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Modern Practices for Beginning Teachers in Catholic Elementary Schools

Mary Columba
Central Washington University

MODERN PRACTICES FOR BEGINNING TEACHERS IN CATHOLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

by

Sister Mary Columba O.P.

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Mary Simpson, COMMITTEE CHAIRMAN

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Charles Saale

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Mabel Anderson

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TABLE OF CONTENT

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

The main objective of this thesis is to present materials which will be offered to the young Sisters by the faculty of the Junior Catholic College for Dominican Sisters, Tacoma, Washington. It is intended to be a course to supply in part the preparatory education of these future teachers of our congregation. It is not intended to be a methods course but rather an introduction to the modern philosophy and trends of today's educational system. Some procedures will be included, however, in certain specific areas where it is felt that the young Sisters are most in need.

These young women come to us from schools all over the country, both Catholic and public, in which the old methods and techniques of teaching were employed when they attended grade and high school. They are hardly aware of the educational changes that are taking place so rapidly. It is only of late, comparatively speaking, that educators themselves have become aware of such principles as individual differences, environmental influence, social background, and personal handicaps

which affect the learning process of our children. Always before, each pupil of a class has been made to learn the same facts in the same way and at the same time regardless of the above mentioned points.

The great discoveries of our psychologists have manifestly changed our philosophy of teaching. Now we are alarmed at our own mistakes and are fully determined to present to our coming generation of educators newer and far superior principles which they will follow.

This course will offer, it is hoped, a chance for our girls to discuss and become acquainted with the classroom and everything connected with it. It is a terrifying experience to any teacher when she steps into a classroom and faces her pupils for the first time. This lack of self assurance will be greatly lessened if we can prepare them for various problems and situations which are bound to arise. The college faculty hopes to guide our young teachers in forming a sound philosophy and then direct them as far as is possible in carrying it to the classroom and making it workable.

It is desired that this course will offer the help needed by our teachers in looking ahead and planning their work with confidence and a certain degree of

self-satisfaction. With the knowledge acquired by the average high school graduate, this is impossible. What does the future of a strange child mean to them? What do they know about the 'why' of behavior patterns found in every child? These things mean nothing until the future teachers become permeated with the fact that this is a changing world and everything and everyone in it is changing. They must be shown that the methods of teaching by which they learned will not suffice or satisfy the desire for learning of our present generation. They must be shown the importance of building up a rich background of experiences before presenting new fields of study. Drill and its place in our curriculum has also changed. Its place and need must be thoroughly understood by each member of any teaching faculty. Then, too, our methods of discipline have been modified in the last few years. These and other points baffle the young teachers as they face their classes for the first time. Through this, our introductory course, we hope to clarify many of these principles and thus stabilize our future teachers.

This thesis has been organized into eleven chapters which will, it is believed, lead to a clearer understanding of educational needs and practices in the elementary

school. Chapter I, The Introduction, is self-explanatory. In Chapter II an attempt has been made to outline a suitable course to be employed in introducing to the pre-teacher new schools of thought. Every effort has been made to use only late reference materials in making the outline and in the writing of the later chapters. Chapter III briefly indicates the philosophical reasons for the present day curriculum organization.

In Chapters IV to X inclusive, the Language Arts and Social Studies, as given in the outline, have been developed. Chapter IV chiefly points out the philosophy lying behind the Language Arts. Chapters V, VI, VII, VIII, and IX develop oral expression, reading, spelling, and handwriting. Chapter X shows the organization of Social Studies as it should be taught in elementary school.

Chapter XI, the concluding chapter, cites the implications and recommendations, which it is hoped, will aid those using this paper. The Bibliography is divided into two parts. The first part contains references for the teacher who will use this thesis as her syllabus, the second is for the students who are to take the course.

Chapter II

PROBLEM: OUTLINE OF COURSE FOR BEGINNING TEACHERS IN CATHOLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

I. Teacher Relationships

A. Teacher-Principal-Community

1. Teacher-Principal

a. Shows lively interest in school

b. Discusses plans with principal

c. Makes needs known at earliest possible date

d. Accepts help offered with a spirit of interest for the common good

e. Cooperates with playground supervision

2. Teacher-Community

a. Acquaints herself with community:

(1) Resources of community

(2) Cultural background

(3) Groups interested in education

b. Must become a part of the community:

(1) Cooperates in improving conditions

(2) Upholds community projects

c. Be prepared to answer the why's of

modern trends in education

B. Teacher-Pupil

1. Organizes her teaching so that all may take an active part:
   a. Planning weekly programs
   b. Planning excursions
   c. Reporting
   d. Following and leading discussions
2. Encourages individual talents
3. Develops a feeling of belongingness by providing opportunity for participation of entire group
4. Develops feelings of responsibility and consideration:
   a. Arranging weekly program together
   b. Setting standards of conduct
   c. Emphasizing participation of pupils in arranging materials
5. Guides discipline in classroom:
   a. Understanding the child
      (1) Emotions
      (2) Behavior
      (3) Home background

b. Developing constructive discipline:[1]

(1) Bases standards on devotion to freedom, justice, and equality for all

(2) Recognizes the inherent dignity and rights of all

(3) Assures self-direction and self-discipline

(4) Bases understanding on goal in view

II. The Learning Process

A. Factors in Learning

1. Motivating the learner:

a. Interest in things to be learned

b. Interest in self advancement

c. Attitude toward his own ability to succeed

2. Making learning situation successful as a stimulus:

a. Selecting problems appropriate to maturation of learner

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1. Cf. Sheviakow, George V. and Redl, Fritz, Discipline for Todays Children and Youth, p. 7

b. Adapting materials

c. Motivating

d. Solving problem successively

3. Making learning purposive and intelligent

4. Adjusting teacher and pupils to difficulties which arise

5. Acquiring effective methods of learning and work

B. Basic Needs of Learning:

1. Security

2. Recognition

3. Belonging and conformity

4. Preeminence or excellency

5. Consistency

C. Conditions of Learning:[2]

1. Association

2. Motivation

3. Discovery

4. Fixation

5. Elimination

6. Transfer

7. Practice

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2. Stroud, James B., Psychology in Education, p. 272

D. Environmental Influences

1. Extent of influence which environment plays in learning
2. Teachers' understanding of environmental influence

E. Skills and Their Relationship to Content Material

1. Place for teaching of skills in our curriculum
2. Necessity for acquiring the various skills

F. Problem Solving

1. Situation:[3]
   a. Identifying the problem
   b. Formulating a program of action
   c. Carrying on in light of program
   d. Evaluating the progress made with reference to the aim set up
2. Values:[4]
   a. Retaining old knowledge is superior
   b. Solving how problems is more satisfactory
   c. Understanding of situation diminishes

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3. Ibid., pp. 460-63

4. Hildreth, Gertrude, Child Growth Through Education, pp. 37-40

amount of practice

d. Learning is applicable

e. Increasing retention

f. Developing transfer through meaning

III. The Weekly Program

A. Characteristics:[5]

1. Blocks of time are scheduled for planning and working on unit activities
2. There is more flexibility in the program
3. There is more variability in the program from day to day and week to week
4. There are more periods during which the individual children within a class group work at different projects
5. The nature of the particular program worked out depends upon the ages of the children, the time of the year, and local conditions
6. The children assume responsibility for indicating the time previously determined upon

IV. Experience Units[6]

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5. Ibid., pp. 127-8

6. This section of the outline is developed in Chapter X

A. Selecting appropriate units:

1. Washington State Guide
2. Good courses of study such as the Cincinnati and Virginia Courses of Study
3. Available office records

B. Criteria for selecting unit experiences:[7]

1. Relation to the concerns of children
2. Compatible with the pupils maturity
3. Realistic experiences
4. Wide range activities
5. Draws upon the basic fields of knowledge
6. Contributes to social understanding
7. Growth in interests
8. Problem-solving attitude
9. Provision for learning skills and techniques
10. Adaptation to individual differences
11. Facilities for developing the unit
12. Continuity
13. Time span

C. Developing the unit:

1. Initiating unit
   a. Introducing situation

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7. Hildreth, Gertrude, op. cit., pp. 111-12

b. Planning first hand and vicarious experiences

c. Working out a plan of study together

d. Organizing an outline of study for problem

2. Gathering Information:

a. Going on excursions

b. Traveling

c. Reading newspapers, magazines, current events, encyclopedias, atlases, supplementary books, textbooks, yearbooks, pamphlets

d. Interpreting maps, charts, graphs

e. Listening to radio

f. Viewing motion pictures

g. Using still pictures related to situation

h. Collecting exhibit materials related to study

i. Studying models

j. Listening to lectures and discussions

k. Interviewing adults in the family and community

l. Surveying conditions in the community

3. Recording and summarizing:

a. Taking notes

b. Writing records of experiments

c. Writing newspaper articles

d. Writing stories, plays, and poems

e. Making out tests

f. Organizing notebooks

g. Making maps, charts, and graphs

h. Giving talks

i. Dramatizing

4. Evaluating Growth of Children

V. Subject Matter: (Social Studies, Science, Health)

A. Abilities in skills and techniques[8]

1. How to use parlimentary procedure

2. How to understand social study reading

3. How to use an Encyclopedia

4. How to make an honest report

5. How to use a dictionary

6. How to use a map

7. How to use an atlas

8. How to do committee work

9. How to take part in .... a discussion

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8. Long, Forrest E., and Halter, Helen, Social Studies Skills, pp. V-VI

10. How to use the Library Card Catalogue
11. How to use an Index
12. How to use the World Almanac
13. How to locate references on a topic
14. How to read simple graphs
15. How to read pictorial graphs and maps
16. How to read percentages, estimates, and figures
17. How to read outline social studies material
18. How to prepare a good report
19. How to give an oral report
20. How to make a written report
21. How to discover facts by experimentation
22. How to weigh facts and see relationship to problem
23. How to organize
24. How to retain information
25. How to develop good work habits
26. How to use time and materials economically

B. Abilities in Social and Personal Growth[9]

1. How to get to work promptly

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9. Selected in part from Report to Parents, College Elementary School, Central Washington College of Education, Ellensburg, Washington; 1943

2. How to give undivided attention
3. How to continue to try even though work is difficult
4. How to hold to high standards of work
5. How to think clearly, select important points
6. How to be courteous
7. How to be thoughtful of others
8. How to be attentive when someone is talking
9. How to wait his or her turn
10. How to share willingly with others
11. How to take active part in group activities
12. How to think in terms of group needs as well as of self
13. How to be resourceful
14. How to find of own accord information and materials that are useful in class activities
15. How to assume the right kind of leadership

VI. Language Arts[10]

A. Purposes to be achieved through the language arts

1. Acquiring skills in oral and written expression
2. Gaining new ideas from reading

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10. Developed in chapters IV through IX

B. Integration of the language arts

C. Place for drill

D. Oral expression[11]

1. Realizing the value of having something to talk about
2. Being enthusiastic during conversation
3. Acquiring a pleasing vocabulary
4. Being a good listener
5. Knowing where to find interesting material
6. Observing common courtesies in conversation
7. Changing the topic of conversation
8. Talking without the use of mannerisms
9. Knowing when and where it is not appropriate to talk
10. Making an introduction and to follow up with conversation
11. Conversing during calls
12. Carrying on a business interview
13. Choosing appropriate topics for certain occasions and people
14. Using correct speech techniques

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11. Cf. McBroom, Maude, op. cit. McKee, Paul, Language in the Elementary School, p. 97

15. Understanding the content that should be included in announcements, explanations, or directions[12]
16. Presenting this content in properly organized form
17. Making the content concise and definite
18. Talking with good posture and poise
19. Understanding the ability of the group
20. Using correct grammar and form
21. Pronouncing important words correctly
22. Enunciating clearly
23. Speaking with a pleasing voice

E. Written expression

1. Abilities:

a. Developing sentence consciousness

(1) Using statement and questions

(2) Giving variety to sentence arrangement

(3) Using good opening and closing sentences

b. Applying standards of composition

(1) Choosing one idea

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12. Cf. McKee, Paul, op. cit., p. 144

(2) Planning what to say

(3) Telling things in order

(4) Keeping to the subject

(5) Knowing when to stop

c. Knowing when and how to write letters

(1) Writing what is interesting

(2) Using proper form

d. Using capital letters correctly

e. Using punctuation marks

F. Handwriting

1. Abilities:

a. Working for improved formation of letters

b. Forming certain standards

(1) Letter formation

(2) Spacing

(3) Alignment

(4) Uniform slant

(5) Neatness

(6) Relative size of letters

(7) Margin and indentation

c. Checking written work

d. Striving for neatness and legibility

e. Maintaining good posture

f. Increasing speed to fit age level

g. Learning manuscript letter forms in the primary grades and perfecting it in the intermediate and upper grades

h. Learning cursive forms in the intermediate grades

G. Spelling[13]

1. Objectives:

a. Enabling pupils to spell the words they need to write in life outside and inside the school

b. Learning words used most frequently by adults in life

2. Plans of teaching procedure:

a. Providing for individual differences

b. Determining most efficient unit of work

c. Using tests in instruction

d. Deciding as to how words should be presented

e. Securing of proper motivation

f. Providing for reviews

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13. Monroe, Walter S., ed., Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 1166-1180

3. Weekly plan of study:

Test-Study plan for grades III to VIII

Monday--Preliminary test of words to be studied during week

Tuesday--A study of words missed on Monday

Wednesday--A second test followed by the immediate study of words missed

Thursday--A study of words missed on Wednesday

Friday--Final weekly test followed by immediate study of the words missed

4. Rules that should be taught:[14]

a. Words ending in silent e before the addition of suffixes beginning with a vowel, but they keep the final e before the addition of suffixes beginning with a consonant

b. When a word ends in a consonant and y, change the y to i before adding all suffixes except those beginning with i.

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14. Ibid. pp. 1167

Do not change y to i in adding suffixes to words ending in a vowel and y, or when adding a suffix beginning with i

c. Words of one syllable or words of more than one syllable accented on the last ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant when adding a suffix beginning with a vowel

d. The letter q is always followed by u in a word

e. Proper nouns and adjectives formed from proper nouns should always begin with a capital letter

5. Methods for teaching these rules:

a. Each rule should be taught inductively rather than deductively, the teacher developing it in connection with the study of the words which it covers

b. Only one rule should be taught at a time

c. In teaching a rule it is important to emphasize both its positive and negative aspects

d. When the rule has been taught, it should be systematically reviewed and applied

e. Both in original teaching and in reviews the emphasis should be upon the use of the rule rather than upon the formal memorizing of its verbal statement

6. Attitudes to be developed:

a. Developing interest

b. Establishing confidence

c. Increasing spelling consciousness

d. Stressing intention to remember

e. Encouraging aggressive attack

7. Methods of stimulating and maintaining these attitudes:

a. Showing the student that the words taught are those most likely to be needed by him now and in the future

b. Limiting the student's study to those words which tests have shown him to be unable to spell

c. Providing him with a definite and efficient method of learning

d. Emphasizing individual and class progress

e. Encouraging in the class a spirit of mutual pride and cooperation in spelling achievement

8. Study Steps:[15]

a. ....Pronounce the word, saying each syllable very distinctly, and looking closely at each syllable as you say it

b. With closed eyes try to see the word in book, syllable by syllable, as you pronounce it in a whisper. In pronouncing the word, be sure to say each syllable distinctly. After saying the word, keep trying to recall how the word looked in your book and at the same time say the letters. Spell by syllables

c. Open your eyes and look at the word to see whether or not you had it right. If you did not have it right,

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15. Horn, E., and Ashbaugh, E. J., Progress in Spelling, pp. XV-XVI, op. cit. McKee, Paul, Language in the Elementary School, p. 400

do step one and step two over again. Keep trying until you can say the letters correctly with closed eyes.

d. When you are sure that you have learned the word, write it without looking at your book and then compare your attempt with the book in order to see whether or not you wrote it correctly. If you did not write it correctly, go through steps one, two, three, and four again

e. Now write the word again. See if it is right. If it is, cover it with your hand and write it again. If your second trial is right, write it once again. If all three trials are right, you may say that you have learned the word for the day. If you make a single mistake, begin with step one and go through each step again

9. Factors pertaining to efficiency in learning to spell a word[16]

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16. Monroe, Walter S., op. cit., p. 1177

a. Student's efforts should be focused upon words or parts of words he is unable to spell

b. The mode of sensory presentation should be predominently visual, but the correct pronunciation of the words by syllables is also important

c. Emphasis during learning should be upon visual imagery, but auditory and kinesthetic imagery, which attend the pronunciation of the word, and motor imagery, which accompanies the writing of the word, increases the effectiveness of learning

d. Aggressive efforts to recall should be interspersed with sensory impression

e. Learning should be distributed but not stop short of temporary mastery

f. Words should be learned beyond the point of one successful recall

g. Pupil should be led to appreciate these procedures

10. Sources of spelling words based on research

a. Spelling words chosen from life needs

b. Anderson, W. N., Determination of a Spelling Vocabulary Based Upon Written Correspondence

c. Ashbaugh, E. J., The Iowa Spelling Scale

d. Ayres, A Measuring Scale for Ability In Spelling

e. Buckingham and Dolch, A Combined Word List

g. Fitzgerald, J. A., The Vocabulary and Spelling Errors of Third Grade Children's Letters

h. Gates, Spelling Difficulties in 3,876 Words

i. Horn, E., A Basic Writing Vocabulary

j. Thorndike, Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words

H. Reading Experiences

1. Building continuous background:

a. Taking part in first hand experiences

b. Using audio-visual aids

c. Utilizing community and home resources

d. Working with a variety of materials

e. Taking part in classroom activities

2. Developing reading interests:[17]
    a. Providing information on sources of facts and fiction
    b. Guiding choices of reading according to maturation level
    c. Providing a variety of reading material
    d. Making clear the purposes of a given activity
3. Locating information:
    a. Discovering what information can be found in parts of books
    b. Using table of contents
    c. Finding pages quickly
    d. Using a bibliography
    e. Employing index effectively and quickly
    f. Utilizing glossary and appendix
    g. Using chapter headings and paragraph headings
    h. Skimming rapidly to locate needed information
    i. Employing cross references

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17. Cf. Betts, Emmett Albert, Foundations of Reading Instruction, pp. 88-99

j. Using keys and footnotes

k. Knowing how to use an atlas, yearbook, and encyclopedia

l. Acquiring knowledge of how to use maps, charts, graphs, and tables

m. Utilizing the library effectively

n. Using a dictionary

4. Comprehension:[18]

Reading is thinking and one can read in as many ways and for as many purposes as one can think. In teaching reading it is important to find provision for the more important types of reading and reading purposes. The following grouping will probably include most of the important ones.

a. Reading to get the main idea or a general impression...

b. Reading to note significant details...

c. Reading to note and remember precise directions...

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18. Gates, Arthur I., The Improvement of Reading pp. 360-61

d. Reading to predict what comes next or the most probable issue or conclusion...

e. Reading for the purpose of evaluating the material...

f. Reading for the purpose of reproducing the material in some type of summarized form...

g. Reading for the purpose of comparing the form or substance of the selection read with other content...

h. Reading for the purpose of remembering...

5. Organizing ideas and materials:

a. Applying facts to problem

b. Perceiving relationships between facts

c. Organizing information read in the form of graphs, charts, maps, tables, or art projects

d. Evaluating a unit of reading material for the purpose of abstracting the central thought in summary form

e. Organizing data on the source of information in bibliographical form

f. Discriminating between crucial and

incidental facts

g. Taking notes

h. Outlining important points

6. Care and hygiene of books:

a. Knowing how to open new books

b. Knowing how to keep binding of book from breaking

c. Knowing how to mark the place

d. Keeping book clean

e. Knowing how to turn pages

VII. Arithmetic

A. Importance of Laying a Good Foundation:

1. Widening of number experience

2. Acquainting children with meaning of numbers

3. Establishing purposeful learning by teaching meaningful facts

B. Drill and Its Place in Our Curriculum

1. Meaningful drill as related to need already met in meaningful situation

2. Increasing speed and accuracy

C. Abilities:

1. Equipping child with useful skills for business

a. Making estimations and comparisons

b. Working knowledge of fundamental processes such as addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, simple fractions, percentage, and interest

c. Keeping a budget

d. Banking

(1) Depositing money

(2) Making checks

(3) Checking accounts

e. Reading or making graphs and tables

f. Using vocabulary intelligently

g. Reading problems with comprehension, thinking through to solution

2. Study steps in problem solving

a. Child reads problem silently

b. Child asks himself

(1) What am I asked

(2) What am I given

(3) What do I do

(4) What is my answer

3. Knowing the value of money and practicing prudence in the use of money

4. Developing a right conscience concerning

the use of money

5. Using concepts of time, quantity, and space in learning about environment

Chapter III

CURRUCULUM ORGANIZATION

The curriculum consists of all of the experiences of whatever nature the child has under the guidance of the school. It is necessary for the school to offer the types of experience which facilitate the learnings believed best to equip each individual for successful, happy adjustment in a democratic society.

In organizing a curriculum certain fundamental points must be considered if the desired goal is to be realized. The program employed must be built up and operated as a whole. The experience of the child must be broad and integrating. Every agency or individual influencing the education of the child must plan and work together so that the work of one supplements the other. A rounded program of living must be provided. The curriculum should be so organized as to make the school an integral part of the immediate environment. The program should be organized and planned in direct relationship to its community.

The school must of necessity consider the whole child. It is no longer possible for education to be

concerned only with the development of the intellectual aspect of the child. Due to the changing conditions in the world it is apparent that not only the intellectual but also the physical and emotional aspect of child growth and development must be realized. The curriculum must contribute to the realization of the democratic ideals in the everyday living of the pupil. Culture plays an important part in the growth of the child for as time and conditions change the needs of the individual increase. The school must be prepared to meet these changing needs. The whole development of the individual is tied in with the culture in which he lives. The entire life of the school should be organized so as to contribute to the development of understanding and appreciation of democratic values and achievements. The curriculum should be based on the interests, needs, and capacities of the child. This implies several points. The child's close attention must be received before there is proper learning. Every stage of growth and development has certain basic needs that must be met. It must be realized that each child differs in capacity and abilities. The curriculum should afford guided experiences compatible with the maturity of each. These experiences should be so selected that they interlace and the social, emotional,

physical, and mental phases of child growth be considered as one.

The essence of this curriculum is "unity". Regardless of the type of pattern followed in carrying out this unity, or unit method, as it is frequently called, large blocks of time must be allowed and it should be organized into broad areas or problems. The organization should provide for blending one unit with another and tying them together. This will make for proper sequence. The curriculum should be organized to integrate learning and make learning function in the experience of each child. The organization should be flexible so as to allow for the participation of the group in the incidental happenings which arise each day. Provision should be made and freedom given for active participation in such events as important holidays, i. e. Christmas, Washington's Birthday, Clean-up Week, Fire-prevention Week, etc. This will greatly serve in building an appreciation of the culture in which the individual lives. As previously stated this is one of the chief purposes in education of today.

The content of the school curriculum is derived from, and organized around, life experiences and needs of the

individual. Hildreth[1] classifies these experiences as follows:

> Human Activities and Relationships, Social Studies and Social Science...includes the study of towns and people, trade, commerce, and transportation; life in our world today and yesterday. Background studies include topics as early civilizations, the struggle to survive, economic and social change, the story of inventions. The economics of production, money, and property properly belong in the area of social studies.
> Physical and Natural Sciences--Animals, mechanical things, physical phenomena, composition of matter, physical causality, physiology, reproduction of species, physical and chemical change.
> Literature and the Arts, Aesthetic and Cultural Experiences.--American and English literature, classical folk lore, music appreciation and expression, drama, dancing, pictorial art, industrial arts and crafts, pottery and woodwork, household arts. Experience in these areas lead to the development of new skills as well as the new attitudes and appreciations. At numerous points they overlap with the social studies and science.

Skills are a necessity for learning about and meeting life needs. The language arts, processes of communication or receiving and giving ideas, can and should be taught in correlation with the units studied. The skills involved are an integral part of the unit and should serve as a means of obtaining and giving information. The teacher must not force their use in a way which has little or no value to the learner. There should be time

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1. Hildreth, Gertrude, Child Growth Through Education, p.91

allotted for learning the skills that are needed, for no unit will involve all that is required for good reading, speaking, and writing. This is true also in regard to arithmetic. There should be provision in the program for teaching adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing. Sufficient study and repetition of these facts should also be arranged. Skills are learned where they function with accuracy and a comparative degree of speed in the child's experience.

The areas of learning along with those of living healthfully comprise the curriculum of the school. The remainder of this thesis will be to give specific instructional aids in some of the specific areas planned for the classes of beginning teachers in Catholic Junior College. The extensiveness of the course being planned make it unfeasible to write all parts up in detail.

Chapter IV

ORAL AND WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

Social living in every sphere demands a variety of language activities. The child, as well as the adult, must learn to listen and converse, to read and report, to make requests and express thanks; he must learn to write letters and thank-you notes, to make simple reports and records, as well as on occasions, compose original stories and poems. The child in attaining these communication skills thus discovers how to live in our social world.

Listening is one of the first and most fundamental of the social skills. It is intimately related to the child's oral expression. Legible handwriting and correct spelling, as well as skill in reading are essential. In almost every phase of learning and living, an individual to keep pace with this ever changing experimental world of ours, must read widely and intelligently if he is to succeed in living a full life. Not only must he read materials pertaining to his given vocation but must also broaden out into other fields in order to be an intelligent member of society. Children must learn to choose worthwhile

literature. This seems more pertinent today than ever before because of the cheap literature, if it can be termed literature, which is continually being thrust into the hands of our children and young adults.[1]

> None of these language arts stands alone; each must be taken in relation to the others, and all in relation to the child's practice of social living as well as to the content subjects which support this practice. In this connection it should be noted that the social courtesies of speaking and writing are stressed. The child must not only learn how to speak but when to do so; not only how to choose a topic but how to consider his listener or reader in its presentation. Through using these skills in a natural way in the many social situations of school living, the child comes to recognize the need for their use in the activities of every day.[2]

In order to achieve the purpose stated in the preceding paragraphs, our schools must provide, as McKee states, definite and effective teaching of the three basal programs included in any course of study, curriculum, or textbook in language. These three instructional programs are as follows:

1. A program of instruction in the use of language as a vehicle for the communication of meaning and as a tool for thinking.

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1. Cf. Sister Mary Joan O.P. and Sister Mary Nona O.P., Guiding Growth in Christian Social Living, Vol. I, p. 124

2. Ibid., p. 124

2. A program of instruction in speaking and writing correctly as judged by acceptable standards of good usage.

3. A program of instruction in the social amenities that constitute consideration for other people during the act of communicating with them.[3]

Much time is spent in trying to communicate meanings that are in the mind of one individual to the minds of other people, and trying to understand the meanings that other persons try to communicate to him. This communication takes place in various ways; facial expression, gestures, noises, models, pictures, objects, and language. Of all these, language is the most important because it is the most widely used. It is also the only means of expressing or communicating certain meanings.

What do we mean when we speak of language as a vehicle for the communication of meaning and as a tool for thinking? If this question is to be answered with clarity, it is necessary to have five points clearly in mind. First, all communication by means of language involves at least two persons, a speaker and a listener, or a writer and a reader. Anyone who has adequate command of language as a vehicle for the communication of meaning is able to talk and write, and to listen

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3. McKee, Paul, Language In The Elementary School, p. 3

and read. Second, all language, oral and written, is symbolic. No speaker or writer says or writes a meaning itself; he speaks or writes words, phrases, or sentences which stand for what he means. No one hears or sees a meaning itself by listening to speech or by looking at written or printed matter, but rather hears or sees words, phrases, and sentences that stand for the meaning that the speaker or the writer had in mind. Communication by means of language must be done with these symbols. Failure to use them correctly has a way of promoting misunderstanding among people. Third, it should be clear that it is meaning that is to be communicated, and that there is nothing other than meaning for anyone to communicate to anyone else. Only when a speaker or a writer expresses meaning, and that meaning is understood by the person or persons to whom he is talking or writing is addressed, does communication take place. Fourth, though there are many degrees of exactness and clearness in presenting meanings in language, it is nevertheless expected that the meaning presented be adequate enough with sufficient clarity and exactness to enable a listener or reader to use it for straight thinking and intelligent action. If this clarity of meaning is missing, there results a vagueness of expression. From this vagueness results

wrong conclusions and futile action upon the part of the recipient of the communicated idea.

Communication by means of language should be considered adequate only when each person understands with a high degree of clearness and correctness the meaning that lies behind the symbols that the other says or writes. Communication is non-existent when one person misunderstands the meaning of the symbols that the other speaks and writes. This means that the fundamental and essential problem in all talking, all writing, all reading, and all listening is the problem of meaning. Reading is good only in as far as the reader achieves adequate meaning for the written or printed symbols at which he looks. Likewise, listening is good only in as far as the listener achieves adequate meaning for the symbols that he hears. Fifth, any student who has adequate command of language as a vehicle for the communication of meaning and as a tool for thinking is able to use it in several different ways. The most fundamental ways are:

1. He is able to understand clearly and correctly the meaning of the language that is provided for him to read. Likewise he is able to understand clearly and correctly the meaning of the spoken language of other people...

2. He is able to use both oral and written language with enough clarity and exactness to enable other people to understand the meaning that is

in his mind.

3. He is able to construct new meanings in his mind, to clarify those that are vague, to see the relationships between his meanings, to organize them effectively for a given purpose, to make sensible judgments, and to draw reasonable conclusions...[4]

Dr. Paul McKee gives a second point in speaking and writing correctly. He asks the question, What is meant by speaking and writing correctly? Briefly, it means speaking and writing within the limits of correct usage and good form. One who speaks correctly makes no mistakes in using words, enunciates distinctly, pronounces words correctly, uses a pleasant voice, and employs good sentence structure. One who writes correctly makes no errors in using words, uses capital letters where they should be used, employs good sentence structure, writes with a reasonably good quality of hand-writing, arranges his materials in good form on the page, makes no errors in spelling, and uses appropriate punctuation marks where they should be used.

It is a well known fact that people of all age levels make many errors in speaking and writing. The problem of their correction has been the central point of many

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4. Ibid. pp. 8-9

courses of study. Errors in usage are by no means limited to one type, there are many possibilities. Dr. McKee lists these errors as follows:

1. Poor sentence structure
2. Incorrect use of words
3. Mistakes in capitalization and punctuation
4. Inferior quality of handwriting
5. Incorrect spelling
6. Poor manuscript form
7. Mispronunciation and indistinct enunciation
8. Unpleasant voice

There are many causes for these deficiencies. It is agreed that often there is not sufficient practice in correct usage. If our children are to learn to speak and write correctly, it is necessary for our schools to give them ample opportunity to form good speech and writing habits. Real situations rather than isolated drill give better practice. Because he is using it in real life he can later apply it in similar situations and it will truly function in his experiences. In other words our schools must provide more opportunities of worth while value for using the correct forms which we present to them.

It is evident that there is not enough correcting

of mistakes compared to the amount of speaking and writing done. How many teachers take time to correct the errors on each paper written by a group? Often times the papers are marked by the teacher and returned to the pupil with no further comment. Frequently, the paper is returned and the child is told to improve his next assignment. Improvement is impossible if the proper instruction correcting the mistakes is not given with sufficient study and repetition, or shall we say opportunity, for using the correct form before the child is expected to employ the given principle in further writing. Let us center our efforts on good teaching rather than on covering certain materials in a given time.

Another important reason for incorrect usage is the indifferent attitude which the pupil shows toward correcting his errors. This is one of the teacher's major problems in the classroom. How can she assist the child in discovering the value of good speech and writing? It would seem to be necessary to start outside the school. The home, as we know, is the most influential of all agencies. If those in the home could be shown the true value of good language habits the teacher's task of inculcating correct forms would be greatly diminished. Then, too, there are the other

agencies which influence the child, as those who advertise their products so extensively thinking only of how to get the attention of the public regardless of how this attention is secured. For example, how can the child be asked to spell correctly the word does when he continually hears and sees it spelled in commercials as duz?

The practice materials presented must have value to the child. They must be related to his everyday experiences and be within the range of his understanding. If these materials are too difficult, the child is likely to give too much attention to trying to draw the meaning from the context rather than noting correct form.

McKee,[5] Wood,[6] and Hildreth,[7] agree that the important matters to be taught in the field of language usage are: correct use of words and grammar, capitalization, punctuation, pronunciation, enunciation, desirable use of voice, letter form, correct form for manuscript, correctness of spelling, and quality of hand writing.

As a third point in his basal program in the language

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5. McKee, op. cit., p. 55

6. Wood, Hugh B., Language Arts, pp. 3-8

7. Hildreth, Gertrude, Learning The Three R's, pp. 81-2

arts, McKee in "Language In The Elementary School" makes reference to the social amenities that constitute consideration for other people during the act of communicating. To be considerate of other people in communicating with them, is essentially a matter of being a thoughtful and an interesting communicant. Some of the social amenities employed in conversation are:

1. Being a good listener.
2. Refraining from talking in inappropriate places.
3. A knowledge of appropriateness of topice to different occasions and people.
4. Knowing how and when to interrupt a person who is talking.
5. Not listening to conversations not meant for one.
6. Not saying things that hurt the feelings of others.
7. Giving others in the group a chance to talk.
8. Telling things of interest to one's audience.[8]

Conformity to social conventions in language usage is a sign of culture and breeding, as important to the individual, as being clean and well mannered. Speech and writing, free of slang and provincialisms, constitute a universal currency for the dissemination of ideas. On the oth er hand, crudity in expression not only stamps one as uneducated and uncultured

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8. Jenkins, Frances, Language Development in Elementary Grades, p. 75

> but is a definite handicap in making one's ideas understood by other people.[9]

Language expression is an essential phase of living. It enables the child to adapt to his environment, to think, solve problems, and to systematize his knowledge. Language, besides serving as a vehicle to socialization of an individual, also aids in emotional release in various ways.

A major objective in language teaching is to draw out the child and to encourage him to express his thoughts freely. This can be accomplished by encouraging the use of correct language in actual happenings as well as in vicarious experiences. In every good school today there are life activities going on which afford countless opportunities to speak and write. The child has many opportunities in which he can cooperate with his group in planning a unit. This in turn involves group discussions of various kinds. He is frequently called upon to give reports and summaries of studies made, to report on excursions taken, or to tell a story in connection with the unit. It is necessary for him to take notes, write letters asking permission to visit a

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9. Hildreth, Gertrude, op. cit., p. 27

factory, farm, postoffice, and many other community industries; letters of thanks must be written, and invitations sent when required. In many schools it is customary for a child in a class to write those who are ill and report classroom happenings. The modern school provides a rich experiential background, since growth in language depends so largely on personal experiences of the learner.

Chapter V

ORAL EXPRESSION

As the child's experiences broaden to include a variety of interests, he finds new topics and motivation for oral expression. Many aspects of community living will enter into his discussion, while everyday happenings at home and school are important to him, taking on new significance as he grows older. As time goes on he will contribute even more effectively to group planning and discussion, will give reports in individual and group experiences, make announcements or give explanations with greater confidence. He will make more interesting his brief reviews of a book or radio program in order that his group may share these enjoyments with him. The child becomes increasingly aware of the need for meaningful words and interesting sentence structure in his own talks, and notices the good qualities in others.

The ability to express one's ideas is the most important of all language abilities. No individual in this social world can live a full life without it. If an individual meets a friend, he discusses a topic of interest with him; in making a purchase, he must express

his needs to the clerk; when applying for a position, it is most important that he express himself with clarity. A child in the classroom must learn to discuss topics being studied by the group, give reports, make introductions, give explanations of projects carried out by the class. On the play field it is necessary for him to explain games and discuss the procedure for playing them.

If we are to meet the needs of the child during this broadening of experiences, we must emphasize such matters as: conversation, story telling, giving directions, reports, conducting meetings, and the many other occasions which will arise during his daily life.

Listening

Listening might well be called the door to knowledge. This art must be developed in the same way as the art of thinking. The child must be guided in drawing the greatest value from what he hears. A good listener must be more than politely quiet, he must also be an alert receiver. As in reading, he must search for the meaning the speaker wishes to convey. Listening, is thinking about what one hears; it is a necessary preparation for reading which is thinking about what one reads. The child should be

carefully guided in developing the ability to judge, analyze, and see relationships. In this guiding process the teacher must include certain experiences or steps. Some of the steps to be considered are: giving full attention to the speaker, asking the speaker for explanation if meaning is not clear, taking note of each step of directions given, listening for particulars which clarify speaker's ideas, noting the way good sentences are begun, and observing the use of good name words, action words, and descriptive words.

Conversation

Conversation, without doubt, constitutes the most fundamental speaking activity in modern life. Ability to speak fluently, interestingly, and convincingly is a personal, social, and business asset which the school should help every child cultivate.

Teachers must remember that the child's language ability develops only as he is given many opportunities to learn to talk by expressing himself about what he does. Teachers, instead of repressing conversation, should encourage every possible opportunity for free cooperative activities which will encourage all the children to join in group conversations. Oftentimes these

conversations help the child clarify his ideas as well as increase his language ability.

Abilities required for adequate conversation as listed in Miss Maude McBroom's[1] analysis are:

1. A realization of the value of having things to talk about.
2. The ability to be enthusiastic during conversation.
3. A knowledge of a pleasing vocabulary.
4. The ability to be a good listener.
5. A knowledge of sources of interesting material.
6. The ability to observe common courtesies in conversation.
7. The ability to change the topic of conversation.
8. The ability to talk without the use of mannerisms.
9. A knowledge of when and where it is not appropriate to talk.
10. The ability to make an introduction and to follow up with conversation.
11. A knowledge of topics appropriate to certain occasions and people.
12. The ability to carry on a business interview.
13. A knowledge of conversation during calls.
14. The ability to use correct speech techniques.
15. A knowledge of how to get interesting materials.

These fifteen abilities are not common only to conversation but also to story telling, giving directions, reports, and other language activities. It is therefore, imperative that teachers give the pupil ample exposure for their use. In our modern day schools it is possible

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1. McBroom, Maude, et al., The Course of Study In Oral Composition, Unpublished, quoted from McKee, op. cit., p. 97

to do this through the various channels which we now utilize in our classrooms.

Instruction on the conversation abilities should be direct and incidental. The direct instruction implies that there be a given time in which to give instruction and practice in the desired abilities. This requires a definite conversation period. Besides this period, provision must be made for incidental practice. Each class should utilize various concrete activities in which conversation and discussion form an important part. The content subjects and other school work should be handled in such a manner that conversation is both encouraged and demanded. Nothing should be done to discourage conversation among the pupils when such discussions are in the interests of good teaching.

The most important element in conversation is to have something to tell. Instruction in this factor should begin in kindergarten and continue throughout the school life of the child. Everything must be done to make the child realize the conversational value of the ideas he acquires through wide reading, close observation, listening to people talk, and through various other media.

Teachers must ever bear in mind that during these instruction periods the materials to be discussed must

be drawn from actual experiences, either direct or indirect. It is useless to ask the child to converse upon topics which are unfamiliar and uninteresting. If the child is assigned a certain topic to converse upon, he is uninterested and the purpose of the period is lost to real learning.

The pupil's attention should be directed to the way in which conversation is carried out and should be guided in determining his own standards of what constitutes good speech habits while carrying on this social intercourse. Out of the discussion should grow such standards as: all should have equal opportunity to participate; one person should speak at a time; everyone should listen while someone is talking; no one person should monopolize the conversation; everyone should take part by telling something or by asking questions; points of interest to all should be discussed[2].

Story Telling

This phase of oral expression constitutes one of the most important parts of instruction. After conversation, this form of communicating ideas of interest is the most frequently used. Many parents tell stories

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2. Cf. Adams, Fay, Educating America's Children, pp. 330-31

to their children in the home. People in private life relate episodes in conversing with friends. Children relate their experiences to their parents and playmates. There is a continued need felt for this ability; therefore, the school should give it very special attention in the various phases of the child's life.

The most important step in securing effective work in story-telling is to make certain that the pupil selects topics from his own experiences rather than having an unfamiliar subject imposed upon him. These experiences may come directly or vicariously through reading and other means. The pupil should also be encouraged to tell original stories and relate personal experiences. No pupil should be required to tell stories he does not enjoy. To do so, breaks down his interest and makes impossible the enjoyment which he and his audience should draw from it.

No pupil should be allowed to tell a story without first making careful preparation. This preparation may consist of planning his story by outlining it, selecting remarks to introduce the story, putting it into proper sequence of events, avoiding the telling of details, planning a good beginning sentence, and making sure to include the main idea of the story. This preparation

can either be carried out by one individual child or as a group enterprise.[3]

In story-telling the child should again be encouraged to set his own standards to be followed. McKee[4], gives us a list of seventeen points which he says must be included. They are as follows:

1. Be sure you know your story well.
2. Be sure you have your story planned.
3. Don't tell all the little details.
4. Use good words that fit your meaning.
5. Tell your story naturally, just as though you were talking.
6. Try to be enthusiastic in telling your story.
7. Have an interesting beginning.
8. Be sure you can pronounce your words correctly.
9. Don't use too many "ands".
10. Don't hurry.
11. Try to use words correctly.
12. Speak loud enough for everyone to hear.
13. Speak clearly.
14. Don't speak too loud or too fast.
15. Try not to say every word in the same tone.
16. Try to stand or sit naturally.
17. Look at your audience.

Oral Reports

In the classroom of today enough real life situations arise in which the child needs to make brief, interesting reports. There is no justification for a teacher to require of each individual reports on unrelated topics.

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3. Cf. McKee, Op. cit., pp. 95-124

4. Ibid. p. 125

There are many classroom needs for oral reports. Teachers must be alert to these possibilities; children should share information discovered as individuals or committees in social studies or science, a child may need to entertain a visitor by explaining the activity of the group, or a child may wish to share home experience with the other children. These and many other opportunities which arise should be utilized to broaden the child's experiences in giving oral reports.

In preparing for these planned and informal speech activities the child must be carefully guided in developing the standards for good oral reports. With the proper guidance these standards can be set by the individual giving the report. Some of the steps which should be stressed are: gathering materials of value, making a simple outline of points to be discussed, selecting a good opening sentence, making sure of audience interest by the use of descriptive words and pleasing voice, and deciding how to end the report by way of summarizing the opening thought of report or by completing the idea being expressed.

When the child is given helpful suggestions of how to make reports and recognizes the need for this experience, he will show rapid progress in acquiring this ability.

Asking and Giving Directions

In asking or giving directions it is necessary for the pupil to learn that the steps or items of information included must cover all that is necessary to prevent error. The teacher should utilize real life situations in teaching the proper form to be used. A child may be asked to direct a new pupil to materials needed. A second grade student may direct a younger child in the proper use of the water fountain, or a child from the intermediate grades may be selected for directing the proper use of playground equipment.

The child must learn that the directions must include all important items necessary for clarity, and non-essentials must be eliminated. There must be proper organization of facts. These facts must be arranged in proper sequence.

Introductions

All the abilities common to oral expression in general may be applied here. Each child must be given careful instruction and guidance in the proper form to be used in making an introduction. He must be guided in learning which party is presented first and the titles to be used in speaking of each individual,

i.e., Doctor, Mrs., Mr., and others. Ample opportunity should be given for practice so as to insure poise and self confidence in the child. He cannot be expected to use good form or show poise if this practice is omitted. In our social studies many opportunities arise for this. If a member of the community, fireman, policeman, or housewife is invited to speak to the class, he or she must be introduced. If an excursion is taken, the guide or host must be introduced to the group. To the alert teacher there is no end of opportunities for allowing each child the practice he needs in this social contact.

Greetings

The resourceful teacher finds many occasions for teaching this form of oral expression. Each pupil can learn the proper way to greet his playmates, his teacher, his parents, and guests who call at school or at his home. Many abilities common in oral expression may be applied here. Speaking with a sincere attitude, knowing what to say, and choosing appropriate vocabulary are learnings which need to be emphasized. The child from the home of poor social standing will need much more guidance from the teacher than the average student. It may be necessary for his group acceptance attitude to be

carefully built up before he can be asked to make the simplest greeting. It is most important that the teacher have a clear understanding of the child and his emotional reaction in such a situation.

Thank-you Speeches

A teacher of the old school of thought may frown her disapproval at giving time to such trifles as "thank-you" courtesies. To the teacher today, this point in the education of the child is as equally important as the acquiring of mathematical skills. She carefully instructs and guides the individual child in presenting himself properly to one who has been a benefactor to either himself or his group.

Here, again, we need many opportunities in social studies and natural science for practicing this skill. If an excursion has been taken, each child should present himself to the person who acted as guide and thank him for giving his time in explaining and directing them through the place visited. If parents furnish the means of transportation, they must be thanked.

Oftentimes a child is criticized for neglecting a "thank-you" for an invitation to a party or other gathering. Perhaps that child doesn't know how to approach

his host or hostess. If he is from a home which lacks opportunity for the acquiring of this knowledge, to whom shall he turn if not to the school?

Let each teacher then give ample opportunity for the mastery of this art. She must guide the child in using good poise, proper vocabulary, and showing sincerity.

Using the Telephone

The proper use of the telephone is of major import and should be given considerable attention in the classroom. Many of the abilities already mentioned in our discussion of conversation may be applied here. It is important that the child be taught how to make various kinds of calls and how to use and care for a telephone properly. The sterilization of the mouthpiece and placing the receiver on the hook as soon as the conversation has been discontinued are some points which could be stressed.

Many of the social amenities employed for oral expression, in general, carry over to the use of the telephone also. After having read to the point it is well to turn to such authors as McKee for points which pertain to the use of the telephone in particular. Some of these points are:

1. Avoid calling people at inconvenient times.

2. Avoid lengthy conversations. This is especially true if using a party line.
3. Personal matters should never be discussed on the telephone.
4. One should limit the number of times for using the telephone of another.
5. One should be courteous to operators.

Announcements

There are innumerable situations in life outside the school in which both children and adults must make announcement and give directions and explanations. If there is a good course of study being used in the school, there will be no lack of real situations to provide appropriate and meaningful instruction.

The child should learn that announcements and directions must include all important items necessary for clarity and that they must eliminate all non-essentials. It is most important that he learn to give the information in proper sequence of events. Confused directions or announcements cannot be carried out successfully even if complete and accurate. The items must be arranged so that all that is going to be said regarding a given point be presented before a new point is introduced.

The content should be direct and concise. Good posture and poise should be developed and maintained so as to establish the habit of standing or sitting properly whenever it is necessary to appear before a group. Undesirable mannerisms require special attention and continual checking by the individual child, the group, and the teacher.[5]

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5. Cf. McKee, op. cit., pp. 125-164 passim

Chapter VI

WRITTEN EXPRESSION

Many needs for independent writing are found by the child; of these, the writing of letters as a part of good social living should be given emphasis. It is important that he know what occasions call for letter writing, and how to go about writing friendly letters, business letters, letters to one who is ill, notes of sympathy, of congratulations, and of appreciation.

There are various other times when an individual finds it necessary to use writing for social intercourse with others. A few of these are: story-writing, making reports, and keeping records.

Oral expression has been developed in rather detailed form because the writer is of the opinion that there is a very close relationship between oral and written expression. The wise teacher carefully lays the foundations for written work which will develop later by talking with the child. The child should never be confronted by a blank sheet of paper and a demand for a letter or a story. If the pupil is to write with ease and interest, he must be properly motivated by real life

situations which call for writing. In other words, the child must see a need for writing. The alert teacher will find numerous situations in every classroom for letters that will actually find their way to the post office, for stories for the school newspaper, for labels for the bulletin boards, and for explanations of articles placed on exhibit, to mention a few.

There are various ideas regarding the time the child should start writing. Whether it is in the first or the second grade, it should never be started until a rich background of experiences has been acquired. If teachers would keep this point continually in mind, many of their headaches in teaching written composition would be avoided. As mentioned before, the child will write with more ease and correctness if he is familiar with the topic at hand.

Story Writing

Some teachers prefer to start writing with group compositions; others prefer to have each individual child write independent of the group. Both methods have their strong and weak points. A great deal depends upon the teacher and her experience in working with children. If the last method is used, the teacher must be very alert and active for she will find it necessary to write

the words needed for each individual child to copy. When the story is finished, the group should be allowed to enjoy what each member has accomplished. The child should continually be encouraged to keep trying to improve his manuscript and the teacher on her part must insist on correct formation of letters. In this beginning period no child will be able to accomplish more than a very few words. If three or four words are written correctly, a great deal has been accomplished.

The advantages to be drawn from group composition are innumerable. The group first of all have the opportunity of free expression which few feel if confronted with the idea of having to state their idea immediately on paper. They have the opportunity of sharing ideas, enriching their vocabulary, and of gaining new knowledge of a given subject. There should be, first of all, time for group discussion on possible points to be included in the story. These points should be considered in the light of importance and proper sequence of events. When this has been duly handled, it is then time to write the story on the board as the children dictate it. It should be mentioned here that if the children use words not understood by all, the individual who has used the term should be asked to explain its meaning to the group for

clarification. This gives the children a wonderful opportunity for enriching their vocabulary.

In composing a group composition drawn from an experience in social studies, there is an excellent opportunity to learn incidentally many matters of form which will carry over into the independent writing of the child. If the group has visited a farm, it is most probable they will want to compose a story or stories and share with others their experience. If this be the case, the teacher, as she capitalizes the title or the beginning of a sentence, indents for the paragraph or leaves a margin, will call attention to these requirements of good form. In this way form is taught naturally as a part of good organization.

Letter Writing

The requirements for letter writing are much the same as for those used for good stories. It is well to impress upon the minds of the child that a letter is a story and should be written with the same care and attention being careful to begin it with an interesting sentence and end it in the same way. The content of the letter should be on points of interest to the recipient giving close attention to the ability to understand it by the reader.

Close attention should be paid to the correct form for the various kinds of letters. The children should be given many opportunities to use the different forms. To the alert teacher there are many such chances to use real life experiences in letter writing. Letters asking permission to go on excursions, letters to agencies asking for reference materials, thank-you notes, friendly letters to children who are ill are examples.

Written expression, if it is to be taught in good form, should encourage the child in:

1. Developing sentence consciousness
    a. Using statements and questions
    b. Giving variety to sentence arrangement
    c. Using good opening and closing sentences
2. Applying standards of composition
    a. Choosing one idea
    b. Planning what to say
    c. Telling things in order
    d. Keeping to the subject
    e. Knowing when to stop
3. Knowing when and how to write letters
    a. Writing what is interesting
    b. Using proper form
4. Using capital letters correctly

5. Using punctuation marks

To summarize briefly the requirements for written expression, the teacher should check for: the ideas expressed, the form in which these ideas are stated, i. e., sentence structure, paragraphing, grammar, diction, and spelling.[1] The extent of the criticism depends upon the level at which the child is working. In the primary grades less stress is placed upon punctuation and capitalization. It is essential, however, that the child learn and use the major principles from the very beginning of his writing experience.

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1. Cf. Hildreth, op. cit., pp. 95-96

Chapter VII

READING

Reading is introduced informally to the child as a pleasurable and useful skill when he enters school. This strengthens throughout the school life of the child as he enjoys the many experiences of the modern school program. The child broadens his background of meaningful experiences, grows in the use of language, adds to his vocabulary the new words he hears, and the names of new experiences and materials with which he works. As he grows in the ability to read the simple materials presented in chart form and beginning readers, he soon develops the desire to make use of the supplementary materials in both the classroom and the school library.

Reading is a process, not a subject. It is a tool to the social world. The child lives in a world which requires continual reading. Everywhere he goes, everything he does, necessitates reading. When reading is termed a process, the implication is that it is not taught as a separate entity in the school program but is carried into every activity in which the child participates. It means that the teaching of reading cannot be omitted

on the intermediate and secondary grade levels. Reading is a process; therefore, it must continue throughout the child's school life and even beyond. Reading does not begin when the child opens his first preprimer. It begins at the first experience of the individual in life. Each experience he acquires adds to his reading ability. It is, therefore, very important to enrich this background of experiences before asking the child to read.[1]

Reading is a process, not a subject. The teacher of the content subjects must be well versed in the skills required for reading in the fields of study she is teaching, whether it be the social studies, natural science, or health. Each field has its own vocabulary and requires a background of experience peculiar to its content. Every type of visual aids and the various language activities may be utilized with great benefit to learning but the fact still remains that most concepts in the content fields are learned through reading. As soon as the individual gains power in reading, it becomes his chief tool for widening and enriching his experiences.

The task of the teacher then is to develop the

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1. Cf. Betts, Emmett, Foundations of Reading Instruction, pp. 83-84

effective reading habits and skills which are peculiar to her given field. The day is long past when the teacher of reading is isolated from all other fields. Today we find all teachers, teachers of reading.

In the course of reading through the school years of the child the following abilities must be developed:

1. Building continuous background:
    a. Taking part in first hand experiences
    b. Working with a variety of materials
    c. Taking part in classroom activities
    d. Using audio-visual aids
    e. Utilizing community and home resources
2. Developing interests:
    a. Providing information on sources of facts and fiction
    b. Guiding choices of reading according to maturation level
    c. Providing a variety of reading material
    d. Making clear the purposes of a given activity
3. Locating information:
    a. Discovering what information can be found in parts of books*

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* See appendix for lesson procedure

b. Using table of contents*

c. Finding pages quickly

d. Using a bibliography

e. Employing index effectively and quickly*

f. Utilizing glossary and appendix

g. Using chapter headings and paragraph headings

h. Skimming rapidly to locate needed information

i. Employing cross references

j. Using keys and footnotes

k. Knowing how to use an atlas, yearbook, and encyclopedia*

l. Acquiring knowledge of how to use maps, charts, graphs, and tables

m. Utilizing the library effectively*

n. Using a dictionary*

4. Comprehension:*

a. Reading to get the main idea or a general impression...

b. Reading to note significant details...

c. Reading to note and remember precise directions...

d. Reading to predict what comes next or the

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* See appendix for lesson procedure

most probable issue or conclusion...

e. Reading for the purpose of evaluating the materials...

f. Reading for the purpose of reproducing the materials in some type of summarized form

g. Reading for the purpose of comparing the form or substance of the selection read with other content

h. Reading for the purpose of remembering

5. Organizing ideas and materials:

a. Applying facts to problem

b. Perceiving relationships between facts

c. Organizing information read in the form of graphs, charts, maps, tables, or art projects

d. Evaluating a unit of reading material for the purpose of abstracting the central thought in summary form

e. Organizing data on the source of information in bibliographical form

f. Discriminating between crucial and incidental facts

g. Taking notes

h. Outlining important points

6. Care and hygiene of books:

a. Knowing how to open new books
b. Knowing how to keep binding of book from breaking
c. Knowing how to mark the place
d. Keeping book clean
e. Knowing how to turn pages

In organizing a program in the fundamentals of reading two major points should be given close consideration: The physical, emotional, and mental development of the child; and the understanding, skills, and attitudes which the child must acquire in order to use the reading matter available for him. This last point implies that a given understanding skill, or attitude should be taught when the child has the need for it and the essential background has been acquired. It also infers that the materials chosen should be of interest to the child.

In reading, as in all other phases of learning skills, there is a very wide spread of individual differences. No teacher can say she will teach a given skill to a group at a given time. No two children learn the same because each has a different background of experiences and the emotional and physical status of each vary widely. It is imperative then that before a teacher begins to teach a child reading she must not only

consider the mental maturity of the child but also the above mentioned principles, that is, the physical and emotional status of the child. It is only of late years that much attention has been paid to the effect on learning of emotional stability. Psychologists, after many investigations, are now in a position to state that this must be given definite consideration by those coming in contact with the child. This holds true regardless of time or location. If a child is emotionally unstable, it is impossible for him to work at his best ability. It is a fruitless waste of energy and time then for a teacher to insist on the child learning to read before she has first done all that is possible to establish emotional stability and maturity in each child whom she is to instruct.

The teacher of reading should be carefully instructed on the five periods of reading. She must also be aware that there is an over-lapping of these periods in every reading group. Unless she understands this, little can be achieved. The five periods mentioned above are:

1. The Period of Reading Readiness. This involves the years before the child comes to school, and a part or all of his first year in school, and with certain children even more time than this.

2. The Period of Beginning Reading. This includes the first experiences the child has with formal reading from experience charts, pre-primers and from primers. The child must of necessity be at least six and one-half years old mentally before entering this period. He should also have sufficient experience in reading readiness to build the necessary background for beginning reading.
3. The Period of Expanding Power. This takes the child through reading levels covering his earlier books, first and second readers, and perhaps easy third reader.
4. The Period of Growth in the Use of the Reading Tools. This begins in about the third or fourth grade when children are reading second, third, and possibly fourth readers. It continues throughout the elementary years. It has three phases: (a) study-reading, (b) literature or recreational reading, (c) oral reading.[2]
5. Period of Refinement of Reading Attitudes,

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2. Parker, Jessie M., (issued by) Iowa Elementary Teachers Handbook, Vol. II, "Reading", p. 17

Habits, and Tastes.[3] This period begins with Junior High School and continues through Junior College.

Period of Reading Readiness

The child who lacks readiness for reading in terms of physical, mental, emotional, and linguistic experience will have a difficult time in learning to read. Each of these factors is related one to the other and is interdependent. The physical status of the child should be such that he can keep pace with those in his group. If he tires easily, is susceptible to contagious disease, has visual and hearing defects, he can not be expected to make the mental and emotional adjustment necessary for happiness in a social situation.

Physical relationship to reading readiness. The teacher then should be alert for any deficiency in the individuals with whom she is working. Facility in the use of oral language appears to be closely related to achievement in beginning reading activity. There is a close relationship between hearing and oral language or

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3. Gray, William S., "The Nature and Organization of Basic Instruction in Reading," The Teaching of Reading, National Society for the Study of Education, Thirty-Sixth Yearbook, Part I, pp. 120-130

expression. The child's first contact with language is through speech and a hearing impairment may retard speech development by incorrect speech sounds thus causing mispronunciation. Oftentimes the lack of interest in oral language can be traced to incorrect hearing. This same defect frequently accounts for apparent disobedience. The child who does not hear correctly shows lack of social adjustment and is unable to follow directions. It is then apparent, that there must be normal hearing if the reading process is to be successful.

There are various ways of seating the child with defective hearing in the group in order that he may participate. If hearing is impaired in one ear only, the child can be seated so as to have his good ear toward the speaker. The hearing may be impaired for certain sounds of words, if so, careful guidance must be given.

In the analysis of physical development for reading readiness, it is necessary to consider visual readiness. The chief complaint of primary teachers is that children are entering school before the eyes are sufficiently mature for reading. In recognizing this fact the wise teacher will acquaint herself with the implications it involves.

Visual specialists are giving more attention to the

skill of seeing correctly than has been the case in the past. Very careful examinations are administered to see just what the difficulty is and how it can best be remedied. A child can frequently see things from a distance but not the close-up of a printed page of symbols. In each case the child should be referred to an oculist for examination before he is started in the reading of books.

In seating an individual in the classroom, the teacher must be aware that it is important for each child to see the printed symbols in the room from every location, singly and clearly. That is, by using the vision of one eye at a time. The symbols placed on the blackboard or bulletin board must be sufficiently clear, when viewed singly, to prevent eye strain.

Reversal of the printed symbols, such as d and b, p and q, and whole words as saw and was, have been given much attention and concern in the past. This is more common to first grade children and is not frequent enough to cause undue alarm.[4] The teacher can greatly modify this difficulty by giving guidance and exercises in correct eye movement.

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4. Davidson, Helen P., op. cit. in Betts, Emmett, Foundation of Reading Instruction, p. 132

No aspect of physical health is too slight to gain the teacher's time and attention. A child's whole life can be influenced by his health. Special attention should then be given to the nutrition, rest, and relaxation periods of the child. Though this attention will not guarantee learning to read, it will greatly facilitate it.

Mental maturity and reading readiness. Teachers have long realized that there is a close relationship between intelligence or mental maturity and reading ability. The slow child not only has difficulty in learning to read, but progresses at a much slower rate. It is not here inferred that all children with high I.Q.'s will be good readers. As stated previously various factors influence reading readiness. A child, who is emotionally unstable or comes from a foreign home, cannot work to his capacity though his I.Q. may be as high as 120 or more. Poor teaching, either at present or in the past, may be a principal factor. It is then, pure folly for a teacher to make generalizations regarding the relationship between mental maturity and reading readiness.

Individual differences are especially apparent here. It is generally true that a child who is mentally mature will be a good reader or a child who shows mental deficiency

usually finds reading most difficult. Does this fact justify the teacher who states that the mentally matured child does not need instruction and the dull pupil of low mental status would not improve with instruction? Each pupil is a personality different from all others. Let the teacher teach each of these personalities at its own rate of learning, remembering that even though there is a deficiency, each child has a right to her special attention and guidance.

A group of children may go on an excursion. The dull child may see the various points of interest shown but gain no new knowledge from them. This may be due to a lack of background for the experience or lack of interest. A child with an I.Q. of 112 may perceive the same points and see a close relationship between what he is studying in the classroom and what he is viewing at the present. Then again a child with an I.Q. of 112 may look at and see the very same items and make no relationship to previous study because there is a lack of interest in this given experience. This same learning situation may be carried to the printed page.

The child who shows mental immaturity will have difficulty in recognizing relationship between previous experiences and the problem being studied; it will be

difficult and often impossible for him to relate the abstract visual symbols to the things they represent; to select, evaluate, and organize ideas; to apply new learning in a problem-solving situation. If this be the case there is a lack of readiness for reading. [5]

Emotional stability and reading readiness. Social and emotional difficulties often frustrate all efforts made to teach a child to read. Excessive shyness or timidity, bewilderment with new social surroundings, instability of the home, and feeling of inferiority are emotional blocks in the reading process. If success is to be achieved these handicaps must be overcome with kindliness rather than severity and a definite program established for their correction.

Language ability and reading readiness. The relationship between oral language and readiness for reading is highly significant. A child, whose vocabulary suffers because of lack of experience, mispronunciation, speech defects, or uses baby talk, creates a problem in the readiness program. It is necessary for a child to put words together suitable for communicating with the group of which he is expected to be an active participant.

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5. Cf. Betts, Emmett A., op. cit., p. 124

Hildreth [6] goes so far as to state that it is a waste of time to try and teach reading unless a child can enunciate clearly, has something to say, and can express his ideas or ask questions intelligently. Reading, whether oral or silent, is another form of language expression. Ability to use oral language is a step to readiness for reading.

The child entering the classroom from a home in which a foreign language is spoken creates a serious problem for every teacher. The pupil who cannot interpret the spoken symbol cannot be expected to do so with the printed symbol. The speaking vocabulary of such a child must first be built, then and only then, can he be asked to interpret the printed page.

Too many teachers when speaking of reading readiness think only in terms of children starting school in the first grade. This is a very erroneous concept of the term "Reading Readiness." Today the term carries equally, if not more, meaning to the upper elementary and secondary school than to the kindergarten or first grade. Reading is a process, therefore it cannot be mastered in the course of two or three years as some teachers would like

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6. Cf. Hildreth, Gertrude, op. cit., p. 181

to believe. What has been said regarding the readiness for reading is as true for the child in secondary school as well as the primary school. No teacher should ask a child to read matter on any subject until the vocabulary peculiar to the subject has been developed, and experiences, either first hand or vicarious, have been supplied. Only then can the child be expected to take from the printed page the concepts intended.

Period of Beginning Reading

The experienced first grade teacher who meets a new group of six-year-olds realizes that some of the children will be ready to read during their first term in school and others will profit little, if any, from organized instruction. Her first problem then is to determine the method for teaching reading which she can handle best and at the same time give attention to individual differences.

Today, the three chief plans which can be utilized with success are the Basal Reading Approach, Modified Reading Approach, and Experience Approach. In the Basal Reading Approach a reading readiness book is used for the purpose of screening out pupils not ready for reading. Preprimers and accompanying workbooks are used for initial instruction.

For the Modified Reading Approach the reading readiness book and supplementary experience records are used in various ways to screen out the pupils who are not ready for reading. Preprimers and accompanying workbooks are used for initial reading instruction, supplemented with experience reading charts.

In the Experience Approach reading readiness is developed informally through activities growing out of first hand and vicarious experiences: story telling, dramatizations, experience records, science experiments, music, and so on. Initial reading activities are based on cooperatively developed experience charts with controlled vocabulary and sentence structure.[7]

Regardless of the method employed in teaching reading there must be a controlled vocabulary with much interesting repetition. The teacher must decide upon the words to be taught and how many are to be taught at a given time. In deciding this, she should consult the vocabulary of the basic reader she is to use; she should consult authorities for additional words from vocabulary

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7. cf. Betts, Emmett A., op. cit., pp. 383-384

lists;[8] use words from units being carried on. If learning is to occur, there must be continual repetition. The teacher, if well acquainted with the vocabulary, can employ it incidentally throughout the daily program. Various means such as experience charts, sentence structure on blackboard, and word and phrase cards may be utilized.

In this beginning period it is very necessary for the child to develop the ability to gain meaning from the printed page. Little progress is possible in teaching vocabulary unless the meaning of the words is established by means of experience.

Grouping is a necessary factor in the beginning reading period. No two children progress at the same rate. The teacher must provide for these differences in rate of learning by arranging groups which are so constructed as to allow a child to pass from one group to the other. Similar vocabulary is acquired and used by all groups within a grade with more study and repetition for the slower learners.

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8. Dolch, Edward W., Teaching Primary Reading, pp. 205-207
Durrell, Donald D., Improvement of Basic Reading Abilities, pp. 345-354, 355-388
Gates, Arthur I.,"Reading Vocabulary for the Primary Grades"

Various means are utilized by the child in gaining command of new words. He may ask someone; deduct from context clues; may consult a picture for a clue; or he may sound them. Much can be said in favor of each method with the exception of the first. The individual should early be taught to read independent of adult help as far as possible. The child who is more matured will in all probability employ the context method, whereas the individual who makes many reversals, should be encouraged in the use of phonics.

Before reading from a book, the pupil should have the idea that reading is a process of gaining information, not simply naming words. He should also be brought to realize that much pleasure can be gained in this way. The child should have a sight vocabulary of the words which occur in the first few pages of his book and be familiar with the various characters about whom he will read. This can be interestingly done through the use of experience charts.

Suggestions for presenting the first book are found in the Iowa Elementary Teachers Handbook on "Reading" by Parker.[9] They are as follows:

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9. Parker, Jessie M., op. cit., pp. 55-56

1. Make it a pleasurable experience...
2. Discuss the cover of the preprimer.
3. Page through the book with the children, looking at the pictures, encouraging discussion, and helping them anticipate the content.
4. Show them how to turn the pages by using the upper right hand corner. Also discuss good care of the book, having clean hands and holding it comfortably.
5. Present on board or wall pocket in meaningful content words that children may need to recognize again before reading from the book.
6. Talk about the first picture. Give a question or direction about each sentence on the first page. Ask all children to read silently, with lips closed, then ask one to read it orally, or tell it. Continue in this manner.
7. Ask different children to read all of the part that has been covered.
8. Lead children to give opinions, or tell of similar experiences based upon material read.
9. Follow the class period with correlated activities such as drawing on large paper, at blackboard, or easel; cutting; modeling; construction work; or other appropriate activities...
10. Continue to use the reading activities of the prebook period. These give opportunities for meaningful review of the preprimer vocabulary.

The teacher needs to remember that the first book reading should be pleasurable and successful; guidance should be given so as to insure continual growth; slow, halting reading should not be allowed; there should be continual stress placed upon meaning; silent reading should precede oral reading.

When the experience approach is used for the initial reading activities, attention should be given to vocabulary, sentence structure, and length of sentences

used in the experience charts. If this is done, the same charts used for language development may also be used for reading.

The experience approach to beginning reading emphasizes group cooperation and aids in developing personalities that make for successful living in a democratic society. Interest is stimulated not only in classroom activities but broadens out into the community. This method also provides a means for continued oral expression.

In preparing an experience chart, it is important to make sure that the child has something vital to say which will be interesting and worthwhile to the group. The experience may be either first hand or vicarious. The pupil may gain these vicarious experiences in various ways, for example, attending a movie, listening to a speaker, or listening to someone read a story. First hand experiences are gained by going on excursions to places of interest, by experimenting, and by constructing. During the preparing of these class records or charts, the teacher must give each child equal opportunity for participation. If a child is shy, she must encourage his every effort.

A draft form of the chart should be written in

manuscript on the board first. The group participating should be encouraged to check for sequence and clarity. Later, this should be transferred to chart form. Manuscript is preferred to cursive writing because it is more like the writing in the books the child is soon to use.

The values of the experience chart are obvious to most teachers. They broaden pupil interest, satisfy pupil needs, and present the experience in the child's own vocabulary thus avoiding the uninteresting style of most preprimers. While the child is learning to read, he is at the same time learning to express his ideas by use of both oral and written expression. The procedure for the chart method of teaching reading is very difficult to find in textbooks. For this reason such a lesson plan has been placed in the appendix.

Period of Expanding Power

This period includes reading in the first and second reader, sometimes the easy third reader. The child in this period is usually in the second or third grade and has completed the reading readiness program, and that for beginning reading.

The teacher must first see if the individual pupil

is ready to launch out into reading in this field. She must remember that though he is a second grade pupil he may not be prepared to work in this period. If such be the case, she must take the child where he is and give individual guidance.

In presenting materials to be read in this period careful attention is still given to the vocabulary used. Too many words must not be introduced at a time and there must be continual repetition of previous learned vocabulary. This can easily be carried out by the use of various basic readers written for children reading on the same level. Here we find a controlled vocabulary with the necessary, interesting, repetition of words presented. This is a great time saver for the teacher.

A careful study of the manuals accompanying the readers should be made. The materials and activities suggested in them are invaluable to the busy teacher who finds it necessary to work with many different groups each of which is working according to its own mental maturity.

There must be a purpose for each reading lesson. The child must be made aware that he is to gain information and at the same time find pleasure in

reading. Skills such as comprehension, word recognition, and retention skills should be developed. This point was handled to some extent earlier in the section on reading. Reasons and motives for reading should here be presented. There are various ways one can accomplish this. Questions may be asked, study sheets may be given and the child allowed to work individually, or the story may be told in part and the group encouraged to finish alone in order to see what happened.

Much interest in reading can be secured through the use of the record charts composed during the social studies or science units. The child never tires of reading over his own or another's stories which have been put into booklet form. His interest must be encouraged in every possible manner throughout the school life of the child.

Period of Growth in the Use of the Reading Tool

This period unlike the other three carries the child into far distant countries and acquaints him with the various cultures. Reading is no longer limited to the reader but includes all the various sources from which the child can gain information in the social studies, science, health and so on. He is now faced with learning

the skills required for using the library and reference materials as well as textbooks. He must seek out information, interpret and organize ideas gained through his reading. The skills peculiar to this type of study must be acquired; chiefly, notetaking, outlining, summarizing, and giving oral or written reports.

Study now is not limited to one or more readers but rather includes every sort of material from which information can be gained. Reference books such as encyclopedias and atlases, geographies, histories, and science books, newspapers and current event papers; magazines; and commercially prepared information on various industries; are other sources which can make reading a pleasure as well as a means for gaining information.

To utilize these sources beneficially the pupil must be versatile in the use of the table of content, index, glossary, and dictionary. He must be able to skim rapidly for the main idea expressed within a paragraph, and to read for details.

The well organized program in reading will give each individual sufficient practice in each of the skills mentioned in order that the child study more effectively. This practice must be carried out each year in proper

sequence depending upon the ability and reading level of each pupil. The teacher in the upper grades cannot expect the child to have acquired all these skills anymore than she could expect his vocabulary development to be complete. It cannot be stated too frequently, there must be a well organized program and cooperation of all if success is to be realized. It is pure folly for a teacher to state she will not teach this or that skill because it should have been acquired early in the school life of the child. Each instructor must take the child from where he is and not from where a few are because of superior mental ability.

Here again, may it be mentioned, that the reading readiness program is still carried out in the upper elementary and secondary school. No child in kindergarten or first grade ever learned the vocabulary peculiar to the study of European history and geography. Where then, will he learn it, if not, while studying these phases of social studies? Yes, reading readiness must have a place in the program on every grade level.

Period of Refinement of Reading Attitudes, Habits, and Tastes[10]

In this fifth period reading for refinement is developed in the Junior High School through Junior College. This thesis deals with the elementary school, therefore, only some of the aims will be mentioned. The first purpose of this period is to extend further the experiences of the pupils through reading and to increase their intellectual apprehension. Each subject of the curriculum should provide opportunity for wide reading of books, selections, newspapers, and periodicals that broaden the pupil's vision and increase his understanding of the problems studied. This in turn, will, it is believed extend and refine reading interests and tastes that will direct and inspire the present and future life of the reader and provide for the wholesome use of leisure time. Special attention should be given to the development of permanent interest in current events and the habit of reading periodicals and books with reasonable speed and good judgment.

Reading requires the establishment of purposes; the association of new experiences with the individual's

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10. Gray, William S., op. cit., p. 122-23

background; the gathering of meaning; the use of judgment; the appreciation, organization, and retention of ideas. It requires a taking to, as well as a taking from a situation. Two people may look at the same machine, one will see perhaps only a vehicle while the other will visualize all that it required to make the machine. The same is true of the printed page. Some read only words, others read and store in their minds many new ideas. Reading with understanding then, should be our goal.

Chapter VIII

SPELLING

The basis of spelling requirement of any grade level should be the child's purposeful writing needs, which increase rapidly. He will learn to spell correctly as he uses words repeatedly and becomes increasingly conscious of the need for correct spelling in his written work. He must develop the habit of looking at words critically, analyzing them, comparing them, noting similarities, and differences, and sensing the spelling of words from their sounds if the word lends itself to this method. With the help of the teacher the child can do much to correct his own errors and improve his spelling in all written work. A child who is aware of words whether in reading, listening, or writing, possesses one important key to spelling success.[1]

Today we hear much about incidental learning in spelling. It is believed by some teachers to be a time saver and also a more interesting way of teaching the

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1. Cf. Joan, Sister Mary, and Nona, Sister Mary, op. cit., pp. 231-232

child to spell than the well known direct study method. For the teacher who is well experienced and informed on methods and materials this may be true. She will find it possible to consult spelling lists composed by authorities[2], and so bring about the vocabulary of the child in order that he see the need for the words required. The teacher of less experience in newer methods, often enough a beginner, will find this to be a very difficult task for which she is not sufficiently prepared.

It is not inferred here that there is no incidental learning of spelling. There must be a certain amount employed in every classroom for every child has his own individual needs. These needs can best be handled by the incidental method. However, the direct study method of studying lists of words taken from the child's needs at various age levels must be employed.

In this direct study attack much depends upon the interest of the learner. The resourceful teacher is quick to utilize various means for interest getting. It is important for the child to learn that spelling is a

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2. Horn, Ernest, A Basic Writing Vocabulary
Gates, Arthur, Spelling Difficulties in 3,876 Words
Ashbough, The Iowa Spelling Scale

means of pleasure. It should never become a drudgery or a means of disciplining the child. Little real learning occurs for the child who receives a new list of words each day, is told to study them by writing them a multiple number of times, and then is tested on that same list that day. If words are missed a punishment is inflicted. The next day no further reference is made to previous lessons but rather more words with less and less meaning are handed out. Is this teaching?

To realize the goal of teaching it is important to set aside a few minutes each day for spelling. A few minutes for teaching spelling. This time must be used as both a study period and a checking period as well. It is carried out under the supervision and guidance of an understanding teacher, not the old time drill master. Each child must be given the individual help for which he has a need.

When should a child learn to spell? Individual differences make a direct answer to this question impossible. It is no longer said that in grade one every child must learn a given number of words. The teaching of spelling should begin when the child has the need for spelling his own words, has learned the letter forms, and knows the names of the letters. In carrying out the

various unit activities the pupil will be quick in sensing the need for knowing how to spell. The writing of letters, composing of stories, making markers for exhibits, posting notices, are a few of the opportunities he will have for its use.

In the beginning period of learning spelling, the words should be taken from the child's reading and speaking vocabulary, words that he will use in his activities. If a child asks for the spelling of a word the teacher should give the correct spelling and encourage him to learn the word. Guidance in the study of the word must be given before the child is asked to learn successfully. Horn's steps for study as listed in this chapter should be taught in a very simplified form with much stress on the visualizing of the word. Many teachers find that the keeping of a spelling notebook, even at this early stage, adds color and interest for the child.

There are two methods used widely today in the teaching of spelling. The STUDY-TEST METHOD employed in the second and third grades and the TEST-STUDY METHOD used in the intermediate grades. Both methods have been found to be very effective and interesting to the child. Each day of the week has a type of study peculiar to

the lesson.

Study-Test Method

Monday is spent in presenting the word, discussing the meaning and use of each.

Tuesday the words are used in various ways and studied separately as individual need requires.

Wednesday the trial test is taken and note made of difficult words.

Thursday is another study period for words missed on Wednesday.

Friday the final test of the words studied for the week is taken.

Test-Study Method

As the name implies the TEST-STUDY METHOD starts the week with a trial test. The remainder of the week is similar to the first mentioned method. This is a very satisfactory way of handling the study time, for if the pupil knows the words on Monday, he has the remaining three days of the week to do other activities. In this way time is saved and discipline problems are not so likely to occur. All pupils are required, however, to take the Friday test as a final check on accuracy. In

this method the pupil who doesn't need the study has the opportunity of broadening out in other fields of interest. In this way interest in spelling is encouraged and it becomes a pleasure to learn, not a drudgery. The teacher on the other hand will have more time to help the child who has difficulties.

It is advised by most authorities that each child keep a spelling notebook for words missed or those that prove especially troublesome. This notebook should also contain any words missed in other types of written work. If this is done the pupil can easily turn to his difficult words and study them in free time. If necessary the teacher should give extra help to those pupils who find it difficult to spell correctly. As in all other subjects no two children are capable of working at the same pace. Each one has his particular difficulty.

In the teaching of spelling the teacher should strive to develop in each individual the following attitudes:

1. Developing interest
2. Establishing confidence
3. Increasing spelling consciousness
4. Stressing intention to remember
5. Encouraging aggressive attack

Effective steps for studying a word, as listed by Horn,[3] are:

1. The first thing to do in learning to spell a word is to pronounce it correctly. Pronounce the word, saying each syllable very distinctly, and looking closely at each syllable as you say it.

2. With closed eyes try to see the word in your book, syllable by syllable, as you pronounce it in a whisper. In pronouncing the word, be sure to say each syllable distinctly. After saying the word, keep trying to recall how the word looked in your book and at the same time say the letters. Spell by syllables.

3. Open your eyes and look at the word to see whether or not you had it right. If you did not have it right, do step one and step two over again. Keep trying until you can say the letters correctly with closed eyes.

4. When you are sure that you have learned the word, write it without looking at your book and then compare your attempts with the book in order to see whether or not you wrote it correctly. If you did not write it correctly go through steps one, two, three, and four again.

5. Now write the word again. See if it is right. If it is, cover it with your hand and write it again. If your second trial is right, write it once again. If all three trials are right, you may say that you have learned the word for the day. If you make a single mistake, begin with step one and go through each step again.

Time and space do not allow detailed discussion of

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3. Horn, Ernest, and Ashbaugh, E. J., Progress in Spelling, pp. 15-16

each important point to be made regarding the study of spelling. A few of the more important items as found in McKee,[4] and Horn,[5] will here be stated:

1. Long lists of words should not be presented each week.
2. The daily study period should not consume more than fifteen minutes.
3. Too much emphasis should not be placed upon the teaching of rules.
4. Emphasis should be placed upon the syllables of a new word during the presentation period.
5. Encourage in various ways visual imagery in presenting a word.
6. Particular attention should be drawn to the "hard spots," if there be any, for the particular group studying the word.
7. The meaning of the words must be clear to all.
8. More than one study period must be provided.
9. Pupils study only the words they missed or do not know. Each child works on his own difficulties.

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4. McKee, op. cit., pp. 366-428

5. Horn, Ernest, Principles and Methods in Teaching Spelling As Derived From Scientific Investigation, pp. 52-73

10. Correct pronunciation must be required at all times.
11. The word must be visualized and written during the study period.

Chapter IX

HAND WRITING

The more interesting the school program is, the greater will be the child's desire to write. The quality of this writing depends upon many factors. Physical comfort is most important in writing. The desk should be cleared to permit the arm to rest comfortably upon it. The light should be adequate and coming from the left for the right-handed person and from the right for the left-handed person. Desk and seat should be of the right height for each pupil. A pencil that is long enough to be held comfortably should be used. In the case of first graders it is advised that the large size primary pencil be used. Paper should be large enough to allow the child to make his letters the correct form without cramping his writing.[1]

Handwriting is a complex and complicated skill that is difficult to acquire. The beginner who lacks the necessary muscular coordination and control will be

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1. Cf. Falk, Ethel, Handwriting, Forty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, p. 161

confronted with many difficulties. The teacher in the primary grades is no longer in the dark as to why the small child finds writing a difficult task. She has only to open a child psychology book of reasonably late findings, and read for her answer. Luella Cole,[2] in her book on "Psychology of Adolescence" gives mention to and illustrations of x-ray pictures of the development of the wrist, hand, and leg bones.

The baby's wrist bones are not only small but extremely soft. During childhood the bones increase in both size and density. Each long bone is at first formed of cartilage. As a child becomes older, the cartilage ossifies, and the bones become denser, harder, and more brittle. When girls are four years old they are nearly a year ahead of boys in their skeletal age; at eight, they are a year and a half in advance. Skeletal growth is measured not only by hardness of the bones but also upon what percentage of the wrist area is ossified and how large the bones are. At all ages from birth to maturity, a larger percentage of the area is hardened in the wrist of the average girl than in that of the average boy.

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2. Cole. Luella, Psychology of Adolescence, p. 32
Cole, Luella and Morgan, John, Psychology of Childhood and Adolescence, Chapter I

This is of great significance to the teacher. Coordination of the finger muscles is in close relationship to the development of the wrist bones. Is the teacher justified in asking the primary child to do cursive writing? This requires great muscle control for which the child is not sufficiently developed. Secondly, is the teacher justified in asking and expecting a boy to meet the same standards as those of a girl? The teacher must consider these two points most seriously while working with each pupil.

Manuscript is used in the early years of the child's life in school because it is simplified and therefore, requires less muscle strain. By simplified, it is inferred that the required strokes for forming the letters are less complicated and fewer in number. The beginner should learn to form letters, words, and sentences which have a meaning to him. Large paper, preferably without lines is used to enable free movement. The large size beginner's pencil is easy for the small fingers of the child to grasp, therefore, should be used. The time spent in writing should be short and well guided. Each child should be given the help he needs with his own difficulties. There is no point in his practicing

exercises in which he does not need practice. It is to be expected that the girls will be advanced more than the boys in this ability, thus making it necessary for the teacher to work with each individually.

Many objectives for teaching handwriting can be set down but the four major ones will be mentioned here.

1. Seek to get the child to write with a high degree of legibility.
2. Develop the desire to write well at all times.
3. Make good writing automatic.
4. Encourage the child to be critical of his handwriting to the extent that he is able to locate his own difficulties.

A good program in writing is concerned with both meaning and the skill elements. The program, if it is to succeed, cannot be based on meaning alone nor on skill alone. The two must be combined if interest and success are to be achieved. There will be a need for practice exercises through which the child may hope to acquire skill in letter form, and to increase the speed and quality with which he writes. Care must be taken however, to see that these exercises are concerned with meaningful content drawn from other school experiences.

In handwriting, as in many other subjects, we hear

a great amount of discussion regarding incidental teaching. To the present time there is no evidence that this method is satisfactory. It is apparent to leading authorities that there must be a practice period during which letter formation and certain combinations are given particular attention especially when new letters are presented or ink introduced. There must also be practice periods for the exercise of the principles taught. The teacher must not presume that a pupil can form combinations of letters without ample instruction and practice. The exercises used should include the writing of single letters, combinations of letters, words, and sentences. The letters should be introduced in terms of their difficulty and types of movement involved in forming them. The easiest letters should be presented first, the more difficult ones coming last and receiving time for more practice. The combinations used most frequently should be presented first. The words used for copy should always be within the comprehension of the child, and words that are important to learn. That is, words from spelling and writing school needs.

Among the abilities for handwriting are listed:

1. Working for improved formation of letters
2. Forming certain standards

a. Letter formation

b. Spacing

c. Alignment

d. Uniform slant

e. Neatness

f. Relative size of letters

g. Margins and indentation

3. Checking written work

4. Striving for neatness and legibility

5. Maintaining good posture

6. Increasing speed to fit age level and writing needs of child

7. Learning manuscript letter forms in the primary grades

a. Perfecting it in the intermediate and upper grades

8. Learning cursive forms in the intermediate grades

Decision must be made as to whether the child who writes with his left hand should be changed or whether he should be allowed to continue writing with his left hand. There is no definite answer to this problem but there is research in psychology which indicates that in some cases of change being made the child in question begins to stutter. The teacher of left handed children,

especially in primary grades, should watch the child during other activities and see which the hand preference is. If he shows a definite left hand preference in his games and work, he should not be asked to write with his right hand. If however, the child writes with his left hand the position of the paper is changed, the slant being toward the left rather than toward the right.

There is some disagreement as to when the change from manuscript to cursive writing should take place. Here again much depends upon the group in question. It seems best to change in the latter part of the third grade. Many educators are of the opinion that this change should take place at this time because, as mentioned earlier in this chapter the wrist and finger bones and muscles of the child do not develop until this period of the child's school life. Also, time is required for learning and adequate form and alignment are generally not achieved until the child has had sufficient time to practice.

Chapter X

SOCIAL STUDIES

The growth of the city and the accompanying shift of responsibilities has placed increasing obligations upon the school. To adjust to this shifting of population from the farm to the city, our educational system must be continually readjusting its curricula. The child that lived on the farm helped with the chores, took care of his younger brothers and sisters, enjoyed watching the garden plants grow that he had helped to plant, and learned to cooperate in the many tasks about the farm. In this way he learned the most fundamental principle of life which is cooperation with others, by actual participation and close observation.

How is the school to supply the child with this all important experience? Particularly in the social studies, educators have recognized the need for more learning based upon direct experiences, for changes in attitudes and conduct, and for an understanding of our complicated and extensive culture. The child, if he is to make the most of life, must have some understanding

of society as a whole.[1]

The social studies, history, geography, civics, and economics provide a background for this understanding of man and his environment, the interacting forces of civilization, and their role in cultural progress, the meaning of democracy and human relations. The child is led to appreciate what is culturally valuable of the past; to understand the facts, forces, and relationships of social life as related to civic and community attitudes and problems of citizenship.[2]

The prime purposes of the social studies as cited in the Fourteenth Yearbook on "The Social Studies Curriculum" are:

1. To give pupils the truest and most realistic knowledge possible of the community, state, nation and world in which they are to make their way.

2. To prepare pupils for a wiser and more effective cooperation among regions, areas, individuals, groups, communities, states, and nations in dealing with racial, religious, and economic questions.

3. To give pupils a love of truth, appreciation

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1. Cf. Adams, Fay, Educating America's Children, p. 236

2. Cf. Hildreth, Gertrude, Child Growth Through Education, pp. 139-153

of the beautiful, a bent toward the good, and a desire to use their resources for the good of humanity.

4. To train pupils in the intellectual processes necessary for the efficient functioning of society.[3]

The major principles stated above may be broken down into specific objectives. "In the Social Studies Course of Study" for Des Moines, Iowa the following are listed:[4]

1. To understand and appreciate his role as an individual in the interdependent social, economic, and political groups of which he is a member.

2. To develop an understanding and appreciation of the foundations that the past has laid for the present.

3. To understand that humanity is progressing and to foster the interest, desire, and ability to participate effectively in promoting this progress.

4. To build the attitudes of tolerance, respect, sympathy, and good will toward all races, classes, and nations.

5. To develop an outlook on life which will enable one to consider institutions and customs critically, and to take his place intelligently in a society which will continue to change rapidly.

6. To achieve an understanding of the complex and highly organized economic structure by which

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3. "Social Studies Curriculum" Fourteenth Yearbook, pp. 57-8

4. Social Studies Course of Study, Kindergarten to Grade II, Des Moines Public Schools

community, nation, and world cooperate to make possible the seemingly simple conveniences of modern life.

7. To realize the essential inter-relationships between human life and activity and the natural environment which men seek to utilize more and more adequately for their convenience and comfort.

8. To combat his own prejudices by developing through much use the ability to collect, evaluate, organize, and use social data effectively to form conclusions. To help him know how his mind works and how he arrives at his decisions, stereotypes and biases.

9. To achieve a reasoned faith and pride in American institutions, a knowledge of the processes of their growth, and a recognition that they must continue to be susceptible to further growth and development to meet the needs of a changing interdependent world.

The next step after determining the objectives to be sought is the selection of materials of instruction. Criteria for selecting these materials are: pupil interests or needs, learnability, accuracy, and utility. Of special value are: World books, Atlases, individual copies of texts, maps, flat pictures, movies, slides, aquarium, microscope, and art materials of different media. The social studies offer no clearly discernible order of difficulty, no logical order of learning, no series of progressive laws and principles. The variables are the individual pupil, the class, the content, the

teacher, the method, and the materials available.

The matter of method of teaching the social studies has been the subject of controversy for many years. In his discussion on the subject Horn[5] states the following possibilities. Isolation, in which each subject is taught as a separate entity without any effort to relate it to the other social studies. Correlation, in which the individual subjects retain their integrity but are related one to the other to some degree. In this method is found the paralleling of two subjects in the same grade. Concentration, in which some one subject, such as history, is the center and the other subjects are integrated with it. Unification, in which all traditional subjects lose their identity. In this particular method is discovered a fusion of all the subjects of the curriculum.

The last point mentioned, unification, has in the opinion of many leading educators, the most possibilities for the attaining of the goals which have been mentioned previously. If this be the case, it is necessary for the teacher of this unification method to be well educated in social studies and the language arts. There must be

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5. Cf. Horn, Ernest, Methods of Instruction In The Social Studies, pp. 8-16

a clear understanding of the value of large blocks of time rather than the traditional schedule. The teacher must understand and appreciate the principles of child growth and development along the different levels. Without this understanding and appreciation she cannot plan her course nor carry it through to a successful climax. She cannot attain the goals which she set out to achieve.

School-Community Relationships

As stated previously there is no logical order of learning nor discernible order of difficulty in the social studies. What is to be taught and how it is to be developed depends upon the individual child, the group, and the teacher. It is also necessary to consider the community, and what it can offer in the study to be undertaken, excursions and their value to the child at the present time and the role of cooperation and democracy in the life of each individual.

Utilizing the community. Every community has places of service which are accessible to the school. A trip to the post office, carefully planned and arranged for in advance, will help even the youngest school child to some understanding of what a help to our daily living the mail

clerks and carriers are. Seeing the process, step by step, by which a letter leaves the sender when dropped into a mail box, through the cancellation of stamps, the sorting by direction of travel, the placing in the properly labeled bag and the sending to the train, enriches the understanding of the child.

Likewise, carefully arranged trips to the fire department, the police station, the water works, and other municipal services will begin the process of understanding and appreciation which eventually results in the acceptance of responsibility for these activities. Similar trips to the grocery store, the hardware store, the meat market, the dairy, and other fields of activity which serve our needs will make their contributions to this growing understanding. In this type of enriched education the teacher must be imaginative and rich in ingenuity in order to plan for such experiences in a manner that will be most fruitful to the child.

Every community is rich in individual talent. The teacher should seek out and bring to her classroom those individuals who have special abilities, skills, or knowledge which they will gladly share for the education of the child if approached in the right manner. Business men, skilled workmen, and housewives can and will make

a significant contribution to the educational program if properly invited to do so.

If the next generation is to be well educated, socially minded, and filled with a deep sense of responsibility, the program in social studies should be organized so that each member of the community has ample opportunity to make his contribution to the education of the child, that the child will understand that education is a process of total living, and that he should appreciate the contribution which the community, individually and as a whole, is making to his development.

Excursions. One of the most effective ways of acquainting the child with his community is to take him into the community and show him its various institutions and industries. This is accomplished by means of field trips or excursions. If these trips are carefully planned by the teacher and the group they are an invaluable means toward educating the whole child. It is this gaining of first hand experience which enriches the understanding of all those various institutions which make up the social world. It is in this manner the child gains an appreciation of the interaction of all in the community, state, and nation.

These field trips, if they are to be beneficial to all must involve adequate preparation of the class; arrangements with those in charge of the place to be visited; a planned procedure to be employed during the visit; and checking and synthesizing the results into the larger pattern of instruction[6].

In planning the trip various means can be used to acquaint the child with what he is to see. A child who has previously visited the industry may be called upon to describe certain points of interest. Pictures related to the subject may be shown and discussed or the teacher may find it advantageous to prepare the group by discussing it with the children herself.

It is beneficial if each child is made to feel he is responsible for securing a certain amount of information while on the excursion. This can be effectively done if, while planning the trip, the group list questions which are to be asked. The necessary number of children should each be assigned a question to ask of the guide who is showing the group through the industry. It is here advised that these questions be assigned to the child

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6. Cf. Westley, Edgar Bruce, Teaching The Social Studies, p. 420

who would not in another way take part in the various activities of the group. This will aid him in becoming a part of the group and give the feeling of assurance needed for participation. Each contribution offered must be acknowledged by the teacher and the child encouraged in his efforts regardless of how meager it may appear compared to other contributions. Field trips are a great aid to the teacher in reaching the child who finds it difficult to get into the group and cooperate in its enterprises.

Cooperation and democracy. It has been mentioned previously that cooperation of an individual with another individual, a group, community, and nation is the main objective of the social studies. In planning the course to be followed in the study of a social situation let the teacher remember that children can cooperate successfully only when they practice this relationship in a social situation. The child must be encouraged to share in the planning of the program to be followed. He must not only help in planning the work but also do his share in carrying out these plans and evaluating the success of the efforts put forth. This plan of pupil-pupil and teacher-pupil planning not only encourages better thinking but it fosters cooperation. In carrying

out this type of working together the teacher must be deeply founded in democratic principles.[7]

In the development of social behavior it is important to help the child overcome his worries and feelings of inferiority and inadequacy. It will be easier for him to cooperate with others and he will find much more satisfaction in such cooperation than if he were continually striving to overcome his feelings.

To build effective social behavior some children will need help in the building of feelings of confidence for effective work and play with others. Practically all children will need help in developing such knowledge as how to take turns, how to work with others, how other people live, what problems must be faced, the purpose of rules, and understanding of property rights.

The all-important principle for the teacher to bear in mind, in guiding the child in developing cooperation is, she is working with an individual different from any other individual. She must be prepared to meet each situation which arises with an understanding that will enable her to encourage every ability in each child to his present capacity for learning.

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7. Cf. Adams, Fay, op. cit., pp. 238-41

To bring about desirable social growth in a child, the teacher must have a clear understanding of what constitutes social growth for the child with whom she is working, and a vision of what a well-developed, well-adjusted social person is. Then she must set about to promote in the child those capacities, interests, appreciations, attitudes, understandings, and skills that will make him a well-adjusted person in his own social group at home, in school, and in the community. If a child meets adequately the situations of his living each day, and each ensuing year as his scope of social interaction grows he will be equipped to meet the situations of adulthood adequately, also, in their turn.

In planning a social studies program Joy M. Lacey[8] states:

> The social studies program which provides significant socializing situations will lead children progressively to a realization of the values of desirable social living. They will use the social life of their immediate environment but gradually widen their horizons. They will study how people lived and worked together in the past; how people have achieved or failed to achieve; how they live at the present time; and how better ways of living and working together may be realized in the future. The chief concern will not be the mere

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8. Lacey, Joy M., Teaching The Social Studies In The Elementary School, p. 11

> assimilation of history and geography information but critical thinking and judging that will eventually lead to better ways of behaving. These improved forms of social conduct will be the result of a better understanding of social values.

A social studies program, if it is to be successful must contain those experiences which help the child understand the common problems of group life and especially his personal responsibility to any group of which he is an integral part. They deal primarily with problems of contemporary life on the child's level of understanding. It should provide those experiences which help the child to understand and appreciate the cooperation and interdependence of people in his own family, his own community, and of people everywhere by emphasizing the fact that any service is important and that participation is essential to complete living. Social studies should provide experiences through which the child learns by comparisons and contrasts that people in distant lands and in remote sections of his own country solve their problems of food, clothing, shelter, travel, communication, industry, and recreation in various ways. The child should learn that where soil, climate, and natural resources are different, the ways of living and working are varied.

The program must provide those experiences that will

help the child understand how the present came out of the past, whenever such experiences give meaning to the present day problems. In a school that is organized on the basis of functional living the social studies provide experiences which foster the cultivation of right habits, attitudes and skills, and the building of civic ideals. All these contribute to social adjustment and more complete socialization of the individual.

A discussion on the fusion of the language arts with the social studies is to be found in the section of this thesis on "Organization of Units of Study." In this same section the utilization of audio-visual aids will be outlined.

In summary then, it should be stated that the following abilities should be fostered in a well rounded curriculum in the social studies.

1. Working well with others.
2. Listening and speaking intelligently.
3. Gathering information from various sources.
4. Weighing facts and seeing relationship to problem being studied.
5. Learning to organize.
6. Learning to retain.
7. Developing good work habits.

8. Using time and materials economically.
9. Developing qualities of initiative, resourcefulness, leadership, and cooperation.

A child's development is a twenty-four-hour a-day process. Social attitudes are being formed in genuine life situations from earliest childhood. This means that not only the social studies course but all subjects, in fact, the life of the school should be centered around the development of right social attitudes. The school should work in close cooperation with the home, church, industry, and the various groups and clubs that influence the life of the child if this goal of attaining social attitudes is to be realized. The method of teaching is of most importance, not only what he learns but how he learns it has significance on his growth pattern. The experience unit method seems at present to be the most satisfactory means of teaching the child.

Organization of Experience Units

Today, teaching means more than it did yesterday. The teacher teaches each individual in the class as a distinct personality from all others. She must recognize individual differences in abilities, emotions, interests, attitudes, and behavior in general. In teaching, as

understood now, the teacher must begin with the child where he is and utilize the program in such a way as to bring about the maximum growth and development of each individual.

The activity of the child is the basis of the learning process. This does not mean that mental activity can be forgotten, but rather, it means that before the child can really learn he must "experience" that which is to be learned. Not all experiences can be or need to be first-hand. As the individual develops it is possible for him to acquire the ability to learn from various vicarious experiences such as pictures of various types, i.e., commercial pictures and film strips, books, and talks given by members of the community. He also grows in the ability to interpret the printed page and the spoken word.

The child is an integration of spiritual, intellectual, emotional, social, and physical growth. Teachers must, therefore, come to a clear understanding of the child, believing in the fact that it is the whole child being educated. Many leading educators today believe that the individual and his environment cannot be separated, for there is constant interaction. It is this belief of interacting forces which is continually drawing the

school and the community together. For the two forces must work as one in educating the child.

It is the aim of education to provide an environment in which the child can make the most of his abilities by developing motor and intellectual skills, understandings, appreciations, and attitudes which make him a social being. Out of this comes the experience unit. This method seems to be the most satisfactory at present for meeting the needs of the child.

For a clear understanding of the unit of experience in teaching the social studies it is well to examine its definition as stated by noted educators of today. Lee and Lee[9] in their definition stress that learning and socialization should be simultaneous. They say: "A unit consists of purposeful (to the learner), related activities so developed as to give insight into, and increased control of some significant aspects of the environment; and to provide opportunities for the socialization of pupils." Following this same line of thought, Macomber[10] defines it as here cited:

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9. Lee, Murray J. and Lee, Dorris May, The Child and His Curriculum, p. 192

10. Macomber, F. G., Guiding Child Development In The Elementary Schools, p. 18

> A unit is composed of varied and worth-while pupil experiences developed around a central theme which grows out of the concept that education is experiencing and that the chief function of the school is to guide the child into those experiences which will result in desired modification of pupil conduct and way of thinking.

Selecting A Unit of Study

In selecting units to be studied the teacher must bear various points well in mind. Hildreth[11] cites the following: Units selected are related to the immediate concerns and purposes of children and to the problems they need to solve. Take account of the pupil's maturity in its major aspects: mental, physical, social, and emotional. The unit experiences have maximum concreteness, involving doing something, making things, solving life-like problems; provide for a wide range of activities in various media; draw upon the basic fields of knowledge; contribute to social understanding and growth in interests. The unit should produce a problem solving attitude and make provision for the learning of skills and techniques. The unit should be adaptable to individual needs.

A unit should be selected according to the materials

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11. Hildreth, Gertrude, op. cit., pp. 111-12

on hand for its development. There must be adequate reference material on various reading levels, audio-visual aids materials, art material of various media, and sufficient time possible for the unit to be carried out satisfactorily. The maturity of the learner and his previous experience should be considered closely. The teacher must also consider whether there is sufficient social significance and personal value to warrant its study. The teacher should ask herself "Will an extended and detailed study of the unit be of profit to the child in meeting his social problems and solving them satisfactorily?"

Teacher preparation. The teacher in the classroom acts as a guide and counselor. She must then prepare for the study of a unit by discovering possibilities for pupil experiences and make sure the needed materials will be available. The possibilities for first hand experiences must be determined. She should know in advance what excursions will be possible, the experiments that can be carried out, and what construction will make the learning process more valuable. Then too, the teacher must provide for ways of stimulating creative expression in art, music, dramatic play, and poetry if the unit being studied provides for the integration of

such activities.

In order to guide the child in his experience activity the teacher must have wide experiences herself. Some of these, it is true, can be gained with the group with whom she is working but this is not sufficient. She must utilize every opportunity to go into various communities as well as her own and see and feel the things which will broaden her understanding of the social world of which she is a part. The teacher should read widely and keep abreast with the happenings of the day. Her reading should not be limited to one field of interest but rather to the many fields which will aid her in becoming better acquainted with the places and things which will come into the working out of an experience unit.

Suggestions for selecting and planning experience units have been listed by the New York City Schools Planning Committee.[12] These are as follows:

1. Set up suitable objectives
2. Decide on the approximate duration of the unit
3. Find an interesting and suitable approach

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12. Changing Concepts and Practices in Elementary Education, Board of Education, New York City: op.cit., Hildreth, Gertrude, Child Growth Through Education, p. 114

4. List the desirable experiences or activities that can be set up to realize the objectives selected
5. List the suitable subject matter, concepts, and skills that may be developed in the unit
6. List materials that will be needed
7. Plan tentatively for some desirable culmination or summary of what has been learned
8. Plan tentatively what appraisal, in terms of tests, and other evidence will be needed

In planning an experience unit it is important to state the desired objectives or outcomes. These should, however, be limited in number stating one or two objectives with their activities, content, or problems.[13] Some teachers list the objectives in the order they are likely to develop. Consideration should be given to skills, understandings and appreciations, interests, good thinking, and social growth; social relationships, aptitudes, critical thinking, worthwhile activities, and physical and mental health.

There are many arguments as to whether or not the teacher should write out lesson plans. If one thinks

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13. Lee, and Lee, op. cit., p. 208

in terms of units which take up several weeks rather than the daily lesson plans concerned with subject matter, lesson planning not only seems feasible but necessary. It is evident that there be careful planning in advance and that it be written out. If this is not accomplished undesirable outcomes result for as F. G. Macomber states in Guiding Child Development the "blind lead the blind".

Initiating the unit. To the alert and experienced teacher the possible means for initiating a new unit to be studied are innumerable. Among the various means may be found the child's interest in an industry in the community of which he is becoming increasingly aware, listening to a speaker, clippings or pictures on the bulletin board, or requests from the community for participation in some community project. The school is continually being called upon to take active part during fire prevention week, clean-up week, or safety week. The teacher should be quick to take this opportunity of working up her unit interest.

Planning unit with children. In planning a unit each child must be encouraged to express his ideas. The teacher offers her suggestions, helps the children evaluate their own suggestions, recommends improvements in the ideas presented and suggests new approaches to

the problem. The different ways and means for studying the problem are considered. The children plan so far as they are able but often the final decision must come from the teacher. The problem must be so constructed as to lend to the necessary changes which arise as each phase develops. There must be sufficient time for informal discussions, checking-up, and planning the next steps. There must also be time for considering failures and successes.[14]

Developing a unit. This point can be considered most satisfactorily if briefly outlined as follows:

1. Initiating unit
    a. Presenting problem
    b. Planning first hand and vicarious experiences
    c. Working out a plan of study together
    d. Organizing an outline of study for problem
2. Gathering information:
    a. Looking for sources for reference
    b. Reading
    c. Collecting and selecting

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14. Hildreth, Gertrude, op. cit., pp. 117-18

d. Sharing, listening, enjoying

e. Evaluating

3. Recording and summarizing:

a. Writing and taking notes

b. Giving talks

c. Showing charts

d. Dramatizing

e. Administering tests on information gained

f. Reading own stories or poems

Visual aids. One of the greatest aids in the teaching of units of experience are the visual aids materials now available to a great number of our schools. First, it is important to understand that visual aids include trips, exhibits, pictures, graphs, charts, and maps.

The field trip as it is frequently called is probably the least used and yet the most valuable of the above mentioned visual aids. In the teaching of the social studies the teacher finds them to be her greatest and most interesting activity. A well planned trip gives first-hand experience which leads to keen observation, clear concepts, and a more practical judgment. The planning for these field trips has been discussed earlier in this chapter.

Frequently it is impossible for a group to take a

field trip. If this be the case let the teacher utilize the other visual aids materials available. The motion picture ranks high in its contribution to learning. It may be more advantageous than the actual excursion, for in seeing a picture a child can follow through an entire process as the mining of coal. A group visiting a mine would find it impossible to see each process in the mining of coal for time does not lend to a complete learning. Then too, if a process is missed it is usually impossible to return to the mine for further observation. With the motion picture this is not so. Each process can be followed through in its turn giving the individual a complete picture of the coal mining industry. If necessary the picture may be shown several times in order to clarify misconceptions. The most satisfactory learning situation takes place if a field trip is taken first and the pictures used after as a follow-up in order to supply any points missed or misconstrued.

In selecting pictures for study the teacher must make sure the pictures are attractive, well printed views with the present study well portrayed and with details easily distinguished. The views must furnish the pupil with clear imagery which will aid him in discovering and interpreting relationships. Pictures

which show human activities in their natural setting have high value. The pictures used must be closely related to the social, geographical, or historical emphases under study and must contribute to the understandings to be developed through this unit of work. Pictures should not be shown if they lead to complex relationships. Scenes should contain but a few items which will guide to clear concepts readily understood by the child.

The above principles for picture selection should be applied to all types of pictures, still pictures and motion pictures. For this reason it is most important for the teacher to preview all motion pictures she is to employ in the unit under study. This will help her in discovering when to show the picture and how much preparation the group will need before viewing it.

Some pictures can be used in introducing the unit while others will be more beneficial if shown at a later time after certain knowledge of the subject being studied is gained. Regardless of when the picture is shown, the group must be prepared for the showing. Without this preparation little will be gained.

Books and their use. To study and carry on a unit satisfactorily it is important that sufficient books be

available. Each pupil may have a copy of the text book in order to read and locate answers to specific questions or multiple texts may be used. The child must be made aware of the vocabulary peculiar to the unit under study before being asked to read in order to gain information. No class should be limited to the use of one book but should have access to a variety of single copy reference books written on various reading levels. A text book reference room connected with the school library proves to be of great value to the teacher looking for such materials as she needs. In this way the books are conveniently located for all teachers of the system and each one is free to select according to the needs of her group rather than limit herself to a few books which in many instances are too difficult for the slow reading child.

When launching into a unit study it is most important that each individual understand the use of the library and its function in the school. The expert teacher will make a visit to the library one of her first excursions. If possible the librarian should receive the group and explain the various books. Each child should be shown the catalog and how to use it. Discovering the many features of the library should be made a pleasurable

experience for the pupil. The wise, interested teacher will utilize various means in giving each child an opportunity to use the library. He should become acquainted with the encyclopedias, atlases, dictionaries, current events, and magazines and how to find the materials needed quickly and systematically.

Keeping records. The use of charts, booklets, and notebooks proves to be of increasing value to the child. Children gather pleasure from creating original work. The above mentioned often serve as check-up and easy review methods which ordinarily the child is unaware of because of his interest to acquire new knowledge and reproduce it in his own books. It is something too, for him to show his parents so they may share his learning. The parents in turn are satisfied and pleased with the progress being made. The child who finds it difficult to give oral reports may offer valuable information otherwise lost if not given an opportunity to express himself in writing. Again, let the teacher offer many different channels of experience in order to give each individual equal opportunity to participate. The group that enjoys each pupil's contribution and effort is learning to live a cooperative democratic life.

Broadening related experiences. A unit frequently leads to the development of the fine arts. Music of the peoples studied and their dances leads to an understanding of the people. Dramatization of the human activities will lead the child into a personal feeling for the people. Discovering the customs of others in order to characterize them accurately, making costumes, and painting the scenery, give the child practice in the arts. It is here the teacher can study her group and discover talent otherwise hidden. The child with a brush and a large sheet of paper will say things in a mural which he could never tell the teacher in oral or written expression. A pupil may have little to offer in the study other than his ability to portray his idea with a brush. If so, let him do his talking with a brush. Then perhaps the skillful teacher can guide him into other means of expression. In every instance encouragement must be given for every effort put forth.

In summary of this chapter then let the teacher strive to develop in each child a cooperative, democratic spirit. It is she who must guide the individual in his appreciation of his culture and all it signifies. She must inspire him with a love and loyalty for his country. The teacher should remember she is teaching

the leader of tomorrow. To be a leader the person must love and appreciate his own culture and honor and respect that of others. He must have a clear understanding of our freedoms and what they offer us. Then and only then will he be in a position to protect them.

Chapter XI

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Implications

It is hoped that this study will enable the young teacher to enter into her vocation with more thought and ability and that it will provoke thinking and stimulate further study in the students for whom it is planned. They will have been alerted to the process of learning, the need of research, the necessity of ever changing equipment and materials. They will have been guided in some degree in method.

Recommendations

Since this thesis is planned in partial fulfilment for the educational training of young Sisters it is necessary that further study be made along the line of child development and curriculum in order to give the teacher a complete picture of her duties and responsibilities.

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APPENDIX

Ability: Discovering what information can be found in parts of books

A. THE TITLE PAGE[1]

The title page tells the name of the book, the name of the author or authors, the name of the publisher, and where the publishing house has its offices. Sometimes the title page tells what kind of work the authors do. Sometimes it tells who drew the illustrations.

Answer these questions about your reader:

1. What is its full title?
2. What are the names of the authors?
3. Who illustrated the book?
4. Who are the publishers?
5. Where do the publishers have their main offices?

B. THE COPYRIGHT PAGE

The most important fact for you to notice on the copyright page is the date when the book was published. Very often this date need not make any difference to you. But if you are studying about some subject in which changes come fast, the facts in an old book may no longer be true or up-to-date. For example, think of some differences you might find in the geography textbooks published in 1915 and in those published in 1940.

Are you able to answer these questions about your reader?

1. What is its copyright date?

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1. Horn, Ernest et al., Reaching Our Goals, "What's in a Book?" New York: Ginn and Co., 1940 pp. 49-51

2. Who copyrighted the book?
3. What words mean that no one can print material from this book without permission?

C. THE TABLE OF CONTENTS

By the time you have reached this grade, you are familiar with the table of contents. What does it tell about the book? How are the titles of stories and lessons arranged in the contents? How does the contents help you?

Answer these questions?

1. On what page does the table of contents of this book begin?

2. On what page does the first selection begin? What is its name? How long is it?

D. THE PREFACE

The preface of school textbooks usually tells why the authors wrote the book and the ways in which they hope it will help boys and girls. Sometimes the preface is intended only for teachers and parents: sometimes it is addressed to the boys and girls who are reading the book.

Answer these questions about your reader?

1. To whom have the authors addressed the preface?
2. What is the purpose of your reader?
3. What four things do you need to know in order to make good use of books?

E. THE INDEX

Skill: The use of the index

1. Drill on alphabetical order

What letter in the alphabet comes just before:
s_____; h_____; f_____; u_____; k_____?
What letter in the alphabet comes just after:
o_____; l_____; g_____; v_____; t_____?

Arrange these letters in alphabetical order: i, t, n, x, e, d, v, h. Write the first names of the pupils in

your reading group in alphabetical order. Write the following words in alphabetical order: biscuit, butter, berries, ball, black, bottle.
Write the following words in alphabetical order: bitter, big, bind, bicycle, bill, bible.
Write the following words in alphabetical order: bitten, biting, bite, bittersweet

2. Drill in using the key to the index, noting punctuation, etc. Find the word Alaska in your index
Alaska, 186, 203-209, 229, 231 (220)
Find the Key to the Index at the top of the page. It will help you to answer the following questions:
Upon which pages would you expect to find the most important material about Alaska? Why?
Which of the following pages would you choose as likely to contain the most material about Alaska: (1) 205, 207, (2) 203-207?
Why is the last page number about Alaska enclosed in parentheses?

LOCATING WORDS IN THE DICTIONARY[2]

To locate words rapidly in a dictionary you must understand, first of all, the order in which they are arranged. All the words are listed in the dictionary in alphabetical order. Test your knowledge of the alphabet by arranging each of the following lists in alphabetical order:

1. acorn...pencil...house...lion...kite
2. stamp...check...knife...paper...frown
3. flower...wagon...monkey...lamp...gate

So many words begin with each letter that, besides the first letter, you often need to look at the second or third or fourth letter of the word in order to locate it in an alphabetical list. For example, am comes before an; among comes before amuse; and amongst comes before amount. Can you tell why? Now arrange each of these lists:

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2. Horn, Ernest et al., op. cit., pp. 58-59

1. basket...butter...biscuit...berries...bottle
2. party...pace...paint...page...pairs
3. circumspect...circumnavigate...circumference... circumstance

ENCYCLOPEDIA EXERCISE[3]

Copy the following list of subjects, and after each subject write the name of the encyclopedia, the volume number and the guide letters or words, and the page numbers of all volumes in which the information on that subject is given.

1. St. Lawrence River
2. Panama Canal
3. Washington Irving
4. Cliff Dwellers
5. Football
6. Penguin
7. Manufacture of cheese
8. Carlsbad Caverns
9. Saint George
10. Irrigation

Which of the following topics would you expect to find in an encyclopedia?

1. The location of the Tower of Pisa.
2. The population of El Paso, Texas.
3. The story, "Rip Van Winkle."
4. The distance of the moon from the earth.
5. The names of the actors in the movie, "Robin Hood."
6. The meaning of excellent.
7. The name of the person who discovered radium.
8. The biography of John Adams.
9. The number of dentists in Chicago.
10. Information about Child Labor.

USING THE CARD CATALOGUE[4]

Ability: Utilizing the library effectively

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3. Adaptation of the plan found in "Newer Practices in Reading in the Elementary School," Seventeenth Yearbook, National Elementary Principal: 1938 p. 493

4. Gates, Arthur and Ayer, Jean, Let's Travel On, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1940 p. 172

When you look up a book in a library card-catalogue, you look first for the author's name. The cards in the card-catalogue are all in alphabetic order. The last name is put first on the card, like this: Morley, Christopher.

Arrange these authors' names in alphabetic order. Put the last name first.

Charles Roberts	Trella Dick
Peggy Bacon	Elizabeth Coatsworth
Rachel Field	Walter Brooks
Christopher Morley	Alice Dalgliesh

Remember to put a comma between the last name and the first name.

SELECTING AND EVALUATING[5]

Ability: Selecting material and organizing it about problems

Directions given orally: Read the chapter to find information about the problems that you raised. The question, decide which of the problems the information tells about.

Problems: (1) Did the Indians have any ways of communicating with each other except by talking? (2) Did they keep any records of what they had done, or of what the Indians before them had done?

1. What chapter in the book (Dearborn, How the Indians Lived) will be most likely to answer the question?
2. Did the Indians have written and printed words as we do?
3. What different kinds of signals did the Indians use?
4. Why did the Indians of the forest and of the plains differ in the kind of signals they used?
5. What were some of the messages that smoke could

5. Adaptation of lesson plan from National Elementary Principal, op. cit. pp. 455-456

carry?

6. How many of these things were used by Indians in giving messages to other Indians? stones, smoke, notches, blankets, beads, bark, skins
   How was each used?
   Can you add any to the list?
7. How did the Indians measure time?
   What were steps?
   How long was a sleep?
   How long was a moon?
8. What kind of records did Indians keep?
9. What materials were used for making records?
10. Make an Indian sign that carries a message of some kind.

COMPREHENSION AND RETENTION[6]

Find in the story and read aloud the parts that answer these questions. Perhaps your teacher will wish you to write instead of reading aloud. If so, copy each number on a paper. Write after the number the page and paragraph where the question would be, 1. Page 245, par. 1. If there is part of a paragraph at the top of a page, you may count it as the first one.

1. Did Yusuf live in a large city or a small village?
2. Of what was Yusuf's house made?
3. Why was the inside of the house black with smoke?
4. What fruits grew outside the house?
5. How did Yusuf's mother grind corn? etc.

Finding Proof:[7]

Look at these sentences. Copy the numbers of the sentences on a paper. After each number, write some words from the story about Marcos. The words you write should show that the numbered sentence is true. Give the page where you found the words. For example, after No. 1 you should write, 1. Page 294. "He had only a few

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6. Gates, Arthur and Ayer, Jean, op. cit., pp. 259-60

7. Gates, Arthur and Ayer, Jean, Let's Look Around, New York: Macmillan Co., 1940 pp. 310-11

pennies. These he paid for a place to sleep."

1. Marcos had no money when he began looking for work.
2. When he came to the great market, the boy felt hungry.
3. The houses in the little cobble-stone street looked gay.
4. Marcos earned something to eat by carrying baskets of fruit.
5. A patio is a kind of enclosed yard or garden.
6. A loom is used for weaving.
7. Marcos was to live in the home of the weaver.
8. He felt that he had done well for himself.

SUGGESTED PROCEDURE FOR TEACHING AND REVIEWING A CHART READING LESSON[8]

A. Materials Needed

I. The children's chart story.

II. A duplicate of the story cut in sentence strips.

III. Sight vocabulary or word cards chosen from the chart, two of each.

IV. Duplications of phrases in the story.

V. A pointer.

VI. A Plymouth chart or other pocket chart.

VII. Pictures or objects with which word cards may be associated and matched.

B. The Introduction

I. The teacher and children discuss the experience which motivated the chart. It may be a story about a pet, or a toy or an experience which they have shared together.

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8. Spensor Jones, Pearl, First Grade Teacher, Central Washington College of Education: Ellensburg, Washington

II. They recall the motive for learning to read their story which may be to share it with another group or an individual, or to put it into a story book or a movie, or to keep a record or set of directions, etc.

C. Reading the Chart Story

I. The teacher reads the chart as a whole to the children. She reads with expression and correct phrasing. She moves the pointer smoothly along under each sentence so the children get correct eye movements.

II. She asks a child to help her read it. The teacher assists the child in guiding the marker and in repeating the story. Other children watch. Two or three children asked to do this same thing, individually - never in unison. The teacher always helps to guide the pointer but she is constantly working toward the child's independence in reading the sentences. Often she precedes the sentence reading with a remark to the child such as "this sentence tells what color the rabbit is", etc. The last two children will perhaps be able to repeat the story alone, which is very satisfying to them.

D. Making Another Story with the Sentence Strips

I. The teacher explains that it is fun to put a story together which has been cut apart like a puzzle. The parts they will hunt for are sentences. They will put them in the pocket chart. The sentence strips are placed on the blackboard ledge or against the wall, or wherever they can be easily seen by all of the children.

II. The children are quite familiar with the original chart by this time. The teacher may also help by asking a child to come and read the sentence which tells "what came to school". She guides the pointer and the child reads one sentence. The child then looks for the duplicate sentence strip. He matches the one he selects to the sentence he has just read. If it is the right

one, he reads it and places it in the pocket chart. The group helps to decide. If the one he has chosen does not match, he keeps trying until he is successful. Other children continue with the same procedure until the duplicate chart is completed. One or two children may then read the newly-made chart to the group.

E. Teaching the Sight Vocabulary.

I. The teacher presents the word card, says the word, and makes a definite association with its meaning.

a. She gives the card to a child who finds the same word in either or both of the charts, holds the card under it and says the word.

b. If the word is the name of an object, as "rabbit", the child may match the word to a picture or real object, which is before the group.

c. If the word is an action word, as "come" or "go", a child may do what it says.

d. If the word is a descriptive word, the child may find something "little" or "big" or "brown".

e. The word cards may be placed in the pocket chart from which sentence strips can now be removed. Children are given the duplicate of the words. One at a time they come up and put the word under its likeness and say it.

f. Words may be put in the pocket chart and the teacher may ask children to find the word that tells the color of the rabbit, the size, etc.

g. The teacher may then read the sentences containing the words from the original chart and ask a child to clap when he hears and sees the words he knows.

II. The teacher presents the phrase strips from the story and reads them. They usually contain a known word.

a. A child locates and matches the phrases in the story.

b. A child may place the phrase under a picture and read it, i.e., "a little rabbit".

III. The original chart is again read by the teacher, or a child, while the children watch for words they can read.

F. Reviewing the Chart

I. The review procedures may be the same as the initial reading, especially in the early stages.

II. As the children develop a sight word vocabulary, it is well to vary the review by sometimes omitting the step-by-step rebuilding of a new chart through simple matching. Have them instead place sentence strips about, and direct individuals to find the sentence that tells "what the rabbit did", "how the rabbit looked". Children are encouraged to look for key words in the sentences, which are the sight words they know.

III. One purpose of reviewing the chart is to teach other new sight words. A good chart may contain from three to five words which may be taught as permanent vocabulary. Those designated as such are only the words which will occur in the first pre-primer to follow the charts. At the initial reading of a chart two words may be taught as sight vocabulary; three, if a mature group or after many charts have been read. Thus, in the subsequent review of the charts new words will be emphasized in the same manner as the original vocabulary work. Two new charts in a week are sufficient, if they each contain three or four sight words. As new charts are written, the teacher needs to select experiences carefully so that the known vocabulary is

accumulated in new charts and new sight vocabulary words are being gradually introduced. The time allowed for reading a chart and developing the vocabulary should be from twenty to twenty-five minutes.