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Lee

Some advanced educational practices and techniques in public schools that are applicable to the Navy graining program.



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SOME ADVANCED EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES AND TECHNICUES IN FUBLIC SCHOOLS THAT ARE APPLICABLE TO THE MAY TRAINING PROGRAM

A Problem

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Master of Education

By

CHARLES EUGENE LEE, A. B. The Ohio State University 1952



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CHAPTER I

FORSCARD.

A. Explanation of Problem

A glance at the title of this problem might give the impression that "Some Advanced Educational Fractices and Techniques in Public Schools that are Applicable to the Mavy Training Program" is a broad, all encompassing subject. This could very easily be the case. Understanding the limitations of time and available resources, however, I have necessarily tailored the problem to meet the situation at hand. By this, I mean I have chosen for detailed elaboration two specific educational practices that have been developed with beneficial results in public schools. These practices, I believe, can be applied to the Nevy training program with just as positive results. There are other practices and techniques in public schools that also seem to have possible worth if applied to Navy instruction. Without meaning to depreciate their value, I will treat several of them in a brief summary fashion, with recommendation that they be the subject of further study.

The major civilian educational practices that I have chosen to elaborate upon are: First, "In-Service Teacher Training Techniques", or what may be more familiarly known as methods that have THE RELEASE DESCRIPTION AND THE PROPERTY AND THE PROPERTY

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ment and I desired subspaces? Amely the may expend of what product spirits adventure, Amely the may expend of your destruction of ment plantifest from 60 and 400 on Amely been adopted by some public schools which seem to have helped to improve the quality of instruction of both experienced as well as inexperienced teachers. Secondly, "Guidance Functions of the Instructor", or how an instructor through guidance activities can help each student make the best possible adjustment vocationally, socially, and scholastically.

The topics which I will treat in a summary fashion are "Improvement of Study Skille", "Creative Activity Program", and "Administrative Improvements".

B. Reason for Selecting Problem

The reason I selected this problem is primarily that I believe a closer lisison can be established between the Havy training program and its civilian counterpart, whereby new methods and techniques of instruction that have been utilized with beneficial results will be freely exchanged between the two educational systems. Being a Maval officer, I am naturally interested in a continuous development of the Mayy training program so as to insure the highest possible quality of instruction and thus the best trained men. There are no doubt many improved methods and technicuss of instruction presently in use in the Naval training progrem that could be (but aren't) fully utilised in public schools with just as beneficial results. On the other hand, the opposite is no doubt just as true. After various associations with a number of public schools as well as Naval training schools, I have come to the conclusion that the Navy could, in particular, benefit to a considerable extent by adopting certain applicable methas display they are produced with a state of the beginning of the state of the stat

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"He reason I selected this problem is reductly that I have then a given things on hi whithout below me larg nainthe progress and his abdillan committee, showing and has recepture and serial vill in finite enduced become no be wheather grement delice a standard principal and expension for a printiple of the standard printiple of the broad of its on property product great std by desculated popular good note medi into confidencianal, his coldinare believes absolute with wind for station beyond you Also, to his your soil soil builded eres printed head of all our of chances pathweits to smale plants atteny at beatter which triums had of their fast area with your to been placed printing. On the closer hand, the expedien -man a visit traditalesma product build, street to steel tribill be all bey of golding an health an input harpital and admini actions to well most do the semilarity that they making his particular test of most within an including a feature and their telephone and their selfeds and techniques from public schools in the fields of inservice teacher training and guidance-counseling of students. I believe that we also have much to learn from public schools concerning other improved methods of instruction as well, such as those that I will treat in a summary fashion.

It is because of these reasons that I have chosen this topic for investigation, with the hope that if this study does nothing else, it will at least initiate critical self-evaluations of the methods of instruction currently in use in the Naval training program, with the view to utilizing every available source for bringing about continuous improvements wherever necessary.

C. Applicability of the Practices and Techniques

To second guess the obvious question "How do I know that these recommended practices and techniques can be applied to the Navy training program?" I can only say that it seems to me that basically, the problems involved in teaching or training young people are the same whether or not they wear a uniform. The individual's basic needs of belonging, achievement, security, affection, physical well being, independence of thought, and freedom from fear and guilt all must be provided for by any education program if the maximum potential of the individual is to be realized. It is primarily to assist in accomplishing this mission that many public schools have undertaken extensive programs in the fields of in-service training for teachers and guidance. However, at the same time I realize that in Mavy instruction more so than in civil-

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It is become of them reasons that I have comes told legals for breath-raise, with the tops west if this skeep over protest size, it will st burst indicate ordinate self-evaluations of the relation of the relation of the contest of believed in the breath states are great with the whole of building owers weatherthe source has branched continued to utilize a secret recovery.

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 ian education, uniformity of educational objectives and a greater degree of personal discipline is necessary. In addition, in the Navy the cereer of an instructor is relatively short. Therefore, I have considered these conditions in selecting the practices and techniques that are presented in this study.

D. Resources

To obtain data for this thesis I have utilized various published materials, personal interviews with both civilian and Navy authorities in the field of education, and finally, actual observations of a number of civilian and Navy classroom situations.

The published materials from which I have gained much varied and valuable information are listed in the Bibliography.

I owe a great deal of gratitude to various civilian and Newy educational authorities (in particular, Dr. Alice Z. Seeman, Dr. C. B. Mendenhall, Dr. Paul H. Klohr, and Mr. John G. Odgers), for all of the valuable information and advice, without which I would have been unable to prepare this study.

In order to see words translated into action and to witness first hand what is actually being accomplished primarily in the fields of in-service training and guidance, I made a series of personal visits to the following public schools and NavaXl training establishments:

1. Civilian Schools

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2. Naval Training Establishments

Naval Training Center, Great Laines, Illinois

C.I.C. School, NAS Glenview, Illinois

U. S. School for Instructors, Naval Station, Norfolk, Va.
Naval Supply Corps School, Naval Station, Bayanne, N. J.
Naval Training Center, Bainbridge, Nd.

Naval Training Station, Newport, R. I. (Storekeeper, Class A School)

Naval Submarine Base, New London, Ct. (Enlisted Basic Submarine School)

Lastly, I have called upon my own experience and background as an officer in the Navy, as a former secondary school teacher in California (admittedly for a brief period of time), and as a former student both in public as well as Navy schools.

E. Related Studies

There are to my knowledge no studies on the exact subject of this problem. However, numerous studies have been made dealing with the subject of in-service teacher training and guidance both in the field of civilian education as well as Navy training, but not combining the two.

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CHAPTER II

IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING TECHNIQUES

A. Definition

In-service teacher training techniques consist of a variety of methods that have one principal purpose, that is, improving the quality of instruction of both experienced and inexperienced teachers. Stating it in another way these consist of a variety of activities that help a teacher to become more effective, to grow on the job and be a better teacher in the classroom.

Basically, all of these activities provide a means of tiving each participating teacher the advantage of the wisdom and experience of others and the interchange of ideas among those of different backgrounds, experiences and teaching situations.

B. Why In-Service Training is Needed

Why is in-service training necessary? Why, once a teacher is trained for his job, isn't that enough? Why can't he do something about improving his own proficiency as a teacher without the creation of an organised training program or activities?

One answer to the first two of these questions became very clear to me as a result of my recent associations with the Naval training program. The formalized training for a Navy instructor consists of only six weeks. It is true that these instructors

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are primarily petty officers with often many years of practical experience in the specialized fields in which most of them will be teaching. But it is common knowledge that although knowing your subject is a primary characteristic of a good teacher, that this quality alone will not make him a good teacher. Therefore, even more so than civilian schools whose teachers receive many years of intensive teacher training, it came to me that an organized, effective in-service training program is a must for the Navy in order to make up for the limited time allowed for training the instructor. I believe that the problem in the Havy is even more critical now than it has been since the end of World War II. With the increase in the numbers of men being trained as a result of the international situation, sufficient numbers of previously trained and experienced instructors to do the job are not available. This necessitates an in-service teacher training program to not only add to the necessary brief training of the new instructors, but to assist the seasoned instructors as well to be better teachers.

Most of these thoughts concerning the necessity for an inservice training program in the Navy seem to apply to the nontechnical knowledge required of a good teacher. But what about the necessity for a Navy instructor to keep abreast of the everchanging technical developments in modern warfare? Here again is another argument for an in-service training program.

Looking at public schools for their answers to these questions, many such schools have long recognised the need for a training program to help teachers improve their effectiveness

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and to "grow on the job". Public schools also have been affected by international conditions which have created a situation similar to that of World War II. This situation is one of obtaining a sufficient number of adequately trained teachers, and an in-service teacher training program seems to be the best means of improving the quality of instruction so that every teacher counts. Also similar to the military being faced with ever-changing technical methods of warfare, our civilian schools are faced with the responsibility of preparing the young people to better equip themselves to meet the demands of our ever-changing society. This means our teachersmust change with the times, not only in respect to their knowledge of subject matter but their teaching methods as well. These are primarily the reasons why in public schools in-service training is necessary and why the original training a teacher receives cannot be considered all that is needed.

As for an answer to the question, why is an organized training program necessary—why can't the teacher do something on his own to improve his proficiencies, I believe most teachers are aware of their shortcomings as teachers and of the problems that they are faced with in their classrooms. They have a personal desire to do something about them, but unfortunately they do not know whom to turn to help them out of these difficulties. Therefore, the concensus of opinion in civilian education seems to be that it is the responsibility of each school's administrative staff to provide an in-service training

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program. A program designed so that teachers and the administrative staff can work together in a cooperative manner in finding satisfactory solutions to their common problems.

lastly, there apparently are teachers who either are complacent with their teaching, or do not realize that they have either shortcomings as teachers or problems in their classrooms. Here again the responsibility, it appears, should rest with the administrative staff to provide opportunities for these teachers to become aware of their needs and problems and them help them do something about them.

Based upon these considerations many public schools throughout the United States have established extensive inservice training programs which appear to have contributed a great deal towards helping the teacher improve on the job. In many respects our Mavy training is similar to civilian education. Therefore, it might be well to take a look at some of the techniques used by public schools in their in-service teacher training programs to see if they can be applied with positive results to the Mavy training program as well.

C. Characteristics of In-Gervice Training

Before we examine the various techniques of in-service training that have been utilized by civilian schools, it might be well to explore a little further what should be their common characteristics which unfortunately not all so called "in-service techniques" live up to:

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1. Every teacher improvement activity should have if nothing else, the sission of being concerned with the real problems of the individual teacher that have arisen from his needs in his own classroom situation. To ensure that the individual teacher's problems are the primary "reasons for being", teachers should take an important part in the planning and carrying out of the teacher training progrem. In particular, they should participate in selecting the areas to be studied in any teacher training program. As Dr. Klohr so appropriately states it, "this recognizes the importance of active participation on the part of the learner if a change in his behavior is to result, also the 'public commitment' on the part of the individual is one of the highly significant factors in his subsequent feeling of obligation to change his thinking and his behavior." By basing the program on the tencher's problems does not mean, however, to exclude from an in-corvice training program other problems also of mutual concern to the school's administration and the outside community as well. I'm speaking of such problems which are not directly related to the classroom situation as those dealing with hiring of new staff personnel, salaries, retirement, leave, public relations, etc. Some of these, of course, would not be applicable to the Navy training program (such as salaries and retirement).

Richr, P. H. "Midyear Study Flam", Chio Schools, 29 (Mey, 1951), p. 199.

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Others, however, seem to be worthy of cooperative consideration by both the school's administration as well as the teaching staff. It should be remembered that a successful teacher training program is one that includes all of the administrative and teacher personnel of a school as well as representatives from the outside community that are concerned with the management of the school. In the Navy such a program should include not only representatives from the various bureaus in the Navy Department, but from the fleet and activities of the shore establishment as well who are all vitally interested in the products of the training program.

- 2. It is not enough, however, that concrete problems of the teacher be selected for study, for in addition positive action should be taken to solve these problems. This is necessary even if changes in the organisation and procedures of the school must be made as a result of conclusions reached and recommendations made in the training program. By this, I mean that an in-service training program will be defeated from the start unless decisions reached by cooperative action on part of both the administration and the staff of teachers are put into effect. The teachers must have a feeling of accomplishment as a result of their training activities, if their interest is to be maintained.
- An in-service training program should not be a sporadic activity called into existance only at times then the ad-

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- ministration thinks it is needed. It should include activities that function continuously, that ensure constant efforts on the part of all teachers to work with each other and the administration as well as with outside sources of help in cooperatively solving mutual problems. Furthermore, participation in the program should be on a voluntary rather than a compulsory basis.
- 4. Every effort should be taken to see that the in-service training activities are not of the passive, talking-listening type (such as lectures), but an active, doing-learning process. Teachers should realise that this is not a program of "busy work", but that their help is needed to bring about improvements in the quality and methods of instruction and organisation of the school.
- 5. It should be remembered before initiating an in-service training activity that most teachers are very busy people and that they won't welcome new activities if these will result in increasing their daily burdens. Therefore, to assure the success of a teacher training program from the start, besides making each teacher realise that it is his activity to help him solve his problems, it is necessary to schedule the program to take place during part of the working day, or allow time off for participation in away from school activities. This may also require hiring additional teachers so as to allow for redistributing the normal work-load so that the training activities do not

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- add another burden to the already heavy teacher schedule.
- 6. All teacher training activities should be based upon the principle of equality. A give and take relationship among participents should be developed so that regardless of position (or rate or rank) everyone participates with an informal, friendly, cooperative spirit aimed at the one purpose of solving mutual problems. Care must be taken to avoid the feeling of insecurity or the fear of reprisal on the part of anyone engaged in the training activity.
- 7. Teacher training activities should help to promote both physical and mental health on the part of the teaching and administrative staff. A principal requirement of a good teacher, that he be in excellent physical health and have a well-edjusted personality should be one of the primary aims of any training program. Social and recreational activities thus are important elements in any such program.
- 8. In order to accomplish the maximum possible results, training in techniques of group discussion and planning should be part of any teacher training program. This is essential if the participants are able to come to common agreements.
- Adequate professional consultants and clerical help are necessary to assist the various training activities in accomplishing their purposes. In addition, skilled lead-

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- ership should be provided to assist the participents in learning the skills of organizing and working with groups and developing cooperative thinking, planning and action.
- The administration of the school should keep in the back-30. ground, so as to encourage teacher initiative and not give the teachers the idea that they are merely doing the supervisors work for them. This does not mean, however, that the administration should keep out of the picture entirely. On the contrary, for they have the responsibility of premoting and coordinating activities and putting into effect the results of the work. As is so aptly stated by Professor K. W. Biselow, the success of an inservice training program greatly depends upon the administration in that "teachers are trusted and respected are encouraged to work together ... and there exists a favorable administration attitude toward experimentation and recognition of individual differences among teachers that check the tendency to impose uniformity of practice."2 Finally, the administration of the school should develop a wide variety of follow-up activities based on the teacher training program, so as to assure the continuance of professional improvement.
- The school's administration not only should help defray the expenses incurred by individual teachers as a result

²Bigelow, Karl W. "In-Service Teacher Education Implications for Administration and Support", Childhood Education, 22 (Jan., 1946) P. 230.

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of attending various teacher training activities, but also should give promotions and salary increases as inducements for teachers who take part in these activities. As far as the Navy is concerned the ability of the administration to offer some of these inducements no doubt will be limited. However, through the proper use of per diem orders and promoting deserving teachers to more responsible and desirable positions, a great deal can be accomplished to encourage participation in teacher improvement activities.

- 12. Adequate physical facilities and materials required in the school itself are necessary in order to encourage an effective in-service training program. These include source material, training aids, reference materials, textbooks, equipment and the physical plant of the school as well.
- 13. The administration should help to promote the entire teacher training program through a "public relations program" so as to develop an awareness on the part of laymon and professional educators of the absolute necessity of better education to meet the demands of our modern society. In the Navy this means that our training program should engage in a program designed to acquaint the entire Navy establishment with the need for such a program and thus solicit support from all Naval activities in order to make the teacher training program a success.

If the above essential characteristics of an in-service training program are ensured by the school's administration, one of the greatest obstacles to the success of such a program will be overcome.

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That is, how to get teachers to develop a real interest in self improvement.

D. Techniques of In-Service Training

Now it seems high time that we take a look at the various techniques or methods that are normally included in an in-service teacher training program. These methods can be classified as individual techniques and group techniques. As the names imply, individual techniques are usually thought of as activities that the individual teacher participates in to bring himself up to a standard or to gain advanced degrees. Group techniques, on the other hand, are more institutional in character which attract teachers not so much as individuals but as members of a school system, a team to solve mutual problems. It should be noted that this is a loose classification, for many of the activities can be on both an individual as well as a group basis.

Individual Techniques

Summer School Courses
University Extension Courses
Professional Reading and Research
Writing for Professional Journals
Purposeful Traval
Observation Lessons-Visiting other Glassrooms, Demonstration Schools
Community Service- Public Relations
Creative Activities (art, dramatics, literature, music)
Hembership in Professional Organizations
Lecturing at other Schools, Community Organizations, etc.
Supervising and Assisting other Teachers

Group Techniques

(Summer) Workshops Conferences-Curriculum Revision, Instruction Improvement, Work Teachers! (Faculty) Meetings Teachers! Institutes The Co. of the Second Sec

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In the chapter to follow several of these listed techniques will be examined in detail. Those selected are considered to be ones that seem to be particularly applicable for adoption by the Nevel training program.

B. Establishing an In-Service Training Program.

The essential steps in establishing an in-service training program will naturally vary somewhat with the types of activities concerned. More detailed descriptions of these steps will be included in the several chapters on those specific teacher training techniques considered applicable to the Navy training program. It might be valuable, however, to outline the more general steps peculiar to establishing most group teacher training activities. These can be summarized as follows.

1. Strong administrative support.

2. Central planning cosmittee.

3. Development of study groups based on teacher interests and problems.

L. Hambasis on voluntary participation and cooperative group

procedures.

Provision of consultant assistance from both within and outside the school system.

Although most of the above have been described at greater length in the previous section, it might be well to reiterate some of the more important points.

The first requirement in establishing an in-service training program is that the school's administration recognize the importance of promoting a local program of in-service education, under-

³Bigelow, op. cit., p. 228.

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printed advanced in publishing at transferred tests off rough and independ address to the afficient and sold ad assume within publishing addressed to adopted found a publishing to food stand that improvement of the teaching and administrative conditions in the school requires group action, and that it is not enough to rely upon separate efforts of individual teachers to increese their competence, but that maximum participation in local group planning should be sought.

The first actual step is the setting up of a central planning committee. This committee has the responsibility of stimulating interest in the in-service training program and coordinating the work of the various study groups upon which the entire program should be based. In addition, the planning committee has the responsibility for making all of the necessary arrangements prior to the commencement of the training program, including the provision of the all-important consultant assistance from both within and without the school system. The planning committee should include representatives of all departments in the school, with large enough membership to ensure the participation of individuals with as broad experience as possible in the various methods of inservice training.

The actual core of the process of establishing an in-service training program is the study groups. It is here that the felt needs of the teachers are brought to light. The mambership should be voluntary, and probably based on the interests of the teachers rather than grade levels or subjects, in order to ensure a heterogeneous body of teachers with different backgrounds and experiences.

E. Evaluating the Results of an In-Service Training Program

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The process of evaluating the results of the various methods of in-service training will be treated at greater length in the chapter to follow. However, it might be well to consider in a general way what the various evaluation studies seem to indicate insofar as the value of an in-service training program is concerned.

Most of the evaluation studies have been based on questionmaires and attitude inventories made out by teachers who have participated in in-service training activities, and observation reperts on the teachers concerned. These observation reports usually are made out by qualified, supposedly unbiased observers such
as supervisors, principals and individuals who have no relationship with the teacher or school concerned. At best most of these
evaluation methods assume that teacher growth can be prinarily
attributed to in-service training. However, the much more involved but more accurate case history method, in which a close
study of an individual teacher over a prolonged period of time is
made both before and after in-service training is received, appears
to be the most reliable method of determining whether or not a
teacher's personality and teaching methods have changed directly
as a result of an in-service training program.

In general the consensus of the evaluation studies is that presumably as a result of in-service training the following changes in teachers frequently take place:

 New courses are developed and old ones modified in the direction of pupil's present needs and interests. The prisons of rectanting the sounds of the business and related to the of the position building in the sounds of the sounds of the sound to the sou

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- Such methods of teaching as individual conferences between student and teacher, group discussions, and student participation in planning and carrying out the work to be done in class, are adopted.
- 3. Teachers become much more guidance minded—concerned with the individual student, his needs and problems.
- Courses are modified in the direction of utilizing current materials for instruction and being concerned with presentday social issues and problems.
- A more democratic, cooperative atmosphere is developed in the classrooms between students and the teacher, as well as between individual students.
- 6. Much more cooperation is apparent between teachers themselves and between teachers and the sministrative staff in solving problems of mutual concern. Teachers take a more active part in faculty meetings and in participating in school committees.
- New evaluation procedures are devised to determine whether or not teachers are doing a good job.
- There is marked departure from the restrictive textbook style of teaching and greater use of supplementary teaching devices such as periodicals, audio-visual aids, field trips, work experience, and pupil activities.
- Improved spirit and morale of the teachers and an increased interest, pride and satisfaction in their profession often result.
- 10. Improved personal adjustments on the part of the teachers frequently occur, such as getting along better with students, other teachers, and the administrative staff; developing new and greater inherests in both their school life as well as outside activities; and attaining greater prestige, recognition and responsibility in their work.

Perhaps not all of the above can be attributed solely to an in-service training program, but it seems reasonable to believe that such a program has been very valuable in most instances in furthering both personal and professional advancements on the part of the participating teacher.

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CHAPTER III

IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING TECHNIQUES APPLICABLE TO THE BAVY TRAINING PEDGRAM

A. Workshops

1. What is a Workshop?

There has been a recent development in civilian education which seems to have produced outstanding results in the
training of teachers and this is what is called the workshop. Other names are commonly used as well, such as summer workshops, clinics, institutes, working conferences, etc.,
but they can be considered basically the same as long as
they embody the general principle of the workshop. That is,
an informal meeting of teachers and education experts to work
out on a cooperative basis solutions to problems that the
teachers had brought with them from their teaching situations.

Diederich and Van Til give a concise yet complete definition of the workshop in their valuable booklet, The Workshop.
They state that a summer workshop is a summer school with no
courses, no textbooks and no examinations. That this school
is not concerned with theoretical problems but the practical
problems of the teacher participants. These problems include
such things as developing classroom materials for a new course,

Diederich, P. B. and Van Til, W., The Workshop. New York: Hinds, Hayden, and Eddridge, 1945. p. 1.

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selecting and building tests, or learning what can be done in school about the emotional problems of maladjusted students. As a result, there are usually groups working on various types of core courses, guidance problems, evaluations, units in the major subject fields, the use of radio and movies in education, and utilizing community resources. One or more staff members (specialist advisors) are assigned to each group. Time is spent in individual conferences with the staff members, for work on special problems, for work in arts and crafts, for trips into the community, for general meetings, for staff meetings and for recreation.

From this brief description it is possible to get a general idea of what a workshop is, what it attempts to do and how it operates. However, it might be well to examine at greater length the characteristics and organization of workshops as well as look into their accomplishments before any opinions are voiced as to whether they could be utilized to advantage in the Navy training program.

2. Characteristics of Workshops

From several responsible authorities the more detailed characteristics of workshops are listed as follows: 2 3 4

Aprall, C. E. & Cushmen, C. L. Teacher Education in Service. Washingtons American Council on Education, 1944. 503 pp.

Diederich, op. cit., p. 7.
Reaton, K. L., et al Professional Education for Experienced Teachers:
The Program of the Jumes workshop. Chicago: University of Chicago
Frees, 1940. 142 pp.

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- a. The program of the workshop is based upon the specific problems, needs and interests of the individual teacher participant. These and new problems that emerge as a result of group thinking and staff suggestions form the basis of individual and group activities planned by the group.
- b. Specifically trained staff personnel provide consultive services, learning aids and pertinent reading materials. While the staff's work must be based upon the problems of the participants, their work should not be passive—they should advise, stimulate, contribute and suggest.
- e. Flexible, informal, and cooperative relationships with other teachers and staff personnel, with all kinds of backgrounds are encouraged in order to stimulate the individual teacher's thinking, to breaden him professionally, and to give him experience in cooperative activities. By sharing in interests as well as in cooperative action vectored in the direction of solving common problems, the aim is that the participants will recognize how their teaching at home should be carried on.
- d. Every effort is made to stimulate the thinking of the participant so that he thinks in terms of the growth and development of the whole student, the whole community and the whole school.
- e. Experiences with professional problems other than just

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those of the immediate concern to the individual teacher are provided.

f. The entire workshop atmosphere is one of balanced living for the perticipant both in the group and individually. That is, a healthy combination of work and recreation is encouraged.

3. Typical Organisation

Naturally the organisation of a workshop will depend upon its membership and their problems and interests, the staff, the sponsoring activities and the available facilities. However, by and large, the organisations of most of the workshops have a great deal in common. These common elements might be considered as follows:

a. Pre-planning—usually a special pre-planning committee is organized by the school system consisting of the superintendent of the system, the principals and representative teachers from the various schools. This committee first canvances all of the teachers as well as the administrative staff personnel as to their individual problems. Also in some instances civic activities and professional organizations are asked to contribute suggested problems. The problems then are grouped into problem areas to be included in the proposed workshop program. These in turn are presented for consideration at the faculty meetings of the various schools. Then the pre-planning committee selects a

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director for the workshop and assists him in choosing a staff and determining from the problem areas, approved by the faculty meetings, which ones should be stressed. At this time the workshop director and his staff prepare a proposed workshop agenda which is circulated to the classroom teachers, principals and school administration personnel for suggested modifications prior to final preparation. By this seemingly involved but essential method, the teachers and administrative staffs come to regard the workshop as an opportunity for them to do something about what they feel to be their personal and felt needs combined with the needs of the school system. One thing is important and that is, although pre-planning is necessary, there should never be a single feature of the workshop which shouldn't be changed at any time if considered necessary as a result of the vote of the entire membership. It is also necessary, however, that mechanical, routine decisions be usually delegated to the workshop director and his staff or the workshop committee so as not to waste the time of the entire group. Membership-the typical workshop of an average school system usually consists of from between 75 and 150 participants made up of staff members of the component schools (both teachers and administrative personnel). In addition, outside participants (specialists) often amount to approximately 20 in number. These figures are used only for purposes of illustration, since the

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numbers of teachers and administrative personnel, as well as specialists will vary according to the situation. It is generally agreed, however, that the teachers attending the workshop should come with clearly conceived problems and interests which have arisen from their actual teaching situations, and who expect to put into practice what is determined as a result of their workshop experience. Generally, as part of the admissions procedure, teachers requesting permission for admission to the workshop have been requested to outline in advance one or more projects to which they desire to devote a major portion of their time at the workshop. This information is desired so as to "firm up" in each teacher's mind what he hopes to accomplish. It is also needed to allow for screening of delegates so that there is a degree of common interests in order that it won't be too difficult to provide for them. Data included in a typical workshop application blank is as follows:5

- Present position and nature of work performed in school by the applicant.
- (2) Educational training, including the institutions, dates of attendance, fields of major interests, and degrees.

⁵Heaton, K. L., et al. Professional Education for Experienced Teachers: The Program of the Summer Norkshop. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. 142pp.

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- (3) Teaching experience, including institutions, position and length of service.
- (4) A description of the problem or interest on which there is a desire to work, including a brief discussion of the purpose, the general nature of the problem, and the anticipated first steps in attacking the problem.
- (5) A statement as to how the workshop can help in attacking the problem, assistance that will be needed from the staff, special materials required and special experiences which it is thought would be helpful.
- (6) A discussion of how the results of work on the problem will actually be put to use in the applicant's school.
- c. The Staff—the staff includes members of the teaching and administrative staffs of the component schools who with the workshop chairman form his staff. In addition there usually are specialist advisors from outside the school system. It is a wise idea to have as much diversity in the staff as possible, for it is important that specialists be available in all general areas that the participants problems fall in. In general, there should be specialists in at least the following major areas:
 - (1) Nature and needs of young people and methods of counseling students.

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- (2) Philosophy of education, that is, what are the aims and purposes of education.
- (3) Evaluation of the effectiveness of educational programs in promoting growth.
- (4) Creative and recreational activities.

 It is recommended that a large number of the above specialists be drawn from outside the school system. This is necessary in order to obtain as many new ideas and viewpoints as possible. It is usually a good idea for the staff to spend several days in conference prior to the opening of the workshop in order to acquaint themselves with the information on each delegate's application; to discuss the aims and methods of cooperative group action; to clearly establish the functions of each of the staff members in respect to the total workshop program; and to take care of the miscellaneous detail necessary for a smooth operation of the workshop.
- d. Sponsorship—it is invaluable to have the workshop cosponsored on an equal partnership basis by the school system and a teachers college or university. By this means, there will result a continuous interchange of information between the two educational institutions. In addition, the consultive services available at collegiate institutions are considered of utmost importance in meeting the resource demands of the workshop.
- e. Setting and Facilities most workshops have found it

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beneficial to house the workshop personnel (both staff and delegates) together as a group. If this is not possible, at least group dining accommodations, lounging quarters, recreational facilities and other means of promoting informal "get-togethers" should be provided. In regard to the working facilities, it is also desirable to have the working spaces and living accommodations near to each other. The working spaces should include staff offices: desks or study tables for students: rooms for small group meetings, committees, sub-group and guidance conferences; space and seating accommodations for the general meetings of the whole workshop group; space and equipment for library materials and reference work; lounging rooms; studio and shop space; and a typing room with typing and duplicating equipment and materials. Care should be taken to avoid the usual classroom lecture-room type of atmosphere. Since all types of reference material are an absolute necessity (not only books and periodicals, but instructional aids as well), the workshop should be immediately accessible to a general university library or a subdivision of one set up for the specific purpose of serving the workshop. Of equal importance to the library facilities, are the arts laboratory (for art work, music, drama, etc.). the demonstration class, recreational facilities, and facilities for social events.

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- Individual Advisory Conferences-at the very heart of the workshop program is the conference of the teacher delegate with his adviser. These conferences take up about a half an hour of each day for the delegate (and several hours of each staff member's day). These are held whenever the dalegate needs help or desires an evaluation of the progress he has made on his particular project. Often a regular two-hour period each day is set aside for adviser's conferences. These conferences are cooperative in nature, usually dealing with clarifying an outline or issues, selecting pertinent references for future reading, broadening the delegate's knowledge concerning a general educational concept (e.g., teaching should be concerned with the "whole" student), and discussing ways to solve problems relative to the establishment of a new program of instruction.
- g. Individual Activities—the workshop is not intended to be exclusively a place where delegates come for group meetings and conferences, for normally much time is also spent in individual reading, thinking over one's problems and writing about their possible solutions, and work in individual, creative and recreational activities.
- h. Group Activities—the usual workshop program consists of a wide variety of group activities of which some representative ones are:

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- Major Work Groups there are two general types of major work groups;
 - (a) Specialized Work Groups—these consist of a group of teachers of a particular subject which usually meets several times a week to talk over special problems in their specialized field, to develop materials which will be of value in teaching the particular subject, and to share in experiences which may be of value to the whole group.
 - Method Work Groups-these consist of teachers whose interests and problems are not primarily concerned with a specific subject, but are related to the broader area of method. Such subjects are usually considered as using the community as a teaching resource, common interests in child development, etc. Even though particination in all groups should be voluntary, it has been generally found that by encouraging teachers to join both types of groups, a degree of "cross fertilization" is obtained. That is, method groups which cut across subject lines often are most stimulating and valuable since they result in thinking about broader problems

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The all important criteria in organizing these groups is that they should be concerned with the common interests and needs of the individual teachers that participate in them and they should be dissolved and new groups formed whenever it is necessary to meet new or changing needs. It has been usually the case, however, that most major work groups which are formed the first week of the session continue with practically the same membership throughout the entire workshop period. One way of seeing that the group is concerned with the common interests and problems of its members is to have each teacher participant outline his problem before the group and receive recommendations as to how to meet his problem. After each participant has had the chance to do tis, the group should concentrate more on common interests with occasional brief reports as to the progress of individual members on their related, special problems.

(2) Request or Special Interest Groups—besides the major work groups there are usually a number of informal groups that exist for shorter periods over institute at tradition of these

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- of time. These are disbanded when the special problem that concern the members has been solved. A wide variety of problems are normally involved ranging from problems of educational philosophy and psychology to those of curriculum planning, evaluation of student's growth, etc.
- (3) General Neetings-these are meetings for all workshop members who desire to attend. In these meetings normally visiting educators or staff members hold large consultation sessions or give lectures, followed by informal group or panel discussions, on subjects of major concern to all teachers. These general meetings have been reduced in number in actual practice, but still seem to have value for the purpose of introducing new problems, discussing problems common to the entire workshop, and giving information concerning available resources such as special assistance that can be offered by regular or visiting staff members. Care should be taken, however, to ensure that these general meetings include a maximum amount of delegate participation so that the activity does not degenerate into a "talkfest" rather than a workshop.
- (4) School and School District Groups—these are groups made up of teachers and administrative

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- personnel from one school or a school district.

 They are mainly concerned with problems and interests of local concern. These group conferences help the perticipents in tackling problems relative to needed improvements in their own overall school situation.
- (5) Informal Group Activities—these include a variety of creative and recreational activities, a number of which have already been listed. Several hours each day are usually set aside before dinner including Saturd - afternoons an all day Sundays for these informal activities. Some of these are recreational in nature, such as various group athletics. Some deal with group creative activities ("little theatre" groups, dancing, poetry, singing, etc.). Others are educational in nature, such as educational motion pictures, recorded radio broadcasts, and surveys of community resources (points of interest of educational value). Social occasions, such as the theatre, "bull sessions", and group dining are also very much a part of any workshop program. As stated by K. L. Heaton, "an arts and recreation program is a necessity as a balance to the purely intellectual activity. It is a force making for sanity and balance. It is a balance factor to the verbal toxemia produced by six

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- weeks of intense discussion, research, and production of written materials."
- (6) Program Planning and Staff Conferences-these conferences are a necessity if the workshop is to have an effective program. They usually consist of weekly or twice-weekly meetings of the staff and selected delegates to plan important aspects of the workshop program. This planning is in addition to the initial preparatory plans of the preplanning stage and the planning sessions of the other groups. The responsibility of the program planning conferences is to establish a daily schedule based on the general plans made by the workshop as a whole. Such scheduling is included as hours to assign for a demonstration class, a field trip, a guidance discussion-lecture, uninterrupted study, etc. By rotating the memb rship on this program committee. everyone of the delegates who desires to participate can have the opportunity to do so.
- Typical workshop Schedule—the typical workshop usually covers a period from four to eight weeks. However, there are differences of opinion as to the value of an extended period as compared to several short term work-

⁶ Heaton, K. L., et al. Professional Education for Experienced Teachers: The Program of the Sugmer tornshop. Unicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. p. 16.

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shops. Those in favor of the former declare that at least four to eight weeks is necessary for the teacher participants to clarify their thinking, make definite progress towards solving individual and group problems. and to establish close, cooperative relationships with the staff and other teacher participants. The other schools seems to favor several short-term workshops so as to have frequent opportunities to actually apply in practice the tentative solutions arrived at concerning problems that face the individual teacher in his classroom. Both opinions seem to have merits in their own right. However, the governing factor in deciding the length of a workshop will probably be such administrative problems as finances, availability of substitute teachers (in the instance the workshop is held during the regular school term), and the availability of staff specialists and facilities.

In respect to a typical daily schedule, meetings of small discussion groups are usually held in the morning organized around the individual teacher's stated interests. Luncheons are held as informally as possible so that they can include small conferences concerning subjects related to particular interests. The afternoons are devoted to individual work, meetings with advisers, conferences, recreation and creative activities. General meetings and individual work are

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also normally scheduled for the evenings, with Saturday afternoons and Sundays left to the individual for a variety of recreational, social, and educational activities.

4. Evaluation of Results of Workshops

The all important cuestion of does participation in a workshop really make a teacher more effective on the job should certainly be examined thoroughly before the subject can be considered treated fully. Eumerous evaluations of the effects of workshops on the teacher participants have been made in which the participants have been asked to reflect their experiences and appraise their reactions. The most common method is to distribute questionnaire forms at the beginning and at the close of the workshop period. Sometimes evaluation is undertaken by interviews with or by questionnaires made out by staff personnel, staff ratings of the accomplishments of the teacher participants, or on the basis of group discussions within the various working sections of the workshop itself. However, it seems that these methods of evaluation take too much for granted. To more effectively evaluate the accomplishments of a workshop, it appears that it necessitates evaluating the teacher on the job both before and after his period of workshop participation. Such an evaluation, for example, was conducted by the Oakland Public Schools, Oakland, California as a result of their sixth annual workshop held in the susmer of 1950.7

⁷ Action for Curriculum Improvement. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1951 Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association. 246 pp.

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Their method consisted of evaluating the classroom practices of fifty teachers who had not previously attended a workshop, both before, during, and after participation in the 1950 workshop. This was done by:

- a. Before the workshop personal interviews, reviewing the problems of the teachers and observing the classroom situations of each teacher.
- b. During the workshop daily logs of their participation in various activities of the workshop, and "free response" evaluation sheets which asked each teacher to express his reactions to and suggested changes concerning workshop procedures.
- At end of workshop an evaluation questionnaire was made out by each teacher.
- d. After the workshop follow-up interviews of each teacher; follow-up classroom observations to identify changes in students' behavior, in ways of working, in teacherstudent relationships, in the teacher-learning situation, and in teaching methods; and conferences with principals and supervisors who were the teachers' co-workers.
 (Similar opinions from fellow teachers and students might also have been obtained.)

On the basis of this extensive evaluation process, the verdict at Oakland was unanimously favorable for their 1950 workshop.

To summarize the consensus of opinion as determined from various evaluation studies, it seems that the workshop is a Their meters continue of realizating the observed arrestone of fifty realized wit and not destrictly assemble a maximized both backway from it nother constitutions to the trips manufact, that was done but

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valuable method of improving a teacher's effectiveness as a teacher, in that it:

- a. Provides the participating teacher with easy access to the services of various staff members who can provide many kinds of assistance to meet all kinds of problems.
- b. Helps to bring teachers together from different schools, but with similar problems for effective exchange of ideas. Meeting other teachers with different backgrounds and from a variety of teaching situations facilitates learning what is being done elsewhere and what new ideas work well or fail in practice.
- o. Provides teachers and administrative staff personnel the opportunity to work on staff problems freed from the pressure of routine school duties.
- d. Premotes cooperative, informal, working relationships between teachers and the administrative staff in that all participants forget about official capacity, speak freely when questioned, advance their opinions, seek advice, and assume roles of leaders. It seems safe to assume that these cooperative relationships should to a degree carry over to the school where they will effect both the teachers as well as the staff in their relationships with one another and with the students.
- Helps individual teachers to learn about valuable teaching resources that are available for them.
- f. Encourages educational experimentation in new teaching

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methods so that the school will be able to keep pace with the needs of the ever changing times. For example, including students in planning of school projects, what to do about evaluation, how to use effectively and obtain audio-visual aids, and how to utilize community resources for the good of the school.

- g. Promotes an interest in the whole child, the whole school, and the whole community, by increasing the teacher's understanding through such methods as research on the nature of developing youth and the learning process; by actual associations with young people through interviews and discussions; through associations with teachers of many special interests; through resdings and interviews with representatives of other schools concerning varied school practices; through observations of laboratory schools and demonstration classes; and by acquainting him with the uses of community resources in the development of the curriculum and new methods of utilizing these resources.
- h. Helps him solve future problems as a result of the experience the individual teacher gains in studying his own interests or specific problem and working it out with others until a satisfactory solution is obtained. Also makes him more conscious of other problems in the school situation that need further study.
- Provides valuable experience in creative and recreational activities which increases the individual teacher's apprecia-

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- tion of their educative values as a relief from verbal activities, as recreation, and as therapeutic devices.
- j. Contributes to teacher's growth. The individual teacher becomes more aware of his hidden potentialities and the fact that success as a teacher greatly depends upon one's skill in human relations—learning to understand and work with others in a cooperative manner.

The values of the workshop will not materialize, however, unless the workshop spirit is maintained in the daily life of the school system. "Unless creative planning that lies at the heart of workshop activity has its counterpart in the association of principals and teachers in each school, in administrative councils, in classrooms between teachers and students, in joint enterprises between educators and citizens, there is scant hope that the program will survive."

5. Application to the Navy Training Program:

The workshop program seems to be most suitable for use by the Navy training program in improving the quality of instruction at the various Navy service schools. The value of participation by both instructor and staff personnel in informal group conferences, free from interruption by routine school tasks, should result in positive gains not only in improving the caliber of instruction, but also in providing workable solutions to many staff problems. Such problems as the following seem

Sheaton, K. L., et al. Professional Education for Experienced Teachers: The Program of the Summer Workshop. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. p. 16

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most appropriate for workshop study: the question of training in the fleet, evaluation of students' performance, soliciting the participation of fleet activities in improving instruction at the service schools, publiciting to the fleet the benefits of the Navy training program, etc. In addition, the workshop seems to be an ideal method for bringing representatives from the various training activities together so that concerted efforts can be made in tackling common problems as well as allowing the entire training establishment to benefit from the experiences and proven practices of individual activities.

The aspect of an informal working-living situation in the workshop involving both officer and enlisted personnel will no doubt have to be modified to an extent, but this should not prove to be a difficult problem to solve. An informal, cooperative atmosphere of give and take relationships is of vital importance, however, if the workshop is to be a success.

The problem that no doubt will produce the most headaches will be the one of time. That is, freeing the instructor and administrative staff personnel of a school from their routine duties for a period of time long enough to effectively participate in the workshop and produce positive results. A way out of this dilemma is to have periodic workshops at more frequent intervals than are normally held, but for shorter durations. In addition, this should allow for including representative personnel on a rotation basis so that in a reasonable period of time all staff and instructor personnel will be able to

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attend at least one session of the workshop.

The location of the workshop should not produce a problem, although it is recommended that the sessions be held at some other activity than at the parent training station in order that there be an atmosphere free from routine duties. It is imperatime, however, that the workshop be held either at or nearby a university or teachers college where resources and advisory personnel can be utilized. No doubt living accempations can be arranged at Maval installations which are situated within a convenient distance from the educational institution.

The final warning is reiterated here that the benefits of the workshop program will not bare fruit unless its spirit of ecoperative, creative planning is maintained in practice in all school relationships involving the administrative staff, instructors and student personnel.

B. Curriculum Improvement Committees

1. What are Curriculum Improvement Committees?

There are various types of curriculum improvement committees utilised in the public schools. These range from appointed or elected groups of persons representing a single school, a school system or a larger regional area. These groups are commonly called either curriculum improvement committees or study councils.

2. Responsibilities

The responsibilities of the curriculum improvement committees are primarily theseof gathering suggestions from every teacher in the school or school system; arranging conapplication role by and constraint for family

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ferences dealing with the teachers' suggestions; collecting resource materials; and assisting in any way possible the putting of new ideas into practice.

3. Why are They Necessary?

Curriculum improvement and teacher improvement are so closely correlated that it is impossible to treat either one separately. In the previous sections the necessity of helping the teacher to grow on the job and improve his teaching was stressed. If his teaching is to be improved, this necessarily requires improvements in the curriculum. As J. H. Chymn so well states it, "It is the belief that every teacher must go through the process of experimenting with some problem, or unit, or teaching procedure in order to better his teaching."

With this "reason for being", curriculum improvement committees are a means of inducing every teacher on the staff to engage in curriculum improvement. They give him a means of expressing his new ideas, assurance of being heard by the school's administration, and with the latter's approval, the opportunity of putting his ideas into practice.

Curriculum improvement activities thus can be considered a "must" in order to prevent stifling the teacher's initiative, when he has new ideas and no readily available means of putting them into practice. 10

Grynn, J. M. Curriculum Frinciples and Social Trends. New York:
Hackillan Co., 1950. p. 543.
OGlies, H. H. Exploring the Curriculum. New York: Harper and Bros.,

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- 4. Essentials for Developing a Curriculum Improvement Frogram

 There are certain basic essentials not only for the

 creation of a curriculum improvement program, but also to

 ensure that the activities created will flourish and fulfill

 the needs of the teachers, students and the school. These

 are:
 - a. The curriculum improvement program in any school should be a continuous, not a sporadic short-lived program. Periodic examination and improvement are always necessary.
 - b. As the first step in its development, it is necessary that the whole staff study the problems of what is and what should be the philosophy of the school (what is the staff trying to accomplish), and do the actions of the staff live up to the philosophy.
 - e. The planning of any curriculum improvement program should be done by cooperative action of the teaching and the administrative staffs. "If the principal has followed the plan of studying the program cooperatively and the staff has actually discovered weaknesses which need to be overcome, the chances of success are much better. The plans for curriculum study then originate with the faculty as a whole, and teachers are more likely to assume responsibility."

ll alberty, Harold. Reorganizing the High School Curriculum. New York: The Hackillan Co., 1950. p. 439.

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- d. The school's administration should recognize that emperimentation in the improvement of the curriculum is a necessary part of any in-service training program. Therefore, all teachers should be encouraged to take part in the program.
- Determination of the basic issues of the curriculum improvement program should be the responsibility of the whole staff.
- f. A central curriculum committee or what is semetimes called a central steering (coordinating) committee, headed by a curriculum director, is essential to take charge of the program and coordinate the workings of the sub-committees or study groups. This central committee should have the responsibility to assist with problems of organization, provide resource materials, arrange general meetings including those with parents and community representatives (fleet, shore establishment and bureau representatives in the Navy), and generally keep the faculty apprised of what is going on.
- g. Leadership for the program in the person of the curriculum director or coordinator should come from the school itself. He is then in a better position to realize the unique problems that the school faces.
 Consultants from other schools may be beneficial, however.

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- h. Frovision must be made for the meetings of all curriculum activities on school time.
- Sub-committees or study groups should be organized around creas that should be considered in any curriculum revision program (i.e. common learnings, physical and mental health, guidance, the verious subject fields, student activities, and evaluation).
- j. Membership of the committees should be elected from both teaching and administrative personnel, with student, parent and cummunity representation included. It is desirable that the membership include teachers from as many subject fields as possible so as to benefit from various viewpoints. Farents, students, and community representatives commonly participate by being included in small discussion groups in which faculty and parents talk over informally the plans for curriculum improvements.
- k. The proceedings of the committees should be held strictly on a cooperative group basis, without the interference of position or status on the part of any of the mambers.
- Every effort must be made to keep the entire teaching and administrative staff informed concerning the proceedings of the committees. This is done usually by means of presentations and discussions at general faculty meetings. Suggestions from these faculty meetings

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- should in turn be reflected by the actions of the curriculum improvement committees.
- a. Faculty and administrative representatives should visit other schools where experimental curriculum programs are being developed. They should also attend conferences and clinics at other schools concerning curriculum improvement in order to get new ideas to supplement those at their own school.
- n. Often when the curriculum improvement program includes all the schools in a system, a centralizing committee is formed of representatives from the faculties of the member schools. This committee should formulate the broad principles of common agreement. Care should be taken, however, to see that its actions do not stifle local adaptations in curriculum to suit the needs of each individual school.
- o. In the event the curriculum improvement program is system wide, it is wise for the central department of the school system to provide program coordinators. Besides coordinating the activities of the various schools and helping to promote the exchange of ideas among the schools, they also should act as resource agents for the component schools.
- p. It is all important that the individual schools within a school system be allowed to make changes based on what they individually believe to be valuable improve-

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ments in the curriculum. A powerful incentive for any teacher to improve his teaching, thus also improve what he teaches, is his realization that "what we as teachers decide will count". This, of course mea ns that not only the administrative staff of the school system, but that of each school as well should help to implement the recommendations of the curriculum improvement committees. As Charles E. Frall states it, the fear that by eliminating a comson course of study would result in many diverse, short-term units, courses and activities is unfounded in actual practice.12 Teachers who are working to improve the curriculum or experimenting in any educational field do not work alone. They communicate with others about what they are doing. They seek to work with others, requesting and receiving assistance on a group basis.

5. Examples of Curriculum Improvement Programs.

It is believed that by citing actual examples of curriculum improvement programs in action, it will be easier to understand what sort of problems curriculum improvement programs deal with, how the programs are initiated and developed, and what results have been accomplished.

 "Germa" School, Denver, Colorado—as an example of an effective individual school program for curriculum im-

¹² Prail, Chas. E. Tescher Education in Service. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944, pp. 241-286.

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provement, I would like to refer to the program developed at a "Gamma" Junior high school in Denver. 3 An expurimental curriculum program was instituted as a result of several of the faculty members attending a sugar workshop. Added impotus was given when, at the request of the central committee of the Denver School District, the Gamma school was requested to make a study of the feasibility of reducing the number of teachers with which each student comes in contact. To put this into effect the school's staff agreed to begin by assigning one class a two-period block of time to each of several teachers. One of the periods to be used for guidance and the other for an academic subject. In order to develop instructional units for the guidence work, a committee of eight teachers was appointed to work on the problem to be assisted by several program coordinators. Representatives from the student body, as well as interested parents, were also asked to participate in the program. Small discussion groups which included the faculty and student representatives and parents then met to consider the matter. The entire staff was informed about the new program by means of presenta-

¹³ Ibid., pp. 241-286.

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tions and discussions at general faculty meetings. The committee of eight thus benefitting from the recommendations of the faculty-student-perent discussion groups, as well as the faculty at large, continued scheduled meetings throughout the year. In order to promote a continuing program, sub-committees of two teachers each were appointed to work with the help of the program coordinators on such problems as instructional possibilities of the double period, methods of approach, materials and services available, public reaction, and evaluations.

b. Des Moines, Iowa, Junior Migh Schools—as an example of an effective curriculum improvement program at a city school system level, the program of the junior high schools in Des Moines seems to be appropriate for the purpose. In 1939, with the cooperation of the Committee on Teacher Education of the Mational Education Association, the faculties of the junior high schools in Des Moines began a cooperative study about the growth and development of the students and the feasibility of adopting a general education program. The faculty of each school elected a planning or steering committee to handle admin-

Ligayan, J. M. Curriculum Frinciples and Social Trends. New York: MacMillan Co., 1950. 768pp.

these are discussions to meanly formly made from the contribution of eight tens installed from the contribution of the first tension of the description of the description of the description of the form parties of the form of the form of the contribution to the contribution of the contribution of the through that the contribution of the through that the contribution of the follows in the through the contribution of the contribution.

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istrative matters, and to make preliminary investigations in the areas that the faculty desired to consider. Small study groups were formed, with each teacher participating in the group that was dealing with a sub-topic of special interest to him (but with the endeavor to have the representation of each group cut across departmental lines). These groups met one day a week for one hour (during the school day). By means of presentations to the general faculty meetings the results of their discussions were approved and implemented. On the whole all of the schools seemed to have accomplished substantial results. These were:

- Changing the thinking of the teachers from one purely of subject matter to a broader appreciation of the needs and interests of adolescents.
- (2) Cutting across departmental lines by correlating related subject matter.
- (3) Beginning of a broad educational philosophy (what is the purpose of education) as a basis for further curriculum study.
- (4) Study of home-school relations.
- (5) Study of student development and growth with particular emphasis upon cooperation with the home.

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As a result of this city-wide program and primarily as a result of participation in the individual study groups, many teachers seemed to be encouraged to try experiments in their own teaching; all developed better understandings of the values of cooperative faculty responsibility, and the necessity for understanding the problems of other departments in the school.

5. Conclusion

The curriculum improvement committees or study councils seemed to have been used with most beneficial results by a great many of our public schools. They have not only been a means of improving the curriculum, but also have served as a means of stimulating and encouraging the teacher's growth on the job. Therefore, they should be an essential part of any organized inservice teacher training program.

It is true that the individual teacher could do many things to improve the curriculum on his own, such as improving his own philosophy of the purpose of education, studying his students to determine their needs, introducing new materials such as supplementary reading and amino-visual aids, and improving his discussion abilities. However, there are limits to how far he can go without the cooperation of the other teachers and the administrative staff. If he makes extrems changes

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in the curriculum, he is bound to run into difficulties from the administration, in particular. More important, without a continuous program of curriculum improvement, the school losses out on an excellent opportunity to promote cooperative action in improving its program by pooling the intelligence of all of its members. 15

The curriculum improvement committee seems to be most appropriate for adoption by the Navy training program. It would seem to be a most effective instrument for cooperative action on the part of the instructor and administrative staffs of the schools. To be fully effective, however, representatives of the various bureaus, the fleet and the shore establishment should be included as well. By this means, it should be possible to continually improve the curriculum so that it will always meet the personal and professional needs of each service man.

C. In-Service Training by Observation

1. What is Observation?

Observation is a training device used in many schools in which ideas about techniques, devices, and methods of teaching are exchanged as a result of seeing fellow teachers conducting classes.

¹⁵ Alberty, Harold. Economizing the High School Curriculum. New York: MacMillan Co., 1950. pp. 421-422.

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This training method is similar to those used in the various professions and trades which hold clinics and demonstrations to show members new skills, methods and techniques, and how to improve their management, business, and operations.

2. How are Observation Classes Conducted?

Both Rebecca Hellenstein and T. Malcolm Brown give excellent, but slightly different procedures for conducting observation classes. 16,17 The main procedures that they list, however, are essentially the same. They consist of:

- a. All observation meetings are planned and organized by the teachers with the assistance of the administrative staff.
- b. Each department has the opportunity of selecting a teacher to present a sample of its work.
- e. Each department head with the help of his teachers selects a class for demonstration purposes. The teachers selected, however, ere not obligated to conduct the observation ession if they do not desire.
- d. Each department head also selects the teachers who will be invited to act as observers. Arrangements are made by the department head for care of their classes while they are away.
- In order to present the type of observation class the teachers desire to witness in action, a questionneire

17 Brown, T. Malcolm. "In-Service Training by Observation", California Journal of Secondary Education, (November 1947), pp. 438-441.

¹⁶ Fallerstein, Rebecce. "Eye-Opener Faculty Reetings", The Clearing Rouse, (October 1947), pp. 154-157.

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is often distributed to them requesting the description and phase of teaching in which they would like help.

Also a statement is requested as to some aspect of their teaching that they feel they have sufficient self-reliance to present a demonstration.

f. As the teacher-observers arrive in the classroom, it is often helpful to present them with a bulletin similar to the following which lists the various factors to consider in a learning situation.

General Conditions

- (1) Is the classroom environment conducive to a learning situation?
 - (a) Is there adequate light and ventilation?
 (b) Is the room made attractive and do you see swidence of the good care of school
 - property?
 (c) Are the blackboards, maps, and charts used adequately?
- (2) The Teacher
 - (a) Does the bearing, manner and voice of the teacher indicate confidence and resourcefulness? Do they indicate a immer calmness that gives a feeling of security to the pupils?
 - (b) Does the teacher's attitude toward the pupils and the work indicate an interest and onthusiasm that might be contagious?
 - (c) Does she have a sense of humor?
 - (d) Does she refrain from talking too much or too loudly?
- (3) The Pupils
 - (a) Are pupils well-mannered, respectful and orderly?
 - (b) Do they appear earnest in their work and willing to participate in activities in class?
- (4) The Instruction
 - (a) By general view or explanation, does the teacher discover the general background

¹⁸ moves, op. cit., p. 441.

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- of her pupils preparatory to the introduction of a new phase of the work?
- (b) Does she connect the lesson with the pupils! experience?
- (c) Does she adopt the lesson to the various ability groups within her class?
- (d) Does she lead pupils to ask questions?
- (e) Does she discover weakness or failure of pupils to comprehend without embarrassing individuals? Does she reteach when these are found?
- (f) Does she obtain general participation or do just a few pupils respond?
- (g) Does she arouse and sustain interest in the lesson assignments?
- (h) Does she make full and complete lesson assignments?
- (1) Does she employ drill advantageously?
- (j) Do the pupils criticize and evaluate their own efforts?
- (k) Does the teacher command effort and success?
- (1) Is there evidence of a carefully workedout lesson plan?
- (m) Does she seem to make progress toward accomplishment of the aim of the particular lesson?
- (n) Does the teacher review the important points in a lesson when it is completed?
- g. A typical observation meeting is one in which the selected teacher present his students in action for periods of from ten to forty-five minutes. During this time the teachers are free to circulate among the students, asking questions, examining their work, and noting displays (in some instances if the students are abnormally disturbed by having the observers circulate in class, it might be well to have the teachers remain seated in the rear of the classroom).
- h. Following the class session, a discussion period is held in which the class teacher states briefly the aims and purposes of his instruction and searthing about the

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3. The Values of Observation Training

The values of training by means of conducting observation classes seem to be:

- a. They give teachers the opportunity to observe fellow teachers, so that they can evaluate themselves and their own classroom procedures based on what they see demonstrated as successful teaching techniques.
- b. The responses to these observation classes seem to demonstrate that teachers are continually looking for new tools to use in presenting subject matter. Also new methods of instruction a re more meaningful and better understood when they are actually demonstrated rather than just talked about.
- c. No teacher is required to return to his classroom
 and practice any of the observed methods. Conditions
 and situations vary in different schools and classrooms.

 The important thing is that by observing new methods
 and techniques of teaching, each teacher-observer
 should be stimulated in giving careful thought to an
 evaluation of his own methods and techniques of teaching, the purposes his lessons serve, and the caliber
 of responses of his students.
- d. Teachers of different subjects, particularly of academic and vocational subjects, often gain a new perspective and understanding of one another's work. The realisa-

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- tion is fostered of the necessity for all kinds of school activities, not just those in the classroom.
- e. Teachers realize the importance of activity classes art, music, crafts, athletics, etc., to provide releases for tensions in students that might be brought up in other types of courses.
- f. Teachers come to realise that there is a very positive correlation between poor readers and poor classroom work. They also find that all teachers have the same basic problems with slow learners; that slow learners have the same difficulties with all types of academic subjects. The necessity for adjusting the curriculum to the needs of the students is made more evident.
- g. Teachers obtain a better understanding of the demands made upon the students as they go from one teacher to another.
- h. Lastly, the discussion period which follows the observation class is often just as valuable as the class itself. Additional and related information is often brought up in the exchange of ideas stimulated by the observation class.

4. Applicability for Navy Purposes

The observation class seems to be an extremely useful method of in-service teacher training for adoption by any school in the Navy training program. It could be employed with positive results for the induction of new instructors. It also should be just as valuable for improving the teaching

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of seasoned instructors.

It is advisable that the program be set up on a cooperative basis, with both the teaching staff as well as the administrative staff taking part in its development. This is necessary if the interest and support of the instructors are to be obtained and meintained.

The selection of the individual instructors to conduct the observation classes should also be cooperatively arranged for between the administration and the teaching staffs. No instructor should be forced to conduct such a class, however, unless he is willing to do so.

Not only does it seem valuable to select various outstanding classes within a particular school to be observed by the teachers in the same school, but observations should be extended to worthwhile classes at other schools as well. These other schools need not be Navy, for valuable results should be obtained by seeing examples of outstanding classes in schools of the other military brancheses well as civilian institutions.

Lastly, instructors should be encouraged to visit classes in which other subjects than their own are being taught. This should help to broaden their outlook as to the common purposes of the entire training program, as well as help them to see that good teaching techniques can be applied to any classroom situation regardless of the subject being taught.

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D. Miscellaneous Activities

It has been my intention in presenting the preceding sections to draw from not only authoritative writings, but from personal contacts as well. I would therefore like to draw attention to a number of examples of in-service training techniques that seem to have been used with good results in various public schools in the Columbus, Ohio area. These techniques, I believe, also should be given consideration to see if they might be of value to the Navy training program. Some of these methods are:

1. In the Columbus (Ohio) City School System the workshop program for the city schools is coordinated by a central steering committee made up of representatives from each region.

They meet periodically to frame the broad programs for the workshops that are to be held. The superintendent of schools provides the permanent staff personnel required to take care of necessary administrative details, and to offer advice and assistance concerning workshops and all other matters relative to in-service training. This staff is not large, but includes primarily, a few teachers who are assigned to the superintendent's office for one semester each. With a teacher acting in an administrative capacity, the teachers who deal with him feel that here is someone that "speaks our language", and understands our problems. The value of this can readily be seen.

Another worthwhile method of im-service training adopted by the Columbus City School System is in respect to the orienta-

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Lastly, in the Columbus City School System, representative teachers are included as members of the administration's advisory council to help formulate policies governing the operations of the city achools.

2. In practically all of the schools in the Columbus (Ohio) area, there are a number of teachers taking advanced study in various fields of education at The Ohio State University. This individual method of in-service training has a great deal of value for promoting the growth of teachers, provided the courses they take are realistic. These courses should involve the active participation of the teachers and be mainly concerned with their problems and needs, not just the opinions of the professor teaching the class. The most valuable courses seem to be of the seminar and workshop type

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(each teacher working on his own individual problem and seeking the assistence of the group in solving the problem). It is possible that this method of in-service training could be applied with worthwhile results to the Navy training program. Most Navy training schools are in close proximity to large universities or colleges. It thus should be possible to arrange for Navy instructors to attend classes in subjects that are of practical value to them as teachers. In order to provide the proper motivation for participating in this extra training, the teaching load of each instructor should be arranged so that he can take these college courses during the regular school hours.

3. The curriculum improvement program at the Heyl Avenue Elementary School in Columbus (Ohio) is a good example of a program that is designed to meet the needs of the teachers, the students, the school, and thus the community. Each teacher is a member of a specialized committee (according to his own choice), and all suggested measures are passed on by the whole faculty during their periodic meetings. The committees include:

Staff Study—it focuses its attention on one broad topic of study to be considered during the entire school year. (i.e. organizing a creative activity program). Equipment—what new equipment is needed (projectors, recorders, etc.) and what equipment repairs are needed

by the school. Duties—allocation of routine school duties to individual teachers.

Special Study-study of special problems (i.e. training for civil defense, etc.).

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All countitee and general faculty meetings are informal affairs, with refreshments being served. The realization is that by this, it will be possible for all of the staff numbers to become better acquainted, thus help improve cooperative working relationships.

The above method of organizing and conducting faculty committees may not be strictly applicable to the Navy school situation. However, the values of including the opinions of each faculty member when formulating policy (even if the final decision is necessarily that of the administrative head), as well as conducting staff meetings in an informal, "get-acquainted" menner, cannot be denied.

4. South High School in Columbus has an excellent system for restricting the amount of administrative details that all too often take up most of the time of faculty meetings. As much as possible, administrative matters are circulated via official bulletings, with such matters brought up in faculty meetings only when questions are raised concerning them.

The faculty meetings at this school are based on discussing the general problems of the teachers, the students, and the school. As resource materials for the discussions, there are themes written by the students concerning what they expect to get out of school, discussions led by authorities in various fields of interest to the teachers, and evaluation reports by teachers who have attended conventions, workshops

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and other outside activities. In addition, through the use of special committees, various common problems are emplored and presented to the entire faculty for consideration.

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CHAPTER IV

GUIDANCE FUNCTIONS OF THE INSTRUCTOR

A. What is Guidanne?

Guidance used to be thought of as being restricted to assisting the individual to prepare himself for the vocation or vocations for which he is best suited. The present conception of guidance, however is that it should not only be concerned with an individual's vocational adjustment, but should include all other aspects of living as well. That is, guidance. from the viewpoint of the school is "a program of services designed to individualise the school experiences of the student and to assist him to become the most effective person possible." Translated into different words, guidance means all types of assistance given to a person which will help him make the best possible adjustments to every aspect of his life. That is, to essist the individual to adjust to his educational, occupational, social and personal problems and situations. The word assistance should not be misinterpreted however, for it does not mean solving a person's problems for him. Rather, assistance means cooperative action between the guidance expert and the student (or students) designed to help the student solve his own problems, and to make him independent in this respect in the future.

B. Why is the School Concerned with Guidence?

Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1950. p. 3.

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The old school of thought was that the school was only concerned with the mental development of the student. It was considered that his development in other aspects was the responsibility primarily of the home as well as other institutions. It soon became apparent, however, that it is impossible to treat exclusively only one part of the individual, such as his mental development. This is because an individual's ability to learn is affected not only by his endowed mental capacities, but by other things as well, such as his home life, past experiences, friends, economic security, and health. Therefore, if the school is to successfully accomplish its task of educating the pupil to best prepare him for life, it has to recognize that each student is an individual with different capacities, backgrounds, and interests and must be treated accordingly. Thus has developed the modern concept of guidance based on the accepted conclusion that the school must be responsible for the total development of its students. That it is necessary to "start the education of each student from where he is rather than from where we think he should be."2

C. The Navy's Guidance Program

The Navy has long recognized the importance of guidance.

That unless each man is well adjusted he will not be an

effective fighting man. The individual must be assisted

in solving these problems that he brings with him from

Wronn, op. cit., p. 3.

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civilian life. He must also be helped to overcome the problems presented by the strain of the unnatural conditions of military life. It is because of this that the Navy has developed an extensive guidance program consisting of such activities as the following: (1) psychiatric services to "weed out" psychological misfits, (2) a classification program to ascertain each man's abilities and interests so that in his duty assignment he can be used to the best advantage, (3) remedial training in instances where men do not know how to read and write, (4) the many activities of the Chaplain Corps, which are most effective in contributing to the morale and personal well-being of the men, (5) the services provided by the personnel, education and training officers, and (6) the loosely structured, but many times valuable, unofficial guidance activities on the part of officers and petty officers in counseling or giving advice to their men.

The big gap in the guidence structure seems to be in the training program in respect to instructor-student relationships, where no organized, positive, guidance program seems to be in effect. The guidance activities that do exist are primarily negative in nature. That is, wait until the individual gets into trouble, whether it be scholastic problems or otherwise, then see what can be done to help him out of his difficulties. What seems to be needed is a more positive type of guidance program. That is, a preventive program based upon preventing personal meladjustment problems from where said improves no lengths of outside term all 1000 and their To many times from how that he detects not not have made until and test and shall this become of all with modifie or section alternations. (II) analysists all to relief the -us and and desired as the patholic Alababahana files from And all advertised the addition of the daily printings of any NA VAN VARY AND LINEARS FOR MED AND AND RAIL SHALLOW, ADMINISTRAL war for an one books provided at action & betterny (CO) AND the analyte from mile LEE patient data from all more the principle of the same of the principle of the same matthew introduction all the personnels, extension and telephone matthew ACCORDING AND AND ADDRESS APPROPRIESTS AND DESCRIPTIONS. My July till as builded to continu Analytica yellender parties and public solidation of the special condition of the parties of the special conditions and the special conditions are also as a second condition of the special conditions and the special conditions are also as a second condition of the special conditions are a second conditions and the special conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second conditions are a second condition are a second conditions are a second conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second conditions are a second condition are a second conditions are a second conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second condition are a second condition and conditions are a second condition are a second condition and conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second condition and conditions are a second condition are a second condition and conditi

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developing in the first place. This program should aim at alleviating conditions as much as possible that help to create emotional problems in the men. It should also promote on the part of the instructor, the ability to recognize in each student, the symptoms of problems of maledjustment before they have actually developed as such, so that remedial preventive measures can be undertaken.

It seems to me, that in particular, the instructor in the Navy classroom is in a most advantageous position to exercise positive guidance procedures insofar as his students are concerned. Perhaps we can learn something by taking a look at civilian schools to see what certain civilian classroom teachers do to advantage in the field of guidance.

- D. The Instructor's Role in the Field of Guidance
 - Advantages of the Instructor's Position in the Field of Guidance.

In the classroom, the instructor has definite advantages ever the school's specialized guidence counselor in helping the students in their adjustment problems. The main reason is that he has fever students and sees them more regularly and more often than a school's counselor does. This means that since the instructor is in a better position to get to know well each of his students, he should be able to more easily understand their problems and recognize their possible causes. This also means a tremendous advantage as far as establishing rapport or friendly

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Its seems to any then in particular, the transport in the large allowing to the a seed environment position to the large environment at the eventual particular and the eventual particular as the eventual particular and the eventual particular and allowers at all the eventual particular allowers. The transport at the last in the transport at the last and includes an include an includ

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relationships with the students is concerned. As a result, the students are more apt to voluntarily bring their problems to their instructor, rather than to a specialized counselor who often is a comparative stranger. (However, there may be situations in which the student's problem is so personal that he would prefer the help of a stranger rather than his instructor. These situations it seems are not too common. but when they do occur, the instructor should not feel that they reflect upon his abilities as a counselor, but probably are due to the nature of the student's problem.) Finally, the instructor often has more readily available cumulative records (or complete records of a student's background, abilities. interests, etc.). These often are not available to specialized counselers who are not part of the school's staff.

Responsibilities of the Instructor in Performing his Guidance Functions.

The responsibilities of the instructor, if he is going to effectively help his students solve their adjustment problems, can be summarized under the following categories: a. providing a proper classroom environment, b. developing good personal qualities, c. possessing the necessary specialized knowledges and skills, and d. participating in continuous training in good guidance.

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Providing a Proper Classroom invironment------Ruth Strang states it. "The school or college environment itself is an instrument of theraphy."3 For our purposes, this can be restated to mean that what each instructor does and provides in his classroom largely depends upon whether or not he is helping to solve or just adding to the problems of these students. Aside from the teacher's own personality, which will be treated further in this section, a favorable classroom atmosphere means to provide each student with the experience he needs, -- suitable class activities (discussions, demonstrations, etc.), appropriate extra-curricular activities, opportunities to be of service, to take responsibility and to make choices.

In addition, it is the temper's job to see that his students are acquainted with and utilize all special services that the school and community furnish that will help to provide for his needs. This includes referring the student to particular courses and activities that seem to be of value in the areas dealing with his needs, and referring the stwient to appropriate reading material. Care must be taken to

³Strang, Buth M. Counseling Technics in College and Secondary School. New York: Harper & Bros., 1949. pp. 302.

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utilize the ideas and suggestions of the students in providing for these activities and services, so as to ensure that they will actually meet the needs and problems of the students.

Lastly, the teacher should do everything possible to promote good group morale which in itself will do much to solve existing personal problems involving personal relationships and prevent similar problems from arising in the future. He can do this by helping each member of the group feel that he belongs and is accepted by the group, helping the group in setting up and successfully accomplishing its tasks. helping to develop good leadership and group membership qualities on the part of all group members, giving the group a great deal of guided freedom in planning and carrying out its own activities, and finally, helping to foster in each student the feeling of pride and satisfaction in belonging to a productive and effective group.

b. Peveloping Good Personal Cualities—without a doubt, the most important responsibility the instructor has, is to develop his own personality so that the adjustment problems of his students are decreased, not increased. This MILITARY NO JAMES AND RESPONDED OF THE THE AND THE PARTY A

parameters of the parameters of parameters all order of row. Hour lots homety or address. Asserted published regard of these or filler books. THE PERSON NAMED IN COLUMN TWO IS NOT THE OWNER. and he published when produced to their property THE RESERVE AND ADDRESS OF THE PERSON NAMED IN where the last beauty by their last page on the Seated M. greek her benjame prompt the har has AND HE SHIPTINGS STATEMENT IN SEC. NAME AND ADDRESS OF THE OWNER OF THE PARTY. many the to how our my work them to read the IN CASE WHEN I WIND HAT DOTHER AND ADDRESS. the pullston to parent of salesp budge of parcel of the partyledge one of tions to extend our recent gas of motion DESCRIPTION IS NO SECURED IN CONTRACTOR INC. LOVE WENTER ON

means that the teacher must be a well-adjusted person himself or he cannot expect to contribute positively to the adjustment of him students. He must be friendly, courtcous, sympathetic and kind, calm and poised, interested in and have the desire to learn all about each individual and his problems, broadminded, cooperative and democratic in all his actions as well as these he promotes, fair and impartial, possess a sense of humor, alert to personal problems of his students as they are reflected in the classroom situation, and willing to do his utmost to help each individual become a better adjusted person. These qualities are normally characteristics of the fully mature teacher who is grownup in his total personal life. That is, he has many interests outside the classroom, a happy personal life, likes people and enjoys working with them, and is proud of and likes his work.

Barbara Wright lists in a concise yet complete manner many of these essential personal characteristics in the following suggestions for interviewing and counseling:

(1) Be their friend.

⁴ right, Barbara H. Fractical Handbook for Group Guidance. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1748. 25 p.

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- (2) Let them know what an adviser can do for them.
- (3) Seek out those who need help, but don't know it or are too shy to come to you.
- (4) Look for problems in all areas of human growth.
- (5) Show no shock, no matter what problem they talk about.
- (6) Let them talk it out.
- (7) Let them formulate their own solutions with you as an aid—don't take over and give them answers to their problems.
- (8) Be content with slow progress and in some cases with no progress at all.
- (9) Be concerned with underlying causes, not with immediate behavior.
- (10) Let the student do the major part of the talking.
- (11) Gall en specialists to help you.

Although the above suggestions apply primarily to individual counseling, in general, they should serve just as well as a code of behavior for instructors in their group guidance activities.

Possessing the Necessary Specialized Mnowledges and Skills—to be qualified to guide and counsel individuals or groups of students concerning their problems of adjustment, no doubt does recuire more than an interest in helping students to selve their problems and the necessary personal characteristics with which to do so. Specialized knowledges and skills in guidance are also necessary. This does not mean that the average classroom instructor does not possess to a degree these knowledges and skills, for basically the

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instruction he has received in good teaching techniques include many of them. Therefore based upon: (1) his past training in effective and correct teaching methods; (2) additional training in the knowledges and skills in guidance; (3) possessing the necessary personal cualities: (4) having the desire to assist his students in solving their individual problems; (5) being willing to, at every opportunity, increase his knowledge about his students, their problems and how they are manifested and resolved: and (6) understanding his own limitations in the field of guidence and the necessity to depend upon more experienced specialists when the problem is beyond the teacher's capabilities (especially when the student's problem is one of health, severe emotional disturbances, or deep-seated home conditions), the average teacher should and can effectively engage in guidance and counseling practices that should produce beneficial results.

d. Participating in Continuous Training in Good Ouidance—the responsibility for engaging in training in the knowledges and skills of good guidance is primarily that of the individual teacher. It is a responsibility that he should

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possess if he is going to expect to actually contribute to the most effective learning of his students. However, this responsibility should also be shared by the school's administration, which should, through an organized inservice training program, provide means by which each teacher can secure professional training in guidance.

- E. What the Navy can learn from Successful Guidance Programs in Civilian Schools
 - To be able to assist an individual to become better adjusted to himself and the conditions in life that he faces or will face, will necessitate initially an understanding of his problems and needs. Therefore an instructor should probably start by finding out what are those typical problems with which the average adolescent in many instances seems to be concerned. There have been many studies made on this subject. One of the best is that of J. Wendell Yeo, which for practical purposes groups the problems and needs of the average student as follows:
 - a. Health and Physical Fitness—he is concerned with his health and physical appearance, which is aggravated by real or imagined concerns about

⁵Teo, J. Wendell. "Suggested Content for the Group Guidance Program", Education. 65: (Oct., 1944), pp. 80-89.

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- which he lacks adequate information (i.e. his belief that he has various physical ailments or defects).
- b. Family Relationships—his relationships with his family (his parents or his wife).
- c. Vocational Flauming and Adjustments—problems in choosing, preparing for and making progress in a particular vocation or career. (This is applicable to a degree to the Navy, but even more so if applied to problems related to choosing a specialty in the service).
- d. Educational Planning and Adjustments—he is vitally concerned with making good grades, how to study, plans for future schooling (specialized training in the Navy), success in school activities, and general adjustment to new and different school situations.
- e. Utilizing Free Time—he is concerned with the problem of how to utilize the time when he does not have enything else to do.
- f. Social Adjustments—one of the most important problems is his relationships with other people of his own age group and especially those of the opposite sex. To him, being accepted by the group of his choosing and by the girl of his choosing is an all important matter.
- g. Personal Values-one might call this self-

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- esteem, that is, how he values himself, what ideals he has formed, and whether or not he is able to live up to them.
- h. Finances—his striving for independence, which is greatly dependent upon such financial matters as earning of and the use and abuse of money, present many common problems to students.
- Fersonal—Fsychological Relations—these are
 problems arising out of his attitude toward
 himself, his control of his emotions, and how
 he acts in conflict situations. These constitute an area in which he often is least
 likely to understand himself or the reason for
 his difficulty.

It might be well to personalize the above generalizations of typical problems and needs of the average student. Therefore, I would like to list two sets of problems obtained by Truman Cheyney as a result of study made in 1949 of senior students from one hundred and twenty high schools in the state of Montanas

- a. Problems related to school life (listed in order of preference):
 - (1) Getting studying done
 - (2) Galning confidence

Ocheyney, Truman, "A Method of Identifying Problems of High School Students", Occupations 27: (March, 1949), pp. 387-388.

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(3) Understanding a subject

(4) Saving money

(5) Getting information about vocations I like

(6) Taking subjects I want (7) Will I graduate

- (8) Spending money
- (9) Participating in enough activities
- (10) Understanding other students

(11) Going steady or dating (12) Sufficient recreation

- (13) Freedom to do what I want at home
- (14) Getting along with my teachers
- (15) Freedom to do what I want at school
- b. Problems related to post-school living (listed in order of preference):
 - (1) Selecting the right vocation (specialization)
 - (2) Shall I go to college? (to a specialised school, Eaval Academy, etc.)

(3) Marriage

- (4) Joining the Army or Navy (should I make the Navy a career?)
- (5) Getting along with people

These problems can be said to arise out of what is commonly known as the basic human needs. These are needs that must be satisfied for every individual or he will not learn or be effective in any activity to the full extent of his capabilities. In C. B.

Mendenhall and K. J. Arisman's book, Secondary Education, these needs are concisely stated as follows: 7 "health, security, belonging, a sense of achievement, freedom from feer, and maintenance of self-esteem....."

Besides considering the peculiar problems and needs

of every individual as a necessary basis upon which

⁷Mendenhall, C. B., & Arisman, E. J. Secondary Education. New Yorks Wm. Sloame Associates, Inc., 1951. p. 52.

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DESCRIPTION OF PERSONS COLUMN A of property of any of all of No. Claim Impediation Toky 1950 or to Marie to build any guidance program, it is also necessary to have a complete understanding of each student's artitudes, interests and skills.

The above information has given us a look at typical problems and needs of the average student. It is important, however, that these be used only as an indication of what to look for in order to provide a basis for a guidance program. By this I meen, "typical", is a dangerous word to use, for each student should not be typed or thought of as being stamped out of a common mold. On the contrary, he should be treated and understood as an individual, for his problems and needs are poculiar to him and to no one else.

2. How to Find Out What the Individual Student's Problems are?

There are numerous ways of obtaining information about the problems and needs of an individual student, none of which should be used exclusively, but all of them used whenever possible to supplement the others.

The most important method is naturally the teacher's own observation. That is, getting to know each of his students personally by mixing with them socially, by taking an interest in them, and talking to them in a friendly and personal but not inquisitive manner. Much can be learned about each student if the instructor possesses nothing else but a friendly and

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pleasant personality end by his speech and actions lets his students understand that he is there to help them.

To fully understand an individual student, other more formal methods are helpful such as problem checklists, interest inventories, questionnaires, interviews, school cumulative records, keeping records of each student, obtaining information from counselors, other teachers, parents and friends, and freewriting on the part of each student in which he lists his problems, needs and interests.

In regard to health, aptitudes and skills, most schools have elaborate and detailed testing programs which will reveal much valuable information in this respect.

One thing should be emphasized again and that is, all of these methods should be utilized so that information will be obtained concerning not just one, but all areas of the student's concern, a necessity for any guidance endeavor.

3. Guidance Techniques

Guidance techniques can be generally classified as group guidance, and individual guidance or counseling techniques. Actually both are complementary devices, one is not generally sufficient without the other. A comprehensive guidance program should include both group placement proposability may be fully replace and articles date that electronic tenterprises than the followed the region forms.

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and individual guidance techniques. The reason for this will be seen in the following explanation of their values and how they should be used together in many instances if guidance is to be successful.

- a. Oroup Guidance consists of those guidance techniques which the teacher can use in working with a group rather than separately with individuals. This means that members of a group work out their problems together with the assistance of the instructor. Group guidance has the following values:
 - Enables individuals to work out their problems in a natural atmosphere of group relationships where many problems originate in the first place.
 - (2) Students are often inclined to discuss their problems openly when they realize that many other students have the same difficulties. They are also often less self conscious in such group situations than in personal interviews with a guidance expert.
 - (3) The process of discussing common problems in a group atmosphere often results in casing of tensions and development of understandings that lead to solving these problems.

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- (4) Group guidance techniques will help to save the instructor's time. In many instances these techniques alone will be all that is required to help some of the students work out their difficulties.
- (5) Students are often more inclined to accept recommended solutions to their problems suggested by their peers (those of their own ago group), moreos than if these came from an adult guidance expert.
- (6) Group discussions may help to establish a friendly relationship with the instructor, thus pave the way for individual counseling if needed.
- (7) By means of group guidance the instructor may gain much valuable information about individuals that can be followed up in personal interviews.
- (8) Group guidance often enables the guidance expert to see more clearly than in a personal interview how the individual's inner problems are actually affecting his relationships with other people and what he does to overcome his difficulties.
- (9) Group guidance techniques have therapeutic values if they do nothing else than to focus

Strang, R. M. Counseling Technics in College and Secondary School. New York: Harper & Bros., 1949. pp. 302.

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- an individual's attention on other person's problems rather than his own. They often help him understand others as well as himself.
- (10) "Good group guidance should be effective in forestalling the development of problems, assisting in the growth of integrated personalities, improving personal, social and occupational orientation, and finally helping people to make more effective use of personal and vocational counseling services when and as they are needed."
- b. Individual Guidance individual counseling, as individual guidance is more commonly known, applies primarily in the school situation to interviews or personal conferences between the individual student and his teacher or a counselor. The values of the counseling techniques are:
 - (1) Often group guidance must be supplemented with individual consultations. This is especially true in instances where an individual has to be assisted in applying to his own case, facts and attitudes gained from group discussions. This was examplified by Donald E. Super in citing a study of the General College of the University of Minnesota in which it was found

Super, Donald E. "Group Techniques in the Guidance Program", Educational and Psychological Measurement 9: (Autumn, 1949), p. 510.

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- improve the educational-vocational adjustment of the students unless coupled with individual counseling.
- (2) Individual counseling is often necessary when the problems are so personal in nature that the individual refuses to discuss them more or less publicly.
- (3) Individual counseling allows the trained and experienced guidance expert to concentrate his sidls of clarifying issues and understanding broad problems on the problems presented by the individual.
- (4) Individual counseling enables the instructor or counselor to find out much more information about an individual student and his problems than is usually possible by group guidance relationships.
- (5) Being able to unburden one's troubles to an understanding, trained and experienced counselor has definite therapeutic values for the student.

c. Group Guidance Techniques

The group guidance techniques described herein are not limited only to the conventional classroom,

¹⁰ mid. p. 506.

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but also include activities outside the purely academic classes in which the teachers participate.

Frior to examining these techniques it might be well to consider some recommended general rules concerning their use.

- (1) The important thing is that group guidance should be included in all classroom activities. They should not be limited to non-accedenic activities, but included in academic activities as well. This necessitates an organized school program whereby guidance activities are integrated in all activities of the school.
- (2) Group guidance activities should be planned, developed and controlled by the students so that they will be centered around the problems and needs of the students. This will result in the students taking more of an active interest and participation in them. Group guidance does not mean lack of control however, for the helpful assistance of the instructor is still very such a necessity.
- (3) Unidence activities should be fleedble and subject to change as the needs and problems of the students demand. Rules and regulations should not be arbitrary, thus prohibiting sharing of experiences and interests, and preventing social relationships and group development.

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- (4) The teacher should help fuse the students into a group and he should be a participating member of the group as well.
- (5) Group activities should be simple and informal.
- (6) Group guidance activities should be supplemented with individual counseling whenever necessary.
- (7) Group guidance activities should meet often enough under the same instructor so that he has the opportunity to get to know each of his students and his problems.

One of the simplest ways to classify group guidance techniques is the following method developed by Donald E. Super. 11 He establishes two main categories: orientation activities and therapeutic activities. Then under each of these broad categories are activity methods and discussion methods. Using his classification system, the discussion of each group guidance technique will be presented in the following order:

Orientation Activities—These are activities which either just disseminate facts or allow for group examination of its own attitudes so as to bring about self-adjustment or self-orientation. These activities seem to be more commonly used in schools

¹¹ Super, op. cit., p. 496.

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than are therapeutic activities. Probably the reason for this is that most adjustment problems of young people are because of lack of information about problems that trouble them (i.e., facts about health and growth, information concerning jobs, rules of social conduct, etc.), or are not too personal, emotional problems involving social attitudes and values. These are also based on lack of information or facts (i.e., going to the right school and selecting the right job because of their prestige value, etc.). The use of these orientation activities in school thus presupposes that the individual members of the group are mature enough and sufficiently welladjusted to assimilate new facts even when they run counter to emotional attitudes.

Discussion-

means of providing educational and vocational guidance in schools. Too frequently, however, the homeroom is used as a study period or to disseminiate administrative information rather than as a means for students to discuss their common problems and the facts necessary to solve them. When the home room program is informal and is planned, organized and operated by the stu-

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year of personal description of the personal restriction of personal descriptions of personal descriptions of personal descriptions of personal descriptions of the enterprise of the enterprise and absolute of the enterprise of the enterprise of the enterprise of the enterprise of the personal description of the enterprise of the enter

dents, with the assistance and guidance of the teacher (acting primarily as a resource agent), and involves experiences for all in various group activities (discussions, committees, etc.), it can be a valuable part of the school's guidance program. Besides providing information about the school and what the school offers, it should also include educational and vocational planning for future as well as discussion of the social and emotional problems of the students.

common Learnings, Grown Guidance, or Orientation Classes—these classes are similar to what the homerooms should be as described above. It is essential that the curriculum of this type of class grow out of the real and immediate needs of the students. Thus it is necessary that the teacher plan, with the assistance of the students, the course of study as the class progresses, rather than plan in advance a formal, inflexible one. In addition, the size of these classes should be limited to allow for each student to participate, as well as for the instructor to get to know each student.

Occumations Courses—are courses to present

the students with information not only about

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jobs that they are interested in, but also to instruct them in the techniques of applying for and holding down a job. Questions commonly discussed in these classes are: 12

- a. How to locate and size up job opportunities.
- b. How to apply for a job.
- c. How to get started.
- d. How to make good.
- What are government regulations and protections which cover beginning workers (i.e., social security, wage and hour laws, etc.)

Apparently, however, the mere importing of factual information about occupations is not enough, for as determined by Kefauver and Hand, the percentage of low-ability students in a junior high school aspiring to go to college increased rather than decreased as a result of their being exposed to a course in educational and vocational opportunities. This seems to denote the necessity of the instructor assisting each individual to apply to his own case, the facts and information that have been given to him. Here is an example where individual counseling should supplement group guidance.

¹² Wright, Barbara H. Prectical Handbook for Group Guidance. Chicagos Science Research Associates, 1948. 225 p.
13 Kefauver, G. H., and Hand, H. C. Appreising Guidance in Sepondary Schools. New York: The Hackillan Co., 1941. 260 p.

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(The above orientation activities-homorooms. group guidance classes, and occupation's classes-might well be adapted for use in the Mavy training program. Here might be considered the questions that many men, particularly the seaman recruits, have concerning their lives in the service. For example, such cuestions as: What specializations does the Navy have to offer, what are the requirements, and what are their civilian counterparts? What specialization am I best suited for? What advantages are there to making a career in the Navy? How can I become an officer? Is it financially possible for a non-rated man to marry and be able to support a family on his service pay? What are the basic rules of social conduct so that I will be a credit to myself and the Navy? What educational opportunities are there in the Mayy other than going to school?)

Regular Academic Classes—in this field there seems to exist a great opportunity for group guidence work. In all too few schools is the opportunity being taken to integrate guidence activities with the regular academic classes. Each teacher, regardless of the subject matter

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being taught, should be responsible for the guidance of his students, in that he allows for positive individual and group participation in organizing, and participating in the class work. By doing this, the instructor will be able to relate the subject matter to the needs, experiences, and interests of the students. Also by the students' participation. both in group and individual activities, their interest in the subject matter is more apt to be sustained, and experience in cooperative, working relationships with other students in accomplishing common tasks, can be promoted. Besides these general guidance features that should be always present in any class, specific needs of the students can often be provided by personalizing the subject being taught. For instance in history subjects, the manners and morals of say, the English people of the Elizabethan Period can be contrasted with the manners and morals of England today as well as ours in the United States. This can lead to a discussion of the subject of how we individually and as grouns can help to improve our moral standards. Another phase might be comparing health standards of people

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of another age with ours today in the United States, and where improvements are still necessary.

General Educational Program of the Core Curricula-this is a much broader educational guidance program than any of those mentioned so far. For example, in the instance of Boston University, instead of allowing the students in the first two years of college to specialize, they are enrolled in a two-year General Education Program. This consists of five broad areas of human interest: science, social science, English and literature, guidance and history and government. Rather than drawing a line of demargation between one subject and another, they are taught on the basis of fusing correlated subjects together as they are in life (similar to the core curriculum). For instance, the subject matter of physics, chesistry and biology is fused into a single course of science which in turn is correlated with history and government, and the social sciences with English, literature, etc. The object is to give each student a wide under-

¹⁴Butler, J. R. "A General ducation Program", School and Society. 65: (May 3, 1947), pp. 321-26.

make not in many year of his married to Albert was interestrated month the publish. WALL MO TO DESCRIPT LIQUID HAM SECOND Landstein was per over \$ 44 1500-\$1000000 manufactor would be use sold straying and take as their the secondary by the bushness of bushness amount of checks of question to the part his years of edition to equality-Language was savelled by a language language 1 8077 To refulence \$ 107 To compare not recomm Jaimes quanties interested month to Augus Admit referred implicit and Lithlericans, existing and natural and quality administry has browned The decide his plantal still print to sell a markets, they are banger on the bester of Feeling at the fact or making at transport but always ner . (miletores sens upo up tellate) effet deficiency for rangem tention of populars which a pull length of builded for variables. inhibers at any at MIN Street in second-day States all the Assessment, for which the SN 150 philanett product development

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standing of the world about his rather than detailed information about isolated subjects. Furthermore, the program is designed to give each student academic experience in a wide range of vocational choices and courses of advanced study, and to stimulate his interest in these fields. This type of education is correlated very closely with the field of guidance, for it helps to satisfy many individual questions as to the world he lives in, and how he fits into its general pattern. Through small guidance groups, the students discuss topics of common concern to them all, and these groups provide the basis for individual counseling. The purpose of the program is to help each student understand himself, his interests, aptitudes, abilities, limitations, opportunities and needs. Coordinated with making available a wide range of occupational information the program is also designed to help him make wise voactional decisions. (In the Navy training program, although such a course would not in its entirety be feasible, the approach might be of value in presenting to each seemen recruit a background of what the Navy is. That is, a combined study of all aspects of the Navy-its

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history, its prospective role in the future of the United States, what it consists of, what the various component specialities are and how they are related, etc.) Special Discussion Events-these include such worthwhile events (appropriate for either the classroom or larger groups), as interviews with successful men and women, panel discussions of occupational and social problems, and guest speakers trained and experienced in the fields of interest to the students. All of these are of utmost value to the students, provided the subjects dealt with are of common concern to them, and there is a maximum amount of student participation in the discussion process. A special discussion event that appears to have been used with decided success in a number of public schools is what is known as a "career day". This consists of a number of successful mon and women in a wide number of fields of work being invited to come to the school to talk with those students that are interested in their occupations. (It seems that such an activity would be most beneficial in the Mavy training program, particularly in "Boot Training", as a device whereby officers and petty officers give first-hand information about

manage the prospertion role in his prime. and the best dealers which the last the last the has biddle follower description and the maintains Lattle altribution one pinte and druone status - salt-spiners miregal's februal and maddle to a simple proper above adjustment charges of they everyth, or little that tracking the Direct account for one deliverages of its Among how admittalled Dislater him Limit Aspende has MARK will all belongwood for biglest excesses real received but SER a shipping to the set theretain, his and believed branches will be substituted to let appears prome to see this store alregion Ambinity for Assemb senadous a last years from paints A strictory sociesation and Ad and admiraging transbend of temporal datal degree understand diabases. in resident A out reproper headants their lines used THE RESERVE AND ADDRESS OF THE PARTY OF THE Arthumous by window is to minimus nair . " and "In stifull by unitary side a and almost has loss Ad South that of one of balling sales for INCOMES THE PART MARKETY WHILE ARE SELECTED. to their fall times of I amendments that well no SPACE AND HER EMPERORS NAME AN ADDRESS OF PERSONS building property particularly in freeh frommaking one execution belowers inches a me affine ment of the property and the second property of

specialized fields that they represent.)

Refresher Courses—as a result of the veterans enrolling in secondary schools and colleges after World War II, new and valuable types of courses, called refresher courses, were developed. These refresher courses were given primarily in reading and mathematics, although they could be offered in any field if needed. As their name implies, they are designed to meet a very basic problem of many students—providing retraining in various fundamental subject fields necessary for advanced study.

I have listed above various orientation discussion a ctivities that seem to have values if applied to the Havy training program. In order to give an idea of what can be accomplished in these activities in the way of a program of events, I would also like to list some examples of typical events: 15

- a. Presentation of experiences, hobbies, interests and plans by individual students.
- b. Orientation tours through the school.
- Fresentation of as well as reviews and discussions of motion pictures, radio and TV programs.

¹⁵Strang, H. The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work. New York: Columbia University, 1946. pp. 194-6.

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- d. Career conferences with outside speakers who are authorities in their fields. (See "special discussion events")
- e. Description of opportunities in trade schools.
- f. An amateur hour or cuiz programs.
- g. Open house for guests.
- h. Discussion of home and family relations by a panel of adults and students.
- Interest groups (travel, hobbies, etc.) report to the class concerning their group meetings.
- 1. Class evaluation of consercial announcests.
- Self-rating on qualities of importance for vocational success.
- Drematizations and demonstrations of correct social manners and customs.
- m. Preparation of assembly or large group programs.
- Reading and discussing stories concerning subjects of general interest.
- Discussions of such topics of pupil concern as the reason why students get poor grades, how to be a social success, and topics concerning national and world conditions.
- p. Discussion of personal problems on the basis of the case method.
- q. Visiting other classes.

activities—in many respects, orientation activities seem more beneficial than the discussion methods, since they make the information more functional and easier to assimilate. For example, just facts about an occupation are often hard to visualize. In any event, it seems that both have their places and should supplement one another in any guidance program. Some typical and valuable orientation activities are:

<u>Occupational Laboratories</u>—where students make first-hand studies of various occupations by doing tasks similar to those required by the actual job.

School Newspapers—have values in that they help to teach skills of group relationships, ability to put one's thoughts and impressions into readable English, acquire self-confidence and social skills in meeting new people, and stimulate one's interest and knowledge about a variety of subjects.

Clubs—where groups of students gather to work on projects or hobbies of common interest. Besides helping to improve group relationships, these stimulate the student's interests and understendings editables one composite, administrative coloridate and control of the coloridate and control of the coloridate and coloridate and coloridate and coloridate. The complete plants along the composition of the coloridate and coloridate

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Alago-energ proces of section given to new in projects an initial or more factories, ambiga beliging to improve group relaxionation, then extending his midwid a batternan and reconstruction about the subject around which the club is organized.

Field Trips—help clarify misconceptions by actually seeing performed in action what has been only talked about before. A valuable method of stimulating interests as well.

Leisure-Time Activities these cultural and recreational activities (such as sports, musical, dramatic and art activities, etc.), provide actual pleasure to their participants, help to teach them valuable skills in group relationships, and furnish training in many worthwhile activities as well. One of the major values of these leisuretime activities is therapeutic in nature. That is, they often act as safety-valves from the pressures of one's daily life. Work Experience one of the best ways to learn about a job and to test one's interest and aptitudes. Many schools are combining actual experience on the job with academic training for the job.

It is important that the values of the above activities as well as of all so-called extracurricular activities, be recognized by all teachers and the school administration. Far about the subpan process some the size.

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from being divorced from the school's academic program they should be firmly integrated with it and promoted by every means possible.

Therapeutic Activities—these are primarily group guidance activities to meet the needs of the students that can't be provided by orientation activities. While the basis of orientation activities is to provide new information or facts so as to facilitate individual adjustment, the basis of therapeutic activities is a process of remediation. That is, to correct old misconceived ideas and faulty attitudes.

Group therapeutic activities enable individuals to work out their relationships and
problems in a group atmosphere where they
feel the support of the group unity. Here
each student has the opportunity to bring
common problems out into the open, to relieve
tensions as a result of "getting them off his
chest", and to develop a healthy perspective
and insight concerning his own problems. That
is, an understanding that everyone has some
strong and weak points, and that everyone has
the same problems to a degree. Group therapeutic activities further help to clarify
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tion or interpretation and seem to develop a feeling of being able to face life's problems (probably as a result of putting feelings into words and understanding one's own problems as well as those of others).

The aims of group theraphy may best be accomplished by giving persons the opportunity to express their feelings and to gain an understanding of why they behave as they do, through discussion and various types of activities.

<u>Discussion</u>—Super describes the discussion or verbal group therapeutic methods as falling into the following categories: cathartic-supportive, non-directive, group development, and interpretative.

These are listed in an ascending order of the amount of direction given by the instructor.

Cathartic-Supportive—this is what is known as the cathartic process of unburdening one's self before a group. In the non-educational circles it is used in religious revival meetings where individuals confess to the group. In educational circles it can be said to

¹⁶ Super, D. E. "Group Technics in the Guidance Frogram", Educational and Psychological Measurement 9: (Autumn, 1949), pp. 496-510.

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be the therapeutic benefits derived when individuals in a group voluntarily talk about their own personal problems with which each is concerned. Mondirective Group Theraphy-this method aims at helping members of a group to understand their own inner conflicts through spontaneous discussion of an emotionally-toned topic of common interest. The role of the instructor is strictly non-directive. That is, he should only accept, reflect and clarify feelings of the group members, and rely upon the members themselves to work out their problems in the permissive atmosphere of the group. For example, groups meeting regularly to discuss the subject of anti-racial feeling found out that through the process of exploring why they think as they do, they were able to divorce the emotional aspects from the subject (i.e. the feeling of I dislike all foreigners was replaced by I dislike certain foreign races because of business competition, infringement upon property rights, etc.). Then, seeing the problem in its true light, the group was able to

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stand the possible ill-effects of such feelings. Non-directive techniques seem to have value for courses and activities designed to promote character building, and when used in discussion groups they should benefit many people who ordinarily would never see a counselor or guidance specialist.

Group Development or the Group Dynamic Nathod—this method is what might be called group interaction theraphy. This method, developed by the Bethel Laboratory in Group Development, is based on the idea that understanding one's own behavior in a group results in insight and modification of attitude resulting in improved personal relationships and more effective group action. 17

The method is to record the types and amounts of personal relationships, and a discussion of how a group develops. This analytical process is carried on when the group is discussing or engaging

^{17&}quot;The Dynamics of the Discussion Group", Journal of Social Issues, IV (Spring 1948), 1-75.

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in some common problem. While this is going on one of the members acts as a process observer and records the group's behavior, to show the type and amount of participation of each member. This information is then reviewed by the group. This self-examination seems to result in new insights into behavior and stronger feelings of group unity which themselves help to modify individual behavior (i.e. help to make individuals more cooperative, understanding, tolerant, etc.). The value of the group development method is when people want to understand their roles in relation to other people and how they can modify their behavior and be more effective in inter-personal relations. Interpretive Group Theraphy or Group

Counseling—this is the method whereby individual members of a group develop new insights about their behavior through comments or suggestions made by the trained instructor or other members of the group. The acceptance of solutions to personal problems is supported by accept—

the prior which problems, which make the when it is not supplied will be that the pales. What had properly but persons also AMERICAN, TO RAPE THE TOPS AND INCOME. ADD ASSESSED THAN THE STREET, LANDING TO mer of temporary and all males which props This salth-marketine salt spray ten university that the real of the real make quies speed to making margetly out Installed whiter of the outcome sugarte one or do: ...) suint well and the control of the later of the lat one were on to make our all there are are now adjust, and all being describe as administrate value when had review other pools and the three on many Units solaring and he notes expective tapleased realizes and all additional frames. quired non a to evolve Landyllist new Lordents alless trially received Version

ance of the instructor and the feeling of group unity experienced by members as a result of being part of a group working for a common purpose.

Other more directive methods of group counseling are when the instructor lectures about certain emotional problems with related personal problems in turn being discussed by the group.

Activities—these therapeutic group activities can best be classified as psychodrama, role-playing or sociodrama, and

Psychodrams—the besic idea in psychodrams is in the makebelieve world of the stage where an individual expresses his needs and reactions to personal problems in an unstructured situation. In psychodrams, the individual is left to develop his own role as the action progresses. He is aided on the stage by "auxiliary egos" (trained persons who stand by ready to assist him), a director and at times, a participating audience. By anticipating situations in which an emotional conflict is likely to occur, the psychodrams helps individuals to cope with real life

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problems by gaining new insights and understandings about them. This method is undoubtedly out of the realm of most classrooms, however, for it is primarily a psychiatric device used with disturbed. more inhibited and less socialised people. and should be carried on only under the supervision of psychiatrist. Role Playing or Sociedrame-is similar to the psychodrama in method, but while psychodrama is concerned with deeply emotional problems, sociodrama deals with collective problems or situations that are common to members of a group. Both techniques, however, give the feeling of group unity and help individuals to understand situations in a more realistic light. In role playing, the participants are assigned definite roles to play on the stage rather than devising them as the action progresses. The individuals, however, are responsible for developing their roles on the stage. The way they do it is usually criticized by the group afterwards, thus helping them to see how well they have taken on the characteris-

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tics of the role. Role playing is normally used to help people prepare for a coming event-entering a new school, applying for a job., etc .-- any situation that may produce fear or worry. This device has produced valuable results in psychiatric theraphy in hospitals and as a teaching device in schools, guidance centers, and business life. Sociemetry-this is a method of finding out the natural groupings and patterns of associations among members of a group. Each person, for example, is to choose the person whom he would like to associate with in some activity. At times each person is also asked with whom he would not like to be associated. After choices are made, the groups are formed in which every individual is given some of his choices, his first if possible. In utilizing this method, it is important that the falt needs of the members of the group are met. Grouping by means of a sociometric test will further effective group action, for if the individual members of a goup like one another they will undoubtedly tend to cooperate more in any group action. In addition, by

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and women are and quity a he receive their enveryor of lart (December 172) th year group political. To addition; by means of a sociometric test the instructors can find out who the social isolates are, who undoubtedly need individual counseling.

d. Individual Guidance Activities

Individual guidance activities engaged in by the instructor are normally grouped under the title of counseling. Counseling is the face-to-face relationship between the student and the instructor, consisting of interviews held at critical times and when students request assistance. The aim of counseling is to help the student understand his problems and work out his own decisions concerning solutions to them with the careful understanding and skillful assistance of the counselor. In most schools the specialist counselor shares with the homeroom in being the most frequently used sources of guidance. However, the teacher's role as a counselor or adviser is assuming more importance in individual guidance. His role as such is naturally marged with that of group guidance, out of which individual counseling develops.

¹⁸ renn, C. G. and Dugan, W. B. Guidance Procedures in High School. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1930. 69 p.

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(1) Counseling Situations

Prior to examining the interview procedures, it might be well to identify the situations in which interviews are useful. These are listed by Strang as: 19

- (a) When the teacher observes behavior in a student that he believes can be explained by a personal interview.
- (b) To determine what the school cen do to further the student's development and preparation for the future.
- (c) When the student's records show a difference between his ability and achievement.
- (d) When some special problem arises that requires cooperative thinking of the student and the teacher (i.e., poor school behavior, reading difficulty, problems of family and social relations, emotional in-

¹⁹strang, R. The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Nork. New York: Columbia University, 1946. p. 405.

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stability, etc.). A teacher can encourage students to come to him when in need of assistance, by letting them know what help a counselor can provide.

- (e) When a student is ready to make further educational plans.
- (f) When a student is ready to choose a vocational field.
- (g) When a student is entering a new school and needs help in order to orient himself.
- (2) Counselor Methods in Helping Students
 Solve their Problems

As Wright clearly states it, the teacher counselor has a number of methods from which to choose in helping students solve or adjust themselves to their difficulties. These include:

- (a) Changing the conditions which seem to cause the trouble (i.e., arrange for the student to drop a course in which he is failing).
- (b) Providing remedial treatment to correct the difficulty (i.e. taking

²⁰ Fight, B. H., Practical Nandbook for Group Guidance. Chicago: Science Reserrach Associates, 1948. 225 p.

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- remedial lessons in how to study or improving one's reading abilities).
- (e) Giving the student information that he needs in order to work out his difficulty (i.e. qualifications for a particular vocation he is interested in, entrance requirements for a school, etc.).
- (d) Allowing the pupil to "get a problem off his chest" by telling his troubles to a sympathetic and understanding adult.
- (e) Giving the student authoritative and direct advice (i.e. referring him to the fact that his scores in intelligence tests seem to indicate that he can do better school work).
- (f) Helping a student to get a better understanding of his problems by discussing them.
- (g) Attempting to change attitudes and behaviors by a series of interviews and suggestions.

The appropriate time to use any of the above methods or perhaps a combination of them, naturally depends upon the student and the nature of his problem.

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Generally speaking, however, the correct procedures for conducting an interview will be, by and large, similar in every case.

(3) Considerations for Conducting Interviews-

Although no set formula can be established for successfully conducting a counseling interview, for it greatly depends upon the sensitivity of the teacher to what the person being interviewed is thinking and feeling, the following general considerations can be made:

- (a) The teacher should listen intently and do as little talking as possible. He should allow the student ample time for thinking out his problem.
- (b) The student should be accepted as he is and understood—not judged, scolded or praised. Let the student feel free to talk about the things he is concerned with.
- (c) The interview should be a cooperative device in which both the teacher and the student share their information and resources in an atmosphere of mutual trust and confidence.
- (d) The teacher must be a resource person have the required information concerning principles of mental hygiene, social con-

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- ditions, requirements of different vocations, prerequisites for different academic courses, and all other information needed to help the student solve his problems.
- (e) The teacher must have faith in the student's ability to help himself to solve his own problems, and to be able to do so independently in the future. The student, not the counselor, should make the decisions.
- (f) The success of the interview is to a considerable degree dependent upon the teacher's personality—whether he is interested in the student's problem, is genuinely kind, honest, trustworthy and straightforward, and has an outward manner of friendship and good humor. These qualities are necessary if the teacher is going to establish a friendly cooperative working relationship with the student.
- (g) The interview is only one part of counseling. Other important parts are gathering information about each student, studying this information, conferring with other teachers when necessary, following up or helping the student to put

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- his plans into effect, and recording notes of the counseling sessions for future reference.
- (h) The physical and emotional setting is important for successful counseling. There should be a definite scheduled time, duration, and place for counseling which is free from distractions and provides a confidential atmosphere. However, provision must also be provided for informal counseling sessions in the classroom when the student seeks a few words of help from the teacher. The student must feel at ease and that he is in a friendly, helpful atmosphere.
- (i) Often several interviews are necessary to help solve a student's difficulty. Several meetings are usually necessary for the student to develop faith and confidence in the counselor, for the counselor to accurately understand the student's problem and judge his ability or character, and to obtain sufficient data to help the student solve his own problem.
- (j) Often the obvious problem presented by the student is not the underlying problem that is causing the trouble. A good

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- procedure is to ask the student "was there something else that you wanted to talk about?".
- (k) The counselor should not assume that the student has a "problem" in connection with every interview—this may lead to a patronizing attitude on the part of the counselor.
- The counselor usually learns as much from the student as the student learns from the counselor.
- (m) The counselor should take the responsibility for helping the student, but not hesitate to seek assistance from other people if necessary (i.e. either for more information or referring the student to a specialist in case the problem is beyond the capabilities of the counselor to solve).
- (n) The counselor should be hesitant about giving his opinion. He should offer facts when requested, but admit that he doesn't know if this is the case.
- (o) The counselor should avoid disagreeing abruptly with the student or disillusioning him, but on the other hand he should not be overly sympathetic either. He

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- should be realistic in treating the student's problems.
- (p) The counselor should not show surprise or resentment at anything the student says.
- (q) The counselor should be as objective and impartial as possible and assume that the student is mature in order to encourage him to solve his own problems.
- (r) In emotional problems it is often helpful for the counselor to reflect the student's feelings (i.e. "You feel that they are being unfair to you"). This helps the student to see the meaning and importance of his feelings.
- (s) It is good for the student and his counselor to work out together a plan of action of what the student is going to do as a result of the interview. This will help to bring about positive results as well as give the student the feeling that the interviews have helped him.
- (t) At the closing stages of the interview it is good for the counselor to get the student to summarize what has been accomplished (i.e. "Let's see, what have we done so

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far in this interview?").

(u) The counselor should be alert when to end the interview. The interview should not degenerate into social conversation. A good technique is to ask, "Is there anything else you would like to talk about today?".

(4) Appraising the Interview

The success of the interview can be determined largely by the teacher making out a self rating chart which will help to show him what are good and poor interview procedures. That is, by comparing what actually took place in an interview with the most desirable interview procedures. The following chart is suggested by Strang for this purpose.

Scale for Rating Interviews

1. What was the setting for the interview?

Flenty of time scheduled Feeling of leisure Frivacy Fleasent lighting, and other provisions for interviewer's comfort

OF

Insufficient time
People weiting
People bustling in and out
Telephone to be answered
Desk cluttered with work to do
Clare and other discomforts

²¹ Strang, R. The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Nork. New York: Columbia University, 1946. p. 408-410.

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2. What was the appearance and manner of the interviewer?

Pleasant voice Alert and keen Good health Poise and reasonable self-confidence At ease Cordial Genuine interest in interviewee

or

Unpleasant voice Fatigued, dull Feor health Uncertain and insecure Ill at ease, bored Indifferent Fatronizing

How did the interviewee respond conversationally during the interview?

> Talked freely Tried to think through the problem aloud

> > or

Tended only to answer questions or refused to answer them Uncommunicative Unwilling to accept his responsibility in the interview

4. How did the interviewer encourage the individual to get an understanding of himself and his relationship?

Successfully

By repeating his most significant remarks By following in a natural way clues the interviewce gave By asking questions to clarify certain points.

By interpreting interviewees remarks

Unsuccessfully

By being completely passive By telling interviewee what to do

By arguing or criticizing

By probing

By interpreting before interviewer was ready for it

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How did the attitude of interviewee change during the interview

> Interviewee gained new and valuable insights and orientation; felt more hopeful and more confident in his shilty to handle the situation; became increasingly independent of the interviewer; had a more friendly relationship.

> > 02"

Interviewee became increasingly dependent upon the interviewer; took less responsibility for thinking through the situation himself; less self-confident; more hopeless; more resistant to counselor.

6. What kind of plan resulted from the interview?

A plan worked out primarily by the interviewee-realistic and possible of being carried out

on

A "ready-made plan, which the interviewer impressed upon the student

7. What was the effect of the interview on subsequent relationship with interviewer?

Student was able to carry out plan; came voluntarily to interviewer when he needed further help

or

No favorable change in behavior; student avoided coming to the interviewer again.

Insofar as whether the counseling of the student has contributed to his better adjustment, this must of necessity involve a careful study of his changes in behavior as denoted by his own opinions; those of teachers, counselors, parents, and friends; performance records in school; and

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follow-up reports after he leaves school. The subject of evaluation will be dealt with in greater detail in section G covering an evaluation of the entire guidance program.

(5) Values of the Counseling Interview

The interview has its values as an information-getting technic, but more important, it is a valuable diagnostic-therapeutic device. "No other instrument creates so favorable a relationship for personal growth. No other technic contributes so much to the counseling (guidance) process....of guiding the individual in self-discovery and self-realization." 22

F. Sources of Information for the Teacher

In section E2 there was listed briefly, suggested means of finding out what individual students problems are. These included primarily such things as test and record information about the student. Although this information is vitally important, it is not enough if the teacher is not only to recognize the problems of his students, but in turn if he is going to be able to assist them in solving their problems. It is recognized that the problems associated with the normal development of people are complex and involved. Therefore, the teacher in his guidance work should have the full cooperation of the following

²²strang, op. cit., p. 413.

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personnel in helping him fulfill his guidance responsibilities. 23

- 1. The School's Administrative Head-it is the responsibility of the head of the school's administration as well as his entire staff to inspire and encourage the teachers in their guidance efforts; to provide them with the best possible working conditions in order to maintain a high morale on the part of the faculty: to provide within the school's curriculum and operations conditions that help to provide for the student's needs; to provide an administrator to coordinate and promote all guidence activities; to provide teachers with sufficient working time to engage in guidance activities; to furnish required personnel records, materials and physical arrangements for a successful guidance programs to provide opportunities for continuous training in the field of guidance; to furnish necessary specialist assistance in the various fields of guidance; and finally, to integrate the guidance program with the entire academic and nonacademic programs of the school.
- The Specialists—teachers need cooperation with the specialists in order to recognize individual

²³ Thid., pp. 68-109.

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students who need the help of a specialist; to furnish information about a student referred to a specialist; and to help carry out treatment recommended for an individual or group of students. The specialists required in any school system in order to conduct an effective guidance program include:

- a. The School Librarian—should provide reading materials on all types of guidance problems and suggest books and literature to contribute to the teachers' training in guidance as well as to meet the needs of the individual students.
- b. The Personnel Director, Director of Guidance, or Dean of Students—this job holds many titles but a single responsibility of coordinating and promoting the school's guidance program. He should be broadly trained in guidance so teachers can refer special cases to him for assistance or further referral. He as it to teachers in developing and improving their own phases of the guidance program, helps to improve general school conditions and the curriculum, arranges for cooperative sessions on improving guidance techniques,

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- and helps to maintain cooperative relationships with community agencies concerned with guidance.
- c. Vocational-Guidance Expert—supplies the teachers and students with information about occupations and the best methods of vocational guidance.
- d. The School Nurse or Doctor—should provide the teacher with information concerning the physical condition of the students, how to recognize physical allments, and knowledge about the students home conditions.
- e. The School Social Worker or Visiting
 Teacher—to help the teacher bring about
 improvements in the students' home conditions when this is a necessary step
 in the guidance program. (In the Navy
 the chaplain and Red Cross worker probably
 would fulfill this function).
- f. The School Psychologist—the teacher should help the psychologist by giving him complete information about the student referred to him. In turn the psychologist should help the teacher learn new methods of teaching and evaluation of results of teaching.

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- g. The Psychiatrist—the teacher refers to the psychiatrist individual students who are emotionally sick, and in turn the teacher must cooperate in carrying out the suggestions of the psychiatrist for changes needed in the school.
- h. The Guidance Clinic—comprises a staff
 of specialists who take responsibility
 for diagnosing and treating certain kinds
 of cases referred to them. Through means
 of their staff of specialists concentrating their efforts on an individual case,
 plans for treatment are prepared.
- 3. Relationships with the community—the community is often one of the most important resources for the teacher in assisting him in his guidance work. It is through various community organizations that services will be provided to help to supplement the teacher's guidance functions (i.e. to help provide better family life, health, clothing, food, medical care, recreational facilities).

G. Evaluation of a Guidance Program

The most valid means of evaluating the effectiveness of a guidance program is by the process of measuring the resulting changes in student behavior. That is, by such things as improved vocational choices,

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increased social participation, improved shility of
the students in making their own decisions, development of democratic attitudes, greater self-understandings
and all in all, better social adjustment. As one can
readily see, these qualities are not only difficult
to measure, but in addition, all improvements determined can not always be attributed to a guidance program. It seems safe in assuming, however, that a
well-organised, all-inclusive guidance program will,
to a great degree, produce positive changes in the
behavior of the students.

Suggested methods of measuring resulting changes in behavior are by student reponses concerning their needs and the value of the guidance program, the judgments of the teachers and coun clors and others associated with the students, and a follow-up of the students after they leave school. Since these methods may not always be too accurate, they should be supplemented by other more specific methods of measurement such as: 24

- 1. Reduction in scholastic failure.
- 2. Reduction in discipline problems.
- 3. Increase in the use of counseling facilities.
- 4. Reduction in requests for a program change.
- 5. Increase in vocational choices which are within

²⁴ renn, C. G., and Dugan, W. E. Guidance Procedures in High School. Minneapolis: University of Minneapota Press, 1950. 71 p.

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the scope of each student's capacities and training opportunity.

- 6. Reduction of "drop-outs" from the school.
- 7. Increase in participation in school activities.
- Increase in use by former students of school facilities and counselor help.
- 9. Increase in job placements.

H. Summary and Conclusions

1. Review

The foregoing presentation of appearently successful methods of both group guidence and individual counseling has attempted to illustrate that there are many valuable techniques of helping individuals solve their own personal problems and become better adjusted to the conditions of life that they face. The cuestion of which of the techniques to use depends not only upon the nature of the problems of concern to the individual student, but upon how extensive and developed the guidance organization of the school happens to be.

Regardless, however, of the size of the school's guidence organization, the following conditions and basic principles must be present or the program will not be an effective one:

²⁵ Wrenn, op. cit., p. 3.

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a. Essential Conditions

- (1) Acceptance by the school of the point of view that students vary in their capacities, backgrounds and interests and must be treated accordingly. The school is responsible for the total development of the student, not just his mental development, and must start from where the school thinks he should be.
- (2) Specialized guidance services are made available besides the guidance services of the teachers.
- (3) A Guidance coordinator has the responsibility for coordinating and fostering an organized and integrated guidance program.
- (4) Recessary time, space and materials as required by a successful guidance program.
- (5) The whole school accepts and executes its guidance responsibilities as an integrated program with all curricular and extra-curricular activities.
- b. Essential Guidance Philosophy

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- Guidance is concerned with the "whole student", not with just his intellectual life.
- (2) Guidance is concerned with all students, not with just a few problem students.
- (3) Guidance is concerned primarily with prevention rather than cure.
- (A) Guidance is not restricted to the activities of a few specialists, but involves the whole school staff.
- (5) Guidance is concerned with the problems and needs of the students and with their choices and decisions, not those of the teachers.
- (6) Guidance is concerned with promoting on the part of each student a better understanding of himself and the ability to solve his own problems independently.
- (7) Guidance is "counsel", not "compulsion".
- (8) Guidance is a continuous process throughout the school life of each student.

c. Further Research

Lastly, there has been no attempt to indicate that the whole field of guidance is anything but in its beginning experimental

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stage. It is true much has been accomplished that has assured the worth of such a program, but much also remains to be done, and is being done to improve the techniques and methods being utilized as well as the training of guidance personnel. Further research seems necessary in the following areas:

- To see what guidance activities can best be conducted through individual counseling, through a general education program, through group guidance, and by specially trained guidance workers.
- (2) Requirements for training, experience, and personal qualities for teachers and personnel workers in the field of guidance.
- (3) The values of psychotherapeutic techniques (psychodrama, etc.) for use in general guidance programs for all students.
- Applications to the Many Training Program
 The main purpose of this somewhat lengthy
 presentation of elements of apparently successful

²⁶ Bennett, M. L., Berg, I. A., and Johnson, C. S. "Guidance thru Groupe", Review of Educational Research, (April 1948), pp. 184-193.

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civilian guidance programs is to convey the opinion that their adoption by the Navy training program should produce the same valuable results.

I have not intended to convey the impression that similar or just as effective guidance techniques are not currently being used in some of the Navy training schools. On the contrary, for no doubt many of the schools have made as rapid advances in the field of guidance as their civilian counterparts. However, to my knowledge there does not seem to be a Navy-wide, organized, guidance program at the very heart of the Naval training program, that is in instructor-student relationships in the classrooms themselves.

The young enlisted man entering the Navy has many of the same problems and needs as the students in the civilian secondary schools of our country. In fact, his problems are no doubt increased by the unnatural situation in which he finds himself. His needs must be met and his problems solved or he won't become a first-class fighting man of maximum worth to this service.

The Havy instructor is in a particularly strategic position to help his students become better adjusted. The instructor has the advantage over others who give guidance assistance, for he sees his students for longer periods of and present a full security for the party of the party bearing party and an extension from the party of the p

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time and more often, and in a natural group situation where their needs and problems are more evident.

With careful selection to ensure obtaining the best men for instructor duty, with adequate training in the basic skills of guidance, and with the support of an organized and coordinated guidance program involving the whole service school, the instructor should be able to render invaluable assistance to his students in making them happy, well-adjusted, and efficiently trained fighting men.

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CHAPTER V

OTHER APPLICABLE PRACTICES AND TECHNIQUES

There are many other advanced educational practices and techniques in our public schools, than just those dealing with in-service training and guidance, which would seem to have merit if applied to the Navy training program. Perhaps, here again, these methods that are listed herein are actually being used in various Navy schools at the present time. However, to my knowledge, the suggested practices and techniques are not uniformly being practiced throughout the entire Navy training program.

Unfortunately, limitation of time and facilities do not permit any more than a most hasty examination of each one of these recommended practices. It is recommended, however, that if any of these methods

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eem to have value for the Navy training program, that it be the subject of further research. This research could very well be in the form of topics taken up by faculty groups for study as part of the school's in-service teacher training program.

A. Improvement of Study Skills

It has been the experience of the writer that one of the major difficulties students have, whether in a public or a Mavy training school, is how to study efficiently. It seems that even the best students use inefficient study techniques. It is only because of their superior abilities, not their study habits, that most of them do so well academically.

Improvement of study skills should definitely be part of any guidance-counseling program. Although this subject has been referred to in the section dealing with guidance, it is considered of such importance that it is desired to give the matter special attention by including it as a separate topic.

In recent visits to various Navy training schools, I attended a number of counseling sessions in which a board representing the school's staff and the instructors was questioning students about the reasons for their academic failures.

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There are many good methods of how to improve one's study abilities. One in particular, from personal experience, seems to be outstanding. This is the "Survey C3R Method" devised by Francis P. Robinson. His book, entitled, Effective Study includes much more than just the "Survey C3R Method" as a means of contributing to more effective study. However, this method is the heart of his recommended program. In brief, the "Survey C3R Method" means "Survey-Question-Read-Recite and Reviews. It applies primarily to improving one's

Robinson, Francis P. Effective Study. New Nork: Harper & Bros. 1946. pp. 13-41.

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ability in reading, picking out the important points and retaining them, and speeding up the reading rate. To clarify the five steps of the process, they are as follows:

- Survey—Briefly glance over the headings in the chapter, and the summary at the end of the chapter (if there is one) in order to get a preview of what the chapter is all about.
- <u>Cuestion</u>—Now start to read. Turn the first heading into a question you should be able to answer by reading the section.
- Read—Read the first headed section to answer that question.
- 4. Recits—After reading the first section,
 look away from the book and try to answer
 your question. Use your own words and
 name an example if you can. Jet down brief
 notes in an outline form. (Repeat these
 four steps for each section until you complete
 the entire lesson.)
- 5. Review—After finishing the lesson, read over your notes to get a bird's-eye view of the important points and how they are related. Then, looking away from your notes, see if you can recite the major points from memory.

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The above method seems to have definite value in improving one's reading speed, identifying the important points and fixing them in one's memory.

It is recommended, as a means of helping students solve one of their (and the school's too) most pressing problems, that further research be undertaken as to the best method to improve their study abilities. It certainly seems that if a course for all students (not just those sceiding guidance help) in effective study techniques were added to the curriculum of each livy school, that the returns would be very valuable to the students as well as to the Navy.

B. Creative Activity Program

The Mavy training program has no doubt made great strides in proving the effectiveness of the use of activities as tools of instruction. Every Navy classroom that I visited utilized such techniques as the students actually working with real or simulated apparatus, acting out situations by role-playing and taking an active part in class discussions. Even outside the claserooms, the values of activities in the learning process were evident by the ample facilities for active recreation, such as hobby

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shops, and numerous types of competetive athletics.

The only criticism that I have is that not enough of the creative types of student activities were promoted, either inside or outside the classroom, that foster the personal, social and creative lives of the students.

By these activities I am speaking of such extra-curricular pursuits as school governing bodies, school publications, school assemblies, photographic work, wood work, art projects, the various fields of music, dramatics, and the types of athletics which tone down individual competition in favor of promoting cooperation with others. In the curricular field there are also such things as all of the student discussion activities dealing with the problems and needs of the student.

"The values of such creative activities are that they allow each one to act individually yet participate in a group, sharing his skills, ideas and learnings by working with others, gaining ideas and learnings by working with others, gaining ideas from others and project one's own ideas and convictions."

²Flaum, L. S. "The Creative Activity Program for Secondary Schools", Educational Forum 15: (November 1950). p. 93.

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In other words, creative activities are very essential both in as well as outside the classroom in order to:

- Promote the physical, emotional and spiritual health of the students.
- Encourage social adjustments—develop tolerance and understanding of others.
- 3. Promote individual and group adjustment to personal and social problems (i.e. mental hygiene, family relationships, elimination of fears and prejudices, and greater understanding of the world and where the individual fits into it).
- Develop appreciation, interests and skills in creative work.
- Develop abilities of each individual to work successfully with others in groups.

In order that a program of creative activities will be of maximum benefit to the students, it is necessary that:

- The activity program be organized and conducted cooperatively by teachers and students according to the needs of the students and abilities of the teachers. Competent teachers interested in the activities should guide them.
- 2. The program should be a regular class or

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have equal value as a regular academic course, with adequate physical surroundings provided and included within, not after, the school day.

It is recommended that the subject of an organized, creative activity program be studied at greater lengths to see whether or not such a program would provide greater values to the Navy students than those presented by the current activity programs. Certainly, such activities seem to be particularly valuable in training men how to get along with other people—to work effectively in groups. I believe that one of the most important factors in being a success in almost every billet in the Navy depends upon one's ability to work successfully with other men.

C. Administrative Improvements

Many public schools have made rapid advances in improving the learning process by providing self-contained classrooms with all of their own facilities (libraries, study spaces, etc.). Other, perhaps not so radical improvements, include such things as movable chairs, work tables rather than desks in order to promote group work, improved lighting and ventilation, attractive classroom color schemes, and

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movable partitions allowing for expansion of classroom space and flexibility of its uses. This does not necessarily apply only to expensive permanent structures, for many of our better classrooms are in school buildings of temporary or semi-permanent construction. By and large, the facilities provided the Navy training schools, however, have far to go before they can approach those of our best public schools. The physical conditions of a classroom may seem unimportant, but this is not the case when they distract from or hinder the process of learning. The importance of the physical environment of the classroom in effecting learning certainly seems to be worthy of further research. It is recommended that such a study be undertaken by the Navy training program in order to aid the efforts to obtain better classroom facilities.

Closely allied to the physical classroom facilities are the scheduled hours of instruction. In many public schools, the extended or two-hour period is being utilised with very positive results. This extended period usually means that the class meets only three times a week rather than five times a week. The values of the two-hour period over the old one-hour period

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are that it decreases the number of times instructors have to meet with each class, but doubles the number of minutes per student per meeting time; it eliminates a great deal of time wasted in beginning and ending a class; it furthers opportunities for directional study-increases the time for the instructor to give personal help to each student; it allows for laboratory periods to be held in conjunction with every subject; it allows for sufficient time to complete the discussion of most individual units of instruction; it enables the use of activities that may be time-consuming; and finally it allows for more student participation.3 The feasibility of introducing the two-hour period in the Navy schools certainly seems worthy of further study.

³Notes from lecture of C. B. Mendenhall, Professor of Education, Ohio State University, Education 631, summer quarter, 1951.

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CHAPTER VI

SIMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this study I have attempted to illustrate that there are various educational practices and techniques typical of the best of our public echools that might be of value to the Navy training program. I have covered methods involved in in-service teacher training programs, guida ace programs for instructors, and lastly, such other methods as a creative activity program, improvement of study skills, and administrative improvements. There are no doubt many other methods and techniques that have proved their worth to the public schools, that also would be of value to the Navy, but time and facilities dictate that I restrict my field somewhat.

Thus, necessarily so, I chose those topics that I felt from personal observation, might be suitable for adoption by and help solve current problems of the Navy training program.

At the risk of laboring the point unnecessarily, I would again like to state that no doubt some of our Nevy training schools have adopted similar or even better educational practices than those I have mentioned. However, from my own observation in regard to the methods I have listed, I do not believe that this is uniformly true throughout the entire Nevy training program. In addition, I am relying solely upon my own judgment and past experiences with the havy training program as to whether or not the methods I recommend can actually be applied to the

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Navy training situation. Perhaps in some instances certain ones will not prove practical. Nowever, I will consider this study as being worthwhile, if nothing else results but, first, an evaluation of the current educational practices and techniques currently in use in the Navy training program as compered to those that I have recommended; and secondly, the realization that both the Navy training program as well as the public schools have much to gain by close cooperation in improving teaching methods.

I realize that the aims of Many training and those of our public schools are necessarily different to an extent, but besically I believe that their similarities of purpose are greater than their differences. It seems to me that a man has the same basic needs and problems regardless of whether or not he is in a uniform, or in civilian clothes, or if he is working for private enterprise or in a military organizations. Without any intention to "mollycoddle" the individual, I believe that his needs and problems must be met by any educational program, or he will not be able to exercise to their fullest possibilities, the abilities he possesses.

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