him that the other children did not want to be disturbed.

At recess today, James came to me and asked, "Did you give Bobby a whipping yesterday afternoon?"

Thinking he was teasing, I answered, "Why yes, I wore him out."

"He said you did and that you used his belt on him. I don't have a belt so what are you gonna use on me?"

"We'll find something," I said.

I had not thought of punishing James in this way but I suppose since I did not get to keep him after school for a talk as I did with Bobby, that he was suffering enough for his misbehavior just thinking he might get a whipping.

The unpredictable way in which the teacher handled James was still punishment for him. His response was not determinable so for tabulating purposes it was classified as (0).

Threat -- Many times the child hardly knows how to cope with the teacher who uses threat in handling him. It is usually verbal. Of course there are varying degrees of intensity, from mild to the more intense form illustrated in the following excerpt from the case of a ten year old sixth grade boy. He was the only son of foster parents and the boy was working on the developmental task of winning a place with his peers by becoming a patrol member. Johnny's teacher is a man and this is how he handled the boy with threat:

I reviewed several incidents of the past few weeks to Johnny where he was making a very undesirable citizen at school. I told him that those were the reasons why he had not been made a member of the safety patrol. Finally I explained to Johnny the probability of him being suspended from school and the legal results of suspensions. I explained to him that as a last resort we had institutions called "reform schools" to which boys were sent who could not conform to our society. I told him I was at the end of my patience trying to get him to conduct himself as he should. I told him I was through giving so much of my time to controlling him when I had thirty-one other pupils who appreciated my efforts and deserved my attention. Lastly, I said if his conduct did not improve that I was recommending to the principal that he be suspended from school at once.

As I concluded Johnny was silent. His face was drawn and his pupils were dilated. His voice quivered as he said, "All I can say is that I'm sorry." He appeared to be frightened.

The investigator classified this as one of the more negative ways of handling a child under the category of threat in Group I. Based on Johnny's reaction of fear, dilated eyes, and quivering voice, his response was classified as negative with the symbol (-).

Physical punishment -- This method of handling a youngster is easily identified because bodily contact is involved. In some states school laws state specifically that it is unlawful to slap, whip, or physically molest a child. Nevertheless, it is not an uncommon method used by teachers in handling children as in the aforementioned case of Johnny:

Johnny had been talking with some of the other children in the room. I patiently pointed out to Johnny that the ones who were talking did not do so excessively as he was doing, and that the ones he referred to were members of a committee preparing a class activity. Johnny merely grinned and turned around halfway in his seat. A good resounding slap aided him in assuming the proper sitting posture.

He was sullen the remainder of the day.

This manner of handling Johnny was classified as physical punishment. The boy's response based on the fact that he remained sullen the remainder of the day was classified as negative (-).

Reprimand -- This is a common way of handling children for various small misdemeanors. Usually the child is reprimanded by just a "speaking to" which serves as punishment for some act the child has committed or is in the process of doing. Children from lower class homes or from different ethnic groups usually receive the most reprimands because they have not learned to conform to the middle class mores of the teacher. Herein is an example of a Latin-American boy who was reprimanded lightly by his Anglo teacher:

The class was going some exploratory reading. Later, we were discussing syllables and defining words. Pancho, one of the four Latin-Americans in the class, was not the least bit interested. He slumped in his seat, looked bored, and rolled his pencil down his desk, again and again.

When I saw that he was not going to stop on his own accord, I walked over by his desk and said, "Pancho, you are disturbing the others in the room . . . . You must stop rolling that pencil over and over like that and give your attention to these definitions; otherwise, you will never learn English."

He grinned and stopped and with Mexican voice inflections said, "Yes, miss, I will stop and I will work on English."

This example of reprimand on the part of the teacher is followed with a positive response (+) from Pancho, based on the fact that he grinned and the statement he made.

Deprivation -- If a child is disciplined by not allowing him something that he wishes to do or something he wants, it is another type of punishment, deprivation. Parents resort to this type of handling by refusing to allow their child to go to a movie or by depriving him of



his usual allowance. A common form in schools is exemplified by teachers not allowing children out to play at recess when the child's big wish is to get into the things the rest are doing. "You must stay in at recess because you did what you did." Another common example would be depriving high school boys and girls from having the hayride that they had planned because they all played "hooky" on April first.

Group II -- shame, degradation, sarcasm, insincerity

Shame and degradation involve blame. Their continuous use may threaten the most secure child and he may begin to wonder if he is a worthy individual. These are more negative ways of handling because of negative feelings the child may develop about himself. There is the possibility of developing guilt feelings when shame and degradation are used excessively.

Shame -- For further clarification, an example is given here of an eleventh grade commerce teacher and the way she handled Sylvia, one of her students:

Sylvia had come to tell me that although she tried very hard in shorthand she didn't seem to be able to get it very well. She had also talked with Mr. Shaw, the guidance counselor, about her troubles with shorthand.

Before she completed her story of troubles, I told her that if she were studying, I would be able to tell from her class recitation. I also told her that I would also be able to tell whether she was trying to fool me into thinking that she was preparing her work when she wasn't.

She interrupted with tears in her eyes, "Miss Rogers, I'm not trying to fool you . . . . I talked with Mr. Shaw and again with you to find out why it is that after I work and work on my shorthand, I still can't learn it . . . . I'm not trying to fool you, I'd just like to find out."

"Are you sure of that, Sylvia? You know that I can tell from your class recitation that your work was not properly prepared. In the first place I don't think you are working very much and furthermore you should not take my time for such foolish talk until you have done your best."

Another type of shame is exemplified in the following anecdote:

A few days before, Sam, one of my fourth grade boys had been rude to another boy by trying to trip him in the aisle. I told him how surprised I was and how bad it made me feel to think that he would do such a thing and that I knew his parents would be humiliated if they'd hear about it because they were such nice and polite parents. "I'm so ashamed of you and I know they would be if they knew about you tripping boys in school because I've known your daddy all his life and I'd never known him to be rude like that."

Later on in the day, Sam came up to my desk and said, "Mrs. Smith, you said my daddy was always so polite and never rude but you wouldn't have thought that yesterday if you'd seen him. He chased me all around the house to spank me, just because I had turned a glass of water over on the table. Mother said he was drinking."

Degradation -- Closely allied to shame and blame is degrading a child so that he feels demoralized, humiliated, and disgraced. Reference is again made to Johnny, who had been striving for belonging by way of the safety patrol:

It was necessary to suspend a patrol boy today. As soon as Johnny found it out he asked to be the new replacement. I said, "You will be considered for membership when your conduct warrants such consideration."

He appeared disappointed and left for the time being. Later in the day he came to my desk and raised the question again about membership in the patrol.

My reply was, "Now, Johnny, how many times do I have to tell you that you are not fit to be a patrol member. You never take any responsibility here in the classroom. Because of your conduct, you are rejected by all your classmates. What would you do on the patrol? You are not fit to wear the uniform of a patrol boy and so far as you becoming a member of that group, that's out and that's final."

At the end of the school day Johnny came to the teacher's room where I was and said, "Mr. Radford, I don't believe I want to be on the patrol anyway. It's too strict."

Characteristic of disciplining by degradation, the response is usually negative if it can be detected. Johnny's reaction to the way Mr. Radford handled him is classified as negative (-) by his statement that he had decided that being a patrol member was not for him, giving as his excuse that it was too strict.

Sarcasm -- Associated with shame and degradation is another way of handling boys and girls that is classified as more negative, sarcasm. It is characterized by ridicule, scoffing, unwholesome humor in the form of jest, laughing at instead of with, and an element of sadism and irony.

The fourth grade class had just come in from recess where the group had been actively engaged in physical exercise. As George came in he started pulling at his tie and saying, "Whew! It's plenty hot today."

He did look hot, but why shouldn't he. . . . He had on long underwear, a shirt, sleeveless sweater, a top flannel shirt, and a heavy coat. My statement to him was, "Yes, George, that is the way to get cool. Keep on all that stuff you have on. And by the way, why don't you add another sweater and a coat or two? You know that is really the way to cool off."

George appeared frustrated and undecided as to what to believe.

Another example of sarcasm on the part of this same teacher with a little different emphasis was:

George had found a turtle on the way to school and had placed it in his lunch pail and brought it to school. Nothing was said about it until lunch time when George went for his lunch; then the turtle began to scamper around in the pail, making noise.

George is very unselfish and when he looked into the pail he pulled out a sandwich and offered it to me, as he often does.

I said, "Yes, George, you know I'd really like to have a sandwich with turtle juice all over it." Of course I refused it and he seemed to wonder why.

Insincerity -- There is an element of insincerity in sarcasm.

Other characteristics of insincerity are false pretense, flattery, and hypocrisy. For the child's wholesome development it is hoped that the teacher's insincerity is not detected. One never knows how much the child detects as in the following situation of Mary, a tenth grade girl of Polish parents, who lived in the slum section of an urban area:

(Evidence from the record indicated that Mary was identifying rather closely with her English teacher.)

This was the fourth time that Mary had insisted on me going home with her for a visit. Each time I had managed some excuse. Yet I had not "manufactured" a good reason for not going. Tomorrow was the day and to add to the difficulty Mary told me that they were counting on me staying for supper with them. Judging from Mary's appearance and manners, that would not be a place where I would enjoy eating. Furthermore, I was not accustomed to making home visits.

This afternoon, at the end of the last period, I faced the issue with Mary. I told her that I was very sorry that I would not be able to accept her invitation. She appeared concerned and asked why. I was prepared for the question and told her that my husband was invited to a banquet given by his firm and that I would have to go with him. (This banquet was pure fabrication.)

She answered very softly, "I know our little supper would not be anything like your banquet but we would be glad to have you just the same."

Group III - extrinsic motivation and extrinsic competition

The opposite of intrinsic motivation and intrinsic competition, which were presented under more positive ways teachers handle children, are the extraneous counterparts. The purpose or motivating force is not for the purpose of improving the quality of living but to win the

game, to be the graduate with cum laude honors, or to be a collector of blue ribbons. The most frequent use of extrinsic motivation by teachers is through the use of tests, you-must-study-to-pass attitude, and holding the banner high in grade achievement. What happens to the student in the process is not important; the end product measured with tests and high grade accomplishment is the goal.

Extrinsic motivation -- An example of the importance of grades is exemplified in this short anecdote:

Ralph, my tenth grade English student, has turned in two papers late this week. I advised him that he must not get the habit of doing tardy work because his grade will be affected by this negligence.

Another example shows the teacher providing a situation where the child chooses the lesser of two evils, another way of motivating extrinsically.

The class decided to dance the "Noble Duke of York," a folk dance. I asked Ray to choose a partner. He frowned and said that he didn't want to.

So I said, "You don't have to dance (pause) just get your workbook and do some busy work while the others dance."

He immediately chose Gloria to dance with him.

Another type of extrinsic motivation is in the form of competition as illustrated in the following excerpt:

Extrinsic competition -- The class had a drawing contest during opening exercises this morning. Sarah was chosen along with six other children to compete. They were given three minutes to draw a car on the blackboard. Sarah giggled and erased repeatedly although she draws quite well. At the end of three minutes she had a poorly drawn car and did not even receive honorable mention.

The important issue here is getting students to work, motivated by somebody else's purpose. That is a task. To make students learn what they would not learn on their own accord, teachers have invented all types of rewards and punishments. This forms the basis of giving good and bad grades, stars, and honor societies for academic achievement. They are devised to get boys and girls to do things which they would not otherwise do, and for which the students see little or no value. The social pressures that accompany failure result in fear and it is this fear of failure that is the motivating force. The only reward is the chance to feel superior to somebody else. One might question who is the reaper, the winner or the one who fails.

Group IV - autocratic, directive, questioning and forcing answers, non-avoidance.

Autocratic -- When the teacher plays the role of a tyrant in handling children, he is a dictator and an autocrat. He sets himself apart in the classroom as a person to be revered, the high status idol.

This was the first day of school and even before I knew any of the students in my eleventh grade French class, I felt that I should get the situation well in hand by establishing first my position. I well know that if the teacher is not master of the students they will soon master her. So I gave them a list of my expectations, codes of proper conduct while in my class and that I demanded respect, as one in my position should expect, at all times from each student.

Edward began to grimace, he made an effort to interrupt, but I felt that this was no time for interruptions as facts were facts so far as I was concerned. However, it was then and there that I decided to take Edward for my case study for this year.

Directive -- The autocratic teacher is commanding. Sometimes a teacher can be accepting and still be very directive, giving orders to

be done as he directs. It is the opposite of such democratic procedures as permissiveness or handling children indirectly. If, near the Yuletide season, a teacher tells all the children to draw wreaths of holly, he is directing them. The same is true if a teacher tells a child rather pointedly to be chairman of a specific committee. Being directive in handling children is defined here as not as intense or as commanding as the previous classification, autocratic.

Questioning and forcing answers -- Questioning a child and forcing answers unnecessarily are characteristics of more negative ways of handling. By questioning, a more difficult situation is sometimes created; for example, a teacher saw a child copying spelling from her book during a spelling test and knowing that the girl was copying, the teacher created a more difficult situation by asking, "Are you cheating by copying your spelling from your book?"

Another example of a teacher asking questions or forcing responses is:

Johnny came to school early this morning and reported that he was sick at his stomach and asked to be excused for the day.

I asked him, "Why didn't you stay at home and bring an excuse when you came back to school? After all, you live one-half mile from the school."

He replied, "I wanted you to know why I was absent because when I do bring an excuse you question me anyway as to why I was absent."

I then asked, "Do you have an excuse from your mother today?"

"Mr. R., you remember that my mother doesn't write and I have to write the excuses. Anyway, the reason I came this morning was so that you would see that I was sick. You question me if I bring a written excuse for being absent and I came to school today so that you can see that I'm sick; then you question me about not having a written excuse. I

don't know what to do."

I knew that he was ill so I allowed him to go home.

Non-Avoidance -- Many group situations and some individual situations could be worked out more satisfactorily if the teacher would deliberately ignore or avoid the incident by allowing youngsters to settle their own difficulties. New dynamics are involved when an adult moves in, regardless of the motive.

Juan, a fifth grade boy, and one of the other boys shared a book during music class. The other boy was leaning on Juan to the point that I thought it was bothering Juan so I told Tom to sit up. Juan answered rather quickly, "Tom is not bothering me."

Later on in the day, Tom placed some gum in Juan's seat and he sat in it, smearing it all over the seat of his trousers.

I immediately began to reprimand Tom for the act when Juan interrupted with, "I don't mind, Miss, if Tom put gum in my seat."

My hypothesis for Juan permitting such behavior from Tom was that Tom was the leader (from the sociogram) of a clique and Juan being a Latin was trying to get in with Tom's group. By proving to Tom that he "could take it" was one way of becoming accepted. In the future I will be more careful about interrupting their boys' play.

The first part of the teacher's behavior was classified as "non-avoidance" but the part of the anecdote that began with her hypothesis was tabulated under "reflective thinking". Thus, this is an example of a more negative type of handling, "non-avoidance", although the same anecdote has evidence of a more positive type, "reflective thinking".

#### Group V - ethics (teacher recognized)

Adult standards, values, and codes of conduct that are not recognized by school boys and girls are classified under teacher



recognized ethics. Cleanliness is a teacher standard that is often not recognized by boys in third, fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. Likewise, the teenager may see no particular reason for hiding his arduous love making or driving hot rod cars at eighty miles per hour; but these are not accepted ways of behaving according to teachers and other adults.

It is not implied that teachers should not guide youngsters; however, in order for teachers to be effective in that role, they must work with youngsters in ways and on things that the children can recognize as important. The teacher who operates on his own adult ethics alone in teacher-pupil relationships is oftentimes a teacher who lacks empathy for children.

Form B - More negative ways of handling children by teachers have been classified in five groups with sixteen specific ways of handling. The children's responses were classified in the same manner as described in Form A. (See the following page for a duplicate of Form B.)

FORM B

MORE NEGATIVE WAYS TEACHERS HANDLE CHILDREN  
AND CHILDREN'S RESPONSES

Evidences _____	# _____			
Group I .....	#	+	0	-
Punishment _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Threat _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Physical punishment _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Reprimand _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Deprivation _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Total...	_____	_____	_____	_____
Group II .....	#	+	0	-
Shame _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Degradation _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Sarcasm _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Insincerity _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Total...	_____	_____	_____	_____
Group III.....	#	+	0	-
Motivation (extrinsic) _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Competition (extrinsic) _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Total...	_____	_____	_____	_____
Group IV .....	#	+	0	-
Autocratic _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Directive _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Questioning, forcing answers _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Non-Avoidance _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Total...	_____	_____	_____	_____
Group V .....	#	+	0	-
Ethics (teacher) _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Total...	_____	_____	_____	_____
GRAND TOTAL...	_____	_____	_____	_____

Symbols: # number of evidences  
 + positive pupil response  
 0 no response or undeterminable  
 - negative pupil response

It is not implied that these so-called more negative ways of handling are necessarily bad. Certainly the occasional use of reprimand will not be detrimental to the wholesome development of a child. There would be danger if one or more of these methods were used constantly and to a greater degree than the more positive ways of handling. Intensity as well as overuse of any of these more negative methods should be questioned in view of what it means to the child.

#### IV. CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION

The way teachers organize their classrooms for living is reflected in teacher-pupil interrelationships. Part III of this chapter has emphasized the ways teachers handle children and the response. At this time the concern will be with classroom procedures, working patterns of organization. Some classrooms are democratically organized, with a concern for pupil needs and interests, a concern for practical, purposeful, creative, and concrete experiences, and a concern for pupil-teacher planning, doing, and evaluating. On the contrary there are teacher dominated, subject matter organized classrooms with emphasis on academic standards and achievement judged by testing, grading, and other extrinsic means. There is little concern for the whole development of the child, his individual interests, needs, and differences. Another doctoral project<sup>63</sup> has ably expressed the differences in the following manner:

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<sup>63</sup>This information was made available through the courtesy of Dr. Eunice Matthew and is found in her doctoral dissertation, "An Evaluative Study of the Attitudes of Negro Elementary School Teachers in One-Teacher Schools of Tennessee Toward Certain Educational Principles." Cornell University, 1947. pp. 49-52.

Traditional Practices

1. Centered in "assignment-study-recitation-test-drill" pattern; teacher dominated; child conforms to act patterns.
2. Emphasis on subjects, content, books as dominative motive; fit child to the subjects.
3. Desired learnings and content to be learned are worked out before the pupils are taken into consideration; static approach.
4. Subjects treated separately and distinct from one another; history, civics, geography, grammar, composition, reading.
5. Experience limited mostly to reading, writing, and speaking, especially with regard to isolated subjects.
6. Educational program has little relation to immediate environment; deals mostly with events distant in time and place.
7. Few books required of all regardless of child's reading ability.
8. Little relation of "skills" to other subjects.
9. "Skills" period mostly drill regardless of need or ability to do; maturity of childhood.
10. Appraisal of child's growth in terms of ability to respond mentally to factual materials; ability to reach group norms.
11. Major outcomes of school activities in terms of grade

Newer Practices

- Centered in pupil purposes and interests; teacher-pupil planning; many types of activities, individual needs and abilities, recognized pattern flexible.
- More emphasis on children's interests and needs; fit the subject to the child.
- Goals, needs, activities, etc., planned and organized by pupils and teacher; a dynamic approach.
- Subject lines less distinct; organized around broader more inclusive fields; social studies, language arts.
- Experience of many types; discussing, reading, writing, experimenting, manipulating, constructing, taking trips with regard to centers of interest, cutting across many subject areas.
- Educational program close to immediate environment; utilizes those resources which are educative for children here and now.
- Many books and materials; reading materials suited to children's reading abilities.
- Opportunity to use skill subjects in many purposeful and meaningful situations.
- "Skills" period for meeting needs discovered in purposeful situations; maturity of child considered.
- Appraisal of child's growth in terms of improvement in attitudes, general understandings and appreciations; appraisal on the basis of growth of the individual.
- Major outcomes of school experiences in terms of individual growth; work

achievement of minimum essentials in subject-matter learning.

12. "Traditional" schoolroom atmosphere; environment formal, restricted; desks in rows; fixed to floor; lack of free space; surroundings mostly for studying; little facility and attention to other than classroom activity.

13. Discipline a matter of teacher control from above; teacher a task-master.

14. Children are quiet except when asked to speak; formal procedure.

15. Limited equipment, supplies and materials; mostly for reading and practicing "skills".

16. Schools divorced from community.

17. All activities engaged in school.

18. Children seldom participate in community enterprises under school leadership.

19. Parents visit schools only on special occasions.

20. Children seldom gather educational materials from the community.

habits, social attitudes and abilities, individual growth in skills, insight into understanding of social problems at level of individual ability to understand; desirable characteristics of democratic living.

Congenial atmosphere, informality, moving about, working with many things; desks and other work equipment arranged to fit the needs of special interests and groups; library facilities; use of out-doors when and where possible.

Discipline, a matter of learning self-control and self-discipline; teacher a guide and counselor.

Children given freedom to move about, confer with one another in orderly fashion while engaging in their work; informal procedure reasonable order.

Extensive equipment and materials; variety of books and reading materials; illustrative and construction material.

School considered a segment of community life.

Community the focus of many activities.

Children engage in many community enterprises under school leadership, e.g. festivals, service organizations programs, health programs, community betterment programs.

Parents and patrons of the school visit regularly and make contributions to the planning and executing of some joint activities.

Children use many sources of information and materials from community through field trips, surveys, book reports, newspapers, interviews with people who have information.

The classroom organization phase of the framework was evolved by the researcher from the pilot study. There were two major types of classrooms; evidences as detected in the anecdotal records were classified under each type. In many ways the two types of classrooms previously described as characterized by "traditional practices" and "newer practices" corresponded with the investigator's "more autocratically organized classrooms" and "more democratically organized classrooms", respectively.

More Democratically Organized Classroom (less rigid, less formal)

Group I - Democratic procedures involving:

Planning  
Doing  
Evaluation

Democratic procedures involving planning -- The teacher and pupils select a problem for study that they think is important. Together they set up criteria for working, ways of doing, or methods for solving the problem. The teacher works with, and is an integral part of, but he is not a dictator. Pupils assume responsibility in the planning. This is easier to do because they have had a part in selecting the problem or topic for study; thus it is more real to them. An example of democratic planning is:

This was the time to plan our next activity. After some discussion Mary said, "Why it is December first and I wonder if we should not have a Christmas play." There was consensus that it would be a good experience but there was some further discussion as to when would be the best time to practice. Finally it was decided to work on the play during the free reading period.

The class selected their characters after several tryouts. Herby was selected to take the part of the nephew of Scrooge. He seemed to be quite pleased at first but later asked the group to consider someone else for the

part because he did not think he should be given an active speaking role as he had participated in the Thanksgiving play, as the main character. He asked to work with the props back stage. He was replaced with Tony.

Democratic procedures involving the doing -- If youngsters have had a real part in the planning then they will assume more responsibility in the doing. They are motivated intrinsically. The amount that children do is in direct proportion to the interest involved and since the problem was selected by them there is likely to be more interest and likewise more doing. If the above anecdote, which gives a part of the planning, is followed to the doing stage, an excerpt from the record reveals this:

The group that was in the play knew the dialogue. The off-stage choral group had assumed responsibility for the Christmas carols. Herby was selected as chairman of the props and stage setting and he had the manger scene ready for the Friday afternoon performance.

Everything went well at the performance until one of the lights just above one of the wise men's head came loose and fell with a resounding ring on his head. The spirit of the play was lost for the moment as there was a howl of laughter from the students in the audience.

Herby, who had assumed responsibility for arranging the lighting apologized to James, the wise man, after the performance.

Democratic procedures in the evaluation -- Democratic evaluation entails pupils and the teacher looking at what has been done, looking at it objectively, critically, and analytically. There is reflective thinking, utilizing the scientific method. Evaluation is continuous from the first plans to the culminating activity. Anecdotal records do not give a complete picture of the evaluation but many times they do have certain data that illustrate teacher-pupil evaluative reactions:

Christmas holidays interfered with the evaluation that would ordinarily have taken place as we were dismissed after the Christmas program on Friday afternoon. Sometimes it is best for two weeks to intervene before making a final evaluation because we are better able to see what has taken place in the right perspective.

Anyway, when the children came back from their vacation they wanted to talk about what they had received. We did. After some discussion, the subject of the Christmas play came up.

Herby said, "Gee, James, I thought several times about your head over the holidays . . . . Did you suffer from the cut?"

James assured him that it was all right and pointed to the healed area on his head.

Mary remarked, "Didn't the choir do a beautiful job? The effect was excellent the way they faded away on "Silent Night". My mother thought that was very effective."

Herby spoke up again, "I think Tony is to be commended for his part. This was the first time that he has ever been in a big play and I felt real proud of him because he took over my part and did it much better than I could have done."

Jack, one of the assistants to Herby stated, "I wonder if and when we have another play if we can't be more careful about the lights."

"Yes, that is where we can improve," answered Herby. "Next time we will tie it with wire instead of string. For a couple of minutes I thought the play was going to be ruined by that one light dropping on James's head."

I told him that I thought they carried on well in spite of the accident and the audience was soon back into the spirit of the play.

Janet stated, "This was an activity that all of us took part in too."

"What do you mean?" asked Herby.

"Well, you were chairman of your committee but there were three others working with you. There was the group who did the mural and other Christmas scenes. There was the music group and some of us wrote Christmas poems and all of us read about Christmas in many countries and there were the ones who wrote the play."



It is probably obvious to the reader that this teacher was keeping an anecdotal record on Herby. Yet the record serves as an example of different phases of democratic classroom procedures involving planning, doing, sharing, and evaluating with pupils and teacher participating. As the record was processed, notation was made of each evidence that could be classified in a particular group. The previous anecdote was evidence under the major heading, "more democratically organized classroom" and also under the specific sub-group of "democratic procedures involving evaluation". Explanation will be made in the next chapter of how all the evidences were totaled and treated statistically for the generalizations. At this time the concern is with other aspects of the democratically organized classroom.

Group II - Pupil needs and interests through:

- Individual differences
- Pupil-pupil relationships
- Pupil-teacher relationships
- Committees
- Grouping
- Intrinsic motivation

The investigator detected from the pilot study that anecdotal records revealed six ways (listed above) that pupil needs and interests are reckoned with as a part of the more democratically organized classroom. This does not mean that an autocratic teacher is not sometimes concerned with pupil interests. If this should be the case and there is evidence in the data to support that a teacher is autocratic but at the same time there is concern for individual differences, then the part of the anecdote indicating domination was classified under teacher dominated; the part that indicated concern for individual differences was classified under the sub-group above, "pupil needs and interests through individual differences".

Pupil needs and interests through individual differences --

Children differ in individual abilities and they differ in their rate of development. If teachers really believe this concept, they will not expect certain specific requirements to be mastered in each grade. There was some evidence that individual differences were taken into account in the example of democratic procedures involving doing, page 100; here is another anecdote illustrating the principle:

Several of the children were working on Hallowe'en masques, others on various Hallowe'en scenes. Henry said he would rather read. This he did until he noticed Antonia working with some construction paper. He immediately did some creative work by cutting out a horse and placing a pumpkin on it as a rider. All this time Joan was using a string to determine the circumference of the various pumpkins.

Pupil needs and interests through pupil-pupil relationships --

Evidences will be classified under this heading if the classroom is organized so that pupil-pupil interaction can operate on the basis of pupil needs and interests.

Grete, daughter of a displaced family, is a new student in our tenth grade social studies class. A group of five girls in the class were working separately from the remainder of the students on contrasting behavior of teen-age girls in colonial times with modern practices. Grete became interested when the girls began to exchange ideas about present day behavior.

Ann said, "Well, I know they didn't do it in colonial times or not even grandmother's day but I think it is perfectly all right to kiss a boy after the second date."

"Why, my mother said that she didn't kiss my daddy until just before they got married --- imagine that!" exclaimed Francis.

"Everything has changed from the horse-and-buggy days and so has dating," chimed in Rosa.

All this time I noticed from the sideline that Grete was getting nearer and nearer to the group. Finally, Ann asked her if she would like to work with their group on

contrasting social behavior of colonial times with the present.

Grete answered, in broken English, that she was trying to listen because she needed to learn how American girls conducted themselves on dates. She also was able to communicate to the other girls that ways of acting were different in Holland from here.

Pupil needs and interests through pupil-teacher relationships --

The only difference between this category and the previous one on pupil-pupil relationships is that the teacher is involved with the pupils. In both cases there is evidence that pupil needs and/or interests are considered important.

Pupil needs and interests through committees -- The classroom can be organized with committees operating in such a way that needs of youngsters are met. If there were no indication that the committee was organized around the real interests of pupils, the anecdote was classified under democratic procedure involving planning and doing. (See pages 99-100.) However, a more concrete example of the type referred to is:

As a part of our social-studies and language arts period the class had decided that they would like to have a school newspaper. Royce suggested that certain committees should be formed to assume different responsibilities.

Donald, who was acting as chairman for the discussion asked, "If we do agree that committees should be formed, what committees do we need and what is the basis for membership?"

Consensus was reached that committees would be needed. As committees were suggested Mary Ann listed them on the board, including: editing, reporting, finance, publicity, and printing committees.

Donald asked for suggestions concerning participation on the committees that were listed. After much discussion they decided to allow individuals to volunteer for the particular committee that each would be most interested in

or felt that each could learn the most from and after the group was formed the members of that group would select a chairman and a co-chairman if needed.

Donald (my case study) waited until most of the children had selected a committee to work in and then he said, "I would like to work on the publicity one because I'm interested in advertising and if I become an auctioneer when I grow up, I will need to know how to advertise what I have to sell as well as auction it off."

In the formation of these committees there was evidence that one boy, Donald, was selecting a topic that he was interested in and needed to know more about. There was opportunity for children to select committees that appealed to them for one reason or another. This example is different from the stereotyped type of committee work often found where a group has the responsibility of keeping the room clean for a week and then mechanically rotates to another duty from week to week.

Pupil needs and interests through grouping -- If grouping incorporates pupil needs and interests, it will not be done on the basis of academic achievement alone. Classified under this heading were evidences of grouping of youngsters for social, physical, and/or emotional reasons as well as academic accomplishment. If the teacher detected that a child was working to find a place in the peer group, he might help him meet this need of belonging by helping him acquire skills that are admired by the group and by creating group situations which afford an opportunity for the youngster to display his adequacy and thereby win acceptance with his fellows. Grouping for social reasons may entail teacher-guidance so that certain youngsters may learn acceptable behavior. More and more teachers are organizing their classrooms in working groups based on physical, social, and emotional needs of children. The idea is

carried over into promotion and teachers are realizing that other factors in addition to academic achievement must be considered. Promotion is a form of large scale grouping.

Pupil needs and interests through intrinsic motivation -- Intrinsic and underlying interests are synonymous. Only through profound understanding of child growth and development can one expect to detect the real concerns of boys and girls and then organize classrooms so that motivation will continue to be intrinsic. A brief anecdote partially illustrates one phase of intrinsic motivation:

The class was doing some exploratory reading. I was moving about the room helping as individuals asked for assistance when Mary Jo said, "Words are like music."

Julia who was sitting nearby asked, "What do you mean about words and music being alike, Mary Jo?"

Mary Jo pronounced the word and with her hand gave a down beat on each syllable. The children near her looked up and one said, "You mean rhythm." We talked about several words and there was a small discussion on syllables, rhythm, and sounds because of Mary Jo seeing the relationship and voicing her interest.

A classroom can operate on the mechanics of democratic procedures, involving planning, doing, sharing, and evaluating; the classroom may operate superficially in a permissive way but it takes understanding and empathy for children's needs, interests, and concerns before teaching really pays dividends in child development.

Group III - Classroom Working Pattern as being more:

- Permissive
- Functional, purposeful, practical
- Experience-centered
- Discussion
- Creative
- Pupil responsibility

Classroom working pattern as more permissive -- Evidences were

classified under this heading when the classroom had an atmosphere of permissiveness with little rigidity, and formality --- but with organization, not chaos. Here children feel free to work on concerns that are important to them, a permissive atmosphere. If an adolescent girl feels that her classroom is a permissive place where she and other girls like herself can explore pertinent problems, then she will not hesitate to voice a question as, "How should teen-age girls conduct themselves on dates?"

In a permissive classroom there is freedom of movement, freedom of discussion, less rigid seating, and pupils assuming responsibility for their behavior.

Classroom working pattern as more functional and purposeful with practical concrete experiences -- A classroom working pattern with purpose is also functional; if it is meaningful and functional, it is practical and useful in the self development of the children in that situation. When experiences meet the recognized purposes of pupils in the classroom, they are more effectively learned and the educative process operates at its optimum. Here the concern is with the preliminary phase, the organization of the classroom so that functional, practical, and purposeful experiences can take place.

I find that my fourth grade boys prefer oftentimes to work together without interference from the girls. The boys were making plans for a play house, to build it themselves. They were measuring, with much arithmetic calculating. There was the selection of materials and procedures for constructing.

At noon a man brought the scrap lumber from the mill as they had requested in their letter. There was so much of it that one of the boys, Harry, suggested storing part of it outside the door. They did. Later on in the day they found storage space inside and all

the boys had a part in transporting it inside. In the afternoon, the building began in earnest. Henry was taking his turn with the saw and hammer along with the rest. It was one of the few times that all the boys had worked on a single project together --- usually there are several groups of boys. Alberto was chosen as contractor and the boys worked under his leadership.

Next day -- Henry was the first boy to join Alberto on building the house. More boys joined the activity and each had his turn at sawing and hammering. As soon as Henry had taken his turn, he would help the other groups who were planting seeds in the grounds around the playhouse.

Later Henry left the playhouse and grounds and came inside. He worked on the letter to his parents inviting them to visit the school and also to come for a conference.

This is an excerpt from a record on Henry but there is evidence of a classroom that is organized to permit purposeful, practical, and functional experience for children.

Classroom working pattern as involved with discussion -- All pertinent data are classified here if there is evidence that there is a working pattern that includes verbal interaction. Discussion of subjects between pupils, and between pupils and teacher is placed here to be tabulated for the total picture. These may include simple, short discussions or they may be more lengthy and profound as long as they are a part of the classroom working pattern.

Classroom working pattern as being creative -- This includes spontaneity and creativeness expressed through art, crafts, poetry, music, dramatizations, and rhythms. The concern here is whether the classroom pattern of activity provides the opportunity for these expressions as in the following account:

Our room is provided with many types of art materials including tempera paints, newsprint, clay,

and colored crayons. There is also a record player and appropriate children's records. Today, as Jane was playing the record, "Waltz of the Flowers", Mabel was swishing her paint brush with green tempera to the rhythm of the waltz, making the palm fronds as part of the drawing to her mural.

The first part of this anecdote was classified under "classroom working pattern as being more creative", indicating that creative materials were available as part of the classroom; the second part, beginning with the activity of the two girls, was classified under "pupil needs and interests through individual differences".

Classroom working pattern involving pupil acceptance of responsibility -- Does the classroom provide opportunities for children to assume responsibility? Is it a part of the working pattern of the classroom? There are many ways that youngsters may learn to assume responsibility; the best ways to learn it is by doing if the organization of the classroom so provides. If this is deemed important in education, the classroom is one of the places where boys and girls can share responsibilities in many ways: being host or hostess, illustrated in the film "School in Centreville";<sup>64</sup> being responsible for the collection of lunch money; being chairman of various committees, as in the following incident:

It was time for the selection of new chairmen for certain committees. After the chairman of each committee was selected by the class, each chairman was allowed to choose members for his committee. Membership in each committee varies. Jackie was selected chairman of the

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<sup>64</sup>Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, "School in Centreville". A documentary educational film, released June, 1950.



school lunch committee; he, in turn, selected Ralph as collector, James as banker, and Mary as bookkeeper.

Summary statement of the more democratically organized classroom -- Explanations by some definitions and examples have been made of the designated characteristics in this type of classroom organization. Herein is Form C that was used for classifying evidences of the more democratically organized classrooms:

FORM C

MORE DEMOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOM

Evidences \_\_\_\_\_ Total... # \_\_\_\_\_

Group I - Democratic Procedures with pupil-pupil and/or pupil-teacher in:

Planning \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Doing \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Sharing \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Evaluating \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Evidences in I ..... Total... # \_\_\_\_\_

Group II - Pupil Needs and Interests through:

Individual differences \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Pupil-pupil relationships \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Pupil-teacher relationships \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Committees \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Grouping \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Intrinsic motivation \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Evidences in II ..... Total... # \_\_\_\_\_

Group III- Classroom Working Pattern as being:

Permissive \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Functional, practical, and purposeful  
 experiences \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Discussion \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Creative \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Pupil responsibility \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Evidences in III ..... Total... # \_\_\_\_\_

GRAND TOTAL... # \_\_\_\_\_

A separate card was used for each anecdotal record. The first tally of evidence was placed on the first line labeled "evidences" because the decision had to be made as to whether it was evidence to be considered on this card or one of the other three cards, A, B, or D. Following that decision, a more detailed classification was made by deciding to which one of the three groups, I, II, or III, the information was pertinent. Thus, in the end a tabulation of the total evidences on the first line should correspond to the total number of evidences indicated in Groups I, II, and III.

When classifying the data that applied to this form, the reader is probably aware from the definitions and examples in Group II, that this group (pupil needs and interests) is the most profound and complex; for evidence to be classified in this group, it was necessary for the classroom to be organized around pupil needs and interests which requires much teacher understanding. In other words, evidences classed under Group I on "democratic procedures" and Group III on "classroom working pattern" could be rather superficial.

#### More Autocratically Organized Classroom (More subject-matter)

The counterpart of the more democratically organized classroom is the classroom that is teacher dominated with emphasis on subject-matter, extrinsic motivation, and with a lack of concern for pupil interests and differences.

Group I - teacher dominated, regimented, and autocratic -- The classroom organization is prescribed and controlled by the teacher. He is the key person; every activity must have his approval as he sits in front of the classroom where he can survey the children at all times

and likewise all eyes are on him. He assigns, questions, and evaluates. So far as possible the school day is regimented by his wishes and there is strict adherence to the subject-emphasized schedule. His classroom can be humanly cold and rigid. A brief part of an anecdote illustrates the type of data that was classified under this heading:

The first day of each school month I appoint certain pupils to take care of certain jobs. It is the quickest and simplest way. I also noted that Charles had not been assigned a duty for two consecutive months. This was an oversight on my part so I told him that he must "police" the closet and keep the blackboards clean for the month of February. Charles frowned and made an attempt to say something to Johnny about it, but he saw me looking and my pupils know better than to speak until I give them permission.

Group II - Subject-matter with emphasis on:

Academics  
Homework  
Departmentalization  
Extrinsic Motivation

The assumption underlying the subject-matter organized classroom is three-fold: (1) It is assumed that the child goes to school to acquire knowledge and that knowledge is something found in textbooks. (2) It is assumed that subject-matter is educative in itself. (3) It is assumed that the best way to acquire the prescribed subject-matter is in unassociated fragments or parcels.<sup>65</sup>

Subject-matter and academics -- Here the concern is with the three "R's"; education is the acquisition of facts from books followed with recitation.

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<sup>65</sup>Earl Kelley, Education For What Is Real, (New York: Harper Bros., 1947), pp. 16-17.

Subject-matter and homework -- The assignment of homework by the teacher is regular routine for some classrooms. It is a way of emphasizing the learning of subject matter facts. "This assignment should be learned at home so that you can recite it back to me tomorrow."

My eleventh grade literature class was studying Macbeth. For three successive days I had assigned specific parts of the play to be memorized as a part of their homework. For just that number of times Olivia had failed to do her work. Three times in succession she was unable to give the memory work. My hypothesis is that she is dating each night and doesn't have time for her more important assignments.

Subject-matter and departmentalization -- Evidences of different teachers teaching different subjects with children or teachers passing from one room to another during the school day was classified as "departmentalization". This applied to elementary situations only; most of the high schools are departmentalized anyway. If one teacher were with the same children for as much as two-thirds of the day, the children being with another teacher for some other activities as music, physical education, and/or crafts, that classroom was not considered departmentalized. Yet, it was classified as departmentalized if one teacher taught reading, another taught the same children arithmetic, and another geography. In the following anecdote the evidence was detected subtly as the teacher was concerned about the energy of the child but within the context there was departmentalization:

Roscoe is full of energy; about the time I get him settled down to reading, the nine-thirty bell rings and he grabs his books and rushes to Mrs. Thomas' room for geography. When Miss Sims came in to teach their arithmetic, she told me that she did not believe Roscoe would ever learn fractions because he would not stay still long enough.

I can see a recurring pattern already of high energy output.

Invariably, in departmentalization, emphasis is on the acquisition of subject-matter and the curriculum is seldom adjusted to fit the needs of children.

Subject-matter and extrinsic motivation -- The classroom is so organized that the important goal is achievement recognized in the form of grades, medals, and honor rolls. The process is not too important. An example in athletics would be: to win the game, with little concern for how it was won.

Common examples of motivating boys and girls extrinsically to learn subject-matter are:

(1) "My class is working very hard in speech this week. James is also on the debating team. We are very anxious to win the regional debating contest on Saturday; it will mean so much; I know they will not let me down."

(2) "We have a written check-up the first thing each morning in arithmetic. Those grades are averaged at the end of the six weeks period for their final grade. James has not, etc. . . . ."

(3) "Erma came to me with tears in her eyes and asked me if I would reaverage her grades saying that this was the first time that she had not made the honor roll in the four years that she had been in high school."

These are merely excerpts from records but they indicate the extrinsic type of motivation that exists in some classrooms.

Group III - Lack of concern for:

Individual needs, interests, and differences  
Spontaneity  
Creativeness

The items considered here in classroom organization are the

counterparts to the ones described earlier where the concern was for meeting pupil needs and interests through individual differences, committees, and grouping (pp. 102-106). If the classroom is so organized that all the children are reading from the same page, every day from the same story, or if each child is working the same arithmetic problem or drawing the same turkey at Thanksgiving, that would be evidence of "lack of individual differences"; likewise, spontaneity and creativeness would be curbed or blocked.

Summary of the more autocratically organized classroom -- The evidences are classified in three major groups as outlined on Form D, p. 116. A five by eight card, as illustrated on Form D, was used for each anecdotal record in the processing procedure. Each evidence was first placed on the top line labeled "total evidences", if it were evidence to be classified under "autocratic classroom organization". The next step was to make a more specific classification of the evidence by placing it in one of the three groups, I, II, or III. The "grand total" of evidences at the bottom of Form D should equal the number of evidences recorded on the top line of the form.

FORM D

## MORE AUTOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOM

Evidences \_\_\_\_\_ Total... # \_\_\_\_\_

## Group I -

Teacher dominated \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Regimented \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Autocratic \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Evidences in I ..... Total... # \_\_\_\_\_

Group II - Subject-matter with emphasis on:

Academics \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Homework \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Departmentalization \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Extrinsic motivation \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Evidences in II ..... Total... # \_\_\_\_\_

Group III - Lack of concern for:

Individual needs, interests, differences \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Spontaneity \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Creativeness \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Evidences in III ..... Total... # \_\_\_\_\_

GRAND TOTAL... # \_\_\_\_\_

## V. SUMMARY

The source of data for the project was teachers' anecdotal records on file at the Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland. The pilot study of thirty records revealed that teachers' anecdotal records contained the type of data with which this project was concerned. From the pilot study it was also possible to evolve the organizational framework based on:

- (1) ways of handling children and their responses
  - (a) more positive ways of handling children and their responses
  - (b) more negative ways of handling children and their responses
- (2) classroom organization
  - (a) more democratically organized classrooms
  - (b) more autocratically organized classrooms

An attempt was made to define the terms or characteristics of the framework by giving examples with explanations of each category.



## CHAPTER V

### SELECTION AND CLASSIFICATION OF THE RECORDS AND TREATMENT OF THE DATA

The previous chapter described how the organizational framework evolved from the pilot study. It also explained and illustrated the categories and sub-categories of the framework. The next step was to select the records for the main study. This chapter will deal with the random selection of the anecdotal data, classification of the pertinent information, and treatment of the data which were prerequisites to determining the significance of the findings.

#### I. RANDOM SELECTION OF THE RECORDS

The project was concerned with changes in certain curriculum practices that could be attributed to an organized three year program of child study. Although there are about twelve different areas in which this particular in-service program operates, the problem was delimited by using records from only two of these areas: the Louisiana-Texas area and Prince Georges-Montgomery Counties in Maryland, referred to in this project as the Maryland area.<sup>66</sup> There was no reason to assume that the in-service child study program operating in these two areas for the 1947-48, 1948-49, and 1949-50 school sessions was different from the program in operation in all of the twelve areas since the in-service program was initiated and developed similarly in each area. It

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<sup>66</sup>For additional information for delimiting and the selection of the Louisiana-Texas area and the Maryland area, see Chapter I, pp. 7-9.

is believed that if curriculum changes were made in the Louisiana-Texas area and the Maryland area, similar changes would have occurred in the other areas too.

For the purposes of this study the Louisiana-Texas area and the Maryland area provided the necessary data for the study: (1) There was a sufficient number of records in each of the three years of the program under investigation, 1947-48, 1948-49, 1949-50. (2) There were sufficient records for each of the three levels of the program: Level I, Level II, and Level III.<sup>67</sup> (3) There were sufficient records from grades four, five, and six, referred to as the elementary grades, and also from grades nine, ten, and eleven, referred to as the high school grades.

Random selection was made by first taking the total number of elementary records and high school records from the two areas and grouping them in the appropriate Levels, I, II, or III; the total number was divided by the number needed and selection was made on that basis. For example, there were two hundred forty Louisiana-Texas records in the elementary grades, four, five, and six, and the investigator needed thirty records for his research. The two hundred forty were divided by thirty ( $240 \div 30 = 4$ ). Thus random selection was made by taking each fourth record from the group of two hundred forty which would give the desired thirty. In addition, the selected thirty records were sub-categorized into: ten first year, Level I, ten second year, Level II,

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<sup>67</sup>Levels I, II, and III correspond to the three years of the organized child-study program. Level I is the first school year or session, Level II is the second school year or session, and Level III is the third school year or session.

and ten third year, Level III. However, if the two hundred forty records did not fall into three equal groups of eighty but were in groups of sixty for Level I, one hundred for Level II, and eighty for Level III, the sampling would be varied accordingly. (See Table I below.) Using the last distribution and knowing that ten records were needed for each of the three levels, making a total of thirty elementary records from Louisiana-Texas area, the sampling was: each sixth record from Level I, each tenth record from Level II, and each eighth record from Level III, resulting in ten records selected from each level with a total of thirty records.

Similar sampling was made for the selection of records for the three levels from the high school grades nine, ten, and eleven, from the Louisiana-Texas area, making a total of sixty records for that area. Likewise the same procedure was used in the random selection of sixty records from the elementary and high school grades of the Maryland area.

TABLE I  
SELECTION OF RECORDS

Louisiana-Texas Area								
	El. Gr.s 4, 5, 6				H. Sch. Gr.s 9, 10, 11			
	Levels I	II	III...Total		Levels I	II	III...Total	
# records available	60	100	80	240	33	42	38	113
# records selected	10	10	10	30	10	10	10	30
Maryland Area								
	El. Gr.s 4, 5, 6				H. Sch. Gr.s 9, 10, 11			
	Levels I	II	III...Total		Levels I	II	III...Total	
# records available	68	65	60	193	32	40	48	120
# records selected	10	10	10	30	10	10	10	30

Based on Table I, there was a total of thirty records needed from each of the four groups, making one hundred twenty teachers' anecdotal records selected for the research. Forty records were used at each of the three levels of the program: I, II, and III. There were sixty records used from each of the two areas; and there were sixty elementary teachers' records and sixty high school teachers' records used.

Following the random selection of records to be used, it was sometimes found after reading and classifying the data that a particular record did not contain sufficient evidence. A record was rejected if it did not contain a minimum of six evidences of ways of handling children and data pertaining to classroom organization. Records were also rejected if it were found that the record had been kept by a person other than a regular classroom teacher, such as the principal, physical education director, or guidance counselor. Only the records of classroom teachers were used. It was thought that specialists, other than teachers, did not present the average classroom climate in their anecdotes. All records that were rejected from the original random selection were called "rejectees". In each case it was necessary to replace these "rejectees" from the available supply. This was done in the following manner: If there were only one "rejectee" in the group, it was replaced with the first record from the reserve supply. If there were two or more "rejectees", the same procedure was used as in the original sampling. A more concrete example would be to take Level II of the high school grades from the Louisiana-Texas area where ten records were needed and were selected from the original sixty-two records that were available. (See Table I, p. 120.) Random selection was made by pulling each fourth record based on the formula "number

available divided by the number needed" or  $42$  (number available) divided by  $10$  (number needed) or  $42 \div 10 = 4$ ; thus, each fourth record was selected from the file of forty-two records. During the classification of the records from that group, it was found that two of the records could not be used, "rejectees". The selection of the two replacements was made by taking the remainder of the records of this Level II, which was thirty-two, resulting from taking ten of the original forty-two, and dividing that number, thirty-two, by the number of replacements for the two "rejectees" or  $32 \div 2 = 16$ . Then each sixteenth record from the file was selected as a replacement for the corresponding "rejectee".

Distribution of records by school year sessions -- As previously stated the research was concerned with the three organized years of the in-service program for teachers as it operates from the Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland. This project was specifically concerned with the 1947-48, 1948-49, and 1949-50 school sessions. In the random selection of the records no effort was made to distribute the selected records in a preconceived manner by school years. In other words, no attempt was made to allocate the records so that an equal number of the 1947-48 records would be equally distributed throughout the three Levels, I, II, and III. Neither were the records arranged so that Level I would contain forty records dated 1947-48; Level II with forty 1948-49 records, and Level III with an equal number of 1949-50 records. Based on chance in the random selection previously described, the records were distributed by school session years in the following order:

TABLE II  
DISTRIBUTION OF RECORDS BY SCHOOL SESSION YEARS

	<u>1947-48</u>	<u>1948-49</u>	<u>1949-50</u>	<u>Total</u>
Number records in Level I .....	9	15	16	40
Number records in Level II .....	14	19	7	40
Number records in Level III .....	<u>9</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>40</u>
Total...	32	56	32	120

NOTE: This table should be read as follows: In Level I there were nine records dated 1947-48 as compared with sixteen records dated 1949-50; in Level III there was the same number of records dated 1947-48 that were dated in 1949-50.

This chance distribution of teachers' anecdotal records adds to the significance of the findings as presented in Chapter VI. From inspection, Table II reveals that in the chance distribution there were sixteen 1949-50 records in Level I compared to nine 1947-48 records in Level I. In Level III there was the same distribution of 1947-48 and 1949-50 records. Therefore, if there should be change in certain curriculum practices as found in the teachers' records, that change could not be attributed to variables other than the in-service child study program because of the over-balance of 1949-50 records in the beginning year of the program, Level I. If there were the opposite type of distribution, i.e. sixteen 1947-48 records at Level I and nine 1949-50 records at the same level, the other figures remaining as they are, one might attribute change to factors other than this in-service program. The distribution of the 1947-48 and the 1949-50 records in Level I and Level III was more influential and this variable was controlled on the basis of the chance distribution.

Distribution of participating teachers on the basis of sex -- In the random selection of teachers' anecdotal records there was no prior arrangement in the allocation of male and female teachers to any particular level or school session year. Because the project excluded principals, physical education directors, and coaches, there was a lesser representation of men. (See Table III, below.)

TABLE III

## DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS' RECORDS ON THE BASIS OF SEX

	<u>Level I</u>	<u>Level II</u>	<u>Level III</u>	<u>Total</u>
Number of women teachers.....	33	38	37	108
Number of men teachers .....	<u>7</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>12</u>
Total...	40	40	40	120
	<u>1947-48</u>	<u>1948-49</u>	<u>1949-50</u>	<u>Total</u>
Number of women teachers.....	30	51	27	108
Number of men teachers .....	<u>2</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>12</u>
Total...	32	56	32	120

From inspection, the distribution of the teachers' records on the basis of sex would not have significant influence on the findings. There was an uneven distribution of the number of men at the different levels of the program, but since 90 per cent of the data was obtained from women teachers this would not affect the findings. Also, there was no reason to assume that curriculum practices of male teachers were significantly different from female teachers.

Order sequence of records -- Following the random selection of the

teachers' records from the quantity on hand, the records were aligned in a file with the first record chosen as number one in the file, the second record chosen became number two, etc. A pattern or sequential order was adhered to in the placement of the record which was to be followed in the analysis procedure as presented in the following table:

TABLE IV  
NUMBER SEQUENCE OF RECORDS FOLLOWED IN THE ANALYSIS

Level	LOUISIANA-TEXAS		MARYLAND	
	Elem.	H. Sch.	Elem.	H. Sch.
I	1	2	3	4
II	5	6	7	8
III	9	10	11	12
I	13-14-15	16-17-18	19-20-21	22-23-24
II	25-26-27	28-29-30	31-32-33	34-35-36
III	37-38-39	40-41-42	43-44-45	46-47-48
I	49-50-51	52-53-54	55-56-57	58-59-60
II	61-62-63	64-65-66	67-68-69	70-71-72
III	73-74-75	76-77-78	79-80-81	82-83-84
I	85-86-87	88-89-90	91-92-93	94-95-96
II	97-98-99	100-101-102	103-104-105	106-107-108
III	109-110-111	112-113-114	115-116-117	118-119-120

From the table it is evident that one hundred twenty records were used in the research. (This does not include the thirty records of the pilot study.) There were sixty records from each of the two areas: Louisiana-Texas area and the Maryland area. There were sixty records from the elementary field and sixty high school teachers' records. Each of the three Levels, I, II, and III, had forty teachers' records, making a total in each case of one hundred twenty records. From Table IV it is evident that the procedure to be followed in analysis was stratified. The order of the records was arranged to incorporate the one hundred twenty records in a diversified manner so that in case of



fluctuations in the objectivity of the investigator, its effect would not be centered on any one group. A later test revealed a high level of objectivity on the part of the investigator in his analysis of the data. (See pages 143-146 of this chapter.)

Additional factors in the distribution of the data -- In addition to the distribution as recorded in Tables I, II, III, and IV certain other factors concerning these one hundred twenty records should be noted:

(1) The teachers who kept the one hundred twenty records taught in schools of urban, rural, and rural-non-farm communities. Approximately 50 per cent of the records represented teachers and classrooms of urban centers while the other half was composed of rural and rural-non-farm communities.

(2) Teachers of elementary grades four, five, and six selected boys for their anecdotal case studies 82 per cent of the time or forty-nine times out of sixty; they selected girls 18 per cent of the time or eleven times out of sixty. Teachers of high school grades nine, ten, and eleven, selected boys for their anecdotal case studies 57 per cent of the time or thirty-four times out of sixty; they selected girls 43 per cent of the time or twenty-six times from a possible sixty.

(3) Fifty-eight of the sixty elementary teachers taught the same children two-thirds of the school day or more; only two elementary teachers departmentalized the school day with one teacher for arithmetic, another for reading, another for language, and continuing until each subject was taught by a different teacher throughout the school day. Quite the opposite was evident in the high school grades. In the

random selection of records the scatter of subject-matter fields for high school included: algebra, English, home arts, biology, spelling, shorthand, typing, home economics, history, Latin, agriculture, speech, music, French, arts and crafts, and science. However, there was some deviation from the strict subject-matter approach with four of the sixty teachers. These four were teachers of the core program involving a combination of English-social studies. There was one high school that had no departmentalization and the record of the tenth grade teacher from that school indicated that she taught all the tenth grade subjects in a "common learnings" or "complete core program". This was the exception for the high school grades; of the sixty high school records fifty-five or 92 per cent revealed a departmentalized organization.

All of these factors were the result of the random sampling in the selection of the records. All available evidence suggests that the chance distribution as presented here was representative of the areas under investigation.

## II. CLASSIFICATION OF DATA

Following the random selection of teachers' anecdotal records from the two areas, Louisiana-Texas and Maryland, the pertinent evidence on the ways teachers handle children and their responses, and classroom organization was gleaned from each record and classified. Pertinent evidence was defined as evidence that could be classified into the organizational framework, according to explanations in the previous chapter.

Ways teachers handle children and their responses -- Each of the one hundred twenty records was first processed for interpersonal

teacher-pupil relationships; pertinent evidence was classified on Form A, page 130, if the teacher used a "more positive" way of handling the child; however, if the teacher used a "more negative" method of handling, it was classified in Form B, page 132. In either case the child's response to the handling was either classified as positive (+) or negative (-) as determined by the evidence. The child's response was marked (0) if there were no evidence or if it were undeterminable. An example of how accounts of teacher-pupil evidence were classified on Forms A and B is presented on the following pages:

For clarification of the classification procedure used by the investigator it might be helpful to review the illustrative anecdote below from a teacher's anecdotal record on Velma. The teacher's way of handling the teen-age girl, who has been forced back to school by the compulsory attendance law, is indicated below:

March 27 - Velma seems to be unable to adjust to school. She is not accomplishing much in her academic subjects, failing four of the five subjects. Today I tried something new. Some of the ninth grade girls had chosen cleaning and beautifying the school grounds as part of their free activity program. This group met for that purpose for one hour on Friday afternoon. On a home visit, I had detected that Velma did a superb job of cleaning the home yard of leaves and rubbish by using a home-made broom. As the girls left the room for their activity, I suggested, "I'll bet Velma can help this group a great deal if you will encourage her." The girls were interested and encouraged her.

Velma took some branches from witch-hazel bushes, tied them together in such a way as to make a "brush-broom". Then she was unusually skillful using the witch-hazel broom for cleaning the school grounds. The other girls looked on in amazement.

When Velma completed, they asked if she might join their activity group. Velma's response was, "I'd like it, in fact, I'd enjoy helping make the school ground pretty, instead of trying to read something in the library that I'm not interested in."

The group unanimously accepted Velma and immediately they started planning additional ways of beautifying the grounds.

In view of what this teacher knew about Velma she provided an opportunity for her to participate, to do something well, which is one way of obtaining belonging in a group. The investigator classified this anecdote as a teacher's "more positive" way of handling a girl and the anecdote was indicated by date on Form A on the top line entitled "evidences", with the date, 3/27. The next step was to decide the more specific classification listed in Form A. The teacher's handling seemed to approximate "opportunity to participate" under Group II, so 3/27 was placed on that line. Based on Velma's behavior, as a result of the way the teacher provided a way for her to participate, her response was classified as positive (+); therefore, on the line entitled "opportunity to participate" in Group II, the date, 3/27, was followed with the appropriate symbol so that the final classification for that anecdote appeared as 3/27 +. (See Form A, page 130.)

To further clarify the classification procedure, the following Form A has been completed and represents an anecdotal record as it might appear when the evidences have been fully classified for "more positive ways teachers handle children and the children's responses". This involves one teacher and one child and represents one fourth of the classification of one record. (See next page for completed Form A.)

Similarly the same procedure was used in classifying the "more negative ways teachers handle children and children's responses". Taking an anecdote from the case of an elementary school boy, the teacher used a "more negative way" of handling him.

## FORM A - - - - No. 20

MORE POSITIVE WAYS TEACHERS HANDLE CHILDREN  
AND CHILDREN'S RESPONSES

Evidences	<u>10/9;11/16;11/24;12/5;1/20;1/13;1/17;1/20;1/25;</u> <u>2/4;2/9;2/16;3/7;3/10;3/27;4/3;4/3;4/12;4/28;5/2;</u>	Total #	<u>23</u>		
Group I	.....	#	+	0	-
Praise	<u>1/13.0; 1/17.-; 1/25.0; 2/16.+; 3/10.+;</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>
Recognition	<u>1/10.0; 1/25.+; 4/3.+;</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	
Concern	.....				
	Total...	<u>8</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>
Group II	.....	#	+	0	-
Opportunity to participate	<u>11/16.+; 11/24.0; 1/12.+;</u> <u>2/9.+; 3/27.+;</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>	
Supportive	.....				
Comforting	.....				
Helpful	<u>10/9.0; 4/12.+; 4/28.+;</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	
Encouraging	<u>5/2.0</u>	<u>1</u>		<u>1</u>	
	Total...	<u>9</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>3</u>	
Group III	.....	#	+	0	-
Sharing	<u>10/12.+</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>		
Rapport	.....				
	Total...	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>		
Group IV	.....	#	+	0	-
Indirect	.....				
Permissive	<u>4/3.0</u>	<u>1</u>		<u>1</u>	
Agreeing	.....				
	Total...	<u>1</u>		<u>1</u>	
Group V	.....	#	+	0	-
Reasoning	<u>2/4.0</u>	<u>1</u>		<u>1</u>	
Guidance	<u>1/20.+</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>		
Reflective thinking	.....				
Ignoring	.....				
Avoidance of threat	.....				
	Total...	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	
Group VI	.....	#	+	0	-
Ethics (child recognized)	<u>3/7.+</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>		
Empathy	.....				
	Total...	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>		
Group VII	.....	#	+	0	-
Intrinsic motivation	.....				
Intrinsic competition	.....				
	Total...				
Group VIII	.....	#	+	0	-
Humor	<u>12/5.+</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>		
	GRAND TOTAL...	<u>23</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>1</u>

Symbols: # = number of evidences; + = positive pupil response;  
0 = no response or undeterminable; - = negative pupil response

January 9th - I reviewed several incidents of the past few weeks to Johnny where he was making a very undesirable citizen at school. I told him that those were the reasons why he had not been made a member of the safety patrol. Finally I explained to Johnny the probability of him being suspended from school and the legal results of suspensions. I explained to him that as a last resort we had institutions called "reform schools" to which boys were sent who could not conform to our society. I told him I was at the end of my patience trying to get him to conduct himself as he should. I told him I was through giving so much of my time to controlling him when I had thirty-one other pupils who appreciated my efforts and deserved my attention. Lastly, I said if his conduct did not improve that I was recommending to the principal that he be suspended from school at once.

As I concluded Johnny was silent. His face was drawn and his pupils were dilated. His voice quivered as he said, "All I can say is that I'm sorry." He appeared to be frightened.

The investigator classified the teacher's behavior as "more negative" and the date of the anecdote was entered on Form B as 1/9. It was more specifically classified in Group I of Form B as "threat" and the date, 1/9, was entered on that line. Based on Johnny's reaction, his response was classified as negative with the symbol (-). This symbol was entered on the line entitled "threat" following the date in this manner: 1/9 - .

In order that the reader may get a more comprehensive picture of Forms A and B, they have been filled in and appear as they would after a record has been processed for the different ways teachers handle children and the responses. (See Form A, page 130 and Form B, page 132.)

Classroom organization -- As soon as a teacher's anecdotal record was processed for ways teachers handle children and the children's responses, exemplified on Forms A and B, the same record was reprocessed for evidences of classroom organization. (This phase of the framework was explained in Chapter IV.)

## FORM B - - - - No. 79

MORE NEGATIVE WAYS TEACHERS HANDLE CHILDREN  
AND CHILDREN'S RESPONSES

Evidences	<u>10/1; 10/11; 10/13; 10/13; 10/15; 10/15;</u> <u>10/20; 10/21; 11/1; 11/10; 11/10; 11/21; 12/8;</u> <u>1/9; 3/15; 5/11; 5/12;</u>	Total #	<u>17</u>
Group I		#	+ 0 -
Punishment	<u>10/12.-;</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
Threat	<u>1/9.-; 3/15.-; 5/12.-;</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>3</u>
Physical Punishment	<u>5/11.-;</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
Reprimand	<u>10/11.+;</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
Deprivation			
	Total...	<u>6</u>	<u>1 5</u>
Group II		#	+ 0 -
Shame	<u>10/13.0;</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
Degradation	<u>10/15.-; 10/20.-;</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>
Sarcasm			
Insincerity			
	Total...	<u>3</u>	<u>1 2</u>
Group III		#	+ 0 -
Motivation (extrinsic)	<u>11/21.+; 12/8.0;</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1 1</u>
Competition (extrinsic)			
	Total...	<u>2</u>	<u>1 1</u>
Group IV		#	+ 0 -
Autocratic	<u>10/13.-; 10/15.+; 10/21.0;</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1 1 1</u>
Directive			
Questioning, forcing answers			
Non-Avoidance	<u>11/10.-;</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
	Total...	<u>4</u>	<u>1 1 2</u>
Group V		#	+ 0 -
Ethics (teacher)	<u>11/1.0; 11/10.-;</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1 1</u>
	Total...	<u>2</u>	<u>1 1</u>
	GRAND TOTAL...	<u>17</u>	<u>3 4 10</u>

Symbols: # number of evidences  
+ positive pupil response  
0 no response or undeterminable  
- negative pupil response

The concern here was whether the evidences could be classified under the type of classroom that is "more democratically organized" or "more autocratically organized".

Following the procedure that was illustrated earlier in Forms A and B, evidences of classroom organization were classified on Form C, "more democratically organized classroom", and on Form D, "more autocratically organized classroom".

The following example illustrates organization of committees based on pupil needs and interests as referred to in Group II of Form C:

October 4 - As a part of our social-studies and language arts period the class had decided that they would like to have a school newspaper. Royce suggested that certain committees should be formed to assume different responsibilities.

Donald, who was acting as chairman for the discussion asked, "If we do agree that committees should be formed, what committees do we need and what is the basis for membership?"

Consensus was reached that committees would be needed. As committees were suggested Mary Ann listed them on the board, including: editing, reporting, finance, publicity, and printing committees.

Donald asked for suggestions concerning participation on the committees that were listed. After much discussion they decided to allow individuals to volunteer for the particular committee that each would be most interested in or felt that each could learn the most from; after the group was formed the members of that group would select a chairman and a co-chairman, if needed.

Donald (my case study) waited until most of the children had selected a committee to work in and then he said, "I would like to work on the publicity one because I'm interested in advertising and if I become an auctioneer when I grow up, I will need to know how to advertise what I have to sell as well as auction it off."

In this classroom situation there was opportunity for children to select committees that they were interested in. The case study, Donald,



specifically indicated his interest in advertising. There was no stereotyped or mechanical formation of the committees. From the evidence the investigator made the broad classification first by entering it on the top line of "evidences" of Form C, followed with a more detailed classification by indicating the date of the anecdote, 10/4, under Group II, "pupil needs and interests through committees". For additional clarification, Form C has been completed as it would appear following classification of evidences from a typical record. (See Form C, page 135.)

## FORM C - - - - No. 105

## MORE DEMOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOM

Evidences 10/4; 10/21; 11/19; 11/19; 11/23; 11/24; Total... # 22  
12/6; 12/14; 12/17; 1/6; 1/24; 1/31; 2/7; 2/9;  
2/9; 2/16; 3/3; 3/4; 3/4; 4/3; 4/26; 5/4;

Group I - Democratic Procedures with pupil-pupil and/or pupil-teacher in:  
 Planning 11/23; 12/17 # 2  
 Doing 11/19; 3/4 # 2  
 Sharing 3/3 # 1  
 Evaluating 5/4 # 1

Evidences in I .....Total # 6

Group II - Pupil Needs and Interests through:  
 Individual differences 2/9 # 1  
 Pupil-pupil relationships \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Pupil-teacher relationships \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Committees 10/4 # 1  
 Grouping \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_  
 Intrinsic motivation \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Evidences in II .....Total # 2

Group III - Classroom Working Pattern as being more:  
 Permissive 4/3 # 1  
 Functional, Practical, and purposeful  
 experience 12/6; 12/14; 2/9; 3/4; 4/26 # 5  
 Discussion 1/6 # 1  
 Creative 10/21; 11/19; 1/24; 1/31; 2/7; 2/16 # 6  
 Pupil responsibility 11/24 # 1

Evidences in III .....Total # 14

GRAND TOTAL # 22

FORM D - - - - No. 88

## MORE AUTOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOM

Evidences 9/29; 10/20; 10/29; 11/14; 11/24; 12/1; Total... # 14  
1/7; 1/28; 1/28; 1/30; 2/3; 2/13; 3/3; 4/8;

## Group I -

Teacher dominated	<u>11/24; 12/1; 2/3</u>	# <u>3</u>
Regimented	<u>10/20</u>	# <u>1</u>
Autocratic	<u>9/27</u>	# <u>1</u>

Evidences in I ..... Total # 5

Group II - Subject-matter with emphasis on:

Academics	<u>10/29</u>	# <u>1</u>
Homework	<u>11/14</u>	# <u>1</u>
Departmentalization		#
Extrinsic motivation	<u>1/7; 1/28; 1/30</u>	# <u>3</u>

Evidences in II ..... Total # 5

Group III - Lack of concern for:

Individual needs, interests, differences	<u>2/3; 4/8</u>	# <u>2</u>
Spontaneity		#
Creativeness	<u>1/28; 2/13</u>	# <u>2</u>

Evidences in III ..... Total # 4

GRAND TOTAL # 14

Proceeding with the "more autocratically organized classroom", there was emphasis on subject matter as indicated on Form D; the following example will help clarify this phase of the classification procedure:

November 14 - My eleventh grade literature class was studying Macbeth. For three successive days I had assigned specific parts of the play to be memorized as a part of their homework. For just that number of times Olivia had failed to do her work. Three times in succession she was unable to give her memory work. My hypothesis is that she is dating each night and doesn't have time for her more important assignments.

It was first broadly classified under "evidences" on Form D, listing the date 11/14. More specific classification was made by making an entry, 11/14, in Group II under "subject matter with emphasis on homework". Just as the other Forms A, B, and C were completed to illustrate the use of these forms with each record, the same has been done with Form D, page 136.

Inventory, Form E -- In addition to the four classification forms previously described, there was a final inventory form on which more general information was listed from each record. (See Form E, page 138.)

FORM E - - - - No. 118

## GENERAL INFORMATION

AREA Louisiana \* - Texas . . . . . Maryland

YEARS IN CHILD STUDY Level I . . . . . Level \*II . . . . . Level III

SEX Male Female\*

RURAL\* \_\_\_\_\_

URBAN \_\_\_\_\_

SEMI-RURAL OR SEMI-URBAN \_\_\_\_\_

YEAR OF RECORD 1947-1948 . . . . . 1948\*-1949 . . . . . 1949-1950

GRADES 4, 5, 6 or 9, 10, 11

SEX Boy\* Girl

AGE 11

SUBJECT All Subjects

### III. OBJECTIVITY, RELIABILITY, AND VALIDITY OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL FRAMEWORK

#### Objectivity and reliability

Reliability is defined as the degree to which the procedure can be guaranteed to give consistent results.<sup>68</sup> A high degree of objectivity substantiates reliability. The investigator determined objectivity and reliability of the framework in three different ways: (1) Objectivity was determined with judges analyzing and classifying the same data as the investigator, obtaining percentages of agreement. (2) Reliability was determined by checking the classification results of the investigator on the same records that had been checked eight weeks earlier by the investigator. (3) Reliability was also determined by tabulating the consistency in frequency of evidences obtained in the analysis of three groups of thirty-six records each.

Judges and objectivity -- Three judges were selected to test the objectivity of the organizational framework. Each of them was a doctoral student in the Institute for Child Study with a rich experience background in the organized three year in-service program with which the study was concerned. Each had worked for at least three years in the field program prior to concentrated study in the Institute. Their experience with teachers' anecdotal records was a prerequisite for their selection as judges since the judging was based on the analysis of case records.

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<sup>68</sup>Carter V. Good, A. S. Barr, Douglas E. Scates, The Methodology of Educational Research, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941), p. 557.

The investigator worked with the judges for approximately six two-hour sessions acquainting them with the framework. The procedure for training the judges was the same as that used in explaining the framework in Chapter IV; i.e. it was done chiefly with illustrative examples of the various categories.

At the end of six practice sessions the three judges revealed familiarity with and competence in using the framework for analyzing and classifying the data, using Forms A, B, C, and D. As a test of the investigator's objectivity the judges were given a record to classify that had been used in the original research. They followed the same procedure that the investigator had followed in his classification. The record was first analyzed for "ways the teacher handled the child and the child's response to that handling" and then the record was re-processed for "classroom organization".

The percentage of agreement of each judge with the investigator was based on the following formula:

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Percentage} \\ \text{of} \\ \text{Agreement} \end{array} = \frac{\text{Number of identical categorizations made by} \\ \text{judge and researcher in a given category}}{\text{Number of categorizations made by researcher} \\ \text{in the same category}} \times 100$$

Using this formula it was found that the mean percentage of agreement between the three judges and the investigator for the categories pertaining to "more positive ways and more negative ways teachers handle children and their responses" was:

Judge A .....	90 per cent
Judge B .....	88 per cent
Judge C .....	91 per cent

The grand mean percentage of agreement of the three judges with investigator was 89.7 per cent on "ways teachers handle children and their responses".

Table V indicates the range of percentage of agreement of individual judges with the investigator on different categories pertaining to: (1) more positive ways of handling children and their responses, and (2) more negative ways of handling children and their responses. (For details of the various categories, see Form A, page 130 and Form B, page 132.)

TABLE V  
PERCENTAGES OF AGREEMENT OF JUDGES AND INVESTIGATOR  
IN CATEGORIZING 120 ITEMS ON "WAYS TEACHERS HANDLE  
CHILDREN AND THEIR RESPONSES"

Judge	More Positive Handling	More Negative Handling	More Positive Groups I - VIII	More Negative Groups I - VI	Child's Resp.s to Pos. Hand.	Child's Resp.s to Neg. Hand.	Mean
A	100	100	76	100	94	71	90
B	100	100	76	86	91	71	87
C	97	100	82	100	97	86	94
Mean	99	100	78	95	94	76	90

The mean percentage of agreement between the judges and the investigator for all categories pertaining to "classroom organization" was:

Judge A .....92.5 per cent  
 Judge B .....96 per cent  
 Judge C .....96 per cent

The grand mean percentage of agreement of judges with the investigator on "classroom organization" was 95 per cent. (See Table VI, page 142.)



Table VI, which follows, indicates the range of percentage of agreement of individual judges with the investigator on different categories pertaining to: (1) more democratically organized classrooms, and (2) more autocratically organized classrooms. (For specific details of these categories, see Form C, page 135 and Form D, page 136.)

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGES OF AGREEMENT OF JUDGES AND INVESTIGATOR  
IN CATEGORIZING 80 ITEMS OF "CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION"

Judge	More Democratic Classroom	More Autocratic Classroom	Groups I - III of Form C	Groups I - III of Form D	Mean
A	95	95	81	95	91.5
B	100	100	95	89.5	96
C	100	100	90	95	96
Mean	98	98	89	93	94.5

The percentages of agreement of individual judges with the investigator on all categories of the entire organizational framework were:

Judge A .....91 per cent  
 Judge B .....91.5 per cent  
 Judge C .....93 per cent

The objectivity of the framework and of the way it was applied in analysis of records has been demonstrated by the high percentages of agreement of the trained judges and the investigator.

Measure of reliability through reclassification of the same records eight weeks later -- The investigator selected one elementary record and one high school record from the original research and re-categorized these same anecdotal records eight weeks later. These records were not randomly chosen but they were selected on the following bases: (1) They were teachers' records from the original research. (2) They were records that had been duplicated by the Institute for Child Study, thereby making it possible to have an unmarked copy of the original record for the second categorization. (3) The records were rich in evidences with which the study was concerned.

The percentage of agreement was computed between the first classification and the second classification eight weeks later, using the formula that was used with the three judges.

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Percentage} \\ \text{of} \\ \text{Agreement} \end{array} = \frac{\text{Number of identical categorizations made by} \\ \text{judge and researcher in a given category}}{\text{Number of categorizations made by researcher} \\ \text{in the same category}} \times 100$$

The initial classification was considered as that of the researcher because it was used in the project; the second classification eight weeks later was treated as comparable to that of the judge in the formula. Percentages of agreement are shown in the following tables VII and VIII.

TABLE VII

PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT OF INVESTIGATOR WITH HIMSELF EIGHT WEEKS LATER IN THE CATEGORIZATION OF "WAYS OF HANDLING A CHILD AND RESPONSE"

	Teacher's Record								
	More Positive Handling	100	100	100	85	92	96	84	93
	More Negative Handling	100	100	100	82	98	96	86	93
El. #1	More Positive Groups I - VIII	100	100	85	85	92	96	84	93
H. Sch. #1	More Negative Groups I - V	100	100	82	82	98	96	86	93
	Child Response to Positive Handling	100	100	83.5	83.5	95	96	85	93
	Child Response to Negative Handling	100	100	83.5	83.5	95	96	85	93
Mean	Mean	100	100	83.5	83.5	95	96	85	93

TABLE VIII

PERCENTAGES OF AGREEMENT OF INVESTIGATOR WITH HIMSELF EIGHT WEEKS LATER IN CATEGORIZATION OF EVIDENCES OF CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION

	Teacher's Record							
	More Democratic Classr'm Org'n	100	100	100	94	92	96.5	
	More Autocratic Classr'm Org'n	100	100	100	94	94	97	
Elementary #1	Groups I - III of Form C	100	100	94	94	92	96.5	
High School #1	Groups I - III of Form D	100	100	94	94	94	97	
Mean	Mean	100	100	94	94	93	97	

Chi-square test was applied to the data in Tables VII and VIII to determine whether the differences were significant. The results indicated no significant difference in the categorizations of the original records with the same records eight weeks later. The high percentages of agreement indicated by the ability of the investigator to obtain consistent results establishes the reliability of the organizational framework and its use by the investigator.

Consistency in the number of evidences from the records -- A second check on the reliability of the framework was to test the consistency of the investigator in obtaining the same number of evidences of ways of handling children and classroom organization in the analysis of each of three groups of thirty-six records. From inspection of Table IV, page 125, on the sequence of analyzing the teachers' records it is evident that the procedure consisted of analyzing three records in each group. This sequence was followed by levels through elementary and high school teachers' records for each area until thirty-six records were completed. Then the identical sequence was followed for the next thirty-six records and the third group of thirty-six. The investigator obtained the following number of evidences from each of the three groups.

First 36 records revealed	.....	981 evidences	or 34.6%
Second 36 records revealed	.....	931 evidences	or 32.8%
Third 36 records revealed	.....	<u>926</u> evidences	or <u>32.6%</u>
Total 108 records revealed	.....	2838 evidences	or 100 %

The chi-square test, used to determine significant differences in the three groups of evidences, revealed no significant difference between the three groups. Therefore, reliability of the organizational framework was further established.

## Validity

In validating the framework of this research the concern was whether the framework actually identified and measured the phenomena investigated by this study. Ordinarily validity would be checked by correlating the results obtained from this framework with the results obtained from other validated indexes that are designed to measure similar outcomes. In this case there were no validated frameworks or instruments for correlation purposes. However, the researcher does have some reasons for believing that the framework is valid:

(1) The framework evolved from curriculum practices that were detected in teachers' anecdotal records. A preconceived framework was not taken to the records; the categories of the organizational framework evolved in accordance with the data revealed in the records themselves.

(2) After the framework evolved it was found that certain categories as defined in the forms had some characteristics similar to the framework used by Howard H. Anderson in his study of "Domination and Socially Integrative Behavior." He developed categories, involving teacher-pupil relationships, concerning harmony as measured against conflict, democratic versus autocratic, and other categories which could be compared to the investigator's framework. Also, the classroom organization phase of the framework had characteristics similar to traditional practices and newer practices of classroom procedures as given in Eunice Matthew's dissertation. (See Chapter IV, pages 96-98.)

(3) The brief training of the judges followed by high percentages of agreement in judging may be a validating factor.

(4) A review of Chapter II on the related research reveals common

agreement among authorities (Symonds, Wrightstone, Witty, and others) concerning classifications of pupil-teacher relationships and types of classrooms. Since the categories in the framework of this study are compatible with categories used by specialists, as Witty and others, that in itself may be significant for validation purposes.

(5) The framework evolved in this study was not the result of work by only one person. Three graduate students<sup>69</sup> worked with the investigator on what constituted the different categories of the forms; this agreement may tend to validate its use.

Validity of the organizational framework should be determined by testing it against other validated instruments and if there were a high correlation one could be reasonably sure of its validity. The investigator was not aware of any similar instruments that have been scientifically validated. Thus, there was no purpose in testing the investigator's framework with other invalidated instruments. As aforementioned, the five points that have been given do not scientifically validate the organizational framework of this study, but they do suggest that the framework is a valid instrument for measuring teachers' ways of handling children and classroom organization.

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<sup>69</sup>Vimla N. Surie, Robert Williamson, and Charles Proctor.

## CHAPTER VI

### THE FINDINGS

In the previous chapter the objectivity and reliability of the organizational framework were established. Procedures for using the framework were described and indirect evidences of its validity were presented. Following the classification of evidences, data were tabulated from Forms A, B, C, D, and E of the framework. (See appendix for copies of these forms.) Results from the tabulation were tested by the statistical method of chi-square to determine levels of significance to the problems presented in Chapter I, pages 5-7. The formula<sup>70</sup> for chi-square was:

$$\chi^2 = \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$$

Problems to be investigated were stated in the form of questions and the null hypothesis was applied. Based on the significance determined by chi-square, probability was computed and the null hypothesis was either rejected or sustained. Although some of the tables and graphs show occurrence in percentages, actual frequencies were used in determining significance. For this study, change was not accepted as significant unless it was at the 5 per cent level or above.<sup>71</sup> The majority of the changes were at the 1 per cent level of significance.

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<sup>70</sup>E. F. Lindquist, Statistical Analysis in Educational Research, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940), pp. 30-48.

<sup>71</sup>Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education, (Longmans, Green and Co., 1949), p. 24.

The problems presented in Chapter I and likewise the findings presented here deal with the areas of teacher-pupil relationships, classroom organization, and other problems related to the study.

#### I. FINDINGS IN THE AREA OF TEACHER-PUPIL RELATIONSHIPS

Each specific problem in this area was stated in question form for the chi-square test. Its significance was first computed and the probability determined, thereby sustaining or refuting the "equal answer" or null hypothesis.

(1) Was there a significant change in the proportion of more positive to more negative ways of handling children at the three levels of the child study program?

The hypothesis tested here was: there was no proportional change in the more positive to the more negative ways of handling children during the three levels of the program. Chi-square test for significant differences revealed that differences of proportionate change between more positive and more negative ways of handling children were at the 1 per cent level. Therefore the null hypothesis was refuted and the change of observed from expected results was much too large to be attributed solely to sampling fluctuations. (See Table IX, page 150, and Figure I in appendix B.)



TABLE IX  
PROPORTION OF POSITIVE TO NEGATIVE WAYS OF HANDLING CHILDREN

Ways of Handling .....		Level I	Level II	Level III	Total
More Positive	(Observed	348	329	401	1078
	(Expected	(393.3)	(333.6)	(351)	1078
More Negative	(Observed	285	208	164	657
	(Expected	(239.7)	(203.4)	(214)	657
Total .....		633	537	565	1735

$\chi^2 = 33.249$
P = .01

(2) Was there a significant change in the more positive ways teachers handled children at the three different levels of the child study program?

If there were no significant change, the null hypothesis would have been retained but from inspection of Table X, it is evident from the chi-square score that change in more positive ways teachers handled children was significant at the 3 per cent level.<sup>72</sup> From inspection of Table X it was noted there was a decrease in observed evidences in the first through the second levels of the program; however, there was change from the first through the third year of the program at the 5 per cent level of significance.

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<sup>72</sup>It should be remembered the chi-square test measures change but not the direction of change.

TABLE X  
MORE POSITIVE WAYS TEACHERS HANDLED CHILDREN

Elem. & High Sch. ....	Level I	Level II	Level III	Total
Observed evidences .....	348	329	401	1078
Expected evidences .....	359.33	359.33	359.33	1078
	$X^2 = 7.749$			
	$P = .03$ (by interpolation)			

Elem. & High Sch. ....	Level I	Level III	Total
Observed evidences .....	348	401	749
Expected evidences .....	374.5	374.5	749
	$X^2 = 3.9$		
	$P = .05$		

(3) Was there a significant change in the more negative ways teachers handled children at the three different levels of the program?

This study showed that teachers at successive levels of child study used proportionately fewer negative ways of handling children. These changes in evidences of negative handling were significant at the 1 per cent level. Contrary to change noted in more positive ways of handling, Table X, this latter change was continuous. (See Table XI, page 152, and Figure I, appendix B.)

TABLE XI

## MORE NEGATIVE WAYS TEACHERS HANDLED CHILDREN

Elem. & High Sch. ....	Level I	Level II	Level III	Total
Observed evidences .....	285	208	164	657
Expected evidences .....	219	219	219	657
	$X^2 = 34.254$ $P = .01$			

(4) Was there a significant difference in the ways teachers handled children in the elementary grades compared to ways teachers handled children in high school? If different, how were they different?

There was significant change in the use of more positive ways elementary teachers handled children during the three year levels of the program; conversely there was no significant change in high school teachers with reference to the same general behavior toward children. This finding was indicated in the high chi-square score and 1 per cent probability for elementary teachers and the low chi-square score and lack of significance for high school teachers. The program seemed to have significant effect on elementary teachers as evidenced in their growth in the use of more positive ways of handling children but there appeared to be no comparable change in high school teachers.<sup>73</sup> (See Table XII, page 153, and Figure II and Figure III, appendix B.)

<sup>73</sup>From inspection of Table XII there was a decrease in the number of positive evidences for elementary teachers at Level II. Yet  $X^2$  revealed a significance at 1 per cent for Level I to Level III, substantiating the previous finding.

TABLE XII

ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS COMPARED ON MORE  
POSITIVE WAYS OF HANDLING CHILDREN

<u>Elementary Grades</u> ...	<u>Level I</u>	<u>Level II</u>	<u>Level III</u>	<u>Total</u>
Observed evidences ...	201	177	256	634
Expected evidences ...	211.3	211.3	211.3	634
	$X^2 = 15.526$			
	$P = .01$			

<u>High School Grades</u> ...	<u>Level I</u>	<u>Level II</u>	<u>Level III</u>	<u>Total</u>
Observed evidences ...	147	152	145	444
Expected evidences ...	148	148	148	444
	$X^2 = .174$			
	$P = .70$			

Taking the counterpart of this question, it was found that elementary teachers used fewer negative ways of handling children. The same was true of high school teachers. Significance was at the 1 per cent level for both elementary and high school teachers. (See Table XIII, page 154, and Figure II and Figure III, appendix B.)

TABLE XIII

ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS COMPARED ON MORE  
NEGATIVE WAYS OF HANDLING CHILDREN

<u>Elementary Grades</u> ...	<u>Level I</u>	<u>Level II</u>	<u>Level III</u>	<u>Total</u>
Observed evidences ...	180	150	100	430
Expected evidences ...	143.3	143.3	143.3	430
	$\chi^2 = 22.795$			
	P = .01			

<u>High School Grades</u> ...	<u>Level I</u>	<u>Level II</u>	<u>Level III</u>	<u>Total</u>
Observed evidences ...	105	58	64	227
Expected evidences ...	75.67	75.67	75.67	227
	$\chi^2 = 17.295$			
	P = .01			

(5) Was there a significant change in specific ways teachers handled children? When applicable, how did elementary and high school teachers differ in their ways of handling children?

Specific Changes in Positive Ways of Handling Children

A study of the evidences as illustrated on page 156, Table XIV, and Figure VII and Figure VIII, appendix B, will reveal changes in some of the specific ways teachers handled children during the three year levels of the child study program. In accordance with the value assumptions of this study with respect to teachers' treatment of children, it was suggested that evidences of more positive ways of handling would increase and that evidences of more negative ways of handling would

decrease. This was true of the totals and it was generally true of the sub-categories in the various groups. The one significant exception was in Group I pertaining to praise, recognition, and concern. In those ways of handling as used by elementary and high school teachers, there was a significant decrease at the 1 per cent level. It was found that the significant decrease for Group I (praise, recognition, and concern) was registered by elementary teachers. In other words, the finding that elementary teachers revealed proportionately fewer evidences of praise, recognition, and concern at successive levels of the program was not expected. As stated, this was the exception and implications will be drawn from it in the next chapter.

Table XIV, page 156, indicates evidences in Group II pertaining to opportunity to participate, supportive, comforting, helpful, and encouraging. The chi-square test revealed a  $X^2$  score of 8.358 with significance at the 2 per cent level. Thus, when all grades, both elementary and high school, were tested there was significant change in Group II. Table XVI shows that change in elementary teachers toward greater use of Group II ways of handling was more pronounced than in the case of high school teachers. Change in the ways elementary teachers handled children with opportunity to participate, comforting, helpful, and encouraging was significant at the 1 per cent level. There was no significant change in high school teachers in their usage of these same ways of handling.

There were no significant teacher changes in Group III or Group IV in the area pertaining to more positive ways of handling children.

TABLE XIV

## SPECIFIC WAYS OF HANDLING CHILDREN MORE POSITIVELY AT YEAR LEVELS

	<u>Levels</u>	<u>I</u>	<u>II</u>	<u>III</u>	<u>Total</u>
Praise, Recognition, Concern <u>Group I</u> evidences . . . . .		131	97	103	331
Oppor. to Part., Supportive, Comforting, <u>Group II</u> evidences . . . . .		63	90	99	252
Sharing, Rapport <u>Group III</u> evidences . . . . .		42	27	45	114
Indirect, Permissive, Agreeing <u>Group IV</u> evidences . . . . .		35	28	39	102
Reasoning, Guidance, Reflective Thinking, Ignoring, Avoid. of Threat <u>Group V</u> evidences . . . . .		32	44	69	145
Ethics (child recognized), Empathy <u>Group VI</u> evidences . . . . .		17	12	13	42
Motivation (intr'c.), Competition (intr'c.) <u>Group VII</u> evidences . . . . .		18	18	17	53
Humor <u>Group VIII</u> evidences . . . . .		<u>10</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>39</u>
	Total	348	329	401	1078

TABLE XV

## SPECIFIC WAYS OF HANDLING CHILDREN MORE NEGATIVELY AT YEAR LEVELS

	<u>Levels</u>	<u>I</u>	<u>II</u>	<u>III</u>	<u>Total</u>
Punishment, Threat, Reprimand, Physical Punishment, Deprivation <u>Group I</u> evidences . . . . .		108	92	72	272
Shame, Degradation, Sarcasm, Insincerity <u>Group II</u> evidences . . . . .		29	22	15	66
Motivation (extrinsic) Competition (extrinsic) <u>Group III</u> evidences . . . . .		33	15	15	63
Autocratic, Directive, Non-Avoidance, Questioning, Forcing Answers <u>Group IV</u> evidences . . . . .		79	66	50	195
Ethics (teacher recognized) <u>Group V</u> evidences . . . . .		<u>36</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>61</u>
	Total	285	208	164	657

Continuing the use of chi-square test on evidences of specific ways teachers handled children more positively, it was found that teachers changed by making increased use of reasoning, guidance, reflective thinking, ignoring, and avoidance of threat in handling children (Group V, of Table XIV, page 156). This change was significant at the 1 per cent level. If one proceeds to Table XVI, page 159, and inspects Group V, it will be found that this change was more evident in elementary teachers than in high school teachers. Statistically, there was a significant change at the 1 per cent level in elementary teachers. This change showed up as a trend in high school teachers, but it was not statistically significant.



From inspection of the specific ways teachers handled children more positively at the three different year levels of the child study program (Table XIV, page 156), it was evident that teachers did not change significantly in their ability to recognize the ethics of children as contrasted to their own and there were few evidences of empathy. (See Group VI of Table XIV.) In comparison, the investigator detected a limited number of examples of how teachers handled children through intrinsic motivation or intrinsic competition.

It is interesting to note that high school teachers used humor more than elementary teachers in the handling of their boys and girls and they also used rapport to a greater degree than elementary teachers. In all the other more positive ways of handling children, the elementary teachers usually excelled.

TABLE XVI  
 SPECIFIC WAYS OF HANDLING CHILDREN MORE POSITIVELY BY  
 ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS AT THE THREE YEAR LEVELS

	ELEMENTARY				HIGH SCHOOL			
	Levels I	II	III	Total	Levels I	II	III	Total
Praise, Recognition, Concern. <u>Group I evidences</u> . . . . .	87	53	67	207	44	44	36	124
Oppor. to Part., Supportive, Helpful, Comforting, Encouraging. <u>Group II evidences</u> . . . . .	31	55	59	145	32	35	40	107
Sharing, Rapport. <u>Group III evidences</u> . . . . .	18	11	16	45	24	16	29	69
Indirect, Permissive, Agreeing. <u>Group IV evidences</u> . . . . .	19	12	28	59	16	16	11	43
Reasoning, Guidance, Reflective Thinking, Ignoring, Avoid. of Threat. <u>Group V evidences</u> . . . . .	24	25	55	104	8	19	14	41
Ethics (child recog.), Empathy. <u>Group VI evidences</u> . . . . .	13	7	12	32	4	5	1	10
Motivation (intrinsic), Competition (intrinsic). <u>Group VII evidences</u> . . . . .	7	8	12	27	11	10	5	26
Humor. <u>Group VIII evidences</u> . . . . .	2	6	7	15	8	7	9	24
Total	201	177	256	634	147	152	145	444

Specific Changes in More Negative Ways of Handling

It was found that teachers changed more in terms of what they learned not to do to children than they did in the more positive ways of handling children that have just been described. Again, greater changes occurred in elementary teachers than high school teachers. Yet, there was significant change at the 1 per cent level for high school teachers when all the negative ways of handling were taken collectively.

Group I -- punishment, threat, reprimand, physical punishment, and deprivation. If one inspects these more negative ways of handling by number of evidences, Table XV, page 157, it is found there was significant change when elementary and high school teachers were treated together. In fact the  $X^2$  value for this group was 34.254 and significance was at the 1 per cent level. An inspection of the table reveals a consistent decrease in incidence of negative ways of handling children. The change was more pronounced with elementary teachers than with high school teachers.

There was a decrease in the use of shame, degradation, sarcasm, and insincerity of Group II by elementary and high school teachers participating in this in-service program. The decrease was significant at the 5 per cent level when Level I was calculated against Level III.

Group III -- extrinsic motivation and extrinsic competition. Taking the elementary and high school teachers together there was a significant decrease at the 1 per cent level of extrinsic ways of handling boys and girls. However, when the data for only the elementary teachers were considered, no significant change was noted. This was also true of high school teachers when those data were treated separately.

TABLE XVII

SPECIFIC WAYS OF HANDLING CHILDREN MORE NEGATIVELY BY  
ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS AT THE THREE YEAR LEVELS

	ELEMENTARY				HIGH SCHOOL			
	<u>Levels</u> I	<u>II</u>	<u>III</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Levels</u> I	<u>II</u>	<u>III</u>	<u>Total</u>
Punishment, Threat, Reprimand, Physical punishment, Deprivation. <u>Group I</u> evidences . . . . .	73	69	47	189	35	23	25	83
Shame, Degradation, Sarcasm, Insincerity. <u>Group II</u> evidences . . . . .	16	14	7	37	13	8	8	29
Motivation (extrinsic) Competition (extrinsic) <u>Group III</u> evidences . . . . .	18	8	9	35	15	7	6	28
Autocratic, Directive, Non-Avoidance, Questioning, Forcing Answers. <u>Group IV</u> evidences . . . . .	48	48	32	128	31	18	18	67
Ethics (teacher recog.) <u>Group V</u> evidences . . . . .	25	11	5	41	11	2	7	20
Total	180	150	100	430	105	58	64	227

The findings pertaining to Group IV (autocratic, directive, forcing answers, and non-avoidance) were the same as found in Group III.

There was a significant decrease at the 1 per cent level in elementary teachers' use of teacher recognized ethics (Group V). The findings did not show this to be true of high school teachers.

Although there was a significant decrease in all participating teachers in their more negative ways of handling, the results indicated that the program was more effective with elementary teachers than with high school teachers. Likewise, it was found that the change was more noticeable with elementary teachers when compared with high school teachers in the more positive ways of handling. It is not inferred that the child study program was not effective with high school teachers in this area of pupil-teacher relationships. On the contrary there were many significant changes in these teachers. Yet it appears that the effectiveness of the in-service program in terms of teacher change in ways of handling children was more pronounced with the elementary teachers than with high school teachers. (See Figure IX and Figure X, appendix B.)

## II. FINDINGS IN THE AREA OF CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION

The specific problems in the area of classroom organization and procedures were stated in question form to be tested for significance by the statistic, chi-square.

(1) Was there a significant change in evidence of more democratically organized classrooms during three years of the program?

Treating elementary and high school teachers together, a significant change was revealed in evidences of teachers to organize their classrooms

more democratically. The  $X^2$  value of 20.312 indicated that the change was significant at the 1 per cent level. The data were summarized in Figure IV, appendix B, and in the following Table XVIII.

TABLE XVIII  
MORE DEMOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOM

Elem. & H. Sch. . . . .	Level I	Level II	Level III	Total
Observed evidences. . . . .	210	274	320	804
Expected evidences. . . . .	268	268	268	804

$X^2 = 20.312$   
P = .01

(2) Was there a significant change in evidences of more autocratically organized classrooms during three years of the program?

Elementary and high school teachers combined showed a significant decrease in evidences of the more autocratically organized classrooms as revealed in Table XIX below and Figure IV, appendix B. During the three year levels of the child study program the change was significant at less than the 1 per cent level showing that the change was not due to chance fluctuation.

TABLE XIX  
MORE AUTOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOM

Elem. & H. Sch. . . . .	Level I	Level II	Level III	Total
Observed evidences. . . . .	226	174	168	568
Expected evidences. . . . .	189.3	189.3	189.3	568

$X^2 = 9.691$   
P = .01

(3) Was there a significant change during the three years of the program in the ways elementary teachers organized their classrooms as compared to the ways high school teachers organized their classrooms?

There was a significant change on the part of the elementary teachers during the three years of the child study program toward organizing their classrooms more democratically. (See Table XX below and Figure V and Figure VI, appendix B.) Data from the same table indicate that the change was not significant in high school.

TABLE XX

ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS COMPARED ON BASIS  
OF EVIDENCES OF MORE DEMOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOMS

Elementary Grades . . . . .	Level I	Level II	Level III	Total
Observed evidences. . . . .	144	194	248	586
Expected evidences. . . . .	195.3	195.3	195.3	586
	$X^2 = 27.695$			
	$P = .01$			
High School Grades. . . . .	Level I	Level II	Level III	Total
Observed evidences. . . . .	66	80	72	218
Expected evidences. . . . .	72.67	72.67	72.67	218
	$X^2 = 1.357$			
	$P = .70$			

The chi-square test was applied to specific ways of organizing classrooms more democratically to determine if changes were significant during the three years of the program. Elementary teachers made a significant change in their classroom working pattern as characterized by more permissiveness, creativeness, pupil responsibility, discussion, and being more functional, practical, and purposeful. (For a more careful study, refer to Group III of Table XXI, page 165, and Figure XII,

TABLE XXI

SPECIFIC WAYS OF ORGANIZING CLASSROOMS MORE DEMOCRATICALLY BY  
ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS AT THE THREE YEAR LEVELS

	ELEMENTARY				HIGH SCHOOL			
	<u>Levels I</u>	<u>II</u>	<u>III</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Levels I</u>	<u>II</u>	<u>III</u>	<u>Total</u>
Democratic Procedures with pupil-teacher in planning, doing, sharing, evaluating. <u>Group I evidences</u> . . . . .	52	44	51	147	20	11	20	51
Pupil Needs and Interests through: Individual differences, Pupil-pupil relationships, Pupil-teacher relation- ships, Committees, Grouping, Intrinsic motivation. <u>Group II evidences</u> . . . . .	40	53	66	159	16	33	15	64
Classroom Working Pattern as being more: Permissive, Functional, Practical, Purposeful, Discussion, Creative, Pupil Responsibility. <u>Group III evidences</u> . . . . .	<u>52</u>	<u>97</u>	<u>131</u>	<u>280</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>36</u>	<u>37</u>	<u>103</u>
Total	144	194	248	586	66	80	72	218



appendix B.)

The elementary teachers changed significantly in moving away from more autocratic organization. Also there was a trend on the part of high school teachers to make less use of autocratically organized classrooms during successive years of child study, but these changes were not statistically significant. (See Table XXII below and Figure XIV, appendix B.)

TABLE XXII

ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS COMPARED ON BASIS  
OF EVIDENCES OF MORE AUTOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOMS

Elementary Grades . . . . .	Level I	Level II	Level III	Total
Observed evidences. . . . .	114	77	79	270
Expected evidences. . . . .	90	90	90	270
	$X^2 = 9.62$			
	$P = .01$			
High School Grades. . . . .	Level I	Level II	Level III	Total
Observed evidences. . . . .	112	97	89	298
Expected evidences. . . . .	99.3	99.3	99.3	298
	$X^2 = 2.745$			
	$P = .30$			

When the chi-square test for significance was applied to the data in Table XXIII, page 167, it was found there was a significant decrease in the number of evidences of Group I (teacher dominated, regimented, and autocratic) as applied to elementary teachers. It is noteworthy that a significant decrease was also made by the high school teachers. In each case the probability score was near the 1 per cent level of significance.

TABLE XXIII

SPECIFIC WAYS OF ORGANIZING CLASSROOMS MORE AUTOCRATICALLY BY  
ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS AT THE THREE YEAR LEVELS

	ELEMENTARY				HIGH SCHOOL			
	<u>Levels I</u>	<u>II</u>	<u>III</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Levels I</u>	<u>II</u>	<u>III</u>	<u>Total</u>
Teacher Dominated, Regimented, and Autocratic. <u>Group I</u> evidences . . . . .	42	23	21	86	37	20	19	76
Subject Matter with emphasis on: Academics, Homework, Departmentalization, Extrinsic Motivation. <u>Group II</u> evidences . . . . .	62	50	50	162	73	73	68	214
Lack of: Individual Needs, Interests, Differences, Spontaneity, and Creativeness. <u>Group III</u> evidences . . . . .	<u>10</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>8</u>
Total	114	77	79	270	112	97	89	298

### III. FINDINGS CONCERNING RELATED PROBLEMS

Related to the broad problem of the more positive and the more negative ways teachers handled children are the general findings in the area of pupil response to different ways of handling. Three of the problems for investigation presented in Chapter I pertain to this area.

(1) What are the different methods teachers used in handling children? What methods are most used by elementary and high school teachers?

There were thirty-nine different classifications of methods teachers used in handling children. Twenty-three of these were termed more positive and the other sixteen were termed more negative. (Refer to Forms A and B, in the appendix.) Of the more positive ways of handling, it was found that both elementary and high school teachers used praise, recognition, and concern more than any other methods of handling boys and girls. Another category that was used to a great degree was Group II (helpful, opportunity to participate, supportive, encouraging, and comforting). The least used methods were Groups VI, VII, and VIII, which included teachers recognizing the ethics of children in handling, teachers showing empathy, teachers using intrinsic competition and intrinsic motivation, and teachers using humor in handling boys and girls. (See Table XXIV on the next page and Figures VII and VIII of appendix B.)

Of the more negative ways of handling children it was found that both elementary and high school teachers used the category including punishment, threat, reprimand, and deprivation more than any other. Of this category reprimand was used more than any of the other ways. It was also found that teachers were rather autocratic and directive. (See Table XXV, page 170, and Figures IX and X of appendix B.)

TABLE XXIV

MORE POSITIVE WAYS TEACHERS HANDLED CHILDREN  
AND CHILDREN'S RESPONSES

<hr/>					
Group I		#	+	0	-
	Praise . . . . .	136	92	39	5
	Recognition . . . . .	128	79	45	4
	Concern . . . . .	67	42	22	3
	Total. . . . .	<u>331</u>	<u>213</u>	<u>106</u>	<u>12</u>
Group II					
	Opportunity to participate . . . . .	50	35	14	1
	Supportive . . . . .	38	13	25	
	Comforting . . . . .	1		1	
	Helpful . . . . .	133	79	49	5
	Encouraging . . . . .	30	16	13	1
	Total. . . . .	<u>252</u>	<u>143</u>	<u>102</u>	<u>7</u>
Group III					
	Sharing . . . . .	33	27	5	1
	Rapport . . . . .	81	72	9	
	Total. . . . .	<u>114</u>	<u>99</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>1</u>
Group IV					
	Indirect . . . . .	17	7	8	2
	Permissive . . . . .	77	45	31	1
	Agreeing . . . . .	8	4	4	
	Total. . . . .	<u>102</u>	<u>56</u>	<u>43</u>	<u>3</u>
Group V					
	Reasoning . . . . .	58	30	26	2
	Guidance . . . . .	24	17	7	
	Reflective thinking . . . . .	29	9	20	
	Ignoring . . . . .	19	8	9	2
	Avoidance of threat . . . . .	15	6	8	1
	Total. . . . .	<u>145</u>	<u>70</u>	<u>70</u>	<u>5</u>
Group VI					
	Ethics (child recognized). . . . .	28	18	9	1
	Empathy . . . . .	14	9	5	
	Total. . . . .	<u>42</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>1</u>
Group VII					
	Intrinsic Motivation . . . . .	49	42	7	0
	Intrinsic Competition . . . . .	4	3	1	0
	Total. . . . .	<u>53</u>	<u>45</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>0</u>
Group VIII					
	Humor . . . . .	39	34	5	0
	GRAND TOTAL. . . . .	<u>1078</u>	<u>687</u>	<u>362</u>	<u>29</u>
<hr/>					

Note: # = number of evidences; + = positive pupil response; 0 = no response or undeterminable; - = negative pupil response.

TABLE XXV

MORE NEGATIVE WAYS TEACHERS HANDLED CHILDREN  
AND CHILDREN'S RESPONSES

<hr/>					
Group I	#	+	0	-	
Punishment . . . . .	40	3	26	11	
Threat . . . . .	44	3	24	17	
Physical Punishment . . . . .	9	0	4	5	
Reprimand . . . . .	114	22	52	40	
Deprivation . . . . .	65	5	33	27	
Total. . . . .	<u>272</u>	<u>33</u>	<u>139</u>	<u>100</u>	
Group II					
Shame . . . . .	25	0	11	14	
Degradation . . . . .	19	0	10	9	
Sarcasm . . . . .	20	0	9	11	
Insincerity . . . . .	2	0	1	1	
Total. . . . .	<u>66</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>35</u>	
Group III					
Motivation (extrinsic) . . . . .	52	13	23	16	
Competition (extrinsic) . . . . .	11	3	4	4	
Total. . . . .	<u>63</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>20</u>	
Group IV					
Autocratic . . . . .	45	7	26	12	
Directive . . . . .	90	17	35	38	
Questioning, forcing answers . . . . .	41	3	21	17	
Non-Avoidance . . . . .	19	1	11	7	
Total. . . . .	<u>195</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>93</u>	<u>74</u>	
Group V					
Ethics (teacher) . . . . .	61	7	31	23	
Total. . . . .	<u>61</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>23</u>	
GRAND TOTAL. . . . .		657	84	321	252
<hr/>					

Note: # = number of evidences  
 + = positive pupil response  
 0 = no response or undeterminable  
 - = negative pupil response.

(2) What ways of handling children by teachers resulted in a positive response or a negative response from the child?

As one might have previously concluded it was found that the more positive ways of handling children stimulated positive pupil response. Of the grand total responses to more positive handling, Table XXIV, page 169, 687 of the responses were positive as compared to 29 negative. Although the generalization holds true that more positive handling stimulates positive response, it was found that praise, recognition, and concern, which are more positive ways of handling, did result in a large number of negative responses on the part of boys and girls. This number of negative responses was only 12 from a total of 331 responses in this category, so no conclusions could be drawn. From a study of the Table XXIV, page 169, it was evident that motivating pupils intrinsically and handling them with humor resulted in a high number of positive responses and no negative ones.

It was also found, as one might have anticipated, that the more negative ways of handling resulted in negative pupil response. From the grand total of Table XXV on page 170, there were 252 negative responses as compared to 84 positive responses to more negative ways of handling. Careful examination of the table reveals that children consistently respond negatively to shame, degradation, sarcasm, physical punishment, and threat. At the same time, many children responded positively to teachers who used reprimand, extrinsic motivation, and who were directive in their disciplining.

It is also noteworthy to point out that youngsters learned to react positively, at least overtly, to the more negative ways teachers handled them. Proof was in the fact that 13 per cent of the time they

reacted positively to more negative ways of handling. Conversely, only 3 per cent of the children reacted negatively to positive ways of handling.

(3) Was there a difference in the responses of elementary and high school students?

From a study of the responses of elementary and high school students as presented in Tables XXVI and XXVII, it was found that high school students responded positively to all methods of handling more than the elementary students. Specifically, there was a tendency for elementary boys and girls to respond negatively to praise, recognition, and concern while high school students would accept these methods of handling.

#### IV. SUMMARY

It was found that teachers changed in the ways they handled children through successive years of the child study program. There was a significant increase in the use of more positive ways of handling boys and girls. Concurrently, there was a greater change in the things teachers learned not to do to children; there were significant evidences of teachers using fewer of the more negative ways of handling. The total change in teacher-pupil relationships was more pronounced in elementary teachers than in high school teachers; nevertheless there was significant change in high school teachers too.

A significant change was detected in the classroom organization of participating teachers. There was an increase in evidences of democratically organized classrooms; there was a decrease in evidences of autocratically organized classrooms. The change was significant in the organization of elementary classrooms. There was also a change in the organization of high school classrooms but the change was not enough to be considered significant.

TABLE XXVI

## PUPIL RESPONSE TO MORE POSITIVE METHODS OF HANDLING

	#	ELEMENTARY			#	HIGH SCHOOL		
		+	0	-		+	0	-
Group I								
Praise . . . . .	83	53	27	3	53	39	12	2
Recognition . . . . .	85	50	32	3	43	29	13	1
Concern . . . . .	39	19	17	3	28	23	5	
Total	207	122	76	9	124	91	30	3
Group II								
Oppor. to Participate	35	25	9	1	15	10	5	
Supportive . . . . .	17	5	12		21	8	13	
Comforting . . . . .	1		1					
Helpful . . . . .	81	47	29	5	50	30	20	
Encouraging . . . . .	11	4	6	1	19	12	7	
Total	145	81	57	7	107	62	45	0
Group III								
Sharing . . . . .	21	18	2	1	12	9	3	
Rapport . . . . .	24	21	3		57	51	6	
Total	45	39	5	1	69	60	9	0
Group IV								
Indirect . . . . .	17	7	8	2				
Permissive . . . . .	37	19	18		40	26	13	1
Agreeing . . . . .	5	3	2		3	1	2	
Total	59	29	28	2	43	27	15	1
Group V								
Reasoning . . . . .	42	22	18	2	16	8	8	
Guidance . . . . .	14	10	4		10	7	3	
Reflective thinking...	25	7	18		4	2	2	
Ignoring . . . . .	14	7	6	1	5	1	3	1
Avoidance of threat. .	9	4	5		6	2	3	1
Total	104	50	51	3	41	20	19	2
Group VI								
Ethics (child recog.)	21	14	6	1	7	4	3	
Empathy . . . . .	11	7	4		3	2	1	
Total	32	21	10	1	10	6	4	0
Group VII								
Intrinsic motivation	25	19	6		24	23	1	
Intrinsic competition	2	1	1		2	2		
Total	27	20	7	0	26	25	1	0
Group VIII								
Humor . . . . .	15	14	1		24	20	4	
Total	15	14	1	0	24	20	4	0
GRAND TOTAL	634	376	235	23	444	311	127	6

Note: # = number of evidences; + = positive pupil response; 0 = no response or undeterminable; - = negative pupil response.



TABLE XXVII  
PUPIL RESPONSE TO MORE NEGATIVE METHODS OF HANDLING

	<u>ELEMENTARY</u>				<u>HIGH SCHOOL</u>			
	#	+	0	-	#	+	0	-
Group I								
Punishment . . . . .	25	1	17	7	15	2	9	4
Threat . . . . .	31	3	17	11	13		7	6
Physical Punishment. . . . .	8		4	4	1			1
Reprimand . . . . .	80	15	36	29	34	7	16	11
Deprivation . . . . .	45	3	27	15	20	2	6	12
Total	189	22	101	66	83	11	38	34
Group II								
Shame . . . . .	18		8	10	7		3	4
Degradation . . . . .	9		5	4	10		5	5
Sarcasm . . . . .	10		6	4	10		3	7
Insincerity . . . . .					2		1	1
Total	37	0	19	18	29	0	12	17
Group III								
Motivation (extrinsic)..	26	8	12	6	26	5	11	10
Competition (extrinsic).	9	3	3	3	2		1	1
Total	35	11	15	9	28	5	12	11
Group IV								
Autocratic . . . . .	34	7	21	6	11		5	6
Directive . . . . .	51	8	22	21	39	9	13	17
Questioning, forcibly. . . . .	29	1	14	14	12	2	7	3
Non-Avoidance . . . . .	8	1	5	2	11		6	5
Total	122	17	62	43	73	11	31	31
Group V								
Ethics (teacher) . . . . .	40	5	19	16	21	2	12	7
Total	40	5	19	16	21	2	12	7
GRAND TOTAL	423	55	216	152	234	29	105	100

Note: # = number of evidences  
 + = positive pupil response  
 0 = no response or undeterminable  
 - = negative pupil response.

In the ways teachers handled children, it was found that elementary and also high school teachers used praise, recognition, and concern more than any of the more positive ways of handling children. The least used of the more positive ways of handling children were empathy, humor, and intrinsic motivation. It was found that more positive handling of children by teachers stimulated positive pupil response and that more negative handling of children by teachers stimulated a negative pupil response. Yet, there were many negative responses to praise but not to a significant degree. High school boys and girls responded more positively to all the ways of handling than the elementary boys and girls.

## CHAPTER VII

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION

#### I. SUMMARY

This project was a descriptive analysis of certain curriculum changes that could be attributed to the participation of teachers in a direct study of children. In some ways, it was an evaluation of certain aspects of the organized child study program as it operates from the Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland. A study was made of the changes that took place in the ways elementary and high school teachers related themselves to the boys and girls they taught each day. The students' reactions or responses to the ways teachers handled them were analyzed. The investigator also studied how teachers changed in organizing their classrooms for living as they participated in this in-service program.

Significance of the study. A vast program involving several thousand teachers, a program designed to promote change in teachers, is in need of continuous evaluation. In previous evaluations of the Institute program no attempt was made to find whether teachers changed in the ways they handled children or if they changed in the ways they organized their classrooms. Current questions from administrators, teachers, and consultants, as well as previous researchers, indicated the need for this study.

Problems investigated.

Problems in teacher-pupil relationships:

Was there a significant

- (1) change in the proportion of more positive to more negative ways teachers handled children at the three year levels of the program?
- (2) change in the more positive ways teachers handled children at the three different levels of the child study program?
- (3) change in the more negative ways teachers handled children at the three different levels of the program?
- (4) difference in the ways teachers handled children in the elementary grades compared to ways teachers handled children in high school? If different, how were they different?
- (5) change in specific ways teachers handled children? When applicable, how did elementary and high school teachers differ in their ways of handling children?

Problems in classroom organization and procedures:

Was there a significant

- (1) change in evidences of more democratically organized classrooms during the three year levels of the child study program?
- (2) change in evidences of more autocratically organized classrooms during three years of the program?
- (3) change during the three years of the program in the ways elementary teachers organized their classrooms as compared to the ways high school teachers organized their classrooms?

Additional problems related to the study:

- (1) What were the different methods teachers used in handling children? What methods were most used by elementary and high school teachers?
- (2) What ways of handling children by teachers resulted in a positive response or a negative response from the child?
- (3) Was there a difference in the responses of elementary students from high school students?

Delimiting the problem. Although the child study program was operating in about twelve geographical areas in the United States, the

problem was delimited, without sacrificing the validity of findings, by concentrating on four centers which were classified as two broad areas: Montgomery and Prince Georges Counties comprised the Maryland area; Caddo Parish, Fifth District of Louisiana, and Corpus Christi, Texas comprised the Louisiana-Texas area.

Focus for the research was on the three most recent school sessions: 1947-48, 1948-49, and 1949-50. The organized in-service program of the Institute for Child Study is designed for three years; therefore, three school sessions were selected. The project was concerned with change in certain curriculum practices, so it was logical to study the work done in the most recent school sessions.

The source of data was teachers' anecdotal records on file at the Institute office. For purposes of this study, fourth, fifth, and sixth grade teachers' records were defined as elementary; ninth, tenth, and eleventh grade teachers' records from the same areas were called high school. There were reasons for believing that teachers' anecdotal records provided a valid source of information; one reason was that teachers concentrating on recording objectively the behavior of the children unknowingly projected curriculum practices into the record.

Contributions of related studies to the problem. A review of the related literature was helpful in clarifying the types of interpersonal relationships of teachers with pupils. Some of the researchers in this field were Paul Witty, Harold Anderson, Percival Symonds, Stuart Tiedeman, and Alva Graham.

Allied to teacher-pupil relationships was the perennial question, what are schools for? --- the three R's versus the whole development of the child. A recent doctoral project by Eunice Matthew helped the

investigator determine characteristics of the two methods of teaching. Equally helpful was the work of J. Wayne Wrightstone, Lewin, Lippitt, and White, plus the longitudinal Eight Year Study which is probably the most thorough research in this particular field.

There were other investigators who, as specialists, made contributions to the investigation. Their contributions, from the researcher's viewpoint, were an aid in clarifying purpose of the present day school, in addition to supporting values and a philosophy of education which were compatible with that of the investigator.

Child study program. In Chapter III the guiding principles of the Institute for Child Study were presented. Mechanics of the three year organized in-service program were outlined rather briefly. Difficult as it was, because of the inability to capture certain subtle dynamics in writing, an attempt was made to present a real study group in action.

Organizational framework for the data. A pilot study was conducted: (1) to see if teachers' anecdotal records contained the type of information needed for a study of curriculum practices, and (2) to develop a framework for handling the data.

The framework evolved from recurring information found in the records. The categories were given more specific labels in Forms A, B, C, D, and E of the appendix. The broad headings were:

Form A -- More Positive Ways Teachers Handled Children and Children's Responses

Form B -- More Negative Ways Teachers Handled Children and Children's Responses

Form C -- More Democratically Organized Classroom

Form D -- More Autocratically Organized Classroom

Form E -- General Information

Definition of terms used in the framework was given in the form of illustrations found in excerpts from teachers' records accompanied with additional explanation.

Analysis, classification, and treatment of data. Following the random selection of records for the research, each record was first analyzed for evidences of ways teachers handled children and the children's responses to those ways of handling. The next step was to re-analyze the same record for evidences of classroom organization. Each evidence pertaining to teacher-pupil relationship and/or classroom organization was classified in one of the sub-category groups, illustrated in the forms.

A stratified procedure was followed in the analysis and classification of the pertinent data so that in case of fluctuations in the investigator's objectivity its effect would not be centered on any one group.

Objectivity, reliability, and validity of the organizational framework. Objectivity was determined by judges analyzing and classifying the same data used by the investigator, and then obtaining percentages of agreement. The range in percentage of agreement was from 71 to 100 per cent and the mean of each judge with the investigator for all categories was:

Judge A .....	91	per cent
Judge B .....	91.5	per cent
Judge C .....	93	per cent

Reliability was determined by comparing the analysis and classification of results on the same records that had been checked eight weeks earlier by the researcher. There was an over-all percentage of

agreement of 95 per cent. The chi-square test revealed no significant difference in the categorization of the original records with the same records eight weeks later.

Another check on reliability of the framework was a test of consistency. This was done by comparing the total number of evidences in each of three groups of thirty-six records. There was no significant difference.

In this research, it was not possible to scientifically validate the instrument because there were no other validated instruments against which the framework could be tested. Yet, there were reasons for believing the framework was valid:

(1) The framework was not preconceived but evolved from teachers' anecdotal records. It was not evolved by one person; three qualified graduate students assisted the investigator in the process.

(2) Categories of the framework had characteristics in common with frameworks used by specialists in certain related research.

(3) The brief training of judges and their high percentages of agreement was a validating factor.

## II. CONCLUSIONS WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION

Based on the problems for investigation in the first chapter, data pertinent to each problem were tabulated and later tested, if necessary, by the statistic, chi-square. Most of the findings were at the 1 per cent level of significance; however, 5 per cent level was considered significant. The following tentative conclusions are based on the findings.



Ways of handling children (conclusions and implications)

1. There was a significant increase in the more positive ways teachers handled children at the three levels of the child study program. Thus, it may be concluded that the in-service program was effective in helping teachers learn more positive ways of handling children. There was a decrease in more positive ways of handling children from the first to the second year level of the program and the significant increase was not until the third year level. This may imply that one or two years of child study are not enough for learning more positive ways of handling children but since the significant change was at the third year level, it appears that at least three years of child study are needed.

2. There was a significant decrease in the more negative ways teachers handled children at the three levels of the child study program. Since the decrease was continuous and at a higher level of significance than the corresponding increase in more positive ways of handling children, the implication is that teachers learned more readily the things not to do to children, such as using shame, sarcasm, threat, and other more negative ways of handling.

3. Generally, there was an increase in the more positive ways teachers handled children. The exception was with elementary teachers in Group I, including praise, recognition, and concern; with this group there was a significant decrease. This may mean that elementary teachers are seeing more effective ways of handling fourth, fifth, and sixth grade boys and girls. It is timely to state here that a proportionately large number of negative responses were registered by elementary boys and girls to these methods of handling.

4. There were significant changes or trends in the ways teachers handled children in the majority of the sub-groups. Yet, teachers did not change significantly in their ability to recognize the ethics of children as contrasted to their own, there were few evidences of empathy, and there was no significant decrease in evidences of extrinsic motivation, or an increase in evidences of intrinsic motivation and provoking reflective thinking in children. Reasons for this may be: (a) These are deeper dynamics which require greater depth of understanding from teachers. (b) It may be that consultants and others in a helping-teacher role are not fully aware of the potentialities in these areas and as a result they have not helped teachers see relationships and the possibilities in intrinsic motivation and reflective thinking. (c) It could be that time is a factor, and that teachers beyond the third year of the program have this insight and are motivating boys and girls intrinsically, promoting reflective thinking, and recognizing more and more the ethics of children. This may suggest that if consultants grow in the ability to detect and work with the concerns of teachers, the process will be reflected by teachers tapping the interests and concerns of their pupils, which is the crux of intrinsic motivation.

5. Based on the findings, it was tentatively concluded that the program was more effective with elementary than with high school teachers in the area of teacher-pupil relationships. The most likely hypothesis for this is that elementary teachers are with their pupils most of the school day which provides them with a better opportunity to improve relationships.

6. There was a significant proportionate change in the more

positive to the more negative ways of handling children by participating teachers during the three levels of the program. Thus, it was concluded that the in-service child study program was effective in helping teachers to increase the use of more positive ways of handling children and to decrease the use of more negative ways of handling children.

Pupil response to ways of handling (conclusions and implications)

1. As might be expected, teachers who used more positive ways of handling stimulated positive responses from children; likewise, teachers who used more negative ways stimulated negative response. Judging from the wholesome reactions of children, it could be concluded that motivating children intrinsically and handling them with humor are good methods for teachers to use.

2. Based on the responses to ways they were handled, elementary boys and girls reacted more negatively to the ways teachers handled them than did high school boys and girls. The contrast in behavior of elementary pupils and high school students may be attributed to the respective stage of growth and social development of each group.

Classroom organization (conclusions and implications)

1. When the results of data from elementary and high school teachers were combined, it was found that participating teachers in child study changed in organizing their classrooms more democratically. Similarly, there was a decrease in evidences of more autocratically organized classrooms during the three years of the program.

2. Another finding was that the program was more effective in changing the classroom organization of elementary teachers than that of high school teachers. High school teachers made an attempt to

change in the first to second year level of the program. At the third year level they reverted to original methods of operating their classrooms. There are several hypotheses for this. A study should be made of the reasons for the ineffectiveness. Perhaps there are more effective methods of working with high school teachers.

### Suggestion

There is need for further research involving teachers who have participated in the organized child study program for more than three years. Some of the changes discovered in this project may be temporary; yet, some of the changes may become more pronounced in the following years. There is also the possibility that other aspects of the program may take on meaning and become operational in teachers after three years of study.

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APPENDIX A  
THE ORGANIZING FRAMEWORK





FORM B

MORE NEGATIVE WAYS TEACHERS HANDLE CHILDREN  
AND CHILDREN'S RESPONSES

Evidences _____	# _____			
Group I .....	#	+	0	-
Punishment _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Threat _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Physical punishment _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Reprimand _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Deprivation _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	Total...	_____	_____	_____
Group II .....	#	+	0	-
Shame _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Degradation _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Sarcasm _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Insincerity _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	Total...	_____	_____	_____
Group III .....	#	+	0	-
Motivation (extrinsic) _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Competition (extrinsic) _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	Total...	_____	_____	_____
Group IV .....	#	+	0	-
Autocratic _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Directive _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Questioning, forcing answers _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Non-Avoidance _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	Total...	_____	_____	_____
Group V .....	#	+	0	-
Ethics (teacher) _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	Total...	_____	_____	_____
	GRAND TOTAL...	_____	_____	_____

Symbols: # number of evidences  
 + positive pupil response  
 0 no response or undeterminable  
 - negative pupil response

FORM C

## MORE DEMOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOM

Evidences _____	Total... # _____
Group I - <u>Democratic Procedures</u> with pupil-pupil and/or pupil-teacher in:	
<u>Planning</u> _____	# _____
<u>Doing</u> _____	# _____
<u>Sharing</u> _____	# _____
<u>Evaluating</u> _____	# _____
Evidences in I .....	Total... # _____
Group II - <u>Pupil Needs and Interests</u> through:	
<u>Individual differences</u> _____	# _____
<u>Pupil-pupil relationships</u> _____	# _____
<u>Pupil-teacher relationships</u> _____	# _____
<u>Committees</u> _____	# _____
<u>Grouping</u> _____	# _____
<u>Intrinsic motivation</u> _____	# _____
Evidences in II .....	Total... # _____
Group III- <u>Classroom Working Pattern</u> as being:	
<u>Permissive</u> _____	# _____
<u>Functional, practical, and purposeful</u>	
<u>experiences</u> _____	# _____
<u>Discussion</u> _____	# _____
<u>Creative</u> _____	# _____
<u>Pupil responsibility</u> _____	# _____
Evidences in III .....	Total... # _____
	GRAND TOTAL... # _____

FORM D

## MORE AUTOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOM

Evidences \_\_\_\_\_ Total... # \_\_\_\_\_

Group I -

Teacher dominated \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Regimented \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Autocratic \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Evidences in I ..... Total... # \_\_\_\_\_

Group II - Subject-matter with emphasis on:

Academics \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Homework \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Departmentalization \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Extrinsic motivation \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Evidences in II ..... Total... # \_\_\_\_\_

Group III - Lack of concern for:

Individual needs, interests, differences \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Spontaneity \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Creativeness \_\_\_\_\_ # \_\_\_\_\_

Evidences in III ..... Total... # \_\_\_\_\_

GRAND TOTAL... # \_\_\_\_\_

FORM E

## GENERAL INFORMATION

AREA Louisiana - Texas . . . . . Maryland

YEARS IN CHILD STUDY Level I . . . . . Level II . . . . . Level III

SEX Male Female

RURAL \_\_\_\_\_

URBAN \_\_\_\_\_

SEMI-RURAL OR SEMI-URBAN \_\_\_\_\_

YEAR OF RECORD 1947-1948 . . . . . 1948-1949 . . . . . 1949-1950

GRADES 4, 5, 6 or 9, 10, 11

SEX Boy Girl

AGE \_\_\_\_\_

SUBJECT \_\_\_\_\_

APPENDIX B

ILLUSTRATIVE GRAPHS OF CURRICULUM CHANGES

FIGURE I

CHANGES IN WAYS TEACHERS HANDLED CHILDREN DURING  
THE THREE YEAR LEVELS OF THE CHILD STUDY PROGRAM

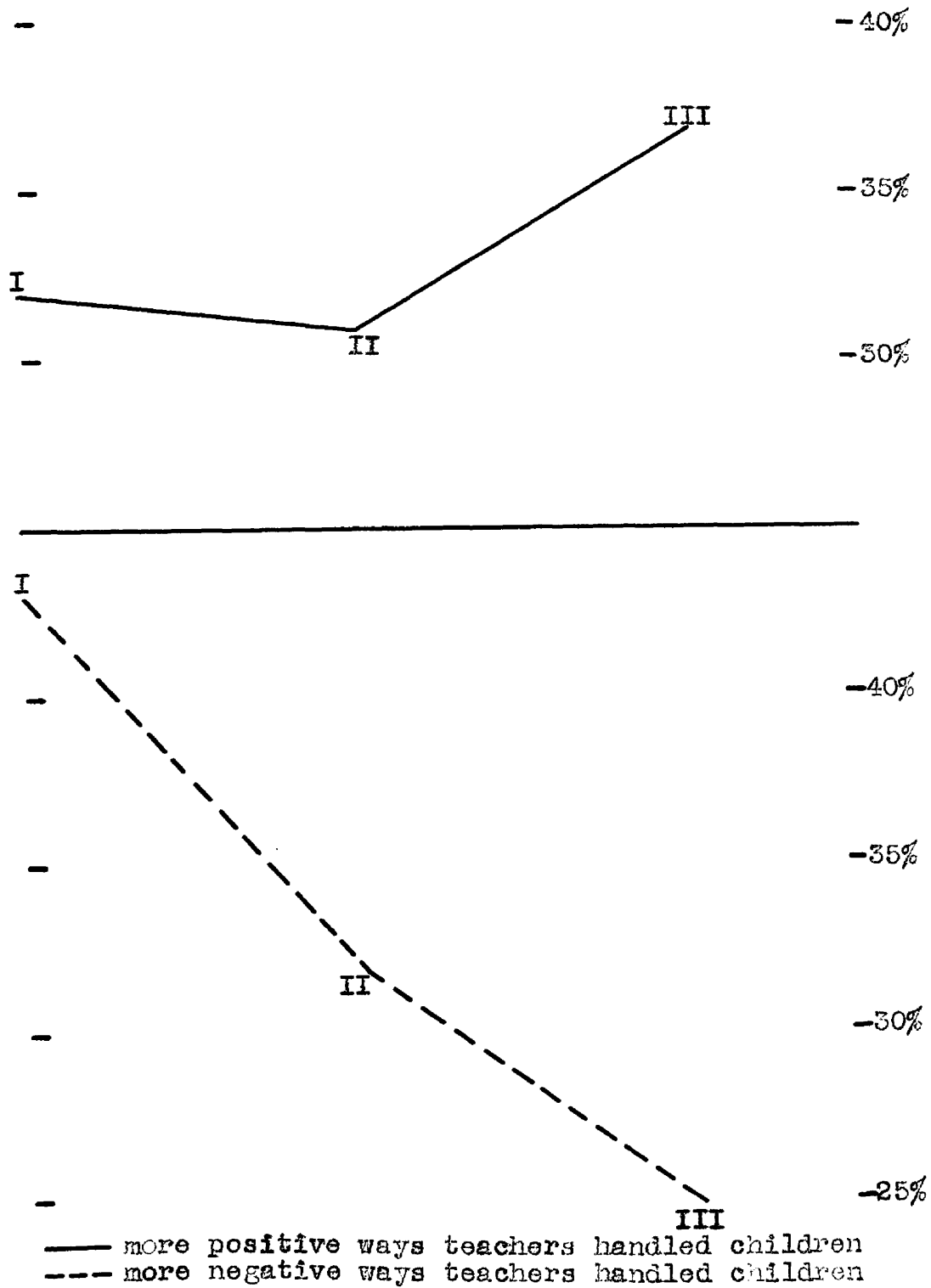


FIGURE II

CHANGES IN WAYS ELEMENTARY TEACHERS HANDLED  
CHILDREN DURING THREE YEARS OF THE CHILD STUDY  
PROGRAM

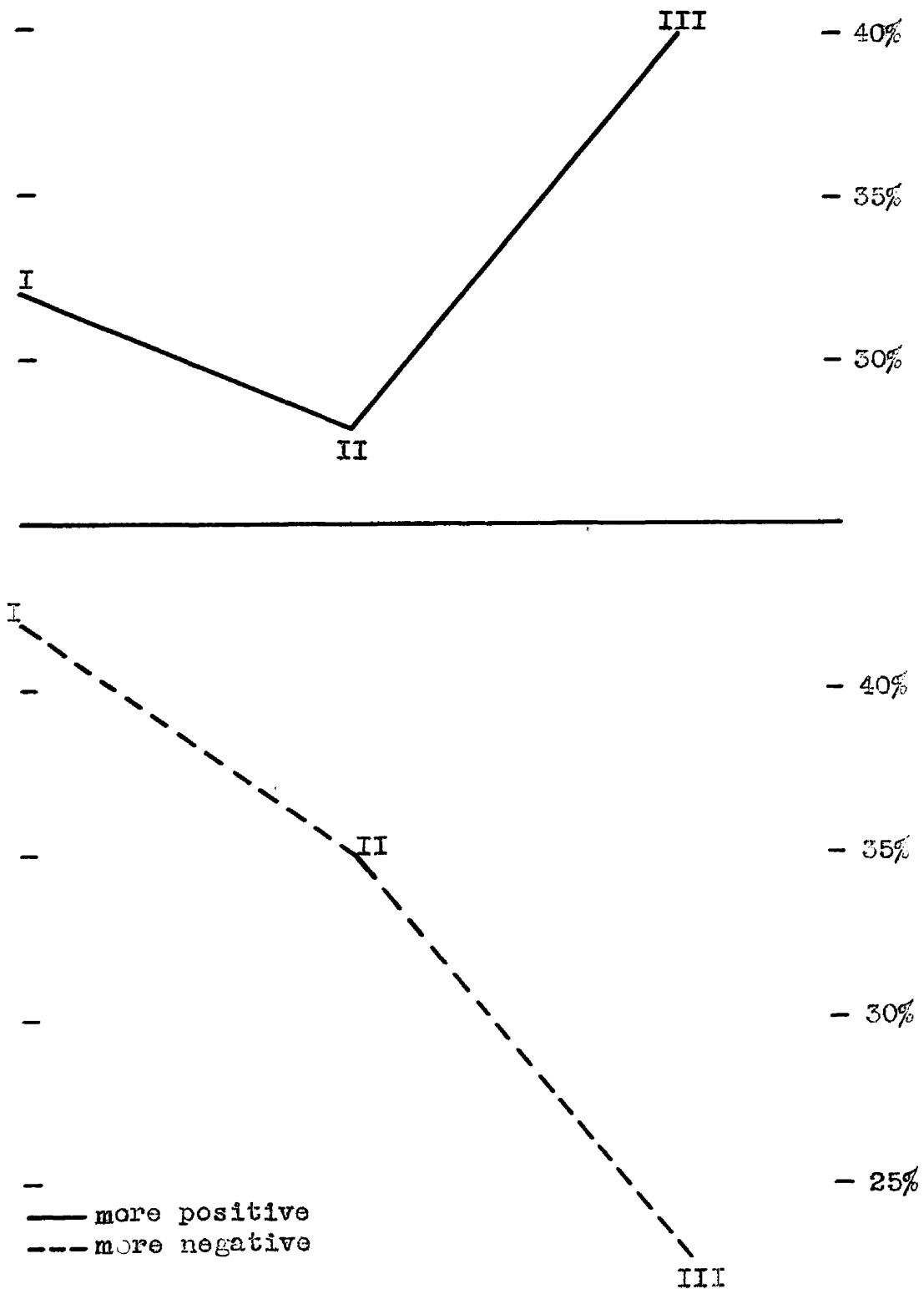




FIGURE III

CHANGES IN WAYS HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS HANDLED CHILDREN DURING THREE YEARS OF THE CHILD STUDY PROGRAM

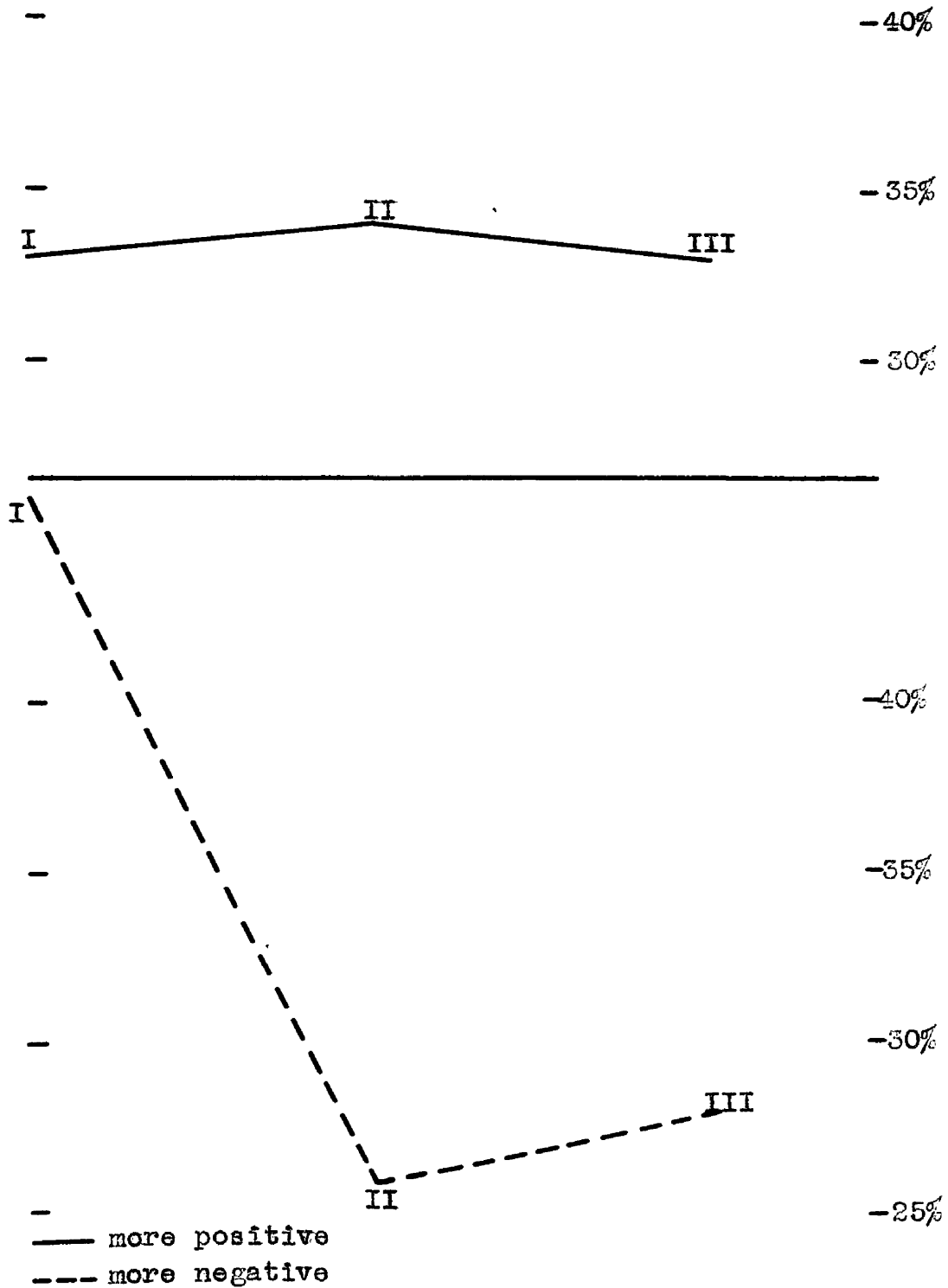


FIGURE IV

CHANGES IN CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION OF TEACHERS  
DURING THREE YEARS OF THE CHILD STUDY PROGRAM

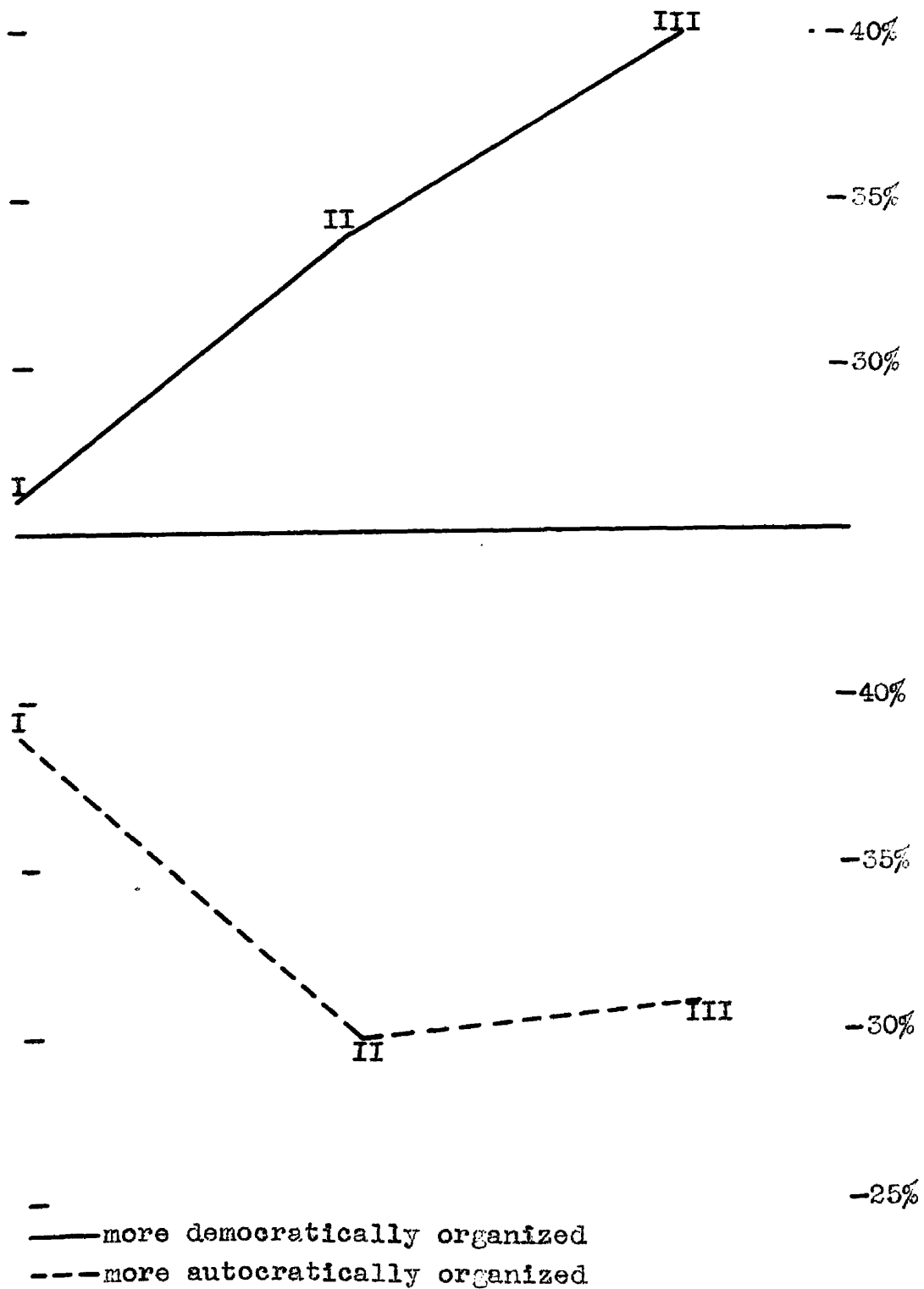


FIGURE V

CHANGES IN CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION OF ELEMENTARY  
TEACHERS DURING THREE YEARS OF THE CHILD STUDY  
PROGRAM

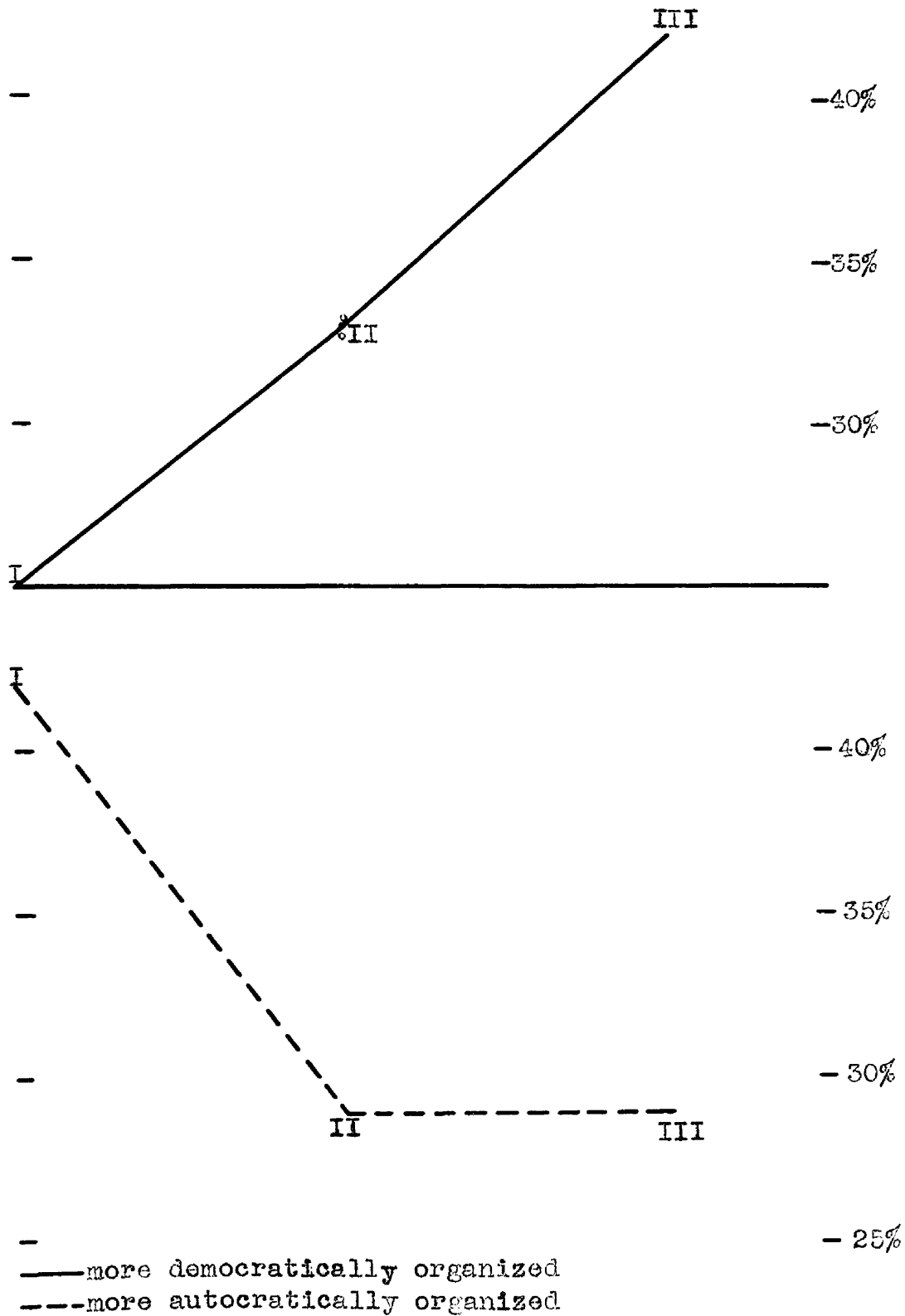


FIGURE VI

CHANGES IN CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION OF HIGH SCHOOL  
TEACHERS DURING THREE YEARS OF THE CHILD STUDY  
PROGRAM

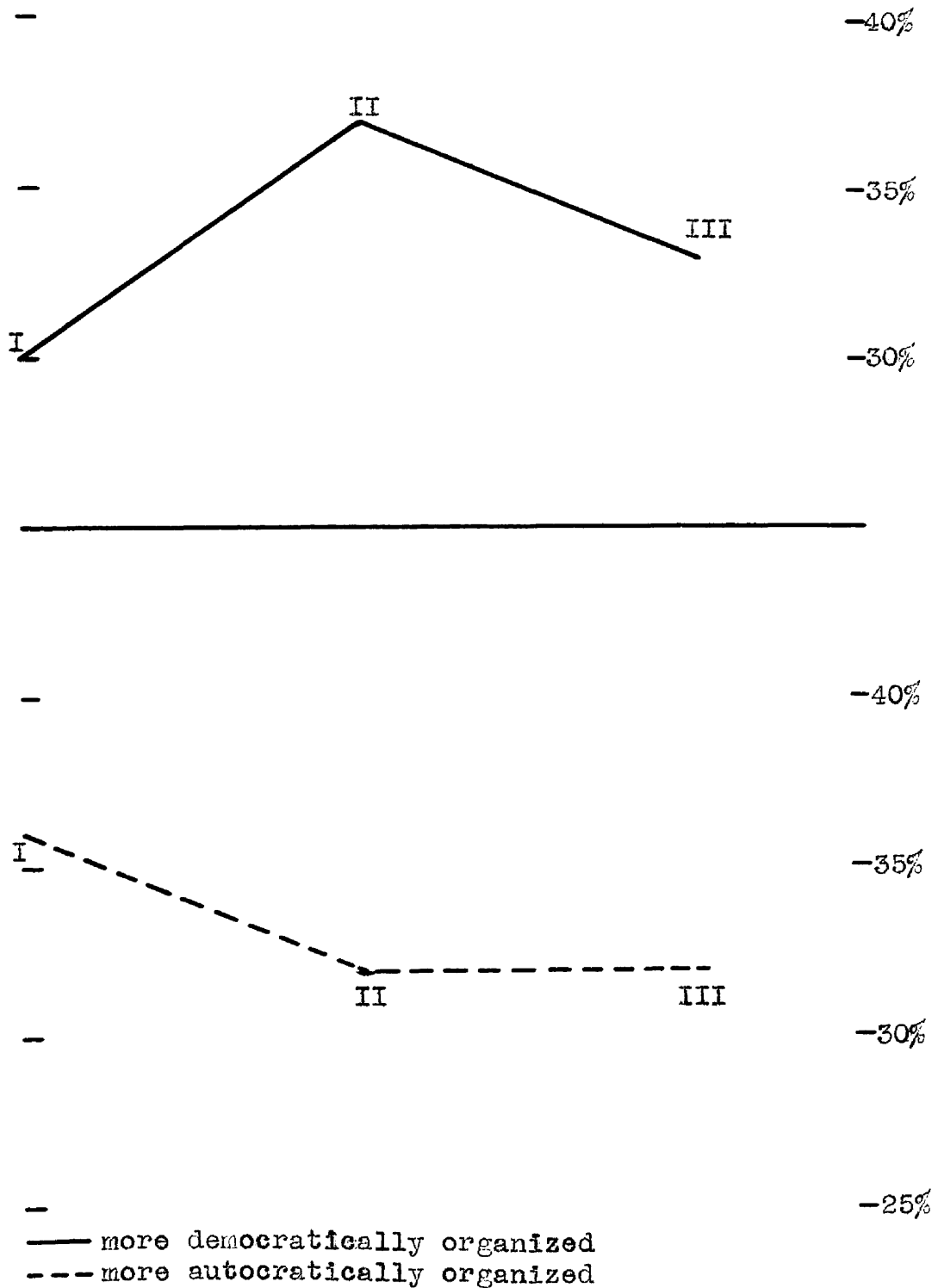
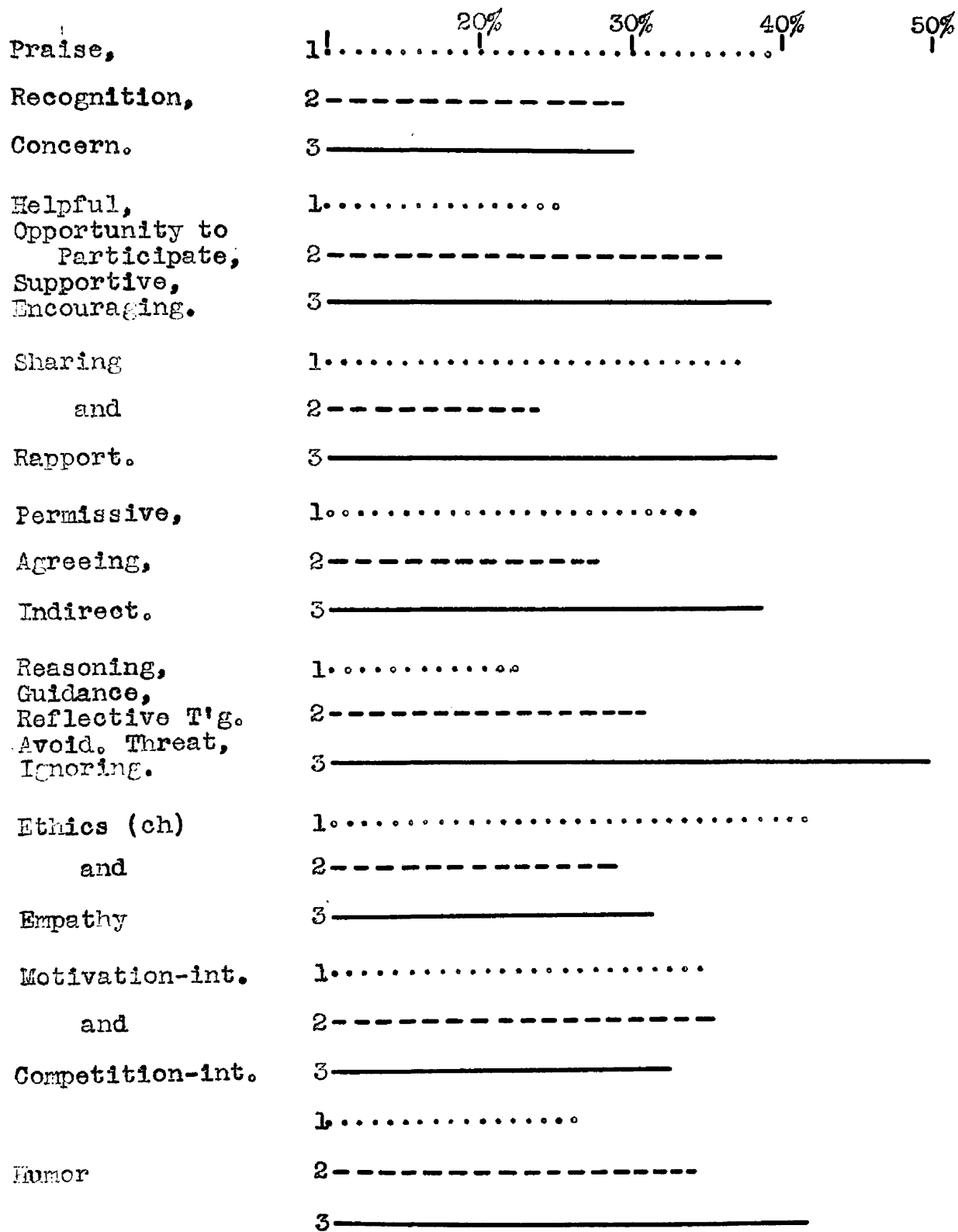


FIGURE VII

CHANGES IN POSITIVE WAYS TEACHERS HANDLED CHILDREN AT YEAR LEVELS



1 & ....first year of child study  
 2 & ---second year of child study  
 3 & ——third year of child study

FIGURE VIII

CHANGES IN MORE POSITIVE WAYS TEACHERS HANDLED CHILDREN

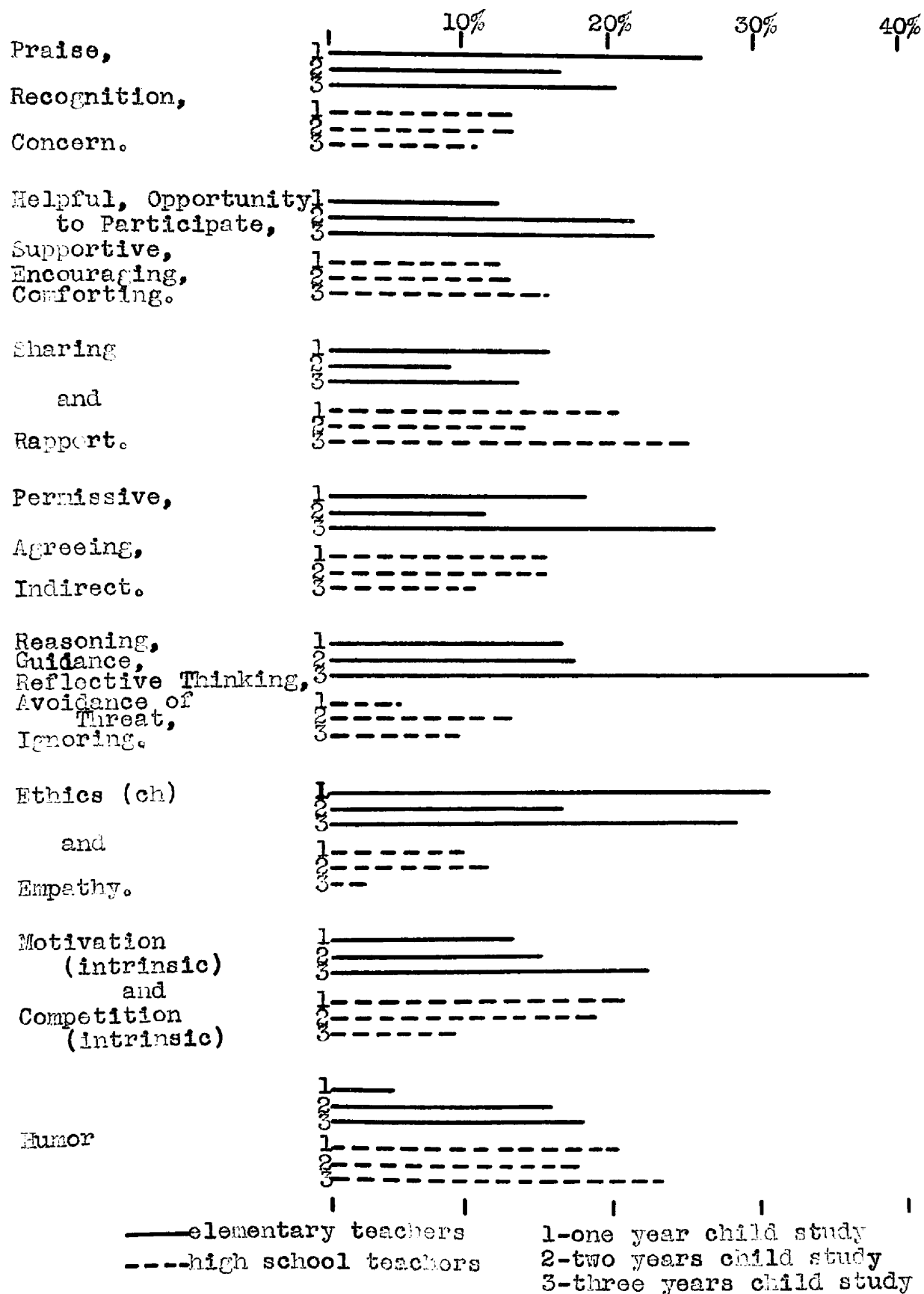
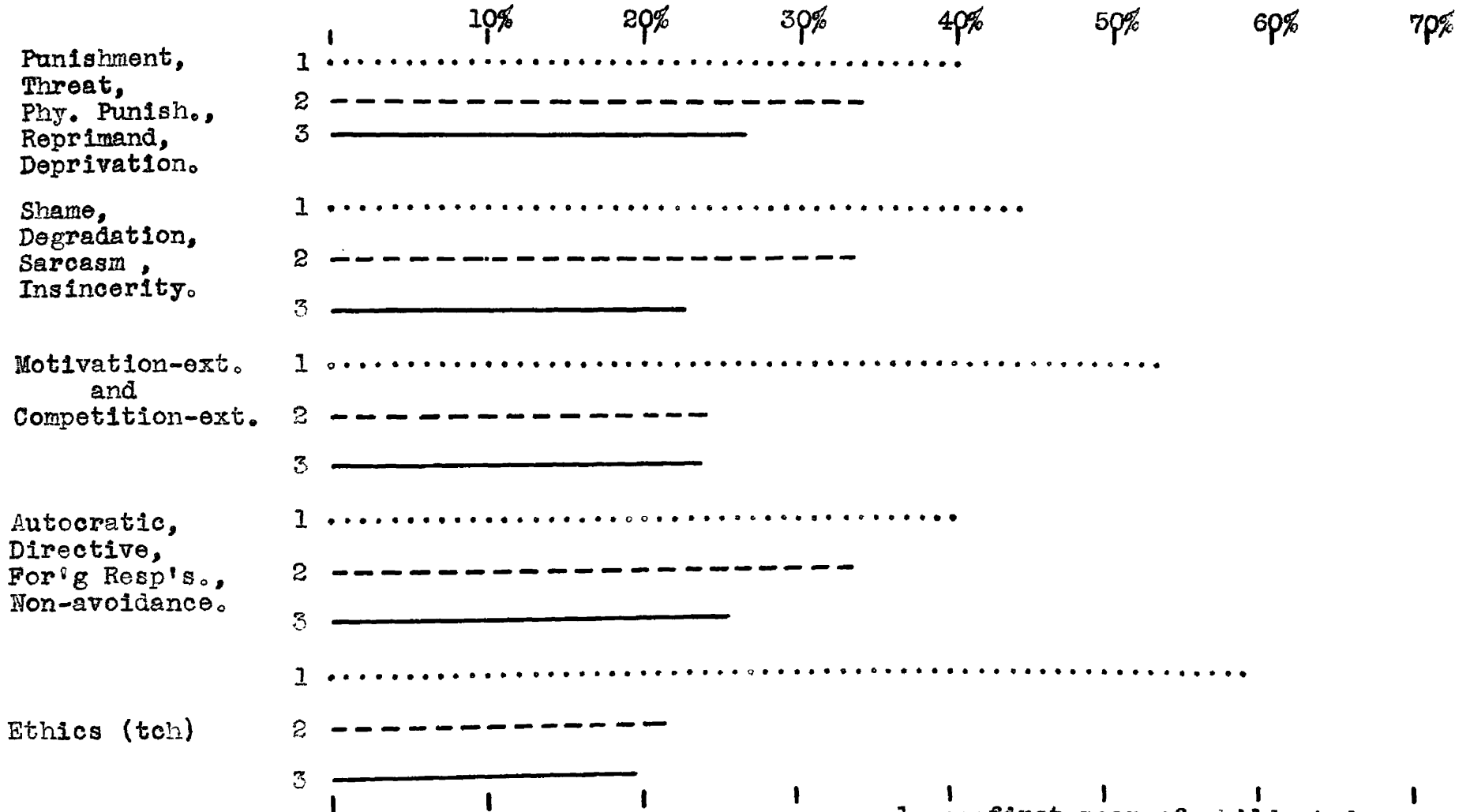


FIGURE IX

CHANGE IN MORE NEGATIVE WAYS TEACHERS HANDLED CHILDREN DURING THE PROGRAM



1 .....first year of child study  
 2 ----second year of child study  
 3 ——third year of child study

FIGURE X

CHANGE OF ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS IN MORE NEGATIVE WAYS OF HANDLING CHILDREN

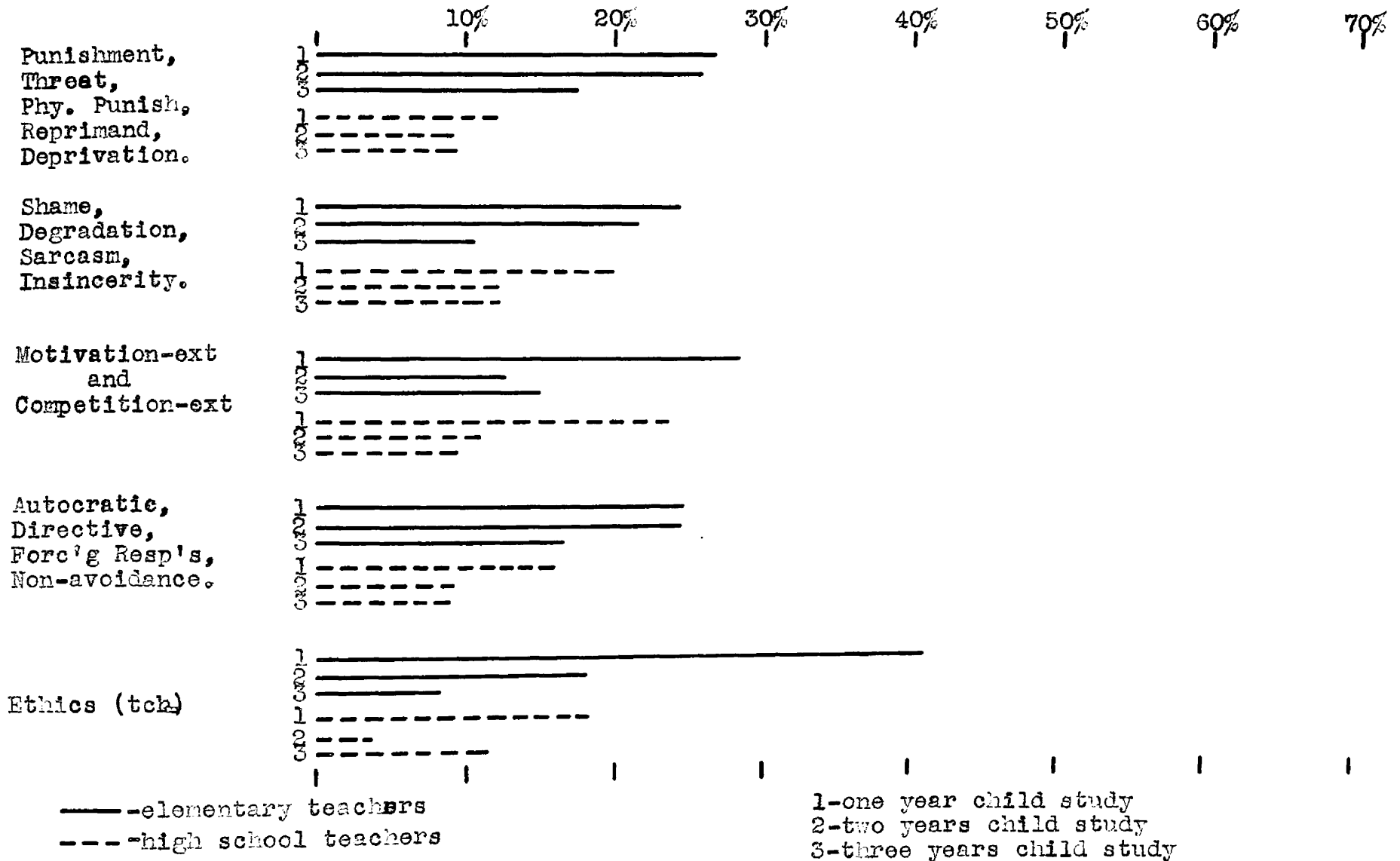




FIGURE XI

CHANGE IN MORE DEMOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOMS OF TEACHERS AT DIFFERENT YEAR LEVELS

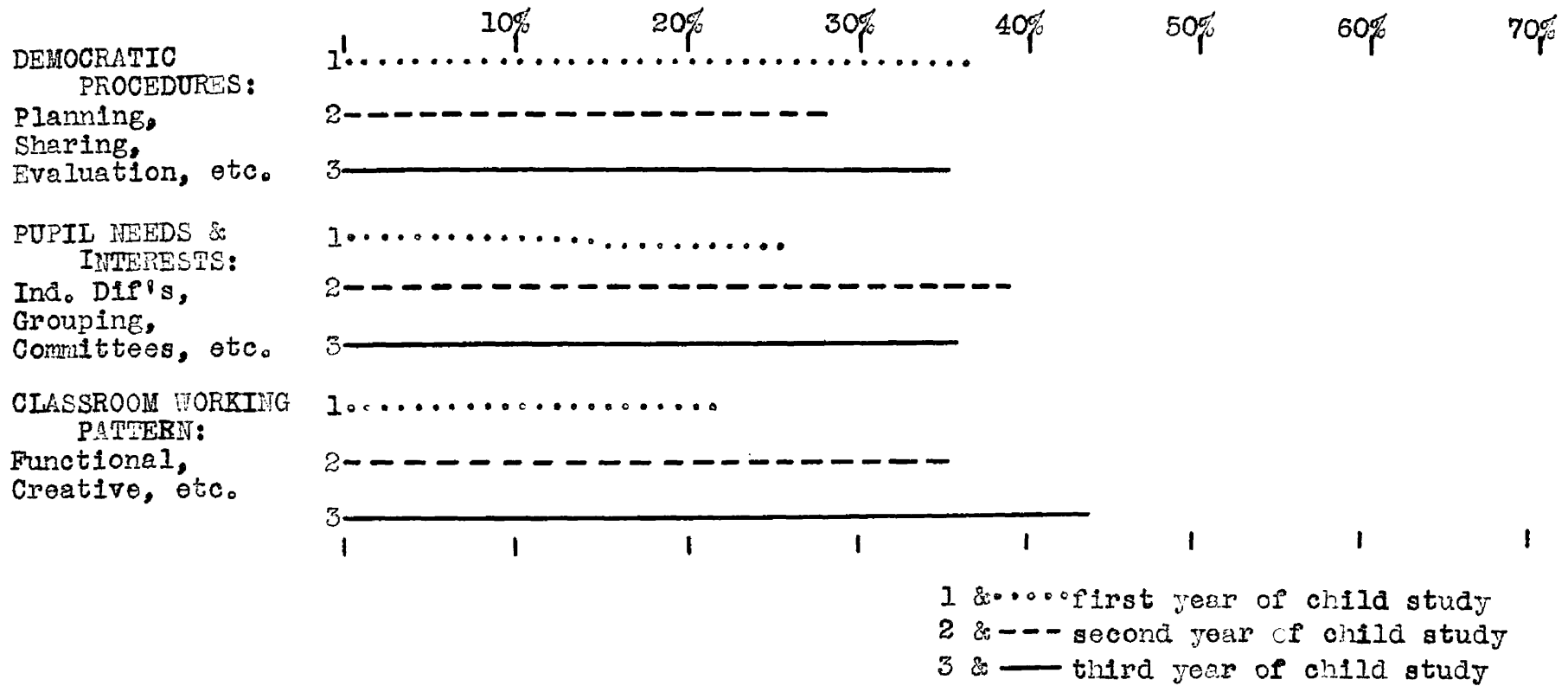
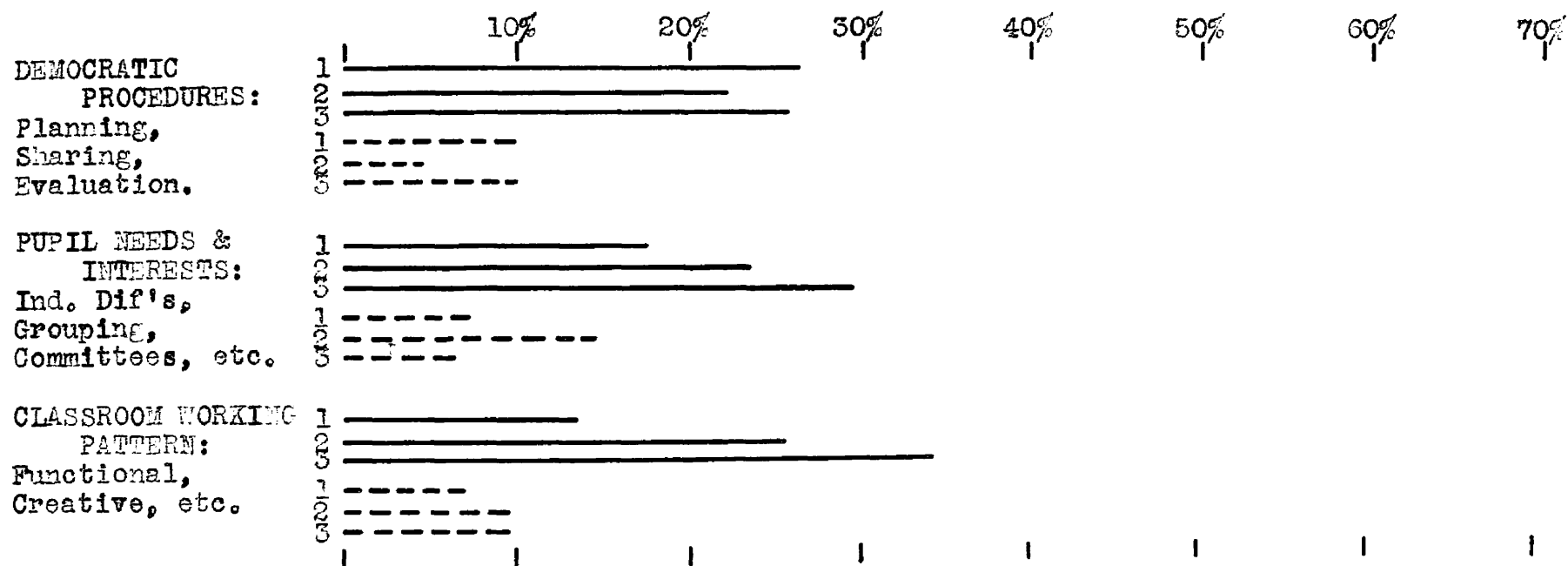


FIGURE XII

COMPARISON OF CHANGE IN MORE DEMOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOMS OF  
ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS AT YEAR LEVELS OF THE PROGRAM



— elementary teachers  
--- high school teachers

1-one year child study  
2-two years child study  
3-three years child study

FIGURE XIII

CHANGE IN MORE AUTOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOMS OF TEACHERS  
AT DIFFERENT YEAR LEVELS

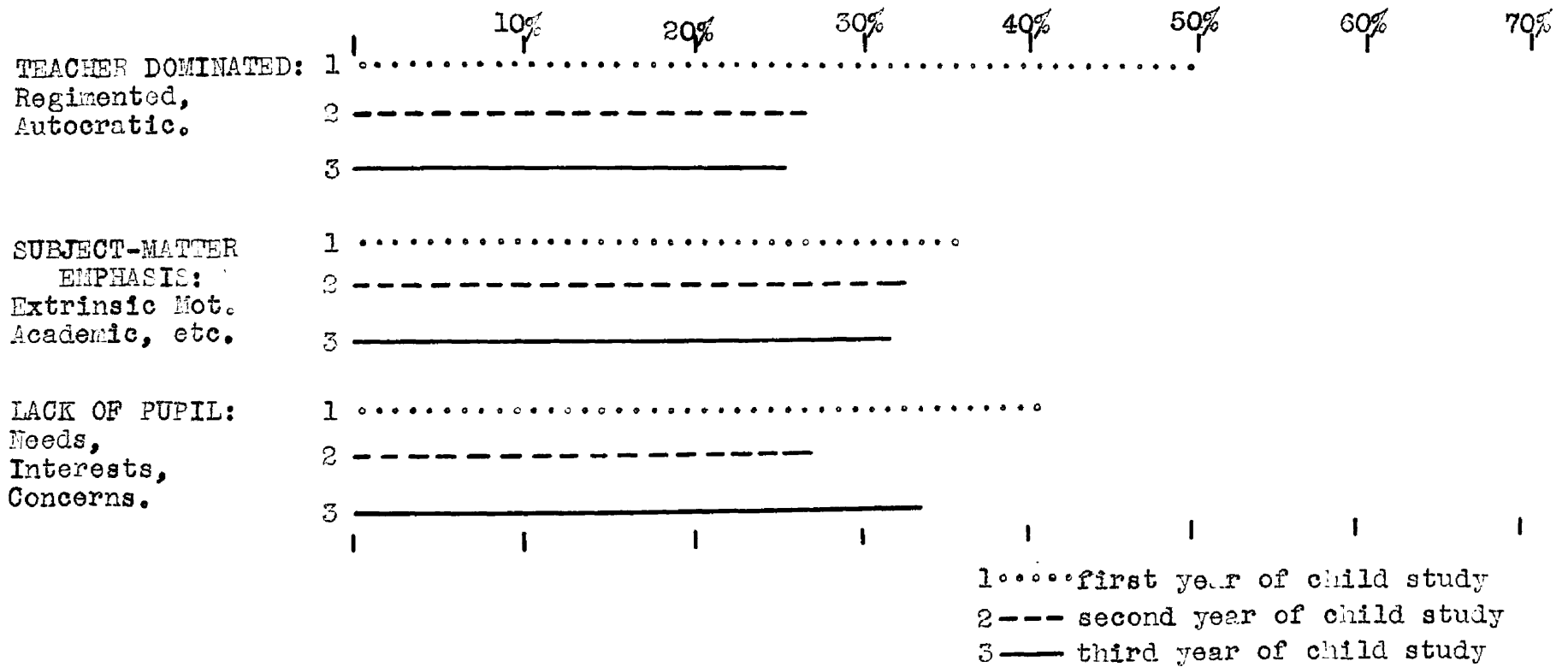


FIGURE XIV

COMPARISON OF CHANGE IN MORE AUTOCRATICALLY ORGANIZED CLASSROOMS OF ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS AT YEAR LEVELS OF THE PROGRAM

