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C. Study Rooms
   1. In some schools the library is used as a study room to which students are scheduled and attendance required. This has not been satisfactory as the compulsory attendance defeats attitudes the library is trying to develop, and the required attendance limits the number of students from other classes who can utilize these facilities.
   2. Students who are in study rooms adjacent to the library should have free access to the library during those study periods.

III. Atmosphere of the School Library

A. The library should encourage reading and study by providing a natural, friendly, attractive atmosphere.
   1. Students should not be regimented in any seating plan or program of use.
   2. Discipline should not be rigid, but should encourage cooperation with and respect for other students.

B. Library materials should be maintained in an orderly and clean manner.

LIBRARY PLANNING IN JAPAN

The objective of this lecture is to outline the overall national plan for library development as it is emerging for Japan. While exact details on many phases of the program cannot be given at the present time, a picture is evolving which, if understood, will aid school personnel in the planning of school libraries.

Based on the national plan for library development, the concept of regional planning is presented. This is particularly important at this phase of Japanese library development. Regional planning for library service constitutes a major economy measure and at the same time assures maximum library service to the majority of people. While exact regional plans cannot be given, a basic concept of the problems involved and suggested procedures can be presented.

I. Overall national program of library administration.

A. Function of the Diet Library

   1. The Diet Library is intended to be a national depository for all governmental and civilian publications. A revision of copyright laws is necessary in order to realize this goal.

   2. The Diet library is visualized as the main library of Japan containing maximum research materials.

   3. It is desired that the Diet Library eventually provide centralized cataloging, printed catalog cards, bibliographical services and inter-library loans to libraries of Japan.

B. Other Libraries in Japan

   1. The "Library Law" will authorize the establishment of public libraries in cities, towns and villages.

   2. Elementary, Secondary schools, colleges and Universities will have libraries.

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3. Citizens' Public Halls will have libraries.

4. Special libraries will be developed for professional groups.

II. Regional planning to achieve maximum library service.

A. The economic condition of Japan requires that maximum benefit be received from all moneys spent for books and other library materials. Duplication of books in libraries of the same community and even duplication of work is not good economy.

B. While detailed regional planning can be accomplished in a prefecture or a city, it is essential that overall planning be accomplished by large agencies or associations such as the Diet Library or the Japan Library Association.

C. Problems to consider when developing plans for regional library service.

1. What facilities are already available in the region- i.e., university or college libraries, public libraries, school libraries?

2. What special subject collections are available in the region? For example, does the normal school have an adequate collection of educational materials, and could these materials with supplementation, be used by teachers of the schools in the region?

3. What special subject collections are needed in the region in order to provide through research materials for the various industries, occupations?

4. Can a system of branch libraries be evolved by which centralized collections can be rotated thru the region?

a. Are buidlings and personnel available?
b. Are the transportation facilities adequate to transfer materials from one branch to another?
c. Which are the main centers of population in which branches might be established?
d. Can the needs of the people in the various communities of the region be met thru a branch program?

5. It has been found that usually the use of a school librar as a branch of a public library is not satisfactory, but school libraries frequently borrow sets of books from public libraries for class use.

6. Cooperation between libraries is essential through the establishment of an inter-library loan system.

III. Professional Libraries in Elementary Schools

A. One of the desired libraries of a community is a professiona library in schools for the use of teachers. It is not intended that this collection will become a large research library, but rather that it will include those materials whi will help the teacher perform daily class duties and which will keep the teacher mentally stimulated and alert.

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B. The professional library for teachers should be under the general supervision of the school librarian. Materials should be for teachers' use only and not available to students. Books should circulate in the same procedure as established for regular school books.

C. Types of materials to be included: Courses of study, sampl of textbooks, books on current teaching techniques and procedures, books on educational philosophy, books on child psychology, visual aids for use in classrooms, current educational magazines.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

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CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT
Ambrose Takeda

What is the curriculum?

There is general agreement today that the curriculum is composed of all the experiences which the children undergo under the guidance of the school. It is the result of interaction among many factors present in the learner and in the socio-physical environment.

Documents prepared to improve the curriculum should not be confused with the curriculum itself--they represent but one phase of the program. A course of study is such a document. Although a useful guide, no course of study can by itself represent an improvement in the curriculum.

What factors are important in a program for curriculum improvement?

1. There must be real changes in the attitudes and behavior of the persons who influence the curriculum--citizens, members of school boards, administrative personnel and other staff workers, as well as parents and children. Whether we will it or no, change occurs; new knowledge develops, new issues appear in the social order. These changes necessitate changes in the school curriculum. But effective changes in the curriculum depend upon real changes in the knowledges, beliefs, desires, attitudes, and skills of the people serving the schools.

Certain methods have been found effective in promoting these changes:

a. Arouse dissatisfaction with things as they are. This may be done by seizing upon a problem of immediate concern to the teachers. (ex.), with this approach it is necessary to lead the group to see the wider implications of the problem and the basic causes of the difficulty.

Dissatisfaction has also been aroused by focusing attention upon the results of a testing program, by using the findings in a local community survey as a drive for curriculum change, and by promoting a study of the development of children.

b. Provide opportunities for widespread participation in developing broad principles. Within the areas indicated by these broad principles, develop courses of study and other materials to guide teachers but do not demand uniform conformance.

c. Keep the goals flexible. Increasing opportunities for participation makes this possible. As insight and experience with new practices develop, new goals are set. The curriculum program then becomes continuous with constant evaluation of the goals set. New goals are then set in the light of the needs revealed by evaluation. At the same time group participation tends to hold the goals near enough to present practices to allow success in attaining the goals.

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2. The administrative organization must provide for effective group participation. This was indicated in the preceding discussion. The curriculum in the individual classroom is developed by the teacher and his pupils. They receive assistance from many people and from many published documents. The development of an effective curriculum program is therefore a cooperative enterprise involving many people outside the classroom.

3. In developing the administrative organization, make the individual school the primary unit of participation. Then provide means of coordinating the efforts of these primary units. Keep a small number of standing committees which have responsibility for continuous study.

There must be experts available to help teachers in developing curriculum programs. To utilize the services of experts, find out the point at which help is needed, locate the person most likely to be able to furnish the help, and make arrangements whereby he can work in the way in which he feels he can be most effective. Whoever is best qualified to give the needed help becomes an expert--be he janitor, parent, administrator, or college professor.

4. Better techniques for group action must be practiced and developed. Meetings are needed to provide for group planning and action. Large group meetings utilizing lectures, addresses, panel discussions, and questions from the audience are a satisfactory means for arousing a desire for action. But for meetings in which action is required small groups are necessary. For this purpose large groups can be divided into small conference groups. Issues may be clarified and motivation provided through discussion meetings, but a decision for action is the criterion by which the success of a meeting should be judged. Decision-making, according to De Huszar, is divided into three parts:(1) defining <u>what</u> the problem is,(2) deciding <u>how</u> to deal with it, and (3) deciding <u>who</u> shall do it.

5. The leadership must be democratic. Not only must the status leaders work democratically with others, but they must strive continually to develop leaders within the groups. Committee chairmanship and acceptance of special responsibility provide more opportunities for more persons to exercise leadership.

6. There must be a balance between gradualism and rapidity. People simply do not change their ideas and practices quickly. Time and study must be provided to allow people to feel secure in newer practices. However, the schools cannot be effective until their practices and aims are in better accord with the social order today. Therefore, changes must be made as rapidly as possible.

<u>Who makes the curriculum?</u>

From our discussion to this point it is apparent that those closest to the learning situation play the greatest part in developing the curriculum. However, they seek advice and assistance from many sources--teacher, research worker, administrator, consultant, psychologist, philosopher, sociologist, parents, children--these and many more play a part. Some furnish basic material, some use the materials in planning the educational experiences; some actually use the materials in the classroom.

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What prompts the development of a curriculum improvement program?

1. The superintendent exercises stimulating leadership.
2. The professional staff, working closely with the superintendent, exercises leadership.
3. The Prefectural Department exercises leadership.
4. Research workers, by making available the results of their work, stimulate interest in curriculum improvement.
5. Social changes produce conditions which demand curriculum change; e.g., changes in occupation, conditions which cause increased delinquency, change in age requirements for compulsory education, etc.
6. Leaders in the educational field predict future developments demanding changes.
7. Theories of learning change.
8. Practice in other school systems accelerate growth through stimulation to compare and analyze practices within the local system.
9. Teacher committees and associations initiate or contribute to improvement programs.

What are some of the characteristics of a curriculum improvement program?

The most effective programs usually start with individuals and committees at work solving problems related to the actual classroom situation. As they study, they are led into the wider applications of the problem. New practices develop and demands for further study and help appear. Experts are brought in, courses are organized, and documents are furnished to meet these demands. The course of study is but one of these documents. Usually, the curriculum program is under way for a few years before the course of study is developed.

What problems usually appear?

1. Statement of principles basic to the development of the curriculum--statement of an educational philosophy, statement of an educational creed, etc.
2. Statement of aims.
3. Study of pupil purposes and interests.
4. Study of suitable learning experiences.
5. Determination of the bases for selecting subject matter.
6. Study of the appropriate organization of learning experiences.
7. Study of effective teaching procedures.
8. Study of evaluating techniques which give data related to the objectives set up.

How are documentary aids related to the curriculum program?

A variety of documents are developed in modern curriculum programs. They are produced to meet some need which arises during the progress of the program. Some are designed by teachers; some, for teachers, and some, to acquaint parents and community members with the school program.

The chief types of aids which appear in modern programs are:

1. Source units.
2. Guides to Child Development.
3. Curriculum Records; reports of units as they developed; teaching units, descriptions of learning experiences, etc.
4. Courses of study.

These are supplemented by many documents for which need arises in the local situation. (See Barr, Burton, and Brueckner "Supervision" page 392.

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How is a course of study related to the curriculum program?

The course of study grows out of the improvement program. It aids the teacher in organizing the curriculum by setting forth the objectives, the content, the books, resource materials and activities related to a given subject area.

The preparation of a course of study is a technical job which cannot be carried on by all staff members. Rather it is undertaken by individuals and committees which are specially prepared to do the work. However, they must be guided in their work by the experiences of the classroom teachers if the courses are to be satisfactory. They select, edit, organize, and unify contributions from all sources. The teachers' greatest contributions come from their curriculum records. The contributions and suggestions of specialists are also sought. In fact, the services of an outside consultant who is a specialist are often made available.

What are the major elements usually found in a course of study?

1. A statement of philosophy (viewpoint or creed)
2. General aim
3. The specific objectives of the course
4. The selection and organization of content
5. The suggested learning experiences
6. The suggested techniques for evaluation
7. The lists of materials which may be used

When considering the selection and organization of content, those who make the course of study must answer four questions.

1. What is to be the scope (area or coverage) of the course?
2. How is the content to be selected to fill the scope?
3. How will the content be arranged?
4. What is to be the sequence by which the content is arranged?

Modern courses use a combination of two methods to determine scope: an analysis of social life to determine the needs of members of society and an analysis of the personal life of the individuals to determine their needs, interests and problems. The needs and problems thus revealed become the scope. (Other methods are outlined on page 417 of "Supervision."

Caswell and Campbell in "Curriculum Development" present four criteria which serve as guides in determining the scope:

1. Provision should be made for the consecutive, cumulative movement of children through the curriculum.
2. Freedom should be allowed for the teacher to organize instruction around purposeful experiences for pupils of varying capacities and abilities.
3. The individuals should be oriented to the aspects of the social life in which he must participate.
4. A core around which materials from the various subjects may be organized should be provided for the entire period of school attendance.

Content is usually selected by determining in advance the materials and experiences necessary to fulfill the aims and meet the needs of individuals and of society. They are then tried out in the actual classroom situation. Following the tryout the content is revised as need is indicated.

The more modern programs derive the necessary content from the actual experiences first.

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Traditional and formal courses arrange the content into subjects. Sometimes correlations are suggested. To encourage broader organization of subject matter many courses arrange the content under themes or topics.

Today the content is more often arranged in units. In the unit organization social significance, pupil purpose, and pupil interest are determiners of the content.

*The sequence in modern programs is determined by considering:

1. The characteristics of pupil maturation and growth.
2. The readiness of the learner.
3. The interests and needs of the learner.
4. The presence of difficulties in learning.
5. The effect of failure upon learning.
6. The effect of knowledge of success upon learning.

*Barr, Burton and Brueckner "Supervision" page 424.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-25

26 October 1948

ORGANIZATION FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT
Ambrose Takeda

(Elementary Consultants Group; Subject: Work of the Teacher Consultant).

The Duties and Responsibilities of the Various Agencies Connected with a Curriculum Program.

The Board of Education

The Board of Education is the regularly constituted law-making body of the public school system. As such, it must consider and pass on ways and means of financing the program as suggested by the superintendent. It must authorize and approve the plans and policies of the curriculum program.

The Superintendent of Schools

The school superintendent should be a specialist in school finance, school architecture, school-board relations, teacher personnel problems, community organizations, etc. But his major interest and responsibility are to improve the school curriculum. He must, therefore, be familiar with the principle of child development, modern theories of learning and modern curriculum trends.

Modern education, as we have frequently noted, is too complex to be encompassed by one mind. Hence, the superintendent should form judgments and act in cooperation with others.

What responsibilities does he have because of his leadership status?

1. He is responsible for the initiation of the program.
2. He is responsible for securing authorization for the program from the Board of Education.
3. He is responsible for submitting all plans and policies to the Board of Education for authorization and approval.
4. He is responsible for the general administration and supervision of the curriculum program.

Usually, in large cities or prefectures, he will delegate the authority for directing the curriculum program to some qualified staff member; such as, an assistant superintendent, a consultant, a principal, or a director of curriculum. Though he delegates the authority, he still retains his responsibility. Hence, we find these practices common:

1. He sits on the central curriculum council.
2. He sets up certain requirements.
3. He offers suggestions.
4. He approves or disapproves the work of the person charged with the direction of the curriculum program.

The Director of the Curriculum Program

Some school systems have as a staff member a director of curriculum; others delegate the direction of the curriculum program to an assistant superintendent, a consultant or other qualified staff member.

The duties of the director of the curriculum program include:

1. Developing, subject to the superintendent's approval, an organization for curriculum work.
2. Recommending for appointment the personnel of the organization.
3. Assisting in committee organization.
4. Securing the services of experts.
5. Scheduling the activities of the committees and checking on their progress.

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6. Assembling materials from committees and reviewing and editing these materials.
7. Supervising the preparation of bulletins.
8. Preparing bibliographies for committees.
9. Helping staff members to see the curriculum implications of various proposals and developments.

The work of all individuals and committees operating on his authorization is subject to his approval or disapproval. He sits on central and coordinating committees. He needs superior knowledge of the social scene, the principles of child development and learning theories. He should be a specialist in the uses of organization and in the coordination of efforts of all those engaged in the preparation of curriculum materials.

The Teacher Consultant

A general consultant has far more value in a modern program than does a consultant in a particular subject area. Often a general consultant is the director of the curriculum program. When not directors, their duties include:

1. Furnishing consultant services to principals and teachers.
2. Furnishing services to superintendents.
3. Furnishing services to committees.
4. Staffing the workshops for teachers and community adults.

The School Principal

His chief function is to furnish leadership in the curriculum development program in his own school. His special duties include:

1. Developing among the faculty a broad view of the curriculum.
2. Coordinating the work of individuals and committees.
3. Organizing necessary committees.
4. Providing service to the entire school system, if he has specialized in some area of the curriculum.

Outside Specialists and Consultants

When the budget permits, it is desirable to secure the services of an outside specialist or consultant. His relationship is entirely advisory and he performs such services as:

1. Contributing advice to the staff.
2. Aiding the director in planning the program.
3. Assisting in the preparation of bulletins, bibliographies, and study materials.
4. Assisting in securing other specialists who may be required.
5. Aiding the director in guiding the work of the various committees.
6. Providing general professional stimulation to the teachers.

Many agencies are responsible for different aspects of the program. There are wide variations in practice; but, in general, those agencies which are best qualified to perform a task do so--the assigned task being closely related to the regular duties.

How the Agencies Are Organized

Administrative organizations for curriculum programs vary but they tend to follow these principles:

1. Organize so that fullest participation is secured in all aspects of the program.
2. Organize the program around problems of direct concern to those participating.
3. Organize councils, committees, and conference groups to serve definite purposes.
4. Organize so that responsibilities are fixed, duties are specific and the usual administrative relationships are observed.

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5. Organize to provide varied participation.
   a. Provide wide participation by all members of the school staff. This develops common understandings of the need for the program, its purposes and the means proposed for accomplishing the aims of the program.
   b. Provide for intensive participation by small selected groups. These groups will be composed of those with the most understanding of and training in curriculum problems. They should work under the direction of specialists. Much of their work can be carried on in workshops or courses in institutions of higher learning. There they plan their procedures, prepare bulletins, and produce other needed materials.
   c. Provide for general participation by lay groups. Lay groups study the aims of education, the need for education, the character of the educational program and the major characteristics of the proposed plans.

6. Organize only those committees which are necessary to carry on each phase of the program.
   a. A council or committee is formed composed of the most capable persons in the school system. This council determines the philosophy of the school and the general guiding principles for the program. It serves as a clearing house and approves the work submitted by other committees. It must have worked long enough to have rather definitely agreed upon principles, aims, and scope before production committees can proceed.
   b. An aims committee may be organized if the personnel of the system is large enough and well-enough trained to warrant it. If used, it usually determines the aims of education, the scope of the curriculum and the program of studies to be developed.
   c. A production committee determines aims, content, activities materials, etc., within a given subject area.
   d. An appraisal committee oversees the try-outs of new materials.
   e. An installation committee sees that the course is installed after study by the teachers and principals. (A single committee can do the work described under d and e).

Caswell and Campbell assert that analysis reveals five general types of committees:

Administrative committees
Production committees
Editing and reviewing committees
Special problems committees
(Those dealing with problems not directly concerned with the production of materials)
Advisory committees

7. Organize so that the efforts of committees and individuals can be coordinated.

If the school staff is small it is possible to operate largely as a committee of the whole.

If the staff is large, the labor will be divided among committees. Some will be short-time committees with specific assignments; others, long-time (standing) committees with well-defined duties.

In large city systems or at the prefectural level, organize so that the individual classrooms can be reached through the school representatives. Be sure that the necessary steps are taken so that all are informed about the general program.

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Organize a central or coordinating committee. Its membership should be composed of at least one representative from each school and one member from the central staff. There are several advantages in having such a committee:

It focuses attention upon problems which are common throughout the system.
It quickens the rate of curriculum change by keeping the entire system aware of changes which are taking place in all classrooms within the system.
It encourages the exchange of curriculum materials and records.
It evaluates the progress of the school as a whole.
It formulates the over-all policies.
It provides in-service education.

8. Organize the central staff to provide better service.
Their services will reach the children through the faculties of the several schools.
The central staff provides services which coordinate the school and community in attacks upon mutual problems; such as, health campaigns, city improvement campaigns, attacks upon delinquency.

<u>Study of Plans and Organizations for Curriculum Improvement</u>
(Use mimeographed copies of charts translated into Japanese)
"How Major Instructional or Curriculum Problems are Handled"
"The Unit of Participation", p. 105
"All-City Organization", p. 106
"School Policies Council," p. 112
"Organization for Problem-Solving," p. 113
"Steps by which it is Proposed that Curriculum Material be Produced."

References for study of curriculum programs in selected state and city systems.

Barr, Burton and Brueckner, "Supervision"
The Mississippi Program, p. 639
The Kansas Program, p. 640
The Oklahoma Program, p. 641
The Maine Program, p. 641-645
The Philadelphia Program, p. 645-648
The New York City Program, p. 648-650
The Denver Program, p. 650
Guidance for Local City Programs, p. 654

1. Caswell and Campbell, "Curriculum Development," p. 497
2. Barr, Burton, and Brueckner "Supervision," p. 652-653; 105; 106; 112;113.
3. Caswell and Campbell op. cit. p. 509.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-26-27

28 October 1948

ACTIVITIES WHICH COORDINATE THE SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY
Ambrose Takeda

Lectures No. 11a and b

(Elementary Consultants Group -- Subject: The Work of the Teacher Consultant)

The Relation of the School and Community

Many schools exist in but are not part of their community. The children go to the schools, but the school program operates in isolation from the life about it. Fortunately, as better understanding of the role of the school develops, steps are taken to break down this isolation.

Society expects the school to help children understand their culture and acquire the skills and knowledges necessary to maintain and improve that culture. But often the members of a community do not visualize the functions the school must carry out in order to be effective educational institutions. Hence, we need to develop educational leadership in teachers, principals, consultants, and superintendents. Then, in their community contacts and through a public relations program, they can interpret the school program to the community.

Obviously, the school is the special agency set up by society to guide and direct the learning experiences of children. However, there are many other agencies which, directly or indirectly, effect the education of children -- sometimes favorably, sometimes unfavorably. Among these social influences are: the home, play groups and gangs, radio, motion picture, kamishibai, reading, black markets, neighborhood contacts, group organizations of all kinds.

In addition, there are governmental and welfare agencies which contribute to the education of children: police and juvenile courts public libraries, museums, welfare and relief agencies, charity groups, religious and denominational groups. In many localities these agencies operate almost independently of each other, duplicating efforts in an uneconomical and inefficient manner.

We need more extensive cooperation between the school and these outside forces; otherwise, their influences may counteract each other.

The school which concerns itself with life about it draws upon and contributes to the community. Such a school needs to avail itself of community resources for instructional purposes and to use the community itself as a work service laboratory. In their contacts with the community administrators, consultants, teachers and students must understand that every interview, excursion, service project, etc., is a venture in public relations. It is a situation in which they interpret the school and its program to the community groups. Every satisfactory contact creates the basis for increased understanding and public support, every dissatisfactory contact provides the basis for community criticism of school affairs. Amiable public relations are essential to the successful building of bridges between school and community life.

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The Community School

Now, the idea of the community school is becoming familiar to educational workers. Then, what do we mean by a community school? Olsen defines it in his "School and Community" as follows:

"The community school

1. Evolves its purposes out of the interests and needs of the people.
2. Utilizes a wide variety of community resources in its program.
3. Practices and promotes democracy in all activities of school and community.
4. Builds the curriculum core around the major processes and problems of human living.
5. Exercises definite leadership for the planned and cooperative improvement of group living in the community and larger areas.
6. Enlists children and adults in cooperative group projects of common interest and mutual concern.

Undoubtedly, schools which have concerned themselves with problems of living within the community have effected thoroughgoing integration of school and community. They provide work-service through such projects as beautification of school grounds, improving nutrition, development of gardens, providing mosquito control, improving educational facilities, planning better system of garbage collection, etc.

They provide classes at school for community adults. Experts in the community, as well as teachers, participate as instructors.

They develop plans for promoting community use of the school plant for discussion groups, sports activities, musical and dramatic programs, use of the library, etc. Most schools at present ar not well adapted to community programs of this kind, but through careful study and clever planning, needed adjustments can be made.

The school can also serve as a community center concerned with broader aspects of the welfare of the family and community; such as health, improving living conditions within the community, the elimination of community influences that contribute to juvenile delinquency, etc. Where such programs have functioned successfully, there has been a fine type of cooperation between the school and community agencies.

Parent Organizations

Now P.T.A's are organized in many elementary schools. Teacher consultants should become acquainted with successful P.T.A. program and then help each principal and his teachers to improve the P.T.A. of the school.

Among the practices which have been found effective in P.T.A.' are:

1. Encouraging non-parents to belong.
2. Having discussion groups instead of lectures.
3. Having groups from the P.T.A. come to the school to assist in such work as helping in the cafeteria, caring for repair of library books, helping when physical examinations or inoculations are given, taking charge of costume rooms, showing films, giving assistance in arts and crafts, etc.
4. Having room groups to which the parents of the children within a particular classroom belong.

Having representatives from each school P.T.A. on a general committee which includes representatives from all P.T.A.'s in the community.

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The Community Survey

In order to bring the schools closer to the community which they serve, the school staff must be familiar with the activities, the resources, the customs and the people of the community. The method of obtaining such information is called the school survey. Often an individual teacher makes a survey.

But, if others participate, the survey can be a force in informing community members about local problems as well as an agent in improving school and community relations.

Pupils can plan and make some aspects of a community survey. Committees of parents and laymen can provide service in this area. Ideally, it should be an enterprise in which pupils, staff members and interested community adults cooperate.

Among other things the survey should reveal expertness outside the school. Anyone who has a particular contribution to make is considered an expert in his line -- be he janitor, carpenter, secretary, artist, musician. Some come to the classroom to aid in the program, others give lectures, concerts, exhibits, demonstrations, etc., which children attend.

The School and the Community Coordinating Council

A coordinating council consists of representatives from community groups which organize to provide a means of cooperating for the improvement of the general and social welfare of the community

Normally, they include representatives from the schools, the courts, health departments and recreation departments. They also include representatives from private social agencies and organized groups.

"The role of the school is of particular importance in the work of the coordinating council because it is the only permanent agency which is supported by all of the people and which serves all of the children. The special obligations of the school are as follows:

1. To provide leadership and to act with others in making and keeping the council a potent educational force in the community.
2. To maintain the democratic values of group discussion, group planning, group decision and ~~the scientific values~~ of objective thinking about controversial issues.
3. To guide the council in the use of evaluative procedures so that results may be reliably appraised and purposes adjusted to changing needs.
4. To aid in sensitizing the councils' membership to pupil needs, pupil interests, and pupil problems.
5. To include pupils sometimes so that they may participate actively in both planning and executing policies."

Community councils have studied and planned the improvement of recreation facilities, public services, youth organizations, employment for youth, educational opportunities for adults, improving community conditions, etc.

1. Barr, Burton, and Brueckner "Supervision" p. 700,701.

(Illustration of Glencoe, Illinois Community Council, using mimeographed copies translated in Japanese).

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

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PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH PROGRAMS

Ambrose

Takeda

A. The meaning of educational research

A critical and exhaustive investigation or experimentation to discover new facts about education is called educational research. Its purpose is to change accepted conclusions and practices.

B. Some uses of research

To determine the extent to which classroom practices are meeting the needs of all the children

To determine the extent to which the schools are meeting the needs of society

To furnish evidence which will be presented to members of the teaching profession and the public at large in an effort to change the criterion by which they evaluate the success of education.

To furnish evidence that certain new practices promote desirable growth in the characteristics demanded of citizens in a democratic society

To determine which established classroom practices must be changed in favor of others which are in accord with the objectives of the educational system

To promote progress by using further study and research to change practices which we accept as best in the light of our present knowledge and skill

C. Questions which may be answered through research

How are the schools recognizing the worth of each personality? Where?

How are school developing freedom to act upon reasoned convictions? Where?

How are schools permitting students to discipline themselves? Where?

How are schools developing forms of student government? Where?

Which of two practices promotes more desirable learning?

What is the effect of certain teacher factors upon pupil learning?

In what aspects is the curriculum effective and/or ineffective?

How are schools grouping children for more effective learning? Where?

What are the effects of certain schemes for promotion of pupils?

How are the schools improving the evaluating program and records? Where?

How are the schools organizing the classroom program?

What are the effects of coeducation upon the behavior of pupils?

How are skills developed functionally? Where?

How has the skills program been modified to accord with our knowledge of child growth and development? Where? etc.

D. Research methods of solving problems

We should not treat problems blindly. How shall we solve them reasonably?

Barr lists six sources of truth which are used in research programs:

1. Personal experience based upon incidental observation
2. Authority
3. Custom and tradition
4. History
5. Philosophy

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6. Science
(Illustrations and comments added in lecture)
Each has value for research. The first three are valuable for immediate assistance but they must be substantiated by more systematic investigations. The last three taken together or separately are the means of verifying the concepts derived from the first three. Today we strive to solve more and more problems scientifically.

E. The forms of scientific research commonly employed in the field of education [1]

1. The normative - survey method
2. The comparative - causal method
3. The experimental method
4. The genetic method
5. The clinical case study method
6. The co-variational method
(Purposes and characteriatics of each briefly described)

F. Research in Japan

1. Present status

Educational research at the present is not developed satisfactorily in Japan. There is a Bureau of Research in the ministry of Education. Every Normal School has an attached Educational Research Institute but many do not operate actively because of low budgets. To our pleasure, Prefectural Research Institutes are increasing. We do not have any well-qualified private educational research instutes.

Unfortunately, these research institutes operate separately. It is our problem to extend the educational research institutes, to help them operate effeciently, and to provide a means of coordinating their work.

2. The importance of adequate records

3. Cooperation in educational research

Many of the people engaged in research need to study children in the classroom environment. The teacher consultant will be in a position to designate classrooms which can be studied, teachers who can understand the factors involved in the problem, or teachers who carry on the practices which need to be studied. He will, furthermore, give service in explaining the procedures to the groups involved and in keeping them informed of progress at various stages of the program.

The study of educational problems is a complex undertaking Adequate research demands group activity. Barr lists 5 advantages of group activity.

a. It makes possible the development of the "team" mind so essential in the comprehension of complex phenomena.
b. It provides a multiple check upon error.
c. It makes possible long-time developmental and follow-up studies not possible under individual leadership.
d. It makes possible the study of some of the more important fundamental complex problems of education.

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1) Barr, Burton, and Brueckner "Supervision" 812-815.

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e. It provides a broader base upon which to build improved practice through including more people.

4. Conclusion

Teacher consultants - or others - will not keep the schools upset by continually carrying on research programs. Nor will they carry on such programs until they gain the necessary skill through study and training.

The development of adequate records as a prerequisite for a research program has already been stressed. However, he who is content to follow established practices without question, will not serve the schools well.

At first, consultants will do well to concentrate upon helping teachers and principals improve in what they are now doing. In the meantime, much can be gained through studying the resea ch which has been carried on by others.

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INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-28-b

29 October 1948

THE CHALLENGE TO DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

Ambrose

Takeda

What is leadership? We very often have misunderstandings about leadership. Leadership does not mean the power given from any outside agency. Leadership vested through legal authority is relatively simple to understand. But it cannot be called true leadership. Leadership under democratic conditions is a subtle and difficult procedure.

1. A leader has the willingness and ability to create a truly cooperative spirit and procedure.

2. A leader has better than average intelligence and emotional balance.

3. A leader has confidence in himself, his ability and his aims; but, at the same time, he has a profound feeling of humility -- sometimes even distrust of himself. Both attitudes contribute directly to leadership.

4. A leader has confidence in human nature, its improbability, and the creativity of all human beings. But. a leader at times is deeply critical of human nature, recognizing its dangerous shortcomings at given moments. Each attitude is characteristic of leadership.

5. A leader recognizes critical points in the democratic development of policy. He recognizes when issues must be brought into the open, thoroughly discussed, and carried to the point that decisions are made.

As we enter upon our duties as teachers' consultants we shall be aware of the need for cooperation between the consultant and the principals of schools, between the consultants and the teachers---in fact, among all who are members of the school staff. Further than this there must be cooperation between the schools and the communities of which they are a part.

The consultant's primary duty is to help every teacher grow. Through promoting teacher growth he helps every child to grow. To achieve this work, we must endure many difficulties which are present in the bad conditions of today's schools. The consultant service is quite new to us and many among us are not fully prepared for the heavy work ahead. But, where there is a will, there is a way. Consultants who are anxious to create better schools for a new generation will expect to strive diligently to understand the nature of their work and to render service which will truly promote better schools for the world of tomorrow.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
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WHAT IS GUIDANCE?
Elmoti - Miki

Lecture No. 1

The importance of guidance in Japanese education today

Elementary school teacher consultants occupy key positions in the development of education in Japan today and have a special responsibility for the guidance of children so that they may develop into citizens who will be ready to assume responsibility for the development and preservation of democracy. The Fundamental Laws of Education outline the aims of the new education. In the Tentative Suggested Course of Study published by the Ministry of Education in 1947, these aims were considered more concretely:

In personal life men and women should be honest, responsible, and ethical. They should have a scientific point of view, should be always eager for new knowledge. They should know their own language and have a spirit and linguistic skill to express themselves well, should appreciate literature, art, and the beauties and wonder of nature. They should develop a deep religious conviction, and should have a democratic philosophy of life. They should be appreciative of labor and should seek to make themselves vocationally effective and understanding of the values of the work that all men and women do. They should break the shell (character) which has been framed for so long a time by the feudal system and the insularity of Japan.

In family life men and women citizens should develop respect and love for the members of their family, should acquire high ideals of home life, and should endeavor to create a home which will be democratic, happy, and well-ordered. They will need to know how to manage the home's economic affairs and how to raise the standard of living in the homes. They will need to understand the growth and development of their children that they, too, may grow to be fine citizens.

In social life good citizens demonstrate love and appreciation of all human beings and respect for their rights and freedom. They have a sense of responsibility for the well-being of all men, and seek to help them secure justice. To these ends, they are active in political life and respect the opportunity to participate in elections. They are law abiding and constantly seek to acquire an international point of view that they may help in building peace throughout the world.

In economic and vocational life they seek to acquire the skills which will make them contributing members of society, self-supporting and independent. They enter into their fields of work with pride that they may assist in the development of business and industry in the new Japan. As consumers, they are intelligent in buying, careful of their possessions, conservative in their expenditures, willing to do without many things in these days of reconstruction in order that the general welfare may be improved.

These are the aims of Japanese education today, but children cannot develop into such citizens without guidance. They face many problems, and their teachers and parents must assume responsibility for guiding them in meeting their needs. Families, schools, and communities are seriously disrupted as a result of the war, and guidance is therefore more necessary than ever before:

1. Many social institutions have broken down -- youth organizations, families, religious organizations, etc.
2. Families have suffered serious economic loss. Many have lost their homes and all their material possessions.
3. Schools have suffered loss of teachers, buildings, books, libraries, etc.
4. Rapid changes in governmental controls have been difficult for parents to understand and adjust to, and their insecurity is reflected in the insecurity of children. There are too many undesirable social conditions surrounding the children - black markets, juvenile delinquency, etc.
5. School organization has made a sudden shift from the formal, centralized controls of the past to a democratic group control, and teachers are not sure of their responsibilities.

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6. Interest in schools is now focused on the individual -- his needs, interests and abilities -- and teachers are urged to adapt their teaching to each individual child. However, their classes are very large and their supplies are limited so that many of them do not know how to make these adaptations. They are frustrated and unhappy because they want to do their work well but feel incapable of doing so under present conditions.
7. Formal, autocratic discipline has been replaced with democratic discipline and many teachers do not understand democratic controls of behavior. Many classes have become disorderly, therefore, and teachers do not understand how to re-establish their position of leadership and responsibility. Parents have the same problems of discipline, and many children have become behavior problems -- even delinquents.

These are the problems which pupils, their parents, and their teachers face together, and it is the guidance program which must help them to find solutions.

Purposes of guidance in the elementary schools

1. To help all children adjust to the many problems which they face in Japan today.
2. To discover the needs, interests, and abilities of each individual pupil.
3. To assist each teacher to plan her school activities in terms of pupil needs and development.
4. To help each pupil discover his own special abilities and to help him feel that he is steadily achieving success and overcoming his disabilities.
5. To discover the exceptional child -- the physically or mentally handicapped, the behavior problem child, the child of very superior intelligence -- and to plan an educational program which will meet his special needs.
6. To coordinate school services for children and other services in the community - health, recreation, physical education, youth organizations, cultural services, police, etc.
7. To develop good relationships between home and school and to assist in parent education programs and the PTA.
8. To help teachers know how to group their children in the classroom for instruction and for student government.
9. To help teachers prepare good cumulative records and develop helpful reports to parents so that they will understand the guidance needs of their children.
10. To help children who have completed the elementary school make a good adjustment in the next school to which they go.

It will be seen from this statement of purposes that the guidance responsibility is a very great one, and teacher consultants may feel that they are being asked to accomplish the impossible. It must be remembered, however, that theirs is the responsibility for leadership, that they must be the "teacher of teachers". Because of their special training they may help teachers become sensitive to the individual needs of their pupils and may guide them to study their own schools and communities so that they may constantly improve them. Americans have a saying, "Rome was not built in a day." So teacher consultants must not become discouraged if they do not at once find immediate response to their attempts to provide leadership in guidance. Instead, they must day by day select immediate activities which will lead eventually toward the achievement of the high goals which they have set for themselves. They must constantly seek to improve their own understanding and knowledge that they may guide wisely and well.

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WHAT IS EVALUATION?
Elmott - Miki

Lecture No. 2

Evaluation is the process of determining whether or not the pupils in our schools are actually developing into the kinds of citizens whom we have described in our statement of aims and objectives in Lecture No. 1. Are we actually achieving these goals? When our children complete their education, will they be good citizens, sound in mind and body, democratic in their relationships with other people, and happy and well-adjusted in their own personal lives? Will they have the knowledge and skills which they need in a democracy? Will they have wholesome attitudes? Will they be well-integrated? The elementary school teacher consultant has the responsibility for helping teachers to develop a systematic program of evaluation so that each year of the child's growth and development may show evidence of progress toward the goals of education. Guidance and evaluation must always be considered together, for we must constantly check on the effectiveness of our guidance to be sure that it is securing the proper results.

Steps in the evaluation process

1. The first step in a good system of evaluation must be the establishment of the goals of education. These have been well-stated in the Tentative Suggested Course of Study, and we reviewed them in Lecture No. 1. However, each school must carefully re-study this statement of aims to be sure that they are applicable to the school's own community. There will be specific aims which will be important for each individual school because communities differ from each other.

2. When the aims of education have been agreed upon, the teachers must seek to describe these aims in specific behavioral terms which may be observed. They cannot depend just upon their subjective judgment. Therefore, if a teacher wishes to know whether or not pupils are cooperative, it becomes necessary to describe the way in which a cooperative child behaves so that the child may be observed more scientifically. It is difficult also to know whether or not children read as well as they should considering their intelligence, their age, and their general maturity. Tests should therefore be developed by which the teacher can measure their reading ability more scientifically.

3. The third step consists of gathering together information, using various evaluation techniques: test results, observation studies, check lists, cumulative records, etc.

4. The fourth step consists of the interpretation of the information thus gathered. From the study of all the data about children, teachers, assisted by their principals and teacher consultants, may determine whether or not their children are developing into the kinds of citizens who will be effective members of a democracy.

5. The fifth step consits of re-defining goals. For example, study may indicate that certain activities carried on in the elementary schools are not providing the best possible development of the pupils. The course of study may be poorly planned for a particular grade. When this is discovered, teachers and administrators together will reorganize the course of study and re-state their aims.

From this brief description, it will be seen that evaluation, like guidance, is a continuous process. It is basic to the success of an educational program, for we cannot judge our success and effectiveness unless we constantly check upon ourselves through study of the progress which each of our students is making.

During these two weeks together when we discuss guidance and evaluation, we shall divide our discussions into the following lecture topics:

1. What do teachers need to know about child growth and development in order to guide children successfully?
2. How may the guidance program assist teachers to understand and provide for the individual differences which they discover as they study each pupil?

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3. What are the basic personality needs of children which must be met in a good guidance program?
4. How may we help teachers to develop democratic discipline within their classrooms?
5. What methods of classroom organization may be developed to help a teacher guide each individual pupil more effectively?
6. What information should be included in a good cumulative record?
7. How may a teacher use a cumulative record so that it will provide significant evidences of the child's growth and development?
8. How may the teacher use tests and measurements to determine whether or not her pupils are making satisfactory progress?
9. What other evaluation techniques may be used by teachers in studying their pupils?
10. How may the teacher assist in the discovery of children with exceptional needs the physically and mentally handicapped, the behavior problem child, the child with very supperior intelligence, the child with educational disabilities?
11. What kinds of school programs should be developed for the exceptional child?
12. How may the case study method be used to assist in the guidance of individual children with special problems?
13. How may schools organize a guidance conference to coordinate their work with children who have exceptional needs?
14. How may teachers develop good home-school relationships in the guidance program.
15. What is the relationship of guidance work to programs of parent education and the PTA?
16. What kinds of reports to parents should be part of the guidance program for all children?
17. How may schools assist in the coordination of all community agencies concerned with child welfare?
18. How may we assist teachers in the development and maintenance of their own mental health?

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WHAT TEACHERS NEED TO KNOW ABOUT GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT
Elmott - Miki

Lecture No. 3

Everywhere in Japan today, men and women who are teachers in our schools are seeking to understand children as individuals. The new society expects that every child should be educated to be a useful citizen who can contribute to the development of society and at the same time enjoy life according to his ability. However, in the past it was the educator's responsibility to see that the child fitted into a particular society and became a certain type of citizen. Problems of child guidance or understanding were therefore rarely recognized. Today, the fundamental rights of individuals are confirmed, and to us in education comes the responsibility for guiding children to use those rights correctly and at the same time help children to fulfill the duties which accompany those rights.

Teacher consultants who will guide teachers may well ask themselves: What do our teachers need to know? What does it mean to "understand" an individual child? (see Helping Teachers Understand Children pp. 8-12.)

1. In the first place, teachers who "understand" a child think of their behavior as caused. They see a child's present actions as resulting from all his past experience, his present life situation, and his hopes for the future. They seek to study his past, his present, and his future aspirations in order that they may understand why he behaves as he does. They believe that through such study they can help him to overcome difficulties so that he will adjust better to the world about him.
2. In the second place, teachers who really understand children are able to accept all of them and will never reject a child as hopeless or unworthy. They will have a deep respect for every human being and will realize that every child, no matter how handicapped he may be, can make some contribution to society. If a child behaves badly, therefore, they will not condemn him but will recognize that his behavior is a symptom that some of his needs are not being met. They will study the causes for his poor behavior that they may scientifically help him to correct it.
3. Teachers who understand children recognize also that every child is unique, every individual differs from every other individual in the world. Children differ in body build, in physiological stability, in energy, rate and timing of growth, mental capacities, knowledge and skills, attitudes and values, general background of experience, relationships with parents, brothers and sisters, and other children. Because there are so many variables in a child's personality, understanding teachers realize that they must know a great deal about every child and will continuously seek to gather more information about each one and to study that information carefully.
4. If children are different, we know also that in many ways they are alike. In the process of growing up, children all have to learn how to do certain things which have been called "developmental tasks". They have to learn to walk, to talk, to dress themselves, to get along in groups, to behave as boys or as girls, to act conventionally in a thousand situations, to read, write, figure, spell, to use money, to respect property, to accept the values that characterize their society, to find a way to earn a living, to select and win a marriage partner, to fulfill civic responsibilities, to arrive at a satisfying explanation of the meaning of life and the universe. In general, individuals tend to work at these tasks when they reach the appropriate maturity levels, and they are disturbed if they fail to accomplish any of them. Teachers who really understand children know what the sequence and timing of these activities are in relation to the child's physical, social, and mental maturity. They know also what kinds of complications often arise as persons with different characteristics and backgrounds work at them, and what conditions, relationships and experiences are most helpful to children in mastering each of them.
5. A fifth characteristic of understanding teachers is that they know the more important facts about human growth, development, motivation, learning and behavior. They cannot have all the technical knowledge that a specialist would have in all the various sciences -- biology, psychology, physiology, sociology, etc. -- but they understand the general practical facts which these scientists

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have discovered, and they seek to understand children and to provide for them [illegible] these principles. In later lectures Dr. Jersild will discuss many aspects of this in presenting the background for educational psychology.

6. Finally, an understanding teacher habitually uses as many scientific means as possible in making judgments about any particular boy or girl. He is never guided only by his own emotions of liking or disliking a child. Instead, he seeks to observe that child as skillfully as possible, to devise tests to determine how well the child is progressing, and to seek help from others in the child's family and in the school staff. He makes a genuine attempt to accept all his children fully, no matter how good or bad natured each child may be, for unless he has such acceptance, he cannot guide the child. What is seriously desired of teachers is the affection exceeding personal inclination or passing sentiment.

The teacher consultants will understand from these characteristics of the teacher who really understands a child that there is much that they will have to know if they are to help all teachers become truly "understanding". They themselves must make careful studies of child growth and development. They will study many of the books which have been written about how children grow and develop. One of the most useful books in our library here is by Dr. Helen Pryor, AS THE CHILD GROWS. Another is by Breckenridge and Vincent, CHILD DEVELOPMENT. The latter book in pages 4-14 outlines the laws which govern growth as follows:

1. Growth is both quantitative and qualitative: that is, the child increases in size, in height, weight, etc. and at the same time he is maturing, learning to use his mind and body more effectively. He is gaining better control of his emotions. He is very different from an adult, for the quality of his performances and his general behavior depends upon the state of development which he has reached.

2. Growth is a continuous process. Within every child there is a strong innate impulse toward growth which will be disrupted only by severe neglect or abuse.

3. Growth follows an orderly sequence. No child will learn to walk before he has learned to stand. He cannot learn to speak syllables clearly before he has passed through the babbling stage. He cannot learn to read until his eyes have matured or until he has had enough experience with the world to have certain basic concepts which he will want to put into words. Thus, teacher consultants may learn the general patterns which growth will follow and may help teachers plan school experiences which will be appropriate for each stage of growth.

4. Growth patterns are not absolutely uniform for each child, however. No child grows at exactly the same rate as any other. Deaf children sometimes learn to read and write before they can learn to speak. It is important to understand, therefore, that we should not become too concerned if any particular child varies somewhat from what we consider to be the average rate of growth for most children.

5. The tempo of growth is not even. Children may make very rapid growth at certain stages of their development and then may slow down for some months, making little gain in height, for example, or in reading ability. Children in the sixth or seventh grade may suddenly begin to grow so rapidly in height and weight that for a time they seem to make little progress in school.

6. Both rate and pattern of growth can be changed by conditions within and without the body. Thus the child who is not well or has poor diet may be unable to compete in school work with children who come from a better social situation which provides for better food, rest, etc. The child who is very unhappy, who is separated from his parents, or seriously neglected may also be unable to grow wholesomely.

7. Growth is complex. Physical, social, and emotional factors are all interrelated. For this reason, it is difficult for a teacher to discover sometimes why a child is not making good progress. For this reason, too, he has to consider the child's health and physical well being, his home and family situation, his past school experiences, the kind of recreational activities in which he engages, etc.

8. Every child grows in his own unique way. Some children are short, some tall, some thin, and some fat. Some are energetic and some are shy and withdrawn. There are also very important differences between boys and girls. We must try, therefore, to understand each child's own pattern that we may guide him to develop fully. The contribution which he may make to society will depend on his own particular personality.

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No teachers can understand all these difficult concepts of growth and development at once, and teacher consultants have so many responsibilities that they cannot hope to become experts in child growth and development over night. However, their continued study of these basic laws of growth and development will help them to become increasingly able to guide children wisely, and as educational research develops in Japan, they will have a great contribution to make to the knowledge of teachers throughout the world.

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2 Nov 48

PROVIDING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES
Elnott - Miki

Lecture No. 4

True democracy can develop in our schools and in our nation only if we provide for children's individual differences. Our democratic ideals teach us that every individual has great personal worth, but teachers have great difficulty in providing school experiences that will really help each child, for their classes are too large, and they are limited in textbooks and supplies. Many teachers have as many as seventy children in their classes, and it will be many years before the ideal of about thirty children can be reached. Nevertheless, we must strive always to individualize instruction even in our large groups, for regimentation will make it impossible for us to move toward the ideal of true character development for every child. We must guard always against regimentation and militaristic discipline, must strive always to discover children's differences and to take them into account in planning school activities of all kinds.

Even when our classes are very large, there are certain principles which we must help teachers to understand: (See Hocket, Modern Practices in the Elementary School, page 243)

1. Every child is unique. He is different from every other child in his physical, mental, emotional and aesthetic abilities, has his own particular kinds of weaknesses and strength, learns in different ways, and responds differently to different kinds of experiences.

2. Differences are priceless and should be developed in order that Japan may benefit by the special contribution that each child may make to society. Everything that is done in a classroom may be enriched by the different contributions that different children can make to each other. True progress in the nation will come only as every child is allowed to develop his special skills.

3. In spite of all these differences, children are alike in many ways. They are anxious to fit into their social groups, want to have self-respect and self-confidence in their work with others. Each must experience real achievement and know the joy of success.

4. Even though we must strive always to help each individual develop his own particular abilities, we must realize that he will be truly happy only if he has the opportunity to adjust well in a group. This principle is important for us to remember as we think of individual differences for it will prevent the danger which might otherwise develop if we thought of children only as individuals.

5. Public schools exist for the welfare of every child. It is therefore our responsibility to see that there are experiences which will help every child - the gifted, the strong and the weak, the handicapped and the capable, the good and the bad. We cannot reject any child but must provide for all.

Although it is difficult for teachers to provide for individual differences when classes are very large, there are certain types of things which teacher consultants may suggest that they do even under difficult classroom circumstances:

1. Teachers can plan many of the same kinds of things for all children and allow them to carry out their tasks at different rates, some doing a great deal more than others. Some very bright children can complete many arithmetic problems, for example, while others, not so gifted, may do only a short assignment.

2. All children in a class may undertake to do the same thing but will do it in different ways. Some can learn all of a lesson with a single study period. Others will need to write and re-write many times to master the material. Some children can analyze a lesson by themselves. Others may need special help from the teacher and can be taught in a special group in the class while the other children study their lessons alone.

3. Some children may perform the same tasks as others, but the quality of their work may be very different. For example, some children can make maps of excellent quality while others can do only crude outlines. The important thing is for the teacher to estimate carefully what should be expected of each child so that no child will be expected to do the impossible.

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4. Each child at times in the school program can do different things in his own way, at his own rate, and on the level of his own ability. This is, of course, a very complete kind of individualization and would not be possible very often during the school year. However, the skillful teacher will discover many times when such a plan can be worked out. For example, in preparing for a festival some children can do wonderful art work and should be encouraged to do so while others will need to perform the simple tasks of classroom housekeeping to be ready for the festival. Some may be able to learn songs, others may do their best work in copying designs that someone else has prepared, etc.

It will be noted from these suggestions that the skillful teacher groups and regroups her children many times each day depending upon the skill of the children and the activities which they are participating in. In a later lecture we shall discuss grouping more thoroughly, but it will be noted now that grouping depends upon the teacher's ability to analyze each child's special needs and aptitudes.

Teachers must know how to organize.

The ability to keep many groups of children well-organized and working efficiently together is a special skill which every good teacher must develop. It depends on the teacher's ability to enlist the cooperation of her students and to help them develop self-reliance and a sense of responsibility for the class. It is important, always, that each child should know what he is going to do and when he is to begin.

Children must be allowed opportunities to practice responsibility.

Children should have as much responsibility for their own affairs as they can use wisely. A child should always be allowed to do for himself what he can do rather than to have the teacher do it for him. Teachers can provide for a wide variety of such responsibilities, some being very simple, like carrying messages to the principal, piling the books neatly, carrying the ball to the playground. Other responsibilities may be quite complex and require great skill; such as organizing the classroom library, giving out books, keeping records of children's reading interests, etc. A bright child may help to organize all the games to be played at recess by serving as chairman while a dull boy has only the responsibility for seeing that the balls are returned to their proper place at the end of recess.

Teacher must develop records which will help them and succeeding teacher to know each child better.

In later lectures we shall discuss many ways in which a teacher develops good records so that he will know each child's progress in growth and his special skills, weaknesses, abilities, etc. It is perhaps enough to say now that unless such a record system is developed there will be much inefficiency in our teaching, and the gain which the teacher has made in understanding the child will be lost as he goes to a new teacher the next year.

Teachers must make prevention of difficulties their goal.

If we thoroughly understand each child so that the classroom experience which we provide for him allows him to develop wholesomely, we shall prevent the type of difficulties which develop into serious behavior problems and personality conflicts. Slight difficulties may become serious problems unless something is done when they first appear. When difficulties do occur, the teacher should try to diagnose the cause and provide remedial help. He may need to call upon his principal, the teacher consultant, and the child's parents in order to work out a satisfactory solution. The following suggestions may be useful in the prevention of difficulties:

1. Instill a need for and a understanding of the reasons for each new school task, for each new learning. Be sure that motivation is good.
2. Make sure that the reading materials, the assignments, etc. are within range of the child's abilities. This means that they should not be too easy for the bright child or too hard for the dull.
3. Analyze the skills to be mastered and break them up into short steps, making sure that the child understands each step.

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4. Analyze the difficulties which the child may experience in each lesson before it is presented so that the difficulties may be overcome through the skill of the teacher in making his first presentation.
5. Introduce new skills in familiar situations. For example, research in arithmetic teaching has indicated that a little child may learn much more readily in terms of the number of apples, books, etc., than if he is asked to understand pounds of steel, tons of coal, etc.

Prepare individual instruction material

There will never be enough textbooks, workbooks, etc., to meet all the needs of children. Therefore, the skillful teacher will learn to plan many exercises which will include the particular kind of drill or study which each child needs. Children will develop their own notebooks from these individualized lessons and may then have a source for review which will be carefully planned at their own ability level.

In a later lecture, Dr. Jersild will discuss the topic of individual differences from the psychological view point, the general nature and cause of individual differences, etc. What we have sought to indicate here is that the teacher consultant must help every teacher to appreciate and respect the wide variations in needs, skills, abilities, and interests which will exist in every class-room. This does not mean that the teacher will guide the child to do only what he wants to do but rather that he will guide him to develop as fully as possible, changing his weaknesses into strength, his faults into virtues so that he may be able to live as a member of society. In other words, to respect individual differences is one way to meet the objective of education that every child shall be given an equal chance to be a happy and useful citizen.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-31-a

4 November 1948

BASIC PERSONALITY NEEDS OF CHILDREN

Elmott Miki

Lecture No. 5

When we study children, we try to find out whether their lives contain the things which are basic to reasonably happy living -- in other words, whether those conditions which they need mentally, physically, or socio-economically in order to live happily and effectively are to be found in the circumstances of their lives. "The satisfaction of the basic needs, not only of children but of all citizens, is the fundamental ideal of a democratic society which accords genuine reverence to the dignity and worth of human personality." (Fenton:-Mental Hygiene in School Practice, p. 170).

"This ideal of individual happiness is diametrically opposed to the political point of view held by despotic or totalitarian nations of all times - that the individual exists for the state. It follows naturally from their concepts that the child is considered to be a means to some social end, and therefore children are used, trained, or fashioned primarily for the purposes of the state. The fundamental democratic concept is that the state exists for the welfare of the individual and that society should meet the needs of its children. . . In the schools of a democracy one way in which the ideal of equality of opportunity for the personality development of the individual student may be achieved educationally is through the consideration of the individual needs of children . . . The individual should be free to grow in accordance with his own purposes, but these purposes must still be developed in harmony with the rights of others."

Many different psychologists have suggested various classifications of the basic personality needs. Prescott in his book, Emotions and the Educative Process which is in our library, suggests (page 114) that there are three categories of needs: (1) physiological needs, (2) social or status needs, (3) ego or integrative needs. Another very helpful lust is suggested by Dr. Fenton:

1. The need for a healthy body and good physique and appearance.
2. The need for feelings of security.
3. The need for social adjustments and recognition.
4. The need for feelings of competence.
5. The need to accept the conditions, the realities, of his own life.
6. The need to experience curiosity and pleasure and to acquire active and varied interests.
7. The need to be considered a developing personality.

These classifications are all useful, for they direct the teacher's attention away from the behavior of the child toward a positive attempt to discover the basic sources of that behavior. If a child's needs are met effectively, he is a well-adjusted child, but if any of the basic needs are lacking, he may become a serious "problem child." We need to help teachers look beneath the surface and understand that the child's behavior is often the outward expression of deep emotional needs and conflicts. The following examples may be helpful:

A. Security

Example 1. A child who has had good home training, has good health habits, keeps his body clean, dresses by himself, and has had the experience of a physical examination by his own doctor, will be glad to take the physical examination at school. He has experience which gives him security in the situation.

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Example 2. Hanako's house was lost in the war and her family had to live with relatives who had no children. There were no playmates around the neighborhood. Naturally she was with adults so much that her interests were all in the adult world. Everybody loved her and indulged her very much. When Hanako went to school, she was afraid of her vigorous classmates and could not play with other children. She could not work together with others. She missed the security of adult attention and was very unhappy.

Many children in Japan have had little opportunity to develop feelings of security because the war had caused them to lose home, parents, schools, and relatives. This insecurity may cause many of them to show withdrawal tendencies or they may threaten others. Stubbornness, rudeness, and irritability may all be signs of basic insecurity. More than anything else children need security in their relationships with their parents.

B. Affection

Everyone knows the comfort and reassurance which comes from being well-liked by companions and well-loved by one's family. If security is the ground upon which children stand, affection is the hand by which we lead them. The growth and development of children depends on love and affection as surely as it depends on food and rest. They must feel loved and accepted by their parents and by their companions, and teachers can supply a great part of this "nourishment" for children.

C. Achievement and Success

Children must feel success if they are to grow into wholesome adulthood. The child who constantly fails at school develops feelings of inferiority and learns to hate school. He tries, often unconsciously, to find ways in which he can succeed. If he is large and strong, he frequently picks on little children, trying to find some one who is inferior to him. Sometimes he becomes a clown and constantly disturbs the classroom by foolish behavior which makes other children laugh. Occasionally, he wants to prove that he is a "big shot" and steals something so that he can boast about it to other boys.

D. New Experience

Children are constantly seeking to become grownup, and they are eager for new experience, filled with curiosity. Each new experience provides an opportunity for them to test their abilities and to expand their intellectual horizons. The teacher should guide the child to find many new experiences which will be wholesome and stimulating.

"Mental hygiene does not seek merely to reduce the incidence of mental illness in the world. Nor are its purposes merely to do away with unhappiness and failure in human life. The basic objectives of mental hygiene are so to order the circumstances of living that the energies of men will be fresh, and that each may seek the positive values of interesting and creative living in terms of his individual potentialities for personality development." (Fenton)

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-31-b

4 November 1948

HELPING TEACHERS TO DEVELOP DEMOCRATIC DISCIPLINE
Elliott Miki

Lecture No. 6

One of the greatest problems faced by Japanese teachers today is the problem of developing democratic discipline. We often think of discipline as the means by which we control children -- by force if necessary -- and there have been many kinds of discipline depending on the society which exercises it.

The fascist type of discipline demands complete blind obedience to a leader who makes all the rules, decides all the plans, etc. It demands submission of the individual to authority, breeds suspicion and fear. The individual obeys mechanically and has no opportunity for the development of responsibility and independence. Often spirited children rebel openly.

Democratic discipline, on the other hand, is a means of developing enlightened self-control in the student. Wholesome growth in discipline takes place as the child gradually assumes more and more responsibility for his own conduct, guided by the welfare of the group of which he is a member. When children live in a democratic type of discipline, they are happy, eager and cooperative, and work persistently to achieve their goals. They have questioning minds, for they know that they themselves must seek to solve their own problems. Their discipline comes chiefly from within and is not imposed by authority without.

Such discipline comes only gradually, resulting from the things children do and the situations they meet. In the family and in school, grownups can help them to develop this self-discipline. They can set standards to guide them. They can encourage them to work out for themselves the balance between their own personal desires and the demands and satisfactions of the larger groups.

It is tremendously important that teacher consultants understand ways in which they may guide teachers to plan experiences where students may grow in self-discipline. As the change is made from the more formal, authoritative disciplines of the past, teachers may become confused and may fail to exercise the leadership and control which is the teacher's responsibility. No control is as uneducative as completely military control. It gives the children no standards by which to live, allows them to "run wild" without guidance. The skillful teacher will find the proper balance between adult guidance and pupil self-direction.

Teachers must remember always that behavior occurs in answer to a child's needs for security, affection, success, and new experience. When the ways in which the child behaves bring satisfaction to himself and others, the result is desirable. When legitimate outlets for these basic personality drives are denied, however, undesirable behavior will result. Growth in democratic discipline results, therefore, when the teacher provides classroom experiences in which the child finds security, affection, and success, becomes daily more capable of finding solutions for his own problems.

Some Suggestions for Teachers to Follow:

1. Plan classroom experiences which take into consideration the individual differences of the pupils. If the material is too easy for the bright pupils and fails to meet their need for new experiences, they will become bored and restless, will misbehave so that they can have excitement. If it is too hard for the dull pupils and makes them feel inferior rather than successful, they will become stubborn and aggressive or shy and withdrawn.

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7. When children must be punished, the teacher should plan the punishment so that it will be part of the child's education. (See Chapter 11 - School Education Law). If it shames him before the whole class, it may only make him resent his teacher and all the other pupils. If he is ridiculed or made to stand in a corner, it will lower his self-respect and his confidence in his own abilities. The teacher should try, therefore, to help the child see the relationship between his bad behavior and the punishment which he receives. For example, if he is a poor sport in a game, exclusion from that game for a brief time teaches him the desirability of good sportsmanship. If he is deprived of an excursion because he has misbehaved on one, he will learn the need for meeting group standards.

8. When a child constantly misbehaves, the teacher should study the basic causes for that misbehavior. It may be the result of ignorance, boredom, worry over unhappiness at home, or actual ill health. Even the best schools and the best teachers cannot help every child, for there are some whose needs are so great that other specialists must be called upon for help. The teacher should seek help from the principal and the teacher consultants in such cases and should arrange for a guidance conference. (We shall discuss such studies in more detail in later lectures).

9. Finally, the teacher should do all in his power to exemplify the well-disciplined adult. Children will emulate the man or woman for whom they feel respect and affection. If the teacher is not well-disciplined, if he scolds, nags and loses his temper, he provides a poor model for his pupils to copy. If on the other hand, he is sympathetic, optimistic, patient, and helpful, he can guide his children to become increasingly well-disciplined and self-reliant.

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CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION FOR GUIDANCE

Elmott Miki

Lecture No. 7

Teaching children in groups has always been the prevailing system in public schools. We have already discussed in earlier lectures the importance of providing school experiences for each child according to his own individual needs, interests, and abilities, and many teachers might therefore conclude that the best instruction would be individual tutoring. However, although it is true that some kinds of individual teaching are more effective than group teaching, children who are to live in a democracy need the experience of group living. They can develop social effectiveness only by working in groups, learning to cooperate with others, and discovering the satisfaction which comes when a group is successful in working out a program for their general welfare.

The skillful teacher will group her children in many different ways each day and each week for many different purposes and activities. He will study his children in terms of their needs for security, success, affection, and new experience. According to those needs and the children's abilities, he will divide them into groups for classroom instruction, for student government, for athletic events, for assembly sessions, hobby clubs, dramatizations, etc.

I. Grouping for Instruction

Teachers will first of all study the development of each child, mentally, emotionally, socially, and physically, to decide how they may best be grouped for the various subject matter fields. In any second grade classroom, for example, there will be a number of children who have learned to read very rapidly, who read at a level equal to that of some third and fourth grade pupils. There will be another somewhat larger group which will read at the general level of most "average" second graders. There will be another small group of children whose progress in reading has been very slow so that they are still reading at first grade level. To give each of these groups instruction which will meet their needs and to provide them with suitable reading material, the teacher will arrange for three reading groups and will encourage each group to make progress by giving them material which commands their interests and their best efforts. He will guard against labeling the children as "bright", "average," or "dull," for he will find that the groupings should be very flexible so that children, as they gain in skill, may be changed from one group to another. Some teachers in America let the children choose a name for their "reading clubs" -- names like "Brownies," "Black Bears," "Cheerful Cherubs," etc. The important principle to follow is that of helping each child to feel that he is making genuine progress in the subject.

Teachers will make the same kinds of groupings as they teach arithmetic, spelling, etc. Because of their varying abilities some children who have been slow in reading may be very skillful in arithmetic, a fact which makes it necessary to change groups for different subjects.

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II. Grouping for Unit Activities

When teachers are working with their children on a social studies unit, for example, they will find another excellent opportunity for providing children with group experiences. If the second grade undertakes the study of the post office, there may be many committees formed to carry out the projects planned by the entire group. The following might be decided upon by the teachers and pupils: the committee to make mail boxes, the committee to make envelopes, the committee to make the post office, the committee to interview the postman, etc. By working with the children in their small communities, the teacher can guide them in their planning, their work, and their evaluation of it. He can help them to develop good work habits and can see that every child has a task to perform at which he can gain some success.

III. Grouping for Athletic Activities

The clever teacher will also make plans for grouping children for games and sports. The child who is handicapped physically needs opportunities to participate but would be hopelessly outclassed if he were expected to compete with large, well-developed boys. Since there are sex differences in the rate of growth and development of boys and girls, the teacher will also make proper groupings, separating them at times in the higher grades so that girls will not be expected to participate in sports not suited to their sex. The teacher will also arrange assignments of responsibility to groups, allowing the children to vote for a planning committee to schedule the week's activities on the playground, an equipment committee to care for balls, bats, etc. He will encourage the children to plan in such a way that every child will have an opportunity to share in such responsibilities.

IV. Grouping for Student Government

This type of grouping provides an excellent opportunity for guidance. The classroom -- even in the case of children in the primary grades -- can be organized like a small Diet. Children can learn how to nominate the officers for their grade, how to elect them, and to carry on the business of the class like a small democracy, following the customs of group organization. In addition to such officers as chairman and secretary, the class can organize committees — a safety committee to see that class rules for safety are followed and that traffic rules are understood and obeyed, a program committee to organize simple programs for the class, etc. Through such early experiences in self-government under the teacher's guidance, children may develop an understanding of the prileges, duties, and responsibilities of citizens.

General Principles to Follow in Grouping:

The capable teacher will constantly study his pupils as individuals so that he may be sure they are having group experiences that will meet the children's needs for security, affection, success, and new experiences. He will remember the following characteristics that are common to all worthy groups: significant aims shared wholeheartedly by all members; division of responsibilities with each member assuming his full share; mutual respect and unrestricted intercourse among all members; full and free contact with other groups; and satisfaction and pride in group accomplishment on the part of all members. (Hockett: Modern Practices in the Elementary School, p. 19).

If the class is organized into groups in which every individual feels happy, successful, and responsible, the teacher may well feel that he is making a significant contribution to the development of democracy.

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INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

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5 November 1948

DEVELOPING A CUMULATIVE RECORD

Elmott Miki

Lecture No. 8

A cumulative record may be defined as a record of all the facts about a pupil which the school considers to be significant recorded over the entire period of time that a child attends school. To guide a pupil wisely and to evaluate the progress that he has made, a teacher must have some record of the child's experiences before he entered the class and must add to that record the observations that he himself makes in the course of a year.

The ideal cumulative record in a given school is one which:

1. Presents those facts and impressions which staff members consider to be most significant in revealing and shaping the development of students.

2. Clearly indicates the trends of growth and the potential strengths and weaknesses of students.

3. Builds up information on each area of a student's experience and development over a period of years.

4. Presents information so clearly that a new teacher can read and understand the record without difficulty.

5. Is used by all staff members as an aid in their daily work with students.

6. Requires no more clerical work than can be justified by its practical use.

7. In form and content is developed and constantly improved through the cooperation, study, and experimentation of all staff members.

(Handbook of Cumulative Records, p. 11).

As the use of cumulative records is introduced into the schools of Japan, teacher consultants will have a special responsibility for assisting teachers to develop them. It must be remembered, too, that the clerical task of keeping records is a tremendous one in schools where the class size is large. With all his other duties, the teacher will find it extremely difficult to record very much information about sixty or seventy pupils. He will need help, therefore, in discovering which facts are most significant.

To serve as a guide to schools developing cumulative records, the Ministry of Education has prepared a record which will be printed for distribution soon. It includes the following information:

1. Identification - Name, birthdate, sex, address, parents' names.
2. Growing career - Place of birth, place of growth, nursery career, record of children's diseases before entering school.
3. School attendance - Date of entering, changing, or leaving school. Date of completion of course, record of days present and days absent.
4. Record of standardized tests, Intelligence tests and others.
5. Physical records - Balance, height and weight, posture, liveliness, endurance, sight, hearing, motor development, skin color, appetite, record of diseases and serious illnesses, physical defects.

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6. Behavior record -
The following items are to be checked on this scale:

+2	+1	0	-1	-2
Excellent	Good	Average	Inferior	Poor

Becomes friends with others.
Respects others.
Has the capacity for understanding others.
Cooperates with others.
Has sense of responsibility.
Works with zeal.
Has perseverance.
Devises cleverly.
Has self-control.
Judges things by him/her self.
Has a sense of justice.
Criticizes things correctly.
Has a sense of security.
Has the capacity for leading others.
Enjoys happy and merry living.
Has good manners.
Understands and obeys the rules.
Is eager to make research.
Has aesthetic feeling.
Takes care of his own health.
Works willingly.
Keeps things with care.

This section also has a space for recording the child's interests or hobbies, special skills, behaviors needing special guidance, behaviors that offer special information about the pupil in school and out of school.

7. Records of school subjects

These subjects will also be checked on a rating scale: +2; +1; 0; -1; -2.

Language - 1. Listening
2. Speaking
3. Reading
4. Writing
5. Composition

Social Studies
Arithmetic
Science
Practical Arts
Music
Drawing and Handicraft
Physical Training

The teacher will check the child's development of understanding, attitude, and skills, and in the case of music and drawing will check appreciation. The form also provides space for a record of the child's use of the free study period, for special remarks, and for notes about guidance procedures.

It is hoped that later records may include more significant information about the child's family background since family adjustment is one of the outstanding factors in determining the child's personality and behavior. At the present time, however, there are many who fear that teachers may be prejudiced against certain children and may favor others who represent greater wealth and social prestige. It will be the responsibility of school administrators and teacher consultants to help teachers develop the objective, professional attitude which will make it possible for them to use such confidential information for the child's welfare.

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In using these cumulative records the school must be interested in each child's growth and development in terms of three relationships:

a.) In relation to his own capacity and previous growth.
b.) In relation to the school group of which he is a member.
c.) In relation to children in general in his own age group.

In the modern school the first is the most important, for we must strive to have each child work at the level of his <u>own best capacity</u> and to have him constantly <u>grow and develop</u>. The child's <u>own best capacity</u> refers to all his potentialities for physical, mental, social, and emotional growth and development, and the teacher will try to determine whether or not he is achieving the best <u>in comparison with himself</u> rather than <u>in competition with others</u>. At the same time since the child must live as a member of a group, the teacher must indicate whether he lags behind and therefore needs special help or works so rapidly that he may constantly surpass others and become smug or bored if not given additional, challenging school experiences.

<u>SAMPLE RECORD OF ITEM #1</u>
<u>Becomes Friends with Others</u>

	(with friends:	Asks friends to join in play or looks after those left out. Can lead or follow.
/2	(with teachers:	Can come in contact with them freely but never be impolite.
	(with people:	When asked directions on road, can answer distinctly with a smile.
	(with friends:	Can join into playing circle and can play with everyone though a bit egocentric
/1	(with teachers:	Has affection toward them but does not know how to express it properly. Often runs after them or jokes.
	(with people:	When asked a way on road, can answer without hesitation but may not express properly.
	(with friends:	Plays with others normally, but shows nothing noticeable.
0	(with teachers:	Though not being afraid of them, does not express any affection to them.
	(with people:	When asked a way on road, can answer though hesitatingly.
	(with friends:	Plays only with special friends, cannot go into playing circle.
-1	(with teachers:	Seems indifferent to them but in reality is afraid of them.
	(with people:	When asked way on road, becomes timid and cannot answer well.
	(with friends:	Cannot play. Always left alone.
-2	(with teachers:	Being afraid of them, does not want to go near them.
	(with people:	When asked a way on road, runs away without hearing what is said.

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8 November 1948

TESTS AND MEASUREMENT IN THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

Elmott Miki

Lecture No. 9

A Testing Program Defined

A testing program is a systematic plan for administering and interpreting measures of mental maturity, skills, achievement, knowledge, interest, personal-social adjustment, and special aptitudes. Such a program carried on year after year with the results recorded in the cumulative folder provides teachers with much of the information needed (1) to guide each child and (2) to evaluate his progress.

A Testing Progress Serves Student, Teacher, Administrator and Parent

1. The student is helped to a better understanding of his capabilities, limitations, and progress.

2. The teacher is helped to understand each child's needs and abilities and to make better judgments about the child's progress. The teacher can, therefore, select more suitable teaching materials and activities for each class and each class member.

3. The school administrator is provided with information concerning educational strengths and weaknesses of a class, a grade, a school, or the entire school district.

4. The teacher consultant is provided with information which helps him to understand each teacher's problems better so that he may advise more wisely.

5. Test results provide information which may be used in interpreting the needs of the individual student to his parents. It is, of course, important that these results be given to parents only when there is opportunity for a satisfactory conference which will provide the teacher with time to explain the meaning of the test results.

What Do Tests Measure?

1. Intelligence or mental maturity.

"What is intelligence" has been a theme for discussion in Japan and every other country for many years, and there is as yet no really satisfactory answer to the question. We know, however, that there are some children who learn very rapidly and have great ability while others mature very slowly mentally. We speak of mental abilities of various kinds; imitation, memory, discrimination, understanding, concentration, attention, analysis, synthesis, insight, etc.

Intelligence tests which have been developed in Japan seek to measure intelligence by compiling questions which will test the ability to memorize, to analyze, to concentrate, etc. From the results of these tests, the examiner seeks to determine the mental maturity level of the child. Such tests must be used with caution, however, for it is impossible in a single examination to determine all the abilities of an individual. Nevertheless, they will have some real value. We use a measure to know the length of an object and a balance for weight, but with only a measure and a balance we cannot know the nature of the object completely. So in the use of intelligence tests, we find a certain measurement which will be helpful to us in understanding one aspect of the child's growth. It is, however, wrong to label a child according to the results of a single test. A teacher must try to deepen his knowledge and understanding of the child by observing him in many situations and noticing how he grows and develops. He may use several tests and from these gain valuable suggestions for his guidance of the child.

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2. Achievement tests.

There are not as yet any reliable achievement tests in Japan. In many countries excellent tests of school subjects have been developed by research workers in cooperation with teacher consultants. They are constructed following definite statistical procedures and are "standardized" so that a teacher who uses them may know how his pupils compare with hundreds of others throughout the country. Efforts are now being made to develop such tests in Japan -- tests of reading, arithmetic, science, history, etc. Research workers will need the help of teacher consultants in developing such tests.

3. Other tests

Research workers in other countries are also attempting to develop tests which will measure interest and estimate children's potential ability in music, art, mechanical dexterity, etc. Some are also working on tests of personality and mental health. Such tests are difficult to develop since they attempt to measure intangibles. Nevertheless, research workers have made considerable progress, and there are some in Japan who are hoping to make such tests available for teacher use in a few years.

Procedures in Giving Tests

Since only intelligence tests are available in Japan at present, we shall discuss only the selection and administration of such tests. The following list is available.

For Group Use

Yoshihide Kubo: "A" Form Group Intelligence Test
Teru Watanabe: National Intelligence Test
Yasumi Kirihara: General Intelligence Test
Kanichi Tanaka: "B" form Intelligence Test

For Testing Individuals

Jitaro Suzuki: Individual Intelligence Test
Kanichi Tanaka: Tanaka-Binet Test

There have been many suggestions as to the best time in the child's school career for giving such tests. Some feel it is best to give intelligance tests in second, fourth, and sixth grades. It will be necessary for each school to experiment somewhat before deciding on the best program.

Since these tests are standardized, the teacher must follow directions rigidly in giving the tests and must not change the recommended procedure in any way. It is suggested that teacher consultants arrange for a meeting with all teachers who are to give tests before the day of the tests so that they can study the manual of directions and arrange for a program which will be truly scientific.

Using the Test Results

1. The teacher uses test results in:
   a. Understanding the range of abilities in his classroom.
   b. Selecting materials - textbooks, etc., of appropriate difficulty for the range of abilities.
   c. Organizing groups for classroom activities.
   d. Locating individual children with superior ability or mental handicaps.
2. The administrator and teacher consultant use test results in:
   a. Knowing the variations within his school.
   b. Obtaining suggestions for meeting the curricular needs of classes and schools.
   c. Securing data which are helpful in organizing classes.
   d. Understanding the instructional problems of teachers.

Cautions in the Use of Test Results

1. Errors of measurement may invalidate a test. If the test is not given properly, the results may be seriously misleading.

2. Tests are not the only means of getting significant data about pupils. The teacher's careful observation is of great value, and cumulative records provide a means for judgment over a long period of time.

3. It is usually more valuable to compare a particular student's attainment with his own ability to attain, or with his own previous record, than to compare one student with another.

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4. All test data should be treated confidentially as professional information. Good judgment, sincerity, and tact should prevail in all interpretations of test data.

Teacher-made Tests

Such standardized tests as these which we have been discussing constitute only a small part of the testing program. Teachers will devise many tests to use with their classes and will seek to improve their methods of writing examination questions so that the results which they secure will be more objective.

The Tentative Suggested Course of Study purblished by the Ministry of Education includes a chapter on evaluation with some description of objective tests using the following methods: simple recall, multiple choice, true-false, matching, scoring, and diagrammatic. It is important to be sure that teachers have help from their consultants in developing such classroom lists.

Other Evaluation Techniques - There are a number of other techniques which teachers may use to collect information for evaluation regarding the student's experiences such as: physical, academic, emotional, social, family and vocation, and home background.

1. The Interview:

The interview may be used by the teacher, the principal or the teacher consultant as a means of evaluating the child's general adjustment and his attitudes toward school, his companions, etc. The person who interviews the child should establish a friendly relationship and help the child to understand that the occasion is not a cross examination but an attempt to help him solve his problems. He should therefore use a vocabulary which the child will understand and carefully study the child's reactions during the interview. When the interview is completed, the teacher should make a simple record which will include certain basic items that will be useful in the future, such as:

a. Date of interview.
b. The incident or problem that brought about the interview.
c. Pertinent reactions observed by the interviewer.
d. What was accomplished during the interview?
e. Plans of action to be taken to serve as a basis for future interviews with the student.
f. Signature of the interviewer.

2. Observation of Behavior

Teachers should be encouraged to give more attention to the systematic observation of children's behavior since it will help them to understand how well the child's basic needs are being met. The following items indicate some of the observations which teachers might make:

a. Physical symptoms, such as defective vision.
   (1) Does he squint?
   (2) Does he hold book close to eyes?
   (3) Does he lack persistence in study?
b. Symptoms of educational adjustment
   (1) Does he show ability to learn work of his grade?
   (2) Is he able to follow directions?
   (3) Does he understand assignments?
c. Symptoms of social and emotional adjustment.
   (1) How does he get along with others?
   (2) What is his initiative?
   (3) How does he respond to directions?
   (4) Does he seem secure in his relationship?
   (5) Is he self-reliant?

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To guide his observation, the teacher may develop many kinds of devices: anecdotal records, rating scales, check lists, etc. He may also collect samples of the child's work in art, written expression, etc., over a period of time so that he may study the development revealed from month to month.

3. The Questionnaire

With older children the questionnaire is a valuable means of securing information for both guidance and evaluation. The questionnaire should, of course, be carefully planned, and the children should understand the purposes and uses of the questionnaire.

4. The Case Study

When children have exceptional needs, the case study provides a method for careful analysis of problems by school, medical, and psychological personnel. We shall devote a special lecture period to the discussion of the case study later because of its importance in the guidance of exceptional children.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-33b

8 November 1948

DISCOVERING THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD

Elmott Miki

Lecture No. 10

The task of education is to provide equal opportunities for all children to become efficient, happy, contributing members of society. Yet every teacher knows that among his children there are some who would go far beyond the accepted standards for the grade and that there are others who lag far behind even when given every kind of help which a busy teacher can provide. There are some with physical handicaps and others who show signs of serious emotional difficulty. To each of these the school owes an equal responsibility for that training which will serve best the individual's own needs and which will make him a citizen who is willing and able to serve his community according to his talents.

The first task of the teacher is to discover which children are "exceptional." Eight major groups have been identified:

(1) the crippled
(2) the deaf and the hard-of-hearing
(3) the blind and the partially seeing
(4) the speech defective
(5) children of lowered vitality, suffering from anemia, pretuberculosis, or cardiac difficulties
(6) the mentally retarded
(7) the mentally gifted
(8) children presenting serious behavior problems

The first five of these groups belong in the general classification of physically handicapped children; the next two may be called mentally different; and the last group may be considered as socially maladjusted.

The classroom teacher must know the symptoms of extreme deviation and must learn to recognize those symptoms in the children in his class.

The physically handicapped child

It is usually easy for the classroom teacher to recognize the crippled child, and blind and deaf children have usually had diagnosis at an early age. It is often very difficult, however, to discover the hard-of-hearing or the partially seeing. The delicate child or child with a heart condition may go undiscovered for years if there is no adequate physical examination and if his teachers are not alert for certain symptoms. The teacher will observe his children carefully, therefore, and ask himself questions based on this observation:

Am I sure that all the children can see the blackboard?

Does each child hear directions clearly? (Some children, for example, will appear to be inattentive to the teacher when actually they are only hard-of-hearing.

Are there evidences that the child is seriously underweight or overweight?

Does the child have nervous habits--nail biting, blinking, etc.?

How does the child hold his book or paper when reading?

Does the child flush easily or get out of breath after mild exercise?

Does he tire very quickly?

Does he seem lethargic and disinterested in the normal activities of childhood?

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When the classroom teacher discovers a child with such physical disabilities, he should refer the child for further study by the school nurse or physician. In conference with the parents, health officers, and principal, the teacher may then plan a program which will help that child. It may even be that the child will need placement for a time in a hospital school or in a special class for the blind or the deaf.

The mentally retarded child

Generally speaking, the dull or retarded child develops more slowly than the average child, and his mental growth is likely to cease earlier.

There are many degrees of feeblemindedness or retardation, ranging from idiots and low grade imbeciles to the borderline or dull group. It is estimated that about 2% of the total population is included in this lowest group. All these children are to some degree incapable of earning a living satisfactorily or of conducting their affairs without a certain amount of external supervision. Some of them definitely need placement away from their homes in special institutions.

Above this mentally defective group there is a group of children deficient in mental ability who can become self-supporting if their occupations do not demand much abstract thinking. A child in this group is likely to fall far behind in his school work, however, and unless he has a sympathetic, skillful teacher who can provide him with class work at which he can succeed. He will become increasingly confused, resentful of his inferiority, and possibly aggressive toward society. Research studies show that many juvenile delinquents come from this "borderline or dull" group. They hate school and their teachers because of their consistent failures.

Dr. George Stoddard has outlined characteristics of these children which will help teachers to locate them.

1. Inability to learn habit routines or games or to acquire information common to most children of his age.
2. Failure to do satisfactory school work even when a reasonable amount of time is devoted to study.
3. Lack of personal and social maturity, as shown by his equality with children several years younger than himself; dislike of things and activities which most children of his age or older seem to prefer.
4. Failure to show improvement in vocabulary, length of sentence, or ability to read.
5. A noticeable failure to make generalizations, to learn from experience, to keep out of trouble.

When the teacher observes a child with these characteristics, he should seek to make further study, for such difficulties might be due to a physical handicap. It is recommended, therefore, that the following examinations be made: physical examination, intelligence test, study of school records, analysis of the parents' report of home and family adjustment.

The mentally gifted child

The child of superior intelligence also needs special guidance, for he too is a "different" child who finds adjustment sometimes difficult. Such children almost always find school work extremely easy. They are very mature for their years--socially, physically, and intellectually. They are often incessant readers. Like every other child, they need a well-rounded life experience and the challenge of school work which will demand the use of all their abilities. There is a danger that they may become bored with school work if it is too easy for them or may be spoiled by parents and teachers who are proud of their children's abilities and keep them under constant pressure.

These children also should have the benefit of complete study — physical examination, intelligence test, etc.

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The socially maladjusted child

These children may be of two types — the aggressive behavior problem child or the shy, recessive, withdrawing child. Teachers have no trouble in discovering the behavior problem child! He is always in trouble. He is quarrelsome, stubborn, hard to manage. Sometimes he steals. Because his basic personality needs have not been met, he strikes out against his environment and tries to get by force that which he does not have.

The shy, withdrawn child is often overlooked by the teacher. He is so anxious to hide from everyone that he usually behaves perfectly and is no trouble to his teacher. He seldom enjoys group games, is often alone on the playground. He tends to live in a dream world and pays little attention to reality.

We shall discuss the school programs for these exceptional children in the next lecture.

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PROVIDING SCHOOL PROGRAMS FOR THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD
Elmott Miki

Lecture No. 11

When educators plan for exceptional children in Japan, they find that there are five different programs to be considered:

1. Programs in the regular classrooms for children whose needs may be met by the classroom teacher.
2. Programs in the special class taught by a specially trained teacher. These programs may be developed to help the mentally retarded, the hard-of-hearing, the visually handicapped, the crippled child, and the delicate child.
3. Programs in the school for the blind, the deaf, the mentally retarded, crippled, delicate, etc. Such programs in Japan are developed under the Ministry of Education operating under the School Education Law, Chapter VI.
4. Programs in institutions for the feebleminded, crippled, low vitality cases, and severe behavior problems. These are developed under the Ministry of Welfare operating under the Child Welfare Law. Educators, therefore, do not have direct responsibility for the programs, but they are under the advisory authority of the Ministry of Education. All teachers should understand their work thoroughly so that they can refer children who need such special care to the proper authorities for placement and can give their support to legislative programs for the improvement of such institutions.
5. Programs in reformatories and juvenile prisons for the juvenile delinquent. These programs are developed under the Ministry of Justice, operating under the Juvenile Reformation Law. The Ministry of Education serves in an advisory capacity.

In this lecture we shall give primary consideration to the first two classifications since they must be provided by the public schools.

1. Programs in the regular public school classroom

a. For the child of superior capacities

It is extremely important that the gifted child should have every opportunity to develop his maximum potentialities, for we must look to such children for leadership in the future. Unfortunately, the classroom sometimes provides little real challenge, and such children become lazy and form the habit of "getting by" with a minimum effort. Some feel they should even be in special classes.

1. Give added responsibilities to gifted children.
2. Expand their interests and experiences.
3. Set high standards of accomplishment for children of great ability.
4. Give them more independence.
5. Provide a wide variety of desirable reading materials.
6. Give special opportunities to those gifted in art, music, dramatics, and creative writing.

b. For the dull or retarded child

Sympathetic, conscientious teachers sometimes become so concerned about the slow-learning child that they tend to neglect others in the classroom and make brighter pupils wait for the slow child to catch up with them. It is important in planning for them, therefore, to be sure that the other pupils are not neglected even while one helps the slow child to make the most of his abilities.

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1. Be sure that they are grouped for instruction in such a way that they will be interested and challenged by their experiences and can have success in what they do. Plan a program which will be definite and concrete so that children will know what is expected of them.

2. Plan short assignments since these children frequently have a very short attention and interest span.

3. Provide many opportunities for review and re-teaching using new examples and materials so that the child's interest may be maintained.

4. Simplify the teacher's language so that children will be sure to understand.

5. Be sure that illustrations and teaching materials are concrete. Many teachers use balls, blocks, imitation money, etc., in teaching arithmetic, for example.

6. Provide text books and reading materials which are suitable for the child's ability.

7. Provide a variety of handwork and practical arts.

8. Give constant encouragement so that the child will feel real success even in small accomplishments.

9. Encourage the dull child to participate in group activities and arrange so that his talents will be fully called upon.

10. Help such children to develop good use of their leisure time by encouraging hobbies, etc., and by forming good habits in routine work.

11. Emphasize simple health and safety rules.

C. For the hard-of-hearing or visually handicapped child

Many of these children can make an excellent adjustment in the regular classroom if the teacher is aware of their handicaps and places them so that they may both hear and see as well as possible. In some schools a hearing aid is provided for the hard-of-hearing. A few schools use special sight-saving materials (books, workbooks, etc.) for the visually handicapped. Training in lip reading is provided by some school systems through the services of a specialist with whom the child works for a short time each day.

d. For the child with a nervous speech disorder

Children who stutter seriously usually continue in the regular classroom. Sometimes their handicap is greatly increased by the ridicule of other children or by the lack of understanding shown by parents or teacher. It is important that the teacher should understand a few simple rules for such children:

1. They should never be ridiculed or made to speak or read before the class unless they volunteer to do so. Calling attention to their handicap only increases it. When a child stutters, the teacher should appear to ignore it and should allow the child plenty of time to finish what he wants to say.
2. Rest periods for complete relaxation should be provided when the child seems particularly "nervous" and highstrung. Some schools provide a rest period for such children twice daily -- in the midmorning and the midafternoon.
3. Help should be secured if possible from a specialist since most children who stutter have serious personality needs which require special study. With the help of the principal and the teacher consultant and school nurse, the teacher may wish to make a case study of the child to determine the basic causes for the speech defect.

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e. For the delicate child

Some children are anemic and underweight or perhaps have cardiac conditions which make it impossible for them to take part in all school experiences. The classroom teacher who recognizes their needs can provide a good experience for them, however. He can watch their behavior and modify the program as needed, making sure that the child does not experience undue pressure of work. A rest period is essential for these children also. They cannot participate in active games, but the skillful teacher will find many ways to use their abilities -- as umpire, scorekeeper, etc. This will prevent their feeling of isolation and infericrity.

II. Programs in special classes

Special classes for the severely handicapped are always expensive and therefore difficult to organize. The School Education Law made education compulsory for the blind and the deaf in April of this year, but it may be many years before real equality of educational opportunity exists for these unfortunates because of shortage of facilities, untrained teachers, and lack of public recognition of the rights of physically or mentally handicapped children to care and education. Many Japanese educators have participated in conferences and workshops concerning the programs of special classes, and there has been a definite improvement in both the number of such classes and the quality of teaching provided.

(Statistics on the present status of these classes and plans for the future.)

We cannot in this brief lecture period describe the program for special classes fully, but we must urge teacher consultants to help us study the entire problem and encourage teachers to participate in it. In conclusion we want to emphasize the fact that the program of education for the handicapped shows the level of democratization of a nation because a democracy should be based on the idea of humanism.

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THE USE OF CASE STUDIES

Elmott Miki

Lecture No. 12

We have already stressed the importance of studying children's needs as a means of determining the basic causes for their behavior. The child with adjustment problems presents many behavior symptoms which will gravely concern his parents and teachers. Before he can be helped, however, we must look beneath the symptoms to uncover the causes. The case study is an organized attempt to bring together for careful analysis all the facts about the child which may be secured through consultation with his family, his teachers, the principal, school nurse, etc. It is an adaptation to school use of techniques used in child guidance clinics.

What information is needed in a case study?

1. The "social history" or family history. This will include information about the influences which are and have been affecting the child in his home, school, and neighborhood. It will report his relationships with his parents, brothers, and sisters, and indicate any special problems in the home and neighborhood environment.

In some school systems such information is secured by the principal, the teacher or the school nurse. Teacher consultants may also be asked to assist by meeting the parents and discussing with them the problems which concern them. It is important that the person selected to make the home contact should be skilled in the art of human relationships, for parents may become seriously upset by what they may consider to be an intrusion on their private affairs if they are approached unwisely. On the other hand, many school people have established excellent relationships and secured valuable information when following a simple guide. (There are several copies of such a guide in our library: The Social History by Dr. Norman Fenton. School Case Work Manual. Stanford University Press, 1943). Some schools will also find help from specialists trained in social work who will be able to develop extremely helpful reports because of their special training in understanding family relationships.

2. The health history of the child should also be secured together with a physical examination.

3. The school history is an important part of the child's developmental history which should be carefully studied. The cumulative record has invaluable information to help teachers understand the child's school reactions, responses to teachers and other children, playground adjustments, etc.

4. The psychological and educational test results. As indicated in our lecture on tests and measurements, there are a number of very valuable tests which may be given to help us understand the pupils' abilities more scientifically.

5. The personal interview

The interview with the child is designed to obtain the child's attitudes and points of view. It will give "the child's own story" -- not always the facts but rather the way the child responds to his problems.

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How may the information be analyzed?

As we have said earlier, we may best understand a child by studying the ways in which his basic needs are met. When the information has been gathered together, a guidance conference may be held to analyze the child's needs. The following outline has been helpful to teachers. (Adapted from material in Chapter X Mental Hygiene in School Practice by Norman Fenton).

I. The need for a healthy body and good physique and appearance.
   1. Is the student weak or otherwise physically handicapped? If so, how does he adjust to such limitations?
   2. Is he physically able to play well for his age? What of posture, carriage, coordination, speech? Is he slow in actions or deficient in energy?
   3. Does he seem well-developed for a child of his age and family pattern?
   4. Are his attitudes toward health reasonable and wholesome, or is he overconcerned about slight hurts and illnesses?
   5. Does he have any actual disfigurement which worries him? (birthmark, crooked teeth, mole, acne, etc.)

What conditions have you noted and what plans for treatment should be made?

II. The need for feelings of security
   1. Is there good morale in the home, affection, good will, forbearance, etc?
   2. Are there enjoyable family activities - trips, games, excursions?
   3. Does the child feel secure in his home? Wanted by both parents? Are they consistent in their treatment of him?
   4. Is there illness or any other trouble in the family -- feeble-minded or crippled brother or sister, etc.?
   5. Do financial problems and fears trouble the child?
   6. Is the home unstable? Has it been broken by death, separation, or divorce?
   7. Does the student have any marked fears--of death, the dark, animals, etc?

What conditions have you noted and what plans for treatment should be made?

III. The need for social adjustment and recognition.
   1. Is the child accepted as a member of the group at home without resentment and jealousy by others there? Without preferment or favoritism?
   2. Does he feel that he belongs to his group at school? Does he feel accepted by other children? By the teacher?
   3. Does he receive recognition for legitimate achievement at home? In school?
   4. Does he try to secure attention by show-off behavior or other unwholesome attention-getting devices?
   5. Does he have some special friends in school? In the neighborhood?
   6. Does he have a reasonably unselfish and generous attitude toward others? Is he mature enough to hold ideals of social betterment?
   7. Does he give evidence of prejudice or antagonisms (racial, religious, social, sex) which influence his choice of associates?
   8. Does he behave well and observe the ordinary social decorums in the classroom?

What conditions have you noted and what plans for treatment should be made?

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IV. The need for feelings of competence
1. Is he able to do what is expected of him at home?
2. Does he read as well as he should?
3. Is his other school work satisfactory? Indicate any special weaknesses.
4. Are his special abilities known and encouraged in his activities in the home? In the school?
5. Does he have ambitions which he feels are within his powers to accomplish?
6. Does he appear to feel adequate and self-assured or does he seem to expect failure?
7. Is he able to compare himself favorably with his classmates?
8. Does he excel in any respects? Can he enjoy this fact without expressing exaggerated feelings of superiority? What conditions have you noted and what plans for treatment should be made?

V. The need to accept the conditions and realities of his own life.
1. Does he seem to accept his own personal assets with a reasonable self-esteem? His appearance? Physique? Clothes?
2. Does he accept his limitations without compensatory or escape reactions such as daydreaming, stealing, bullying, lying, revenge, or notable self-pity?
3. Is he persistent in his work? Willing to carry out routine?
4. Has he reasonable control of anger and other emotions? Is he quarrelsome and disagreeable at home? In school? With playmates?
5. Does he have a good sense of humor?
6. Is he reasonably cooperative in his relationship with adults? With classmates?
What conditions have you noted and what plans for treatment should be made?

VI. The need to experience curiosity and pleasure for its own sake, and the need for active and varying interests.
1. Does he enjoy play? Does he have pets? Does he have interesting and adequate toys?
2. Does he enjoy study? Does he study only under pressure?
3. Has he any actual or potential abilities in mechanical or manual skills, science, art or music? Does he have materials at home for developing such skills?
4. Does he have any sustained interests or hobbies?
5. Can he play alone happily when necessary? Work alone effectively?
6. Can he formulate plans and carry them out with self-direction appropriate to his age?
7. Is he interested in novelty - new experiences, people and things?
8. Does he seem to enjoy life, to be vivid and happy, and to find the spirit of adventure in his work and play? What conditions have you noted and what plans for treatment should be made?

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VII The need to be considered a developing personality.

1. Do his parents give evidence of knowing in general what to expect of a child his age? Do his teachers?
2. Can his parents accept his immaturities and limitations without blaming him for them? Can his teachers do so?
3. Has he been treated adequately when ill, not babied, etc?
4. Is he being allowed to grow up, to become progressively independent of parent guidance and domination? Are the parents excessively concerned over any of his problems?
5. Is he able to assume responsibilities at home? At school? Is he reasonably agreeable and willing about tasks?
6. Does he accept authority reasonably at home? At school? Is he inclined toward over abject obedience or submissiveness?
7. Has he a wholesome adjustment for one of his age to the meaning of private property and the rights of others at home? At school? In the community?
8. So far as is known, is his adjustment toward sex and sex differences wholesome for his age? Does he show any unusual behavior in his relationship with members of the opposite sex?

What conditions have you noted and what plans for treatment should be made?

Using the Analysis for the Child's Welfare

It will be readily seen that study of the child through such a diagnosis of his needs will give the teacher and other members of the school staff valuable insight into the child's problems. It will turn their attention from the child's often annoying behavior to the unmet needs which cause that behavior.

The general procedures of the guidance conference and the initiation of plans for treatment will be discussed in our next lecture.

The case study in education is very important, not only to understand each individual child, but also to develop our new Japanese education concretely, since many teachers are too eager to study an abstract concept of so-called "new education" and tend to miss their own children.

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INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

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ORGANIZING A GUIDANCE CONFERENCE
Elmott Miki

Lecture No. 13

(Elementary Consultants Group -- Subject: Guidance & Evaluation).

Many school systems now use the guidance conference method when studying the needs of children with exceptional problems. This method is relatively simple to organize and is particularly successful at the elementary school level. It brings together the people immediately concerned with the child and plans efficiently on the basis of all the information which they can secure from the case study. According to studies made in the United States it has great value, for it only only helps the individual child but also provides excellent training in child study for the members of the school staff.

Time Allotment

Usually about one hour is needed for a conference concerning one child. Some schools plan the schedule for an hour in the morning before school; others meet after school in the late afternoon.

Members of the conference group

Principal, classroom teacher of the child, teacher consultant school nurse or doctor, other members of the professional staff who may be needed in planning the program for the child. Parents are not invited to the guidance conference. The principal acts as chairman of the group, and a secretary is appointed to record the recommendations of the conference and to care for the case study materials.

Introducing the Conference Method

The principal and teacher consultant will work together in introducing the conference method so that teachers will understand its purposes and values. It is well to have the method discussed in teachers' meetings before any conferences are held so that the teachers' cooperation may be secured. Since all teachers are concerned about children with special problems, they will readily see that this method provides a way for summarizing all the information quickly and directing the attention of all toward helping the child.

Conduct of the Conference

1. Selecting the child for study.

Some schools ask teachers to nominate the child to be studied, urging that they select a child who seems not to be accomplishing his school work as successfully as he might. Other schools select the names of children who may be failing in a particular school subject such as reading. It is well not to select the most severe cases at once, for some problems are so serious that inexperienced school personnel cannot really help them. This fact might discourage them so that they would want to discontinue guidance conferences.

2. Attitude toward the child to be studied.

It is very important that teachers should not feel that it is a disgrace for the child to be studied by the guidance conference group but rather that it is an attempt to help the child develop his full potentialities. To prevent the possibility of teachers' wrong attitudes, some schools have begun by making case studies of the superior students in school to be sure that they are progressing as well as possible.

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3. What case study information should be presented?
   a. The social history reported by whoever made the contact with the parents.
   b. The physical examination and health history reported by the nurse or doctor.
   c. The results of tests reported by the tester.
   d. The school history summarized by the teacher from the cumulative record and from his own observations of the child.
   e. The personal interview reported by the person who interviewed the child.

4. How should the information be analyzed?
Members of the conference group will try to discover the underlying causes for the child's behavior. The outline of needs given in the last lecture provides a good method for analyzing information in such a way that the child's needs will be clearly understood.

5. The "tempo" of the conference.
It is important that the chairman and members of the group present material in such a way that the conference will proceed fairly quickly. Sometimes members make the mistake of presenting so much detail that the conference becomes extremely long and no time is allowed for developing a plan of action to help the child.

Factors of importance for the effectiveness of the conference

1. The conference should be a cooperative, democratic process in which each person makes a contribution.
2. Recommendations should be definitely agreed upon by each member, health recommendations, family recommendations, school recommendations, etc. It should be decided definitely also which persons will be responsible for carrying out the recommendations.
3. Recommendations should be carried out promptly.
4. Sudden improvement in the child's behavior should not be expected. Children's problems cannot be solved in a few short weeks.
5. Improvement should be viewed in perspective.
6. Recommendations must not be dogmatic. There are times when other developments in the child's life make it unwise to carry out certain recommendations.
7. Parental cooperation must be obtained. It is most important that interpretations be made to parents so that they will understand the school's purposes and be ready to follow recommendations made to them. When the conference is over, someone should be given the responsibility of reporting to the parents. This is usually done by the person who visited them to secure the social history data.
8. Publicity and gossip should be avoided. Teachers and other members of the school staff should never discuss the cases studied with any but professional people for professional purposes. All material must be considered to be confidential.
9. Plans for careful follow-up study should be made. A second guidance conference should be scheduled two or three months after the first one for a report of progress and for review of the recommendations and their results.

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10 November 48

DEVELOPING GOOD HOME-SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS

Elmott - Miki

Lecture No. 14

"Parents and teachers should not only be acquainted but on friendly terms with each other .... Parents and teachers should be familiarly linked together in amity and continual conference for their common charge, and each should trust in the judgment and personal goodwill of the other." Written 400 years ago by Richard Mulcaster, First Head, Merchant Taylor's School, London.

The two great institutions which have most to do with the development of citizenship are the home and the school. It is tremendously important, therefore, that they should work closely together in the years in which they share responsibility for the guidance of children. If they do not work together and if parents are not informed of the many changes which are occurring in Japanese education today, they may actually retard the development of their children and increase their insecurity through criticism of the changes which are taking place. There is a great need, therefore, for the establishment between parents and school officials of a good relationship based on mutual respect, consideration, and understanding of their respective problems and a sincere desire to cooperate in the interest of the children.

<u>What we need to develop good home-school cooperation</u>.

1. Teachers who realize the importanceof the home environment in the life of the child and who are actively interested in finding out the conditions under which the child lives.

2. Parents who understand more about the school and how the child is adjusting to it.

3. Homes and schools that work together to help the children build a constructive attitude toward their school work.

4. Study of both home and school in relation to the child's basic personality nee

5. Opportunities for parents to work with teachers in the solution of problems of child welfare.

. Teachers, principals and teacher consultants need to understand the home, and parents need to understand the school. The following are some of the ways in whic this understanding may be developed:

1. One of the best ways to develop understanding is through group meetings such as the PTA. In such meetings, teachers and parents can meet each other and discuss their common problems.

2. Parents need to know the general purposes and methods of the school, particularly at this time when so many methods are being changed and improved. The school officials -- principals, teacher consultants, and teachers -- should therefore plan definite meetings, probably near the first of the year, when these gener topics may be discussed with the parents and when their questions may be answered.

Some principals or superintendents may wish to prepare regular short bulletins to parents explaining to them the various activities of the schools.

3. Case studies of individual children provide an excellent opportunity for work with the parents of particular children who have difficulties in school or who need special help of some kind.

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4. Report cards which will really help the parent to understand his child's school progress are also essential. They provide a link with the home and may be used to interpret the aims and objectives of the school program.

5. Some teachers may have the children prepare reports to their parents of the work that they have done each week. They can write letters to their parents to be signed by both child and teacher in which they point out what they have learned, what they have enjoyed and what subjects they need to work harder in.

6. Parents should combine their study of child behavior in parent education classes. Teacher consultants may take leadership in this field with the principals, helping to organize study courses for parents, usually in cooperation with the PTA and adult education groups. Such courses should be given in groups which are small enough so that the parents can really ask questions, discuss their mutual problems, etc.

7. Regular visits to the school should be encouraged. It is wise to have parents visit when there are no special entertainments, etc., as well as on the special days. In this way they will see the school in its regular, every-day program. Sometimes when parents visit only to see a program, they have little opportunity to see the actual work that is going on in school.

8. Opportunities should be provided so that both fathers and mothers may visit school. Some schools have arranged a "School Night" when all the parents come and see their children in their classes and meet their teachers. The greatest good comes from having parents provided with opportunity when they may actually discuss school problems informally with the teachers of their own children rather than sit and listen to speeches or look at performances.

Finally, it should be pointed out that better cooperation between home and school will result in more effective action to secure the kinds of schools and school supplies that children need. When parents are fully aware of the purposes of the schools and have visited enough to see what the schools lack, they will act together through their civic programs to improve the educational program.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-36a

11 November 1948

THE RELATIONSHIP OF GUIDANCE
TO PARENT EDUCATION AND THE PTA
Elmott

Lecture No. 15

(Elementary Consultants Group -- Subject: Guidance and Evaluation)

As indicated in the preceding lecture, the Parent-Teacher Association and the parent education program provide the best means for developing the kind of school-home relationships which will result in effective guidance of children. Parents and teachers who understand, respect, and like each other will develop home and school guidance programs which will prevent the development of personality disorders. The education and protection of children will constitute the major objectives of both PTA and the study programs. Probably the study programs should be sponsored by the PTA, and the topics for study should be decided upon cooperatively by PTA and school personnel.

Some Topics for Study Relating to the Home Environment

1. How shall we discipline our children?
2. How shall we provide adequate play places for children near our homes and in our communities?
3. Children's rights and the rights of others.
4. How shall we stimulate the reading interests of children?
5. Should children read comics? What influences do they have?
6. What is the effect of movies on the child?
7. How much work should be required of our children at home?
8. What moral hazards in our community should our children be protected from?
9. What should be the relationship between boys and girls in a democratic society?
10. What are the health needs of our children?
etc., etc.

Some Topics for Study Relating to the School

1. What are the aims and objectives of the new education?
2. How does democratic discipline differ from authoritarian discipline in the schools?
3. What do we mean by individual differences and how does the school seek to adjust to them?
4. What are the purposes underlying the recommendation for co-education? What are its values and its possible dangers?
5. Why do we group children within the classroom and provide different books and materials for each group?

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Some Topics for Study Relating to the School (cont.)

6. How are schools financed? How much money is needed to develop more adequate schools and how may citizens act to secure additional funds?
7. What kind of school lunch program should be provided?
8. How may parents help in the development of the professional standards of teachers?
9. What is the value of a kindergarten program? Should all children attend kindergarten?
10. Why does the school need to know about the child's family background?

etc., etc.

These and many other similar questions are being asked by parents throughout Japan today. They have seen many changes occurring in the schools and also in their homes. They are not sure of the value of the changes and frequently wish that they might return to the "good old days" when schools all followed exactly the same programs. They are fearful of the results of co-education and often unwilling to change. They believe that they are losing control over their children. For these reasons it is essential that every school should have a well-organized PTA with a related parent study program. Parents and teachers will then work together with common goals for the children for whom they provide guidance.

NOTE: Two pamphlets have been used in preparing lectures 14 and 15. They will be placed in the library for reference:

"Essentials in Home and School Cooperation" -- U. S. Office of Education

"Home-School Cooperation" by Dr. Ralph H. Ojemann

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-36b

11 November 1948

DEVELOPING GOOD REPORTS TO PARENTS

Elmott Miki

Lecture No. 16

The reports which teachers make to parents about their children's school progress are most important in the guidance program. It is through reports of one kind or another that the parent is advised as to the child's growth and development and encouraged to work with the teacher in the guidance of the child, helping him to strengthen, or if necessary to accept his limitations and to build on his strengths. Children themselves may use the record for self-improvement.

When we attempt to develop a system of reporting to parents there are certain criteria by which we may work. The following have been used by a good many American schools as they have studied report cards:

1. The proposed report form should avoid the use of marking systems which make unnecessary comparisons among pupils in subject achievement, in effort, or ability. It should be helpful to pupil and parent in evaluating growth in terms of the child's <u>own</u> needs, achievement, and potentialities.

2. The report should provide space for a written comment by the teacher to the parents.

3. The report should provide space for a comment by the parents to the teacher.

4. Separate forms should be supplied for use in the primary grades (1 - 3) and in the intermediate grades (4 - 6).

5. That portion of the report devoted to the behavior of the child should be made in positive terms of the individual child and should not compare needlessly the behavior of one child with that of any other child.

6. The regular report should be sent home not more than four times each year. It may be supplemented by personal notes or interviews whenever special problems arise.

7. Reports in use should be kept simple in form with all the contents readily understandable by the parent and the child.

8. The system of reporting should not make undue demands upon the time of the teacher.

Using these criteria, many school systems have developed a variety of different reporting systems.

I. The most widely used form at present is the report card in booklet form in which many aspects of the child's school activities

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desirable social habits, work habits, and health habits are enumerated in detail. It defines school subjects, health goals, social and emotional habits in order to explain to the parent the elements regarded as essential to satisfactory school performance. The teacher checks the child's progress in all items or in those that pertain to the particular child under consideration. Cards vary widely in methods of checking but each card carries with it an explanation of the symbols it uses. Some of these reports are very long; others are brief. Either beside the items or at the end of the report, many have blank spaces for explanatory comments by the teacher. Some also have space for parent's comments. Practically all the report cards invite the parents to cooperate by visiting the school to discuss the child's report with the teacher. The frequency of issuing a report varies from once a month to three or four times a year. (See p.15, RECORDS AND REPORTS issued by the Association for Childhood Education.)

II: A good many school systems have begun to use the individual letter to parents in making their reports of progress. Unfortunately, since this can be an excellent method of reporting, it takes a great deal of the teacher's time and is not always practicable. Certainly it should not be introduced in Japan in schools where teachers have very large classes. The following suggestions have been made to teachers writing letters to parents: (1) Begin the letter with an attitude of optimism and encouraging news and close it on the same note. (2) Solicit the parents' cooperation in solving the problem, if any exists. (3) Speak of the child's growth -- social, physical, academic. (4) Compare the child's efforts with his own previous efforts and not with those of others. (5) Speak of his achievement in terms of his ability to do school work. (6) Give reasons for his possible lack of progress (absence, hearing loss, sight handicap, lack of good work habits, etc.) (7) Give advice concerning health needs with which the home can help.

III. The personal conference with the parent is now being used in many school systems in the United States to replace the report card booklet or the report letter. Parents have been particularly pleased with this plan since it gives them an opportunity to ask many questions about their children's general school progress, behavior, abilities, etc. It establishes a friendly relationship between the parent and the teacher and makes possible a cooperative guidance which is very effective. Here again, however, the teacher is hampered by lack of time. It requires also a gr at deal of tact and understanding on the part of the teacher, and some teachers are not temperamentally suited to such conferences. (See the book by D'Evelyn INDIVIDUAL PARENT-TEACHER CONFERENCE.)

The City Schools of Inglewood, California, use an interesting combination of the three methods of reporting. The first report of the year is an individual conference with the parent, and teachers are given time from their classroom for such conferences. The second report may be a letter or a report card booklet. The final report at the end of the year is made on a regular form. Throughout the year the teacher emphasizes in her reports -- whether they are letters, conferences, or booklets -- the child's growth in relation to his abilities. (Many of the consultants may wish to see REPORTING PUPIL GROWTH TO PARENTS published by the Inglewood City Schools.)

The task of the teacher consultant in Japan will be to help teachers and principals develop reporting methods which will bring home and school closer together in their guidance of children.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. 37-a

12 November 1948

HELPING TO COORDINATE SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY AGENCIES CONCERNED WITH CHILD WELFARE

LECTURE NO. 17
Elmott Miki

The school is not the only agency engaged in education of the child. He learns from many experiences which he has while under the supervision or protection of some other community agency. Recreation programs, religious programs, etc. all have a part in guidance of the child. Furthermore, he may learn a great deal from groups without any formal organization or supervision of any kind--the neighborhood "gang," the older boys who may try to influence him to get into trouble. He learns constantly from the radio programs which he hears and from the motion pictures which he sees. Some of the learnings are wholesome, and some of them are very harmful. But whether it is good education or bad education which the child receives from these community experiences, he learns from them, and since this is true, the schools must seek to coordinate the wholesome out-of-school experiences in such a way that the child will have good experiences.

The first task of the school, therefore, is to get acquainted with the resources of the community. Many schools in Japan and America have done so by making community surveys. Through these surveys, the educator discovers the resources and locates the danger areas for children. The next step is to make use of this information in such a way as to help all children in the community.

Recreational agencies

We know that both boys and girls need fine recreational experiences under good adult leadership. As a part of this Institute, although not meeting with us here in Tokyo, youth organizations and their leaders from every part of Japan are meeting in regional conferences to plan for the extension of the services of such groups as the Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, the YMCA, the YWCA, etc. Teacher consultants should make every effort to help these youth organizations extend their services to children and should make the school buildings, playgrounds, etc. available whenever possible.

Welfare agencies

Some children and their families need special help from welfare agencies, and their services may be improved if there is a cooperative relationship with school personnel so that the needs of the child as discovered at school may be interpreted to the welfare agency. Consultation between welfare worker and principal will frequently work out serious problems which might otherwise lead the child to some serious behavior if not to actual delinquency.

Police and Juvenile Courts

In Japan schools and police have seldom worked closely together. Many school teachers have actually felt that it would be a disgrace to the school to have pupils' contacts with the police known by any members of the school staff. However, in England, America and Canada many schools have close working relationships with the police officers who must deal with children

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as law br akers. Their work is entirely confidential and every effort is made not to let other children or parents know that a child has been in trouble. The principal, teacher, and policeman meet together, however, sometimes with the parent present, to discuss the child's problems and to work out plans for helping him through home, school, and the community.

Developing Coordinating Councils

One of the plans which has worked most successfully in America is that of the "coordinating council." The idea of such a council was worked out about 30 years ago by school, police, and juvenile court workers in Berkeley, California. They were concerned because they discovered that, when children were delinquent, they were known to many agencies. Teachers had recognized them in school as serious behavior problems, policemen had perhaps warned them if not actually arrested them several times. In spite of the fact that many people were working to help the child, they were not working together, had not made plans for the child which showed coordin ted thinking. They decided, therefore, to form a council with representatives from the schools, from the police, the juvenile court, the welfare agencies, recreational agencies, and from the PTA. Their work was highly confidential when they dealt with individual children in trouble, but they frequently discovered community problems which needed action for the protection of children. The council was then in position to take such action. Through the work of such coordinating councils in America, playgrounds have been provided for children, delinquency areas have been removed, and youth organizations have extended their membership to include many more children of all ages.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-37b

12 November 1948

ASSISTING TEACHERS TO DEVELOP AND MAINTAIN GOOD MENTAL HEALTH

Elmott Miki

Lecture No. 18

(Elementary Consultants Group -- Guidance and Evaluation).

The school guidance program is probably more dependent on the personality of the teacher than upon any other single factor in the school environment. We may provide wonderful school buildings, many textbooks, libraries full of books, radios, motion pictures, etc., but if the teacher is not a well-adjusted person, the child's school experience will be an unhappy one. Today, teaachers must have the ability to guide children to learn pleasantly without weariness and under good social and physical conditions. It is the personality of the teacher that determines whether or not children will learn in a democratic classroom where the atmosphere is one of friendliness, sympathy, and understanding.

Since one of the aims of education is to guide children to an understanding of themselves and their fellows, it is necessary that the teachers who guide them should have an understanding of themselves. It is often said, "Teachers are human, not divine," or "A teacher is a human being before he is a teacher." These sayings express a sound state of mind for teachers. Then what is required of this "human teacher?" He must be unprejudiced, harmonious, and righteous. He must be healthy so that he may work efficiently. He must not be malicious or restless but pleasant and bright so that he can live and work happily with children He must not be a scholar who lives in an ivory tower but always a member of the community having common concerns and understandings with others.

An American scholar tells us that in his investigation of the question, "What characteristics do children like in their teachers?" the following items were mentioned by children: patience, kindness, gayety, liveliness, cheerfulness, humour, courtesy, seriousness, simplicity and neatness in dress, punctuality, health, cleverness and wisdom. As teacher consultants it is our task to help teachers develop and maintain their own mental health that they may provide the kind of classroom environment in which children's personalities will develop wholesomely.

Some conditions which will help to preserve the mental health of teachers are as follows:

1. A healthy body.
2. Elimination of unrest and worry due to economic and other conditions.
3. Pride in the teaching profession.
4. A principal who has a democratic attitude toward teachers.
5. Teacher consultants who are democratic in their leadership of teachers.

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6. A serene, respectful, and cooperative society among teachers.
7. Self-respect and self-confidence.
8. Time for exercise, sports, and other entertainments and recreation.
9. A wide circle of acquaintances with whom he can converse with understanding.
10. Courtesy and skill in social life.
11. Being regarded and treated as other people are.
12. A deep interest in children and an understanding of them.
13. Constant self-evaluation in order to improve.

In working with teachers the teacher consultant must always keep in mind that the basic needs of teachers are the same as the basic needs of children. The teacher needs (1) health, (2) feelings of security, (3) social adjustment and recognition, (4)feelings of competence, (5) acceptance of reality, and (6) pleasure in active and varied interests. There are many conditions in life in Japan today which make it difficult for teachers to satisfy their needs. Many of them are in poor health because of food shortages, housing problems, and overwork. Others are insecure financially, always needing to augment their small salaries by extra work. Many of them do not understand the new methods and procedures in education, a fact which makes them feel insecure and incompetent. Few have time for the relaxation and recreation which they need.

The teacher consultant cannot, of course, seek to solve these problems for teachers, but by his attitude he can help them to adjust to the new education program. He can be a source of encouragement and praise, can help teachers to develop their strong points and overcome their weaknesses. He must learn "to make haste slowly." In his enthusiasm for the new program he must not push the teacher too rapidly into trying to do things which he does not yet understand. He must allow time -- several years if necessary -- for some of the less skillful teachers to develop the new program completely. As a truly democratic leader he can help teachers to become increasingly competent and secure. so that their happiness and effectiveness will be reflected in the lives of the children whom they teach.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E - 38

15 November 1948

METHODS OF CHILD STUDY
Jersild Yoda
Lectures 1 and 2
(Elementary Supervisors Group - Subject: Educational Psychology).

A. The Importance of Child Study

Good education depends upon good understanding of the development of children.

Good understanding of development requires that school people not only make use of published scientific findings but also that they make first-hand studies of their own. The more teachers seek to help each pupil to realize his potential qualities and abilities, the more it becomes essential to conceive of child-study as an integral feature of the teacher's job.

In order that they may be of help to teachers, it becomes important for consultants to become familiar with methods of studying children.

B. Varieties of Child Study

Investigation of the behavior and characteristics of children vary greatly in scope and intensity.

Depending on the purpose, they may range from a formal, systematic study of large populations to an informal study of a small group. They may vary in extensiveness and in intensity, ranging from a survey which covers only a few items of information to a deep, prolonged and many-sided study of a single child.

A study dealing with the characteristics of children at different age levels may use a "cross-sectional" approach, that is, use a sampling of seven-year-olds, another equivalent sampling of eight-year-olds, etc. Or it may use a "longitudinal" approach, that is, follow the same children with measurements at seven years, again at eight, etc.

C. General Procedure

1. To begin a study it is necessary to formulate a problem by raising certain questions or hypotheses, or by defining quite clearly the kind of information that is needed for a given purpose. It often takes preliminary exploration before questions or hypotheses can be clearly defined.

The capacity a teacher shows for finding and defining problems will depend in part on his general ability and technical competence, but also, in part, on his attitude toward his work and his pupils.

2. Observation without a problem or question is not scientific observation. It is a waste of time to observe and record at random.

3. What is observed must be recorded and put into order. Such records constitute the data.

4. From these data tentative conclusions can be drawn. These conclusions may (a) satisfy the original needs of the study, or they may (b) require further verification, or they may (c) show the way toward a new and different approach to the problem.

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D. Techniques of Study

I. Observation

1. Systematic observation.

a. To carry out a study by systematic observation it is necessary, by way of preliminary work, to formulate what will be observed and to discover how the observationscan best be made.

b. It is necessary also to work out ways of achieving the most faithful and efficient means of objective recording, and to test the accuracy of the observer.

c. Among other preliminary decisions is the decision as to what the unit of recording will be (e.g., in studying children's social contacts, shall we record (1) the number of time intervals during all or part of which a child is in social contact with others? or (2) the actual frequency or incidence of separate contacts? (and, if so, what is to be the empirical definition of a "contact"), or (3) a combination of both?

d. A decision must also be made as to whether the study can best be made by observation in a "free" situation (with no controls other than those inherent in the situation), or in a staged situation (e.g., deliberately introducing various things into the situation that will influence the behavior of the children, such as a number of interesting objects) or in a partly controlled situation (such as having each child successively paired with each of the others in a set situation).

e. For the purpose of obtaining a systematic "time sampling" it is necessary to record the incidence of definite events during constant time intervals that are systematically spaced. A series of such observations can yield quantitative scores that can be treated statistically.

II. Anecdotal Records

Records kept in the form of separate anecdotes, consisting of accounts of an occasional rather than a systematic nature, can serve many purposes, such as helping the teacher to remember happenings which he later wishes to inquire into, or discuss with the pupil, or use for illustrative purposes in reports to parents, or as an informal means of tracing the progress of a certain child or of a group over a period of time, etc.

III. Projective Techniques

Projective techniques involve the use of situations (such as a playroom with certain equipment) or materials (e.g., clay, drawings) or activities (e.g., role playing) which are designed to lead the child to "project" his thoughts and feelings on something external. Projective methods provide a very promising means of studying children but they are still in the process of being established on a scientific basis.

IV. Tests and measurements - (These will be referred to later).

V. Oral or written reports by children themselves

One of the most convenient ways of getting information about children is to have them talk or write about themselves.

In order to obtain information in this manner it is important to have rapport, to establish a relationship in which a child feels free to talk about himself, to speak frankly rather than calculating what he thinks the teacher wishes him to say, and to reveal his thoughts and feelings without fear that the teacher will use against him information that he has given in the course of an ordinary study or make public something which the child has told in confidence. Since a teacher, by the very nature of his work, is in a position of authority, such a relationship is not always easy to establish. Unless an attitude of confidence and trust has been established, children should not generally be asked to disclose information which ordinarily would make them feel frightened or ashamed or inferior.

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Among the procedures for getting information directly from children are the following:

1. Interview techniques
   a. "Free" or informal interview, following a general plan but with no fixed order of questions and answers.
   b. Controlled or "structured" interview designed to cover certain fixed items of information.

Usually it is necessary to discover, in preliminary work of a more informal nature, just what items of information it is feasible to obtain and how the questions asked during the interview might best be phrased.

2. Questionnaire techniques

In devising a questionnaire it usually is wise first to try to learn, through more informal methods, the items of information which the questionnaire might best try to cover, and the way in which questions might be phrased so as to be precise and have the same meaning for all who are asked to respond.

3. Check-list procedures

These can be useful in studying children's interests, worries, out-of-school activities and many other aspects of behavior. Often they are useful in conjunction with a more informal interview technique.

4. Ratings, expressions of judgment, preference, etc.

It is possible not only to ask for a statement of fact, as in the check-list procedure, but also to ask children to express judgments (to express, say, whether they regard certain statements as true or false, or whether they like or dislike a given thing not at all, or a little, or very much, etc.)

Check-lists, questionnaires and ratings can be especially helpful in showing general trend in the opinions or preferences or activities of children.

It is impossible to avoid errors of memory or judgment on the part of those who answer. But even when answers are not objectively true they may be psychologically significant.

VI. Self-evaluation, self-appraisal

Methods which give a child an opportunity to appraise or evaluate his own behavior and adjustment include various adaptations of "personality tests," "adjustment inventories," self-rating devices, and the like. Examples of these, and some of the advantages and shortcomings of such methods will be discussed in a later lecture, if there is time.

VII. Ratings and appraisals by others, including teachers and other pupils.

Among the methods which give information about the behavior and characteristics of individual children as seen and appraised by other children are adaptations of the "sociometric" technique, which will be discussed in a later lecture on social behavior, and adaptations of "Guess Who" techniques, which also will be discussed later.

VIII. Experiment

In an experiment we intentionally create or construct a certain situation, with certain known and planned factors and conditions, with a view to observing or measuring or rating the effect of the situation or the response which it produces. In order to plan an experiment it usually is important both to study the literature dealing with experimentation in the area and also to do some preliminary experimenting in order to discover how best to proceed. In many situations, a satisfactory answer can be obtained only by the use of an experimental and a control group.

IX. Case Study

In making a case study we try to collect as much information as is necessary, or possible, or feasible, about a given child. The study may be undertaken in order to obtain light on a particular problem or for more general educational purposes.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-39- 16 November 1948

GROWTH AND LEARNING
Jersild - Yoda
Lectures 3-4

In order to bemost effective, education must be adapted to the changing needs and capacities of the growing child. For this reason we regard the study of child development as one of the major components of educational psychology.

In this lecture we will deal with certain characteristics of development. Part of the lecture will deal with features of development in infancy and early childhood. Even though the school does not usually work with children until after they have passed that age, a consideration of development during infancy and preschool years is important for understanding children who have reached school age.

A. Behavior of the Infant

1. Progress from generalized to more localized and precise behavior. In the behavior of the newborn infant there is a large amount "mass" activity, movement which is diffuse, seemingly scattered and unorganized. A stimulus applied in almost any part of the body may produce a response in anotherpart of the body.

As time passes, movements become more specific, more clearly differentiated.

As time passes, movements become more precisely suited to the particular stimulus or situation which confonrts the child. For example, in a study by McGraw, babies at first responded to a pin prick with many bodily movements, later the movements were restricted to eye and hand movements aimed directly at the pin.

One feature of the early development of behavior is the <u>individuation</u> of a specific activity out of an earlier more massive activity. e.g., capacity for separate movement of one finger where earlier it was possible only to move the finger in connection with a movement of the whole hand.

Another feature of development, as the child grows older, is the <u>integration</u> into a larger, coordinated act, of activities which earlier were practiced independently. e.g., sitting and talking while wielding a par of chop sticks.

2. The child is a learner practically from the time of birth.

3. The characteristics which distinguish one child from another appear at an early age.

4. The attitude of a child's parents, and notably of his mother may be expressed in a great many ways that will have a bearing upon his personality development almost from the time of birth.

B. Direction of Development

Development both of bodily structure and of bodily activities proceeds, generally, from the head toward the tail or posterior region of the body ("cephalo-caudal"direction)

For example, the ability to perform coordinated movements occurs earlier in the upper extremitites (hands) than in the lower extremities.

Development also tends to proceeds from the trunk outward toward the extremities (control of arm movement is achieved before precise control of finger movements).

C. The Role of Learning and Growth

1. The development of behavior is influenced both by the factor of growth

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and the facotr of learning.

2. These factors are closely inter-related, but they may be considered separately for practical purposes., and this distinction is important for education.

3. For the sake of efficiency and maximum development, what a child is expected to learn, or given the opportunity to learn, should be scaled to his growth, it should be timed to take account of the child's readiness, as influenced by the process of maturation.

a. Training will not "take" if the child has not reached the appropriate maturity level.

b. The factor of maturation plus incidental learning may enable the child, at a given age level, to learn in a short time something which he either could not have learned at all, or could have learned only with great difficulty, at an earlier level.

c. The level at which a child is ready varies considerably in the case of different activities
Example: learning of chronology (Pistor)
learning of arithmetic (Benezet)
learning to sing (Jersild and Bienstock)

D. Some General Characteristics of Development

1. The sequency in which various activities appear tends to be quite uniform, even though the rate and ultimate degree of ability achieved will vary markedly from child to child.

2. The child seeks on his own accord to make use of his growing abilities. Spontaneous use is a feature of growing ability.

3. At all stages of growth, the developments that take place not only serve the present but also serve as preparation for the future.

4. In the course of development, children sometimes revert to an earlier, more infantile, form of behavior, notably in times of acute or chronic stress.

5. In the development of behavior there appears a phenomenon of "wholeheartedness and gradation"; as a new development energes, as a new ability is being established, the child often devote a great amount of time and attention to it and then, as the performance becomes well established, the child's enthusiasm abates and he uses the performance as a means to an end rather than as an object of interest in itself.

6. During the process of development, the child, on his own accord, abandons an earlier way of behaving as the ability to perform in a new or more effective manner emerges. This is what has been called the "developmental revision of habits". Repetition of behavior that is appropriate to a given level of maturity, and that yields satisfying results at the time, does not necessarily establish a habit which will carry over to a later period of development.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-40

17 November 1948

PHYSICAL AND MOTOR DEVELOPMENT
Jersild Yoda
Lectures No. 5 & 6

(Elementary Consultants Group -- Subject: Educational Psychology).

A. Introductory: Educational Significance of Physical and Motor Development.

A child's physical and motor development are highly important from an educational point of view. Conditions that promote good physical development, including health care and good nutrition, are, quite obviously, important for the child's physical welfare and stamina.

But these conditions also have a profound effect on psychological development, and thus they have implications for the educational program. The child's size, strength, and physical vitality greatly affect his own behavior and the response that others make to him. His physical characteristics, as he conceives them or as they are appraised by others, have a vital effect upon his growing conception of himself as a person.

To be "little" or "big," has a psychological as well as a physical meaning. And the effects become especially pronounced if the child has physical characteristics, such as being exceptionally tall or short or fat for his age, which make him conspicuous. Another example of this is the fact that at adolescence, and earlier, a child's physical attractiveness or unattractiveness will influence the way he regards himself and the way he is regarded by others.

There is, of course, nothing that education can do to change a child's physique, but the more we conceive the educational program as a program designed to help each child to become the kind of person which he, by nature, is designed or best fitted to be, the more essential it becomes to take account of the child's physical characteristics.

It becomes important for teachers, in trying to understand their pupils, to consider what bearing the physical characteristics of this or that child might have upon his psychological development, and to consider how this child or that, with his individual physical endowments, might best be helped to make use of them, and to accept them.

Even more important, in many ways, than a child's physical traits are his motor abilities and accomplishments. The child's strength and speed, his competence in performances that require coordinated use of his muscles, his ability to enter into the countless physical activities which children at various age levels undertake, have a vital bearing upon his social and emotional development, and even upon his intellectual development. From an early age, a large part of the child's contact with the world occurs by way of motor activity. Among the most important features of his development of independence as a small person is his learning of various forms of "self-help" of a motor nature, such as feeding himself, dressing himself, etc. His motor activities are very significant in his social development, for a great amount of children's social intercourse, from an early age and well into the high school years, occurs through play, games, and other enterprises that involve varying degrees of motor skill. Also, many intellectual and artistic learnings take place in a motor setting (such as games that involve counting or singing).

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Again, a child's motor development, like his physical development, may have a profound effect on his conception of himself, the conception others have of him, the extent to which and the way in which he is accepted by others, the extent to which and the way in which he feels constricted or free to stride forth into the intellectual, social and artistic world that surrounds him.

While motor development has a pronounced impact upon the development of the total personality, it appears that in most, and perhaps all parts of the world, motor development has been treated like a step-child in education. It has been subject to abuse, distortion and neglect. This seems to have come about through a variety of reasons and by way of a variety of circumstances which we cannot examine here. One reason, but not, perhaps, the most important one, is that the human organism, when it reaches the age when a person can begin to control the educational program, has passed the age when the organism is most avid for, and most competent in, motor activities of various sorts. One of the stablest and surest signs of maturity is a strong inclination to sit down. And the educational program in most communities, even the most "progressive," is determined to a large degree by persons with strong sedentary tendencies.

While we cannot look into the many ways in which motor education has been curtailed or distorted, we may note a few. Stereotyped notions as to what a "physical education" program should consist of have had a warping effect. In many schools, for example, a large proportion of the money, time and effort available for physical education is devoted to certain forms of ball play which, while excellent in themselves, do not begin to tap the motor resources children possess. There is evidence also that at the adult level, many persons now reduced to being spectators rather than players, would gladly have sacrificed time given to ball-play in order to have acquired certain other skills which would not only be enjoyable when they were children but also available for active and enjoyable use at the adult level. Motor education has also been hampered from time to time by procedures which have not been designed primarily to help the child achieve optimum development but have been designed to serve ulterior purposes, such as military training, specialized vocational preparation and the like.

One sign, among many, of the way in which motor development has been neglected is that we do not have, in any part of the world, any adequate and comprehensive inventory or set of norms showing the range of motor skills and the degree of proficiency which children, at various maturity levels, would be able to acquire if given the opportunity. And an outcome is that the average person, when he reaches the adult level, has developed only a minute fraction of his potential motor resources.

We turn now to a consideration of some of the details and some of the general tendencies that can be observed in physical and motor development.

B. <u>Some Aspects of Physical Development</u>

1. Trends in Physical Growth

a. Growth tends to proceed, as we noted in an earlier lecture, in a cephalo-caudal direction (from the head to the tail or posterior region). Children are capable of quite highly refined coordinated wrist, hand and finger movements while they still have little control over their foot muscles. The physical education of children of pre-school and primary school years need not be confined to "big muscle" activities as some have claimed.

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b. Physical growth tends to be most rapid at the beginning of life and then to taper off as maturity is reached, with the exception of a growth spurt at puberty.

c. Although there are vast individual differences in physical growth, the sequence and order of various developments tends to be quite uniform.

d. Changes that occur with growth include not only a change in size but also changes in proportions and in architecture. By reason of this change in architecture of the body, some skills that are learned when a child is small need to be re-adapted or re-learned as he grows bigger (e.g., roller skating).

2. Differences between boys and girls

a. There are many findings which indicate that young girls are, if anything, biologically more robust and physically more mature than young boys of equivalent age.

b. The death rate among infant boys, at least in some regions, has been higher than the death rate among infant girls.

c. Girls are "skeletally" more mature (farther advanced in ossification or development of mature, hard, brittle bone structure, as compared with the softer cartilaginous structure of the little child) during pre-school and elementary school years than are boys. One investigator reports that at the beginning school age, the average girl is about one year more mature (in skeletal development) and at the end of the period about a year and a half or two years more mature than the average boy.

d. Girls reach puberty at an earlier average age than boys.

e. Girls reach their maximum or full stature and muscular development at an earlier average age than boys.

3. Physical changes in adolescence, and some psychological consequences

a. The primary phenomenon of physical growth during adolescence is the development of sexual "maturity," including a large and complex variety of physical and glandular changes.

b. As noted, there may be a marked spurt in physical growth, with an especially large increase in the size of the extremities, length of legs, size of hands and feet. These changes, when they occur rapidly, may produce a certain amount of awkwardness for a time. It takes time to learn to get used to changed architecture of the body.

c. The increase in interest in the opposite sex which comes with puberty has important implications for education. However, a program of sex education should not be regarded as something which should be confined solely to the adolescent years, for the process of sexual development, and the appearance of various interests and activities pertaining to sex, begins early in life.

C. <u>Some Aspects of Motor Development</u>

1. Most of the basic features of motor development, such as walking, the ability to oppose the forefinger and thumb, the ability to throw, run, dodge, etc., have been established before the child reaches elementary school age, and will not be considered in detail here.

2. Although most of the basic coordinations have already been established, the elementary school period may well be called the "golden age" of motor development. It is during these years that the child acquires a large proportion of the motor skills which he will use throughout life.

3. Many motor skills that are useful both for work and play as long as a person lives are not likely ever to be learned if not acquired during elementary or junior high school years.

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4. The developments that take place consist, in part, in gains in strength, speed and precision of movement (see, for example, Tables III and IV, p. 65-66, Gates, et al, Educational Psychology, 3rd Edition, 1948), but even more noticeable is the extension in the range of different activities and skills.

5. Play activities involving motor skills increase in number from year to year early in childhood and then, at about the end of the elementary school period, the number of different activities in which the child actively engages begins to decline.

6. The correlation between intellectual abilities on the one hand, and motor abilities, on the other, is positive, but quite low.

7. From an early age, boys surpass girls in certain motor performances calling for strength and speed. These differences tend to increase as children become older. After puberty, the difference is due, in part, to the fact that the male body is mechanically better constructed for performing activities that call for gross strength of muscle or fleetness of foot than is the female body. But some tests show that boys and girls differ less in ability to perform precise movements than in performing movements that call for muscular strength. Moreover, it seems that many of the differences between boys and girls are due to cultural factors. In a motor performance in which girls have had more practice (such as fitting together and sewing a garment) girls are likely to excel boys.

9. Due to the fact that motor development has been so largely neglected in psychological and educational research, any effort that is made within the school to improve upon the motor education of children must necessarily involve a good deal of original study and experimentation.

10. The subject of handedness deserves brief attention in a study of motor development. Among the findings in studies of the development of handedness are the following: (a) the younger the child, the more ambidextrous he is likely to be; (b) some children pass through periods when they predominantly use one hand and then shift to use of the other hand; (c) in some children, if not in all, handedness is related to "sidedness" (the child shows a preference not only for using one hand but also for using the foot on that side, the eye on that side, the shoulder, etc.); (d) it appears that if children were allowed to develop in their own way more would show a preference for the left hand than now are permitted to do so; (e) the methods of restraint, punishment and compulsion that are used to force a child to become right-handed may have very unfavorable effects upon his personality.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-41

18 Nov. 1948

DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL BEHAVIOR

Jersild - Yoda
Lectures 7-8

A. Introductory

Many things occur in the social behavior of children during the elementary school period that make this aspect of child development especially important for elementary education.* The period covered by the first six grades in school is a period during which children become increasingly absorbed in the social life of their peer group. It is a time during which the ability to enter into quite complicated team-work is being established. It is a period during which the child, if given the chance, makes large strides in the direction of expanding his loyalties and interests beyond the home, in finding a place for himself, and status for himself, outside the home. During this time, also, as we will note in a later lecture, children's mental development enables them more and more to enter into intellectual team-work - to share ideas, to see the other person's point of view, and the like. The changes in social behavior that take place during this period are important not only from the point of view of the child's day to day education but they are important also as a form of introduction into, and preparation for the kind of social life the child must lead as an adult.

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* This abstract includes some excerpts from an abstract on the same topic which was distributed in the College Professors group.

B. Beginnings of Social Behavior

From the time when life begins, each child is distinctly a social being even though his role at the start is a passive one. Contacts with other persons are interwoven with his earliest experiences and they are essential to his survival from day to day. As long as he lives he remains dependent upon others, for to live a normal life he needs the companionship and affection of other persons.

At an early age the child reveals himself as a social creature not only through passive dependence, but also through active efforts to establish social contacts with others. He seeks affection. At an early age he bestows affection.

His first form of communication is crying but when only a few weeks old he shows a distinctly human social response; he smiles. According to C. Buhler, babies in a study she conducted, when only a few weeks old showed their recognition of the human voice and the human gaze by a selective response, smiling.

In another study (Dennis) it was observed that babies who had been brought up in an environment in which there was an utter minimum of human contact smiled and showed affection at about the same time and in the same manner as babies who had received much loving attention from the time they were born. Findings in several studies, including one by Shirley, indicate that there is a natural sequence of social behavior, just as there is a natural sequence in the sphere of motor development (e.g. the development of walking). And an effort to seek and to establish contact with others is one of the earliest and most noticeable features in this sequence.

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Thus, in his own way the infant child confirms the truth that man is a social being and that it is not good for man to be alone. In his childish behavior he declares a truth which adults often are slow to re-discover, that we are all members one of another.

This tendency toward sociability, with its potential of good will, is very important from an educational point of view.

Self-centered and other-centered behavior: Early in life the child begins to exhibit forms of behavior that seem opposed to each other but which really are necessary to round out his social life. He is dependent, but he seeks while yet a young baby to be independent as far as his powers permit. In time he learns to cooperate and to conform in countless ways, but he also learns to compete. As he grows older he learns more and more ways of seeking his own advantage, but he also learns a great variety of ways of sharing. As he develops he becomes increasingly able to merge his interests with the interests of the group, but he also strives to preserve his individuality.

These tendencies toward sociality and toward asserting his individuality are normal and both should have an opportunity to develop. If one tendency or the other is severely subjugated or suppressed the result is unhappiness in the life of the individual. And if such suppression occurs on a large scale for an extended period, it will produce disaster in the life of the nation.

C. Some phenomena associated with the development of social behavior

1. The child's social behavior at first revolves around his parents and other members of his household, but even during the first year many infants will recognize and show special interest in other children.

2. An outstanding, and some times rather troublesome feature of early social development, is the behavior a child shows in his struggle to achieve self-help and a degree of independence. In the range from about 18 months to four years many children show periods of "negativism" or "resistance". This effort by the child to assert himself is a normal feature of development. But it may have unwholesome consequences if, in the process, on the one hand, his elders use harsh or frightening methods of compelling him to be obedient, or, on the other, his elders yield to his demands and give him freedom to a degree that is beyond his power to manage.

3. In the age range from about two years and onward there is a steady increase in the child's ability to enter into group activity. At first group activities are likely to involve only a few children and they are likely to be loosely knit. By the time the child reaches first grade he is still unable, without adult leadership, to function effectively as a member of a group as large as the average class in school. According to some findings, it is not until about the age of ten that the average child is able to identify himself with a class-size group to the extent that he has a fairly clear impression of the distinct personality of each of the other members of the group.

4. In the age range from about two to six years most children, if given an opportunity, develop an understanding of the idea of competition, and their social behavior is likely to include a considerable amount of competitiveness as well as a considerable amou

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of cooperation. These tendencies continue into the elementary school years. From an early age, many children acquire competitive tendencies that are so strong as to have an unwholesome effect on their lives during childhood and adult years. In the past, schools have often used practices which aggravate rather than ameliorate these tendencies.

5. By about the age of two or three, and increasingly thereafter, children acquire the ability to sympathize with others. Murphy has pointed out that in a modern society there is a great demand upon individuals to respond to the needs of others, and that sympathy, when sensible and genuine, is of great importance in connection with the establishment of a cooperative society.

D. Development of Social Attitudes

1. From an early age children begin to acquire, in a second-hand manner, the attitudes of their elders and their peers. Children begin to adopt the prejudices and loyalties of their elders before they are able to understand the reasons underlying the attitudes.

2. In their moral development, children first formulate their ideas of what is good or bad in terms of rules laid down by their elders. In time they learn to formulate standards of conduct in more general terms and to judge the specific situation in the light of the general rule. This kind of generalization seldom is complete, however, even in adult years.

3. One of the most difficult problems in education is the problem of how to help children to develop moral conceptions that are sufficiently enlightened to deal with problems created by advances in science and technology.

E. Influence of, and Children's Response to, Various Adult Attitudes and Practices.

1. Many findings indicate that children tend, if not frightened, to respond in kind to the sort of treatment they receive from their elders. That is, a cooperative approach is likely to win a cooperative response.

2. Studies dealing with the response of children to "democratic" as compared with "autocratic" adult methods indicates that children have more capacity for taking responsibility than we have assumed in our traditional educational procedures; that children are likely to show higher morale and greater pride in their work under democratic auspices; that the use of democratic techniques definitely does not mean that the adult surrenders his status as an older and wiser person or applies a laissez-faire policy; that adults (at least those who participated in one study) can learn democratic methods even if they have been in the habit of using authoritarian procedures, and that one result of a shift to democratic procedures may be that the adults derive greater satisfaction from the work they are doing with children.

F. Some implications of social development from the point of view of the work of the teacher:

1. Because of the important bearing which a child's relationships with others have upon his mental health and adjustment, a program for promoting the social development of children should be regarded as an essential feature of the school curriculum. To be effective, such a program should include at least three things:

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a. The use of situations through which children can learn effective social skills and wholesome social attitudes.

b. A policy of studying the assets and handicaps of individual children with a view to helping each child to find a role and a place for himself.

c. A policy of studying the total group situation, in the classroom, the school and the community, with a view to finding evidence of friction and prejudice, or of positive social factors which the school might properly take into account in planning its program.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-42

19 November 1948

EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT
Today
Lectures 9 & 10

(Elementary Consultants Group -- Subject: Educational Psychology)

A. Introductory

By "emotion" we mean a state of being moved, or stirred up or excited. Emotion has three components:(1) feeling, such as a feeling of well-being, or of annoyance; (2) impulse, such as the impulse to run when afraid or to strike when angry; and (3) somatic or bodily phenomena, such as the complex processes that produce an increase in the pulse rate and in blood pressure.

It is in dealing with the emotional lives of children that the elementary school teacher and the elementary consultant face their greatest challenge and their most difficult task. Many children, by the time they reach school age, are burdened by emotional problems. In many schools, and perhaps in almost all, even more children are troubled by the time they reach the end of the elementary school years.

What follows will deal first with certain general considerations and then touch more in detail on children's fears. Anger, sympathy, joy and other emotional states will also be treated if time permits.

This abstract includes excerpts from the summary of the lectures delivered in the College Professors group on Nov. 1 and Nov. 8, 1948.

B. Difficulties in understanding the child's emotions

The child has many emotional experiences before he is able to carry on organized thinking or to express his feelings and his thoughts in words. In addition, throughout the period of childhood factors are at work that induce him to conceal the true nature of his feelings. While still very young most children are taught not to express their feelings freely. It is not adults, alone, but other children, who contribute to this. While still very young the little child who feels like crying tries to hold back his tears. He learns that it is wise not to show rage directly, and that he may be ridiculed if he shows his fears. But in most civilized regions of the world this process of concealment and suppression seems to have been carried too far. Throughout childhood years and throughout life there are times when a person could deal with his fears and his hostility more rationally and wisely if he did not seek so hard to conceal his feelings.

One outcome, among others, of pressure against expression of emotion is that feelings often are expressed indirectly or projected upon a substitute. Note, for example, the phenomenon of finding a scapegoat.

Many psychologists have pointed out that the effort to use a false front may become a sign of illness rather than good health. They have pointed out that sometimes it takes more genuine courage to reveal frankly that one is weak or afraid than to pretend to be strong and brave.

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C. Developmental Changes

The process of growth affects emotional behavior just as it affects all other aspects of development. As an infant the child is unaffected by many things which later will disturb him. But as his abilities develop, there are parallel changes in his emotions. When a baby reaches the stage when he can recognize the difference between familiar members of his family and a strange person he may, for the first time, show fear of strangers. When he is old enough to understand the idea of competition, he may become angry or afraid at the prospect of failure and of being humiliated. When, in his social life, he reaches the age when the good opinion of his peers becomes of great importance to him, he will be subject to fears of losing status, or anger at slights, which earlier did not disturb him.

In passing, we might also note that by reason of this interrelation of emotional and intellectual development it may be both an asset and a liability to have high intelligence.

Allied to this there is what might be called a paradox of development, namely, that as a child grows in ability and strength he does not, to a corresponding degree, gain increased immunity from the hurts and terrors of life. Every hurdle which he surmounts may bring new hazards.

D. Subjective and Objective Factors in Producing Emotion

The arousal of emotion depends not only upon happenings in the external environment but also upon the subjective state of the person to whom these happenings befall. The same angry rebuke may enrage one child who already feels rebellious, or it may frighten another child who feels afraid and insecure. A performance that means success to one child may mean failure to another who happens to have high aspirations. It is hard for parents and teachers to realize this truth. We are inclined to expect that a certain happening would have much the same effect on others as it would have on us.

The fact that a happening may have utterly different effects on two children, depending upon their personal hopes, fears and expectations, emphasizes the importance of trying to understand what a certain emotional response means from the child's point of view regardless as to how exaggerated or foolish the response might appear to a neutral observer.

E. The Role of Affection

In recent years psychologists have been giving great emphasis to the child's need for affection, for being accepted and for feeling that he is wanted and that he belongs. The affection which his elders feel for a child will influence and color all the details of their practical dealings with him.

The concept of parental "rejection" (not being wanted or loved) has also received much recent attention. Signs of rejection include harsh punishment; taking advantage of a child's fears; humiliating and belittling him in the presence of others; insisting on rigid conformity; insisting on standards that are beyond his powers; excessive blaming, fault-finding, etc; preventing him from learning independence and self-sufficiency.

F. Children's Fears

1. In early infancy, fears may be elicited by any sudden or intense stimulus, including noise, loss of support, flashes and reflections, unexpected or sudden movements.

2. Many fears are acquired through a process of learning as when a child is frightened by a noise while in a certain room and then later fears to go into this room alone, even though there is no noise.

3. Fears also are influenced by the factor of maturation, as already noted in examples given earlier in this outline.

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4. By the time children reach the middle elementary school period there is a great disparity between the fears they entertain and the dangers that actually threaten them. In one school, about 50 per cent of children said they worried about the possibility of not being promoted, whereas the promotion rate actually was about 98 per cent. In one study it was found that 14 per cent of the children reported fear of animals even though less than two per cent reported that they actually had been hurt by animals when they described the "worst happenings" that had occurred in their lives. Many reported fear of ghosts, robbers, and dangers associated with the dark without actually having been threatened by such dangers in real life. It appears that the average child carries a larger burden of fear than is necessary for his safety.

5. Factors in the child's life which contribute to his tendency to be afraid range from concrete frightening experiences to experiences of a sort that weaken his stamina, or undermine his confidence or lead him to feel guilty, or to feel threatened by conflicting impulses within himself.

Among conditions that may aggravate fear are the following:

a. The example set by others.
b. Experience of failure, with lowered self-esteem.
c. Feelings of guilt and self-disparagement induced by circumstances in daily life.
d. Desires and impulses regarded as dangerous or bad, including hostile impulses, sex impulses, etc.
e. "Unconscious" or unrecognized conflicts.
f. Pressure of unrealistic or unattainable standards of achievement and perfection.
g. Conflict between, or discrepancy between idealized image of self and reality.
h. Threats and intimidation.

6. A child's fears may vary greatly in their "rationality" and seeming appropriateness. When a child is afraid when a footbridge which he is crossing sways and creaks we may regard his fear as quite fitting. But if he fears that he will have an uncontrolable impulse to jump off the bridge, or if he fears even the idea of crossing any bridge, we may regard his fear as irrational. It is likely, in the latter event, that the danger which he associates with the bridge represents, or symbolizes a fear of something within himself.

7. Fears often are expressed in a very round-about and deceptive manner. The child who is rebellious, stubborn, may be a frightened child. His rebelliousness may be a means of escaping and avoiding something that he fears. The child who is exceptionally good may be a frightened child. So also the child who boasts and struts. Indeed, a show of great courage may be a cloak for fear.

G. Prevention and Overcoming of Fear

1. All of the factors already mentioned should be taken into account when one endeavors to prevent needless fears or to help a child cope with a fear that has become established.

2. Apart from trying to spare the child from needless overwhelming frights and problems, and trying to spare him from blows which undermine his confidence and security, there are some fairly concrete practical steps that can be taken in the prevention of fear, such as:

a. Allowing the child gradually to work himself into a situation which, if thrust upon him suddenly with its full impact, would be frightening. Example of visiting a strange place before being required to stay all day; going to doctor's office a few times before any painful work is done, etc.

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b. Teaching children skills and techniques which will be valuable in coping with potentially frightening situations.
c. (In some instances) forewarning the child.

3. Among methods that have been used or might be used in helping a child to overcome fear are the following:
a. Methods that probably will do more harm than good:
(1) Scolding or punishing the child for being afraid.
(2) Arguing that there is nothing to fear.
(3) Ridiculing.
(4) Artificially protecting a child from facing situations which he inevitably has to face and from which there is no escape.
(5) Forcing the child to face, or forcing the child into a situation that he fears (such as throwing the child who is afraid of drowning into water beyond his depth).

b. Methods that may help some
(1) Explanation and reassurance. An explanation that there is nothing to fear may be helpful if it touches upon the aspect of the situation which really frightens the child. Moreover, the child's confidence in the person who does the explaining may be more important than the truth or adequacy of the explanation.
(2) Explanation plus demonstration.
(3) Setting an example.
(4) Letting child gradually, with help or from a safe distance, familiarize himself, and then move on to more direct and fulsome dealings with what he fears.
(5) Helping child to acquire skill and competence in dealing with the feared event.

c. In the case of deeply seated irrational fears, or in the case of fears that serve an ulterior purpose (such as a child's display of fear in order to get attention which he strongly desires and otherwise does not get) it will be necessary not only to deal with the objective fear situation but also to shep the child to face and understand the conditions within himself, or in his relationships with others, that underlie his fear. This may require skilled psychotherapy of a sort which requires the services of a specialist. There are, of course, many emtoional problems in the lives of children which we cannot expect the classroom teacher to solve.

d. In connection with any approach that is made to helping children cope with their fears it is important for the adult to try to see the child's fear from the point of view of the child, what it means to <u>him</u>, how it functions in his life, rather than to view the situation from the point of view of a person who is not frightened. It is important, also, not to use an approach which will make the child afraid or ashamed to show his fears.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

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INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT
Jersild Yoda
Lectures 11 and 12

(Elementary Consultants Group -- Subject: Educational Psychology).

A. Introductory

The elementary school period is a period of great expansion in the child's intellectual life. At the beginning of this period his thoughts are occupied mainly with concrete things that are happening in the immediate present and that touch directly upon his personal life. By the end of the period he is able to deal with the abstract as well as the concrete, the historical past as well as the present, and the ideas and viewpoints expressed by others as well as ideas of a highly personal character. In the meantime, also, he has been taught how to use most of the major intellectual tools of his culture, such as reading, writing, use of numbers and the like.

B. Some Aspects of Mental Development

1. Development of Memory

The ability to remember events that happen from day to day appears in early infancy, but it is not until the age of two or three or four that the usual child is able to formulate impressions in such a manner that he can remember them in later life. Most people's "earliest memories" do not reach below the level of three years. And even then, and for some time to come, recollections are likely to be fragmentary. This means that there may be many experiences which can have a marked influence on the child's way of life but which the child cannot later recall. The effects of such experiences (such as the effect of a bad fright) may remain even though the mind cannot re-examine the circumstances that caused them. This is one reason, among many, why it is that children, as they advance in age, and grow in understanding of the world about them, find it difficult, if not impossible, to understand themselves.

2. Language development

a. By the time a child reaches elementary school age he has already passed through the most important phase of his language development, but much still remains to be learned, of course.

b. Children differ markedly in the rate of their early language development. There is a high correlation between language ability and the kind of ability measured by the usual intelligence test. However, language development is influenced also by many factors in the enfironment. A child who associates much with adults, or with older children, is likely to be more advanced than a child of similar ability, who spends much of his time alone or with younger children. Moreover, the extent to which a child uses "correct" language will, of course, depend greatly upon the example set for him at home.

c. Language development consists, in part, in learning to understand and to use an increasingly large vocabulary, but it consists also, to a large entent, in gaining an enriched or more comprehensive understanding of the many or varied meanings or connotations of words that already are part of the vocabulary. At a given level of maturity the child may not associate the same meanings with a given term as does his teacher. To obtain good teaching it is necessary to be on guard and to take account of this fact.

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3. Development of concepts and reasoning.

a. It has been proposed by one investigator (Piaget) that there are basic differences between the reasoning processes of young children and adults. However, other investigators have not found distinct stages in the development of children's thinking. From an early age children are able, within the limits of their experience, to grasp the idea of cause and effect and to arrive at logical conclusions.

b. Although distinct stages in the development of reasoning have not been found, it is true that many changes in children's thinking can be observed, such as: an increased ability to deal with the abstract, the impersonal and the general; a gain with age in ability to concentrate; a gain in ability to deal with complex relationships; a gain in ability to dispose, in order, of little problems or serial problems that must be solved in order to solve the main problem, etc.

c. One notable outcome of increasing intellectual maturity is an increasing capacity for "intellectual teamwork." (Note illustrative data in Table VII, Gates, et al, 3rd edition, p. 185).

d. It has been observed in several studies that children have many hazy notions and misconceptions in connection with subject matter taught at school, notably in the social studies.

e. According to available evidence, it is not until after the age of nine or ten years that the average child has much understanding of time in the historical sense.

4. General Information

Children show great differences in their information about matters which occur in their ordinary environment (such as, where does leather come from), and this fact, like some of the facts stated above, implies that an important part of teaching is to try to find out what children know or think they know.

5. Discrepancy between information and attitude

Frequently there is little or no relationship between the amount of knowledge children have concerning a certain matter and their attitude (the stand they take for or against) toward the matter. Attitudes are especially difficult to "educate" if they are of long standing and are deeply rooted in the child's fears or desires. For this reason, instruction designed to have a bearing on loyalties, prejudices, aspirations and values must give consideration to the feelings children have as well as to the factual information they do or do not possess.

6. Imaginative behavior

a. Imaginative behavior in the form of make-believe appears early in the child's mental life. Sometimes it is evident before a child is able to talk.

b. Make-believe and other forms of imaginative behavior serve many functions in the child's mental development. Through make-believe and day-dreams the child experiments with ideas and conditions; he is able to deal with situations on a level of make-believe which he would not be able to handle in reality; through his make-believe he makes many social contacts with other children and thereby is enabled to explore and experiment in his social environment; make-believe also enables him safely to express and to experiment with his feelings, to deal safely with things that he fears, to vent anger safely upon persons or conditions that have given offense, etc.

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6. Imaginative behavior (cont.)

c. The fact that imaginative activities, including day-dreams, dreams, make-believe, fantasies of various sorts do not just happen but have their roots in the child's mental and emotional life has been taken into account in the development of "projective" techniques for the study of children's ideas and feelings. As noted in an earlier lecture, these techniques are still in process of being established on a scientific basis. But an observant teacher will find it very interesting and rewarding to observe children in situations or activities in which they give play to their imagination (such as in their make-believe games, their original drawings, paintings, stories, etc.), with a view to getting, through these, a glimpse into the mental life of the children.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-44 - 24 November 1948

SOME PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF THE PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING
Jersild Yoda

LECTURES NO. 13-14

(Elementary Consultants Group -- Subject: Educational Psychology)

In this lecture we will supplement the materials on the subject of learning which have been considered in earlier lectures dealing with mental, social and emotional development. We will deal mainly with certain practical aspects of the subject and give some attention, in the latter part of the lecture, to the subject of needs and interests in relation to learning.

By learning we mean any change in behavior or any new way of behaving that has come about, in whole or in part, through the influence of past experience.

A. Readiness: In connection with all that we try to teach, and all that we make available for the child to learn by himself it is of first importance to take account of the factor of readiness. Is the child sufficiently mature to have the capacity for coping with and mastering the thing to be learned? Does he possess the requisite background of experience? Is it economical to devote time and energy to the enterprise now or might it better be postponed? We have touched upon these questions, and have given some illustrations in Lectures 3 and 4.

B. Timeliness: It is important also to consider what we teach in the light of the criterion of timeliness in relation to the course and pattern of the child's own growth. What is now preeminent in the child's development and what, in view of this, is it most fitting for the child now to learn? For example, as noted in an earlier lecture, the elementary school period is a period of great motor activity and an especially timely period for teaching motor skills. It is also a period when it is especially timely to give children an opportunity to learn skills that will be most useful in connection with their developing capacity for team-work and participation in the social life of their peers.

C. Suitability: What the child is required to learn, or given an opportunity to learn, should, as far as possible, be suited to the kind of performance which he, at a given stage of his development, is best able to manage. Findings indicate, for example, that in learning to write English it is in keeping with the child's motor development at the age of six or seven to let him print each separate letter (manuscript writing) and then, as he grows more mature it is in keeping with changes in his motor development to have him shift to cursive writing.

D. Convenience: As far as possible, the child should be allowed to learn in a manner that is most convenient to him, at the moment and over a period of time, as long as this does not lead to the development of inefficient habits, or interfere with the convenience of others. In learning to subtract, for example, many children, like many college professors, find it more convenient, and more accurate, to cross out the old number and put in a new one when they "borrow" as in this example:

264 151
-197 -84

-197
67

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Unless there is good evidence against it, the child should subtract and perform other operations in a manner that is most convenient.

The criteria of readiness, timeliness, suitability and convenience should be applied not only in providing the child with opportunities to learn on his own accord, but also in connection with feature in the school program that are required. In many school systems children are required, for example, sooner or later to learn a foreign language. Usually such a language is first introduced at the secondary school level, and often by way of formal instruction in the grammar of that language. This practice is not necessarily the best one. Although we need more study of this particular problem, there is reason to believe that it might be more profitable to introduce foreign language instruction, especially instruction in the spoken language in the early grades rather than to postpone such instruction until high school. We need more research on that point.

E. Utility: As far as possible, learning situations should be so arranged that the child can recognize what he is learning will be of some use, will serve a purpose or help further an aim which he can perceive. This does not mean, however, that every learning situation has to be tied to a big purpose. Often a little purpose will do, for children frequently, on their own accord, work hard at learning something for the simple reason that they want to learn it, whether it fits into a large plan or not.

F. Awareness of Accomplishment: As far as possible, all learning situations should be so arranged that the child can have an experience from the beginning, or very near the beginning, of having achieved something, of having made some progress. In keeping with this (and the last statement in Paragraph E above), it is important to plan the work in such a manner that there can be tangible evidence that something has been accomplished. And it is important, also, not to allow the teacher, or the brighter pupils, to make the plans or objectives so complex that the children with lower ability cannot perceive the way in which the thing they now are doing helps to accomplish the aims that have been set.

G. Praise and Reproof: Many studies have shown that praise, if wisely bestowed, is a more effective incentive to learning than reproof.

H. Reward and Punishment: Many studies indicate that to reward a learner is likely to be a stronger incentive than to punish him.

I. Needs in Relation to Learning: As we have already implied in many of the statements above, learning is likely to proceed best if it serves a purpose which the learner can perceive. Generally speaking, a child's instruction should be suited to his needs. The concept of need is rather complex, however, for there are many kinds of need, some of which a pupil recognizes and understands, and some of which he does not recognize. Moreover, sometimes a ~~child~~'s interests may go counter to his needs.

In order to apply the concept of need, it is necessary to make certain distinctions.

1. There are needs connected with the physical survival of the individual, such as the need for food and shelter. Many of these needs can be met only by provisions which the child does not understand, at least early in life, such as rules and restraints that are imposed to protect him from accidents and injuries, and provisions that are made to protect him from disease (long before he recognizes a need for health education), or to provide a nutritious diet. There also are needs associated with the survival of the

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race, including needs that arise in connection with the child's social development and needs in the sexual sphere.

2. There are needs in the form of inescapable requirements which a child sooner or later must learn to meet if he is to live comfortably in the particular culture into which he is born. In one culture, a child must sooner or later learn to eat with a fork, in another, he must learn sooner or later to eat with chopsticks, even though he has no inborn need for using these particular appliances. Within any culture there are countless such requirements. In teaching the child to learn how to meet these requirements, we must be guided by criteria such as those mentioned above (readiness, timeliness, etc.) for we cannot be guided solely by the child's expressed needs.

3. There also are needs in the sense of conditions that are necessary if the child is to achieve his full or optimum development, circumstances that must be provided if the child is to realize, through the nurture that is supplied, the powers and potentialities which nature has bequeathed to him. In order to fill these needs it is necessary to study the child's endowments and to try to plan the educational program in a manner that might help the individual children to <u>discover</u> and to use their various talents. A child may have many potentialities which he does not recognize and which he, therefore, does not formulate in terms of a conscious need.

J. <u>Interests in Relation to Learning</u>:

It is axiomatic that learning is likely to be most efficient and effective if the pupil is interested in what he is trying to learn. But in applying the concept of interest in education, as in applying the concept of need, it is necessary not only to consider the interests which children happen to have acquired but also the interests they might acquire.

1. Many of the interests which children show at given maturity levels are a direct and effective expression of an underlying need, or capacity, or both, such as when a child, having reached the appropriate time, is interested in learning to walk, or at a given level of social development is interested in spending much of his time with other children of about his own age.

2. Many of the interests children acquire are influenced to a large degree by the opportunities that happen to have been presented to them, including factors such as: the example set by others, expectations of others, facilities and equipment, a chance to experiment and explore, etc.

3. Children can have many potential interests without, at the same time, possessing the power or means of providing the opportunities for learning that would be necessary for cultivating these interests.

4. A child's present interests indicate what he <u>has</u> learned to enjoy to a greater extent than they indicate what he <u>could</u> learn to enjoy, or what would be most valuable for him.

5. Therefore, in order to utilize and cultivate children's interests most effectively, it is necessary, among other things, to study the capabilities of individual pupils, to be on guard against stereotyped ideas as to what children can and cannot learn to like, to make use of resources in the community as well as in the school that might help individual children to realize their possibilities.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-45

25 November 1948

THE NATURE, MEASUREMENT AND ROLE OF INTELLIGENCE

Jersild - Yoda
Lectures No. 15 and 16

This lecture will deal with the subject of intellectual ability and some of the educational implications of the development of intellectual ability and of individual differences in ability.

A. There have been many definitions of intelligence, including definitions which variously emphasize the ability to deal with situations that call for the use of mental processes, ability to act in accordance with the demands of the situation, to comprehend the situation and the problems it involves, to learn and to apply past learning, and to carry on abstract thinking. According to Thorndike the person with more intelligence is more able to master many mental tasks, to solve hard problems and to do so with greater speed than the less intelligent person.

There have been many theories concerning the nature of intelligence. For our purpose it is enough to recognize that intelligence represents a form of ability that is useful in performing mental tasks, that this ability, or at least some aspects of it, can be measured by intelligence tests, and that the ability so measured is correlated to a very high degree with the ability to learn many things which children are expected to learn at school.

B. Heredity and Environment. There have been many conflicting findings concerning the extent to which intelligence is influenced by heredity and by the environment. Nearly all investigators agree, however, that both factors contribute. If the environment were made equal for all, there would still be large differences in intelligence. But a poor invironment may keep a child from developing his potential mental ability.

C. The Need for Caution in Interpreting Intelligence Test Results. Knowledge about a child's intelligence, as measured by mental tests, is very important in guiding his work at school. But the child's score on a mental test should be used with caution, for the following reasons, among others:

1. An intelligence test gives a measure of only a very limited feature of a child's total personality. This feature is important, but so are many other features.
2. Even the best tests for measuring intelligence have a certain amount of unreliability.
3. The "growth curve" of intelligence varies with different children. Even when the tests are reliable there may be variations from one time to the next in a child's intelligence score.
4. A notably poor test score may have been influenced, in part, by a poor environment.

D. Intelligence and Academic Achievement. Intelligence, as measured for example, by the Binet test, is closely associated with the kind of ability that is required in most academic subjects, especially those that demand linguistic ability and ability to handle abstract ideas.

If a child has high intelligence and low academic achievement, it is likely that something is at fault. He may lack motivation. There probably are problems in his emotional life. There may be something lacking in the school. If he has low intelligence that too is important to know in order to avoid making demands that inevitably result in feelings of failure.

E. The Problem of the Intellectually Gifted Child. The very bright child is both a problem and a challenge to the school. In the conventional program, many bright children waste a large proportion of their time. Often the teachers resent them. Sometimes they acquire poor work habits, or hostile attitudes toward persons of lesser ability. Even though a bright child can do much to create a stimulating environment for himself, there is a limit to what he can do in this respect within the school, especially if he is kept closely confined to routine academic

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work. According to Terman, who has made classical studies of gifted children, we have not learned in education how best to help children with IQ's of 150 to make the best and fullest use of their abilities. According to Hollingworth, "There is no more serious question than this in education; How shall a democracy educate the most educable?"

F. Correlation of Intelligence With Other Traits and Abilities. Usually it has been found that there is a positive correlation between intelligence and other traits and abilities, although the correlation may be rather low. The most intelligent persons in a group are more likely to be above than to be below the average in other characteristics, such as honesty, perseverance, artistic skill, social awareness, etc. But, as indicated, this correlation may be very low, with the result that a great many persons who stand high in intelligence actually stand low in many other respects, such as motor ability, or artistic talent, or social responsiveness, or emotional balance. Indeed, some persons with high intelligence as measured by intelligence tests may stand low in common sense, practical judgmen and the like. By reason of this, it is important for the school program to be so arranged that it gives persons who have talents and qualities other than those represented by a high IQ an opportunity to develop their potentialities, not only to promote the welfare of the individuals in question but also to give mankind the benefit of these qualities and potentialities.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-46

26 November 1948

PERSONALITY AND ADJUSTMENT
Jersild - Yoda
Lectures No. 17-18

In this lecture we will consider some of the concepts of human needs and goals some types of situations in which needs are thwarted, some ways in which people deal with such situations. Our treatment of the topic of personality and adjustment will be based in part on the account given by Challman in Gates, et al., Educational Psychology.

1. The meaning of personality. When we speak of an individual's personality we refer to the quality of his total behavior, the organization and integration of his behavior as a whole. There have been many definitions of personality, which variously emphasize that the term includes both what is manifest in a person's behavior and also the inner organization of his purposes and drives.

2. The meaning of adjustment. According to one definition, adjustment is a continual process through which a person varies his behavior to produce a harmonious relationship between himself and his environment, between his own impulses and aspirations and the demands or restraints imposed by the society in which he lives, and between competing or conflicting impulses and tendencies that arise within his own private life.

The degree to which harmony is achieved depends both upon potentialities within the individual and characteristics of his environment.

3. Needs and goals of the individual.
   a. A need may be regarded as a state of tension, or as an impulse or form of striving which directs behavior toward a certain goal.
   b. Among the various needs there are organic needs, including the need for food, air and protection from heat or cold, and there are what might be called "personality" needs, such as the need for affection, belonging, self-expression, etc.
   c. If a need is easily satisfied, no problem of adjustment arises.
   d. Needs may be dominant or subordinate, one need may involve many sub-needs; in like manner, many needs may be centered on one goal.

4. Frustration and thwarting.
   a. Thwarting may be produced by 1) external circumstances, such as a) factors in the physical environment, b) social factors and c) economic factors; or by 2) internal factors, such as a) personal defects and limitations, b) incompatible needs or goals; c) standards of morality and perfection which the individual finds it difficult to maintain; d) aspirations that cannot be reached.
   b. Thwarting that results from internal factors such as those mentioned above is sometimes referred to as "conflict".
   c. Thwarting is likely to produce strain or tension and feelings of unpleasantness and distress.
   d. The circumstances that produce conflict may be clearly recognized by the individual but sometimes conflict arises out of impulses and needs which the individual does not clearly recognize or understand.
   e. Conflict may lead to feelings of hostility, fear, or feelings of inferiority.
   f. Methods of dealing with conflict may be direct or indirect; they may involve an attempt to face the problem or an attempt to avoid or escape.
   g. The manner in which the person deals with his frustrations is influenced by 1) the actual means and possibilities he has for satisfying his needs; 2) the strength of the needs; 3) the extent to which he finds it possible to accept a substitute or less attractive goal; 5) the extent to which he is consciously aware of his problems
   h. Thwarting and frustration do not always have a baneful effect, for in the process of solving his problems the individual may strengthen his personality.

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4. Methods of solving conflicts and of reducing or mitigating the tensions arising from frustration and thwarting.
   a. The aim of all methods of reducing tension is to restore harmony between the individual and his environment, and between conflicting tendencies within himself.
   b. Some methods of reducing tension are direct, including steps toward making renewed or stronger attempts to overcome barriers and to reach the original goal,or substituting other goals, or analyzing th situation and reaching a satisfactory solution or decision concernin it.
   c. Some methods are indirect. Among the indirect methods are the following:
      1. Sublimation, or an effort, knowingly or unknowingly, to deflect impulses that are barred or forbidden into channels that are open or approved, such as expressing affection through child welfare work.
      2. Withdrawal by way of
         a. Regression, or return to earlier, more childish, form of behavior, such as dependency on others.
         b. Daydreaming. Some forms of daydreaming represent a means of fulfilling wishes that, in actuality, have been blocked
         c. Avoidance of the situation which has frustrated them, - or putting limits on it, such as not entering into a contest (although one would like very much to win), or avoiding contacts and friendly relationships as a means of protecting oneself from becoming emotionally involved; or resorting to postponement and procrastination; or plunging into a number of activities as a means of gaining distraction and release from troublesome thoughts and feeling or resorting to pain-killers (such as the use, by older persons, of alcohol or drugs.)

It should be pointed out that the use of such methods of withdrawal on occasi does not, per se, mean that there is a serious personality maladjustment.

      3. Indentification: a person may try to ally himself emotionally or try to feel himself one with another person or group as a means of dealing with his frustrations. This is not, however, the only use that identifications may serve.
      4. Raltionalization. Rationalization has been defined as a proce of devising more or less plausible, but inadequate, reasons to account or to justify an opinion, feeling, action or situation when the individual would find the true explanation unacceptabl Thoroughgoing rationalization involves self-deception, unlike lying, which involves an attempt to deceive others. Rationalization may take unwholesome as well as wholesome forms; it may involve a person in greater difficulty, or it may help to tide him through a difficulty until he has the ability to face it.
      5. Repression. Repression has been defined as an unconscious process by means of which impulses and ideas, which would be painful to the person if he were aware of them, are excluded from consciousness and direct expression.
      6. Projection. Projection involves ascribing to others a) unacceptable impulses, thoughts and feelings arising within oneself, and b) ascribing to others the responsibility for actions which one wishes to disclaim, such as blaming the clock when one is late for an appointment, or blaming the teacher is one does not do well in an examination, etc.
      7. A method sometimes used to reduce conflict over a past act which is painful to think about is to try to atone for it by performing good deeds in an effort to balance or offset something bad.
      8. Compensation. Compensatory methods have been defined as me used to alleviate a feeling of inferiority and to restore self osteem. The development of substitute goals may be compensa tory, as when a person who is blocked from achieving a desire thing (such as success in his studies) turns to some other

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activity, such as sports or hobbies through which he thinks there is a better chance for him to win recognition.

9. Agression. Another form of indirect solution of a conflict is to entertain agressive feelings toward others or toward oneself.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-47

29 November 1948

WHAT IS THE CURRICULUM?
McCullough Sakamoto
Lectures No. 1 and 2

CURRICULUM OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Outline of Three Weeks of Topics

I. What is Curriculum?
II. Who Decides the Curriculum?
III. Japanese "Criterion of Elementary Curriculum"
IV. Organization of Subject Matter
V. Foundations of Curriculum-making
VI. Organization of Curriculum
VII. Departmentalization vs One Teacher for the Class
VIII. Teaching Methods
IX. The Unit of Work
X. Weekly and Daily Plan
XI. Courses and Methods in Each Subject Field
XII. Curricular Aids
XIII. Conclusion

I. General Survey

Generally understood, curriculum (kyoka katei) is the series of the matters which are provided for children in the school. But this word is apt to be used in various meanings and varies its meanings in accordance with the changes of fundamental principles and methods of education.

The conceptionsof the Japanese teachers about curriculum can be divided into two extreme groups.

A	B
a. Rigid frame determined nationally	Frame work determined by each school, each teacher
b. Learnings imposed upon children from without	Learnings developed by children with their activities
c. Learnings designed as system of the social values	Learnings designed as organization of children's actual experiences

Most people follow the former, and a few the latter. But these are both sides of curriculum as such, and do not contradict each other. It is very urgent to understand curriculum as an organic structure combining both aspects.

Neither utter indifference or extreme fanaticism toward the curriculum problem is the right or desirable attitude. (We must analyze the problems about curriculum correctly and understand sufficiently, so that we may take correct educational attitudes toward the matter.)

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2. Japanese Translation of the Word

"Curriculum" was translated as "kyoka katei" ("Courses of Subjects") in Japanese and has been known by the term. Therefore, it was thought to be self-evident that curriculum is a fixed "subject curriculum." But it has since been made clear that it should necessarily meet children's interests and needs; and the needs of communities, and the tendency of interpreting the curriculum as the flexible series of children's experiences has become stronger; and these cause the habit of using the English term "curriculum" as it is.

3. Meaning of the Curriculum

The curriculum may be defined as "all the experiences which children have while under the direction of the school."

Curriculum accomplishes the following functions according to children's interests and needs:

a. To fulfill the general objectives of education.
b. To perpetuate the society.
c. To meet the needs and characteristics of local community.
d. To enrich the personal life and make good social adjustment possible.
e. To build desirable attitudes as carefully as knowledge of fact or skill in manipulation of facts.
f. To offer equal opportunity to each child to fulfill his greatest possibilities.

The Elementary School Curriculum is expressive of both the status quo and the aspirations of society beyond the status quo. While the curriculum is the means of perpetuating society, it must also be the means of the growth of new ideas and techniques within that society.

4. Necessity of the Study of Curriculum-Making

Curriculum is a most important aspect of the elementary school education. But it will play a central role in producing various educational results only when it works together with other important aspects such as teaching methods and so on. Main points about the significance of this study for educators in general are as follows:

1. Understanding and contemplation of the structure of the curriculum are useful for the effective operation of the curriculum. This point is most significant to ordinary teachers in ordinary situations.
2. When one must necessarily revise or reorganize a curriculum, the study of curriculum-making will help a great deal to accomplish the work successfully. There are many occasions when teacher-consultants or particular teachers are put into such situations.

The present situation in Japan requires curriculum study from at least two points of view: the one, an evaluation of the effects of the present curriculum in the light of new objectives, and the other, the development of new ideas and experimentation to determine their worth in different representative situations. Devotion to only one of these purposes cannot result in educational progress sufficient to our needs.

However, in Japan a kind of illusion is beginning to prevail -- that is, a little bit of study on curriculum-making immediately enables one to build a fundamentally new curriculum; and consequently we see reckless attempts taken here and there. It seems urgent at present that fundamental and continuous study should be made and developed gradually be some proper agencies (such as, prefectural or municipal curriculum committees) and that steady and feasible practices should be developed in each school according to the situation of the school.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

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30 November 1948

WHO DECIDES THE CURRICULUM
McCullough - Sakamoto

To build or improve the curriculum of a certain school system is a cooperative endeavor. Agencies that cooperate in curriculum making belong to levels as follows:

The National Government
Prefectural Board
Local Board
School - Teachers, Principals

Now in Japan, these agencies are not developed so fully as in the United States.

1. National Government

First, national government (Mombusho) presents "the tentative plan for the course of study" which offers source materials for the curriculum. "Items concerning subjects of elementary school are decided by competent authorities in accordance with the purpose and objectives of the elementary school." (School Education Law). By "competent authorities" is meant the Minister of Education, temporarily. And in the Regulations concerning School Education Law, "Curriculum, subject matters, and their treatment are to be in accordance with the standard of Courses of Study." Therefore, at present the national government has responsibility to offer the minimum standard of the curriculum, which is to be followed with flexibility. In case the Educational Board system is put into effect successfully, something different may happen. But, in the draft for the proposed "School Establishment Standard Law" also, the national government is intended to offer minimum criterion for the "curriculum". The case is much different from that of the United States where there is no national system of education. However the "Standard of the Curriculum" is only the "fundamental framework of the curriculum, which means actually the table of the length of time alloted for the graded subjects, as seen later. The national government issues merely "Course of Study" and determines only the fundamental framework and submits all of the other things concerning curriculum to the disposal of other agencies. And in making or improving the plan for the "Standard of Curriculum", it is quite natrual that the national government should be required to adopt curricular experiences of teachers and educators throughout the country and to make full use of studies and data offered by respective agencies.

2. Prefectural and Local Boards.

In the "Educational Board Law" passed recently, the Education Board, either prefectural or local, is prescribed to execute the business "concerning subject matters (literally, contents of subject) and their treatment." But this is a very ambiguous expression. Whether the Board is responsible to decide the curriculum and build its own "course of study" or not, is not clearly indicated. It must be noticed that in the article of the law above mentioned the word "curricula" is omitted as compared with the article of Regulations concerning the School Education Law. But, it is evident that the Board can make suggestions and give advice to develop and improve the curriculum.

Now Japan utterly lacks participation in the curriculum development of these levels. It is advisable to provide means of coordinating the efforts and experiences of teachers ("curriculum coordinator") and have a small number of standing committees which have responsibility for continuous study.

The superintendent may have an advisory council consisting of representatives of various interests in the community. This advisory council may be presented the problem of curriculum development and may be called upon to express ideas in the meeting. Such a group serves two purposes: 1) It helps the school come close to the community in solving school problems, and 2) It gives respresentatives of the community information and understanding about the school which it may share with others in the community and so build good community relations for the school

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3. Teacher-consultants, Principals and Teachers

The teacher consultant is often the chairman of curriculum development in his field or area of instruction. The principal makes experimentation in his school and sometimes serves in the curriculum development committee. The teacher serves in a committee or experiements in his classroom to assist the developments.

The teacher decides the curriculum in his daily use of it, (his findings of success or failure of the contents with the children for whom it was designed.) He develops new materials and new ideas for the curriculum. He submits these findings to the committee of teachers, principals, and teacher-consultants who are at work on the curriculum. These findings, pooled with those of other teachers from other schools, form the body for curriculum change.

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CIE GHQ SCAP
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

File No. E-49

1 December 1948

JAPANESE "CRITERION OF ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM"
McCullough - Sakamoto
Lecture No. 5

Since the Meiji Era, the elementary education in Japan has been developed gradually, prolonging the school years to six and enriching its curriculum. In 1947 when the new school system was put into force, the elementary school made a new start, providing the curriculum as follows.

Subject \ Grade	1	2	3	4	5	6
Language	175	210	210	245	210-245	210-280
Social Studies	140	140	175	175	175-210	175-210
Arithmetic	105	140	140	140-175	140-175	140-175
Science	70	70	70	70-105	70-105	70-105
Music	70	70	70	70-105	70-105	70-105
Fine Arts	105	105	105	70-105	70	70
Practical Arts					105	105
Physical Education	105	105	105	105	105	105
Free Study				70-140	70-140	70-140
TOTAL	770	840	875	980-1050	1050-1190	1050-1190

This new curriculum, allocating the school hours to graded subjects, is different from the former ones in the following points:

1. The purpose and objectives of the elementary education are set forth by the law in accordance with the new constitution.
2. New subjects such as social studies, "free study", were put into the curriculum.
3. Each subject tends to be a "Broad Field" subject (social studies, science fine arts.)
4. The "Course of study" for each subject has been settled and published.
5. The table of the new curriculum offers the minimum essentials of the curriculum decided by schools and teachers.

Lecture No. 6

1. Subject

Subject matter usually meant knowledge and information which is stored up in books and courses of study. A somewhat broader view implies that it is all of the accumulated experience of the race, social heritage, that is useful for education.

Traditionally, the body of knowledge which it has been thought desirable for children to learn has been divided into certain areas. Computation facts and problems distilled from total experience have come to form a subject area known as arithmetic. It is one element in experience which has been separated from experience for the sake of isolated inspection.

Subject is a logical system of knowledge and art, accepted traditionally, with a little bit of psychological consideration.

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However, there are advantages to this isolation. It helps the teacher see the sequence of ideas that must be learned in a given field. There is a clarity of relationship among the ideas of an isolated logical sequence.

Because of the advantages of this isolation, subject matters are often presented to teachers in isolated areas; a course of study on each subject. Text books have been written to present the subject matter in a certain area.

This isolated view of the components of experience has given rise to the subject presentation of the curriculum, that is, subject curriculum.

Daily schedules, which present various subjects at given times still prevail. The disadvantages of this direct translation of the courses of study to the classroom situation are obvious. The continual interruption of though from one short period to another, with no relationship between the subjects, is wasteful of time. The subjects, distilled from life, lose their touch with life. The learnings, unrealistically presented and never used, are readily forgotten. From fragment of experience to fragment, the child has no opportunity to develop feelings about the things he studies, through his own activities. So, the course of study, which is a helpful presentation of material to the adult logician, has been the innocent means of much shortsighted programming and ineffectual teaching.

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File No. E-50

CURRICULUM

2 December 1948

ORGANIZATION OF SUBJECT MATTER
Lectures Nos. 7-8
McCullough Sakamoto

1. COURSE OF STUDY

In Japan, "Course of Study" for each subject was issued by the Mombusho for the first time, in 1947-1948, with a subtitle "tentative plan." Before that time, only very incomplete presentations of the subject matter organization for some subjects were offered, and the textbook for each subject served as the substitute "course of study."

In America, several types of "Courses of Study" are published. The older type is often confined to the brief and logical outline of prescribed subject matter. The newer one, often called a "Teachers' Guide" includes philosophy, general and specific aims, suggested learning activities, teaching methods and so forth.

In most of the Japanese courses of study (translated as "Fundamentals of Learning Guidance") both types are curiously combined, rather in confusion. And now, the revision of the "Courses of Study" is being prepared.

Another point, in which Japan differs from America, is that they are issued by the national government only, and offer the minimum essentials for the curriculum of each school.

However, agencies for the curriculum problem on the levels of prefectural and local Boards may be able to issue teachers' guides, including minimum essentials above mentioned. It is hoped these publications which meet the needs of the children and community will afford great advantages to improve the curriculum.

The course of study may be planned logically, but must be organized psychologically. It must include useful learnings which will be of interest to children. And it must be based upon maturity. Chronological age, mental ability, health, experience and the like affect the children's learning.

The task of the course of study is to adjust itself to the varied needs of children and to offer the variations in programs to meet individual differences.

The task of the teacher in using the course of study is to study his children to determine their maturity and stages of development, and suit the course of study to these natures and these stages. In no class will a teacher find children uniformly ready for learning.

As it will be seen later, organized bodies of subject matter in the course of study will be used as resource areas in the modern curriculum.

2. OTHER ORGANIZATIONS OF THE CURRICULUM (EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES)

The curriculum embraces a large body of learnings which are organized in various ways:

a. School Club. The school club is usually centered around an interest, such as music, art, science, dramatics. In some schools, membership is voluntary and the meetings are held after the regular school day. In other schools, the club is considered an important part of every child's experiences. A part of the regular school day is set aside. In the clubs, the children have experiences in democratic organization and method as well as certain subject matter learning.

b. Class Club. This is merely the organization of the class as a club devoted to consideration of a certain interest. For instance, once a week the library club may meet. This organization may be undertaken as soon as the children are able to read independently, even in the first year.

c. The Student Government Organization. The Student Council, composed of representatives from every classroom, acts as a legislative group, considering problems in the school and acting upon those problems. The meetings,