AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM AND THE MENTAL HEALTH OF CHILDREN: IMPLICATIONS FOR ADMINISTRATION

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THESIS

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Colvin Ross

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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM AND THE MENTAL HEALTH OF CHILDREN: IMPLICATIONS FOR ADMINISTRATION

by

Colvin Ross

AN ABSTRACT

Submitted to the School for Advanced Graduate Studies
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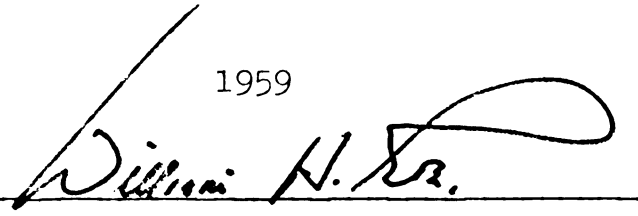
Approved: 

COLVIN ROSS ABSTRACT

Mental health is a problem of national concern and its development, in children, is a basic objective of public education.

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between the elementary school curriculum and the mental health of children. The curriculum was defined as the experiences of learners, what they undergo, feel and react to, under the guidance of the school.

The hypotheses were stated in a given direction indicating that a positive relationship exists between: (1) the elementary school curriculum and the mental health of children, (2) the elementary school curriculum and the attitudes of teachers toward children, and (3) the attitudes of individual teachers and the mental health of their students. Teachers' attitudes were measured for it was a basic assumption that teachers influence the curriculum in their rooms.

The methodology required the selecting of schools from nine counties in central Michigan, which were representative of schools in a larger area, in this case, the state of Michigan. It was necessary to control as many variables as possible that could influence the elementary curriculum in the schools. The variables that were controlled were: (1) the size of the school systems, (2) the state equalized assessed valuation per pupil, (3) the enrollment of the elementary school, (4) the school

organization, (5) the socio-economic level of the community, (6) the socio-economic level of the students' parents, (7) the location of the community, (8) the size of the community, (9) the education level of the community, and (10) the administrative staff of the school system. This data was obtained from the State Department of Public Instruction in Michigan.

The procedure involved the development of an instrument that would differentiate between a good elementary school curriculum, and a poor elementary school curriculum in terms of mental health. The literature and research in the area of mental health and education provided a basis for the selection and qualification of the items. They were then submitted to a group of colleagues and qualified individuals in the field of mental hygiene and education for examination. A questionnaire was devised which was answered, in the selected schools, during an interview with the administrator. The investigator also visited the classrooms in the selected schools.

From the selected schools in the nine county area, two schools were selected by the questionnaire that represented the extremes in elementary curricula. Within these schools all the teachers were tested on the Minnesota Teacher Education Inventory to determine their attitudes toward children. The children in one fourth, fifth, and

sixth grade in each school were tested on the California Test of Personality to determine their mental health as defined in the study.

The findings indicated that the mental health of children in the two curricula were different at a level of significance of .025. The attitudes of teachers in the two schools differed at a level of significance of .025. The relationship between the individual teachers and their students did not relate significantly. The study indicated that a positive relationship does exist between the elementary school curriculum and the mental health of children.

From the conclusions which can be drawn, there is indication that from a similar sample of schools, teachers, and children, there would exist a positive relationship between the elementary school curriculum and the attitudes of teachers and the mental health of children.

The conclusions for school administration could only be based on the assumption, which is not proven here, that a causal relationship exists. If this is proven in further studies, school administrators will have to re-appraise the means of evaluation, promotion, and provision for individual differences.

The basic recommendations for further exploratory study are: to collaborate the findings made here, repeat the study with different instruments, attempt the study

with more information as to the total environment of the children, and finally to attempt to determine if a causal relationship does exist between certain experiences within the elementary school curriculum and the mental health of children.

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Thinking in retrospect over the past several years calls forth the encouragement and kindnesses extended when they were most needed; counseling and common sense advice which were the gifts of many different people. The writer shall remember, with lasting gratitude, that it was this unwritten component which made the study possible.

The writer wishes to express appreciation to members of his doctoral committee, Dr. John R. Hurley, Dr. Clinton T. Cobb, Dr. Harry W. Sundwall, and especially to Dr. William H. Roe, chairman.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM: ITS NATURE AND IMPORTANCE

Introduction

The basic purpose of school administration is to facilitate learning in terms of the educational objectives of the school. Although these objectives have not been stated on a formalized national level, they have been expressed by many educational groups throughout our history and have won general acceptance. One of the most recent examples of educational objectives was stated by the White House Conference on Education of November 28 to December 1, 1955.[1] They stated that the schools should develop:

1. Fundamental skills of communication, arithmetic, and mathematics;
2. Appreciation for our democratic heritage;
3. Civic rights and responsibilities;
4. Respect and appreciation for human values;
5. Ability to think and evaluate constructively;
6. Effective work habits and self-discipline;
7. Social competency;
8. Ethical behavior;

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[1] The Report of the White House Conference on Education, Washington, D. C., November 28 to December 1, 1955, Circular 0.373163 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1956), p.1.

9. Intellectual curiosity;
10. Esthetic appreciation;
11. Physical and mental health;
12. Wise use of time;
13. Understanding of the physical world, and;
14. Awareness of our relationship with the world community.[2]

An illustration of how objectives are stated by an individual Class Four school district in Michigan is presented to demonstrate how they are stated on a local level. They were obtained from the Superintendent of the East Grand Rapids School System in East Grand Rapids, Michigan.

The objectives of our schools shall be:

1. To teach the basic laws of physical and mental health, and encourage practice until they become habits.
2. To provide instruction and practical experience in the development of attitudes and ideals which produce responsible citizens.
3. To provide instruction and training which will develop an understanding and appreciation of the functions and problems of the home, and family.
4. To provide instruction and experience in the fundamental tools of learning, until efficiency in their use is acquired.
5. To provide adequate foundations for whatever additional training is necessary to enter the desired vocation.
6. To provide a personal, educational and vocational guidance program which will meet the needs of all students.
7. To provide situations which stimulate the growth of character, through all instruction and activities.

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[2]Ibid.

8. To provide opportunities for self-expression and creative activities which will stimulate participation in worthwhile leisure activities.
9. To provide a program which will encourage an understanding and appreciation of the world in which we live and the heritage that is ours.
10. To provide wherever possible opportunities for cooperative planning, working together, and evaluating all educational experiences.

To achieve the general objectives that have been presented, the school curriculum should be a facility conducive to physical and mental health of children and provide the children opportunity to gain information and to learn skills for developing this physical and mental health. This study focuses upon the curriculum as it relates to mental health, for in fulfilling its basic purpose, one educational objective is often overlooked by school administration--that of developing and promoting the mental health of children.

The statistics are readily available to demonstrate the scope of the mental health problem in the United States. These are briefly and well stated in a cumulative report published under the auspices of the Social Science Research Center of the Graduate School of the University of Minnesota.[3]

> Mental illness can be likened to an iceberg, in which the readily observable part of the mass (those

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[3]Dale C. Cameron and Nancy K. Kjenaas, "Mental Illness: The Nation's Gravest Health Hazard," Society's Stake In Mental Health, A Report Prepared by the Social Science Research Center of the Graduate School of the University of Minnesota (Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1957), pp. 10-11.

who are hospitalized) makes up only a small part of the total. Although it is an impressive fact that persons with mental illness occupy 54 per cent of the 1,342,508 hospital beds in the country, this figure reflects only a small fraction of the total incidence of such illnesses according to the report.

As evidence of the size of the hidden part of the iceberg, it has been estimated that at least 50 per cent of patients who come to the average physician's office have a chief complaint based on mental or emotional problems. The report, referring to a survey made in Baltimore, stated, "it is now estimated that one in ten Americans suffer today from some form of major or minor mental illness." This can be only an estimate, since methods of identifying mentally ill persons aside from those actually receiving psychiatric treatment are necessarily imperfect. It is also estimated that one in every sixteen Americans now living either have already been or will at some time in the future be a patient in a mental hospital.

In terms of the effect on human lives, the available figures which can only reflect the more intangible forms involved are startling enough. For example, the average length of stay for patients entering the nation's mental hospitals is variously calculated at from eight to twelve years. The disruption of normal life patterns of the patients alone is enormous. When this is coupled with the difficulties faced by the families of mentally ill persons and the loss to the community, the effects defy measurement.

Most tangible of all the evidences of the gravity of mental illness as a health problem is, of course, the cost to the nation in monetary terms. As of January, 1957, it was calculated that the direct cost of mental illness in the United States exceeds four billion dollars yearly. Of this, about one billion dollars goes to operate the public and Veterans Administration mental hospitals. More than two billion dollars of this cost was accounted for by loss in potential earnings of patients during their hospitalization, and the other one billion dollars includes compensation and pension payments, public assistance, and new construction of facilities for care and treatment.[4]

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[4] Ibid., p. 10.

More recent figures in Science Digest indicate about seventeen million Americans are suffering from a mental or emotional disorder; and of these, 750,000 are patients in mental hospitals. The National Association for Mental Health had a gloomy prediction that 425,000 more people would require hospitalization for mental ills during 1958. Fortunately, seven out of ten of these patients, the association estimated, would experience partial or total recovery if their hospital was well equipped, well staffed, and provided adequate treatment.[5]

The statistics on mental illness, however, give only a partial picture. Countless individuals who will never be hospitalized or treated for mental illness will live their entire lives at less than normal efficiency because of tensions, frustrations, abnormal fears, and other personality defects.

As evidence for the above paragraph, Drs. Leo Srole and Thomas S. Langner of Cornell University Medical Center conducted a survey of one residential section of Manhattan which the doctors called "Midtown." Midtown had a population of 175,000. The investigators first made a census of patients, counting all those receiving treatment privately or in psychiatric clinics or mental hospitals. This rate of patients under treatment has been assumed by physicians

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[5]"What's On Your Mind?," Science Digest, 14:23, April, 1958.

and the public to indicate the number of persons who are mentally ill.

But then they went on to interview a probability sample of 1,660 persons between 20 and 59 years of age. Two psychiatrists made an evaluation of the mental health of these persons. The number of untreated mentally disturbed, they found, far outnumber those getting psychiatric care. The number of patients, the Cornell doctors conclude, bears no regular, nor even approximate relationship to the prevalence of mental disturbance.[6]

To relate the mental health problem to children in our society, the writer refers to a recent three year research project undertaken by Columbia University's Department of Psychiatry, in which 2,540,888 children or about 10 per cent of the country's public school population were involved.[7]

> These were the significant findings: (a) 10 per cent of the sample were emotionally disturbed, the range of such disturbances varied from 60. to .06 per cent in various schools; (b) in 80 per cent of the schools mental hygiene problems were not discussed in the classroom; (c) in 85 per cent of the schools where mental hygiene problems were discussed, there were no staff personnel trained in mental hygiene; (d) 17 per cent of the schools reported they had no mental hygiene services of any kind. All of the forty-eight states were represented.

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[6]"Untreated Mentally Ill Far Outnumber Patients," Science News Letter, 72:152, September 7, 1957.

[7]Murray Illson, "10% of Pupils in Nation's Schools Are Found Emotionally Disturbed," New York Times, February 22, 1954.

> Dr. David Abrahamsen who directed the study, asserted that unless parents, children, and teachers could be taught to live with each other in harmonious relationships and to accept each other as individuals, we will never be able to make even a dent in the growing problem of mental illness and delinquency., Only through an integrated synthesis of mental hygiene with the curriculum of the three R's can the educational process as well as the personality growth of the pupils be enhanced. The schools will have to accept responsibility for assisting children in integrating the aspects of feeling-doing-thinking, and thereby create the basis for adequate mental health.[8]

An adjustment survey of third and sixth grade children in the public schools of Miami County, Ohio, found 19.1 per cent of the children maladjusted to a serious degree. The prevalence of maladjustment was higher among sixth graders (20.8 per cent) than among third graders (17.8 per cent).[9]

Roger's study of 1,524 pupils in grades one to six of the Columbus, Ohio, elementary schools found that 12 per cent of the children were seriously maladjusted, and 30 per cent more were poorly adjusted. It was noted also that 23 per cent of the children were reading a year below capacity, 22 per cent were too bright for their grades, and 23 per cent were too dull to be benefited by schooling.[10]

Mental health surveys of children in other sections of the country tend to support the general data on maladjustment found in the Ohio studies. For instance, Snyder's

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[8] Ibid.

[9] Louis Kaplan, Mental Health and Human Relations in Education (New York: Harper and Brothers, Inc., 1959), pp. 55-56.

[10] Ibid., p. 55.

study of elementary school children in New Jersey concluded that 44 per cent of the 829 children examined were "problem children." In Oregon, the Mental Health Association estimated that 15 per cent of the children in the third grade, and 21 per cent of the children in the fifth grade were emotionally damaged. In New York, the State Youth Commission studied 5,795 children in grades three through six, using tests of intelligence, school achievement records, a check list of behavior patterns, personality evaluations, and sociometric devices. It was found that 17 per cent of the children examined showed some symptoms which suggested the possibility of serious social breakdown or personal unhappiness in adult life.[11]

Assumptions

In preparing this study the writer made these basic assumptions: (a) the development of mental health is a basic objective of the public schools; (b) the mental health of children is developed, in part, by their experiences with the school program; (c) school administration is responsible for the curricular experiences related to mental health with the school; (d) the teacher determines and influences many of the curricular experiences related to mental health in her classroom.

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[11] Ibid., p. 56.

Statement of the Problem

The problem is to determine the relationship between specific curricular experiences and provisions for mental health within an elementary school, and the mental health of children.

A basic sub-problem is to determine the relationship between specific curricular experiences and provisions for mental health within an elementary school, and the attitudes of teachers toward children.

Another sub-problem is to determine the relationship between a teacher's attitude toward children and the mental health of the children involved.

Hypotheses

The first hypothesis is that a positive relationship exists between a school's curricular experiences and provisions for mental health and the mental health of the pupils.

The second hypothesis is that a positive relationship exists between a school's curricular experiences and provisions for mental health and the attitudes of teachers toward children.

A third hypothesis is that a positive relationship exists between the attitudes of teachers toward children and the mental health of children.

Importance of the Study

The school is recognized as one of the major social institutions of our society. Many mental hygienists, psychologists, and psychiatrists contend, along with the writer, that certain experiences which children encounter in this social institution are detrimental to mental health. This study is an experimental exploration into the relationship of some of these experiences to children.

If the study can establish a positive relationship between the curriculum and the mental health of children, then the school could look within its own curriculum to determine which experiences significantly effect mental health. The school could then attempt to eliminate those experiences which are detrimental, and improve those which are beneficial to mental health.

Limitations of the Study

The study is limited to selected elementary schools in Class Four school districts, in a nine-county area in Michigan which operate K-12 programs.

The study is limited by the test used to measure the mental health of children at this age level. The California Test of Personality is, however, one of the best instruments available at this time to explore the area. The evidence will be presented in Chapter III.

The criteria and instrument for the final selecting of schools in which the testing takes place was limited to

the knowledge and experience of the writer, the literature in the field, and the knowledge and experiences of a group of mental hygienists and educators who reviewed the instrument.

It is recognized that the home, church, and community influence the mental health of the children and that the school is only partially responsible for the total development of the child.

Definition of Terms

Mental health. Mental health is integrated growth and realistic harmony within oneself, in relation to one's environment. Growth in this concept refers to self-actualizing, involving a healthy concept of self.

The above definition is derived from definitions of Fritz Redl and William Wattenberg,[9] Caroline Tryon,[10] M. Brewster Smith,[11] Norman Fenton,[12] Marie Jahoda,[13]

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[9]F. Redl and W. W. Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching (New York: Harcourt, Brace Co., 1951), pp. 168-169.

[10]Caroline Tryon, "Some Conditions of Good Mental Health," Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools, 1950 Yearbook, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1950), pp. 4-11.

[11]M. Brewster Smith, "Optima of Mental Health," Psychiatry, 13:503-10, November, 1950.

[12]Norman Fenton, Mental Hygiene in School Practice (California: Stanford University Press, 1943), pp. 3-4.

[13]Marie Jahoda, "The Meaning of Psychological Health,"

William Ragan,[14] and one article by William A. Scott in the Psychological Bulletin of February 1958, entitled, "Research Definitions of Mental Health and Mental Illness," a summary work of many mental health authors.

The above definition is also consistent with the definition of a group of educators and physicians who stated: Mental health in its broadest sense has come to mean the measure of a person's ability to shape his environment, to adjust to life as he has to face it and to do so with a reasonable amount of satisfaction, success, efficiency, and happiness.[15]

Curriculum. Curriculum is defined as all the experiences of children for which the school assumes responsibility, or stated more fully: curriculum is the experiences of learners, what they undergo, feel, and react to, under the guidance of the school.

Attitudes of teachers. Attitudes of teachers refer to the attitudes as measured by the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory. They include: (1) Moral status. Adult-child

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Social Casework, 34:353-354, October, 1953.

[14]William B. Ragan, Modern Elementary Curriculum (New York: The Dryden Press, 1953), pp. 56-57.

[15]Mental Hygiene in the Classroom, A Report of the Joint Committee of Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1950), p. 9.

relations essentially characterized by adult recognition or non-recognition of child or pupil as an individual with his own inherent rights. (2) Discipline. Problems of conduct in the classroom and elsewhere, and the methods employed in dealing with them. (3) Child knowledge. Principles of child development and behavior ordinarily included in such subjects fields as educational psychology, child psychology, and mental hygiene. (4) Educational principles. Educational principles and practices not directly relating to child development and behavior. (5) Personal reactions of teacher. Statements directly relating to the teacher's personal disposition--her likes and dislikes, and sources of irritation.

Methodology

The methodology will be discussed in detail in Chapter III. It describes how the sample was selected, the rationale of the questionnaire, the questionnaire, the schools in which the tests were administered, and the administration of the tests.

The statistical method is described in Chapter IV.

Summary

This chapter has provided the introduction to the problem, the social milieu of the problem in our country, assumptions, the problem, hypotheses, limitations, and definitions. The following chapters elaborate on all the above.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Much has been written concerning the etiology of mental illness and many studies have been undertaken to correlate mental illness with some social psychological factor. Studies of mental illness which have their origin in childhood school experiences are, however, not frequent in the literature. This situation may exist because of the difficulty of defining a mentally ill child.

Another reason for the lack of material concerning the school age child is presented by Murphy, Murphy, and Newcomb.

> The biases which have shaped the development of research on elementary school children have been largely formed by the needs of teachers who are handling large groups of children and need to find some general safe principles for such wide application as to be usable with most children in any normal school set up. Consequently, there is a heavy emphasis on the study of groups and generalizations about groups of children, at the expense on the one hand, of understanding individual children and, on the other, of knowledge of the effects of institutions on children.[1]

Arthur J. Bachrach's dissertation, An Analysis of Research in Mental Hygiene and Its Implications for

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[1]Gardner Murphy, Lois B. Murphy, and Theodore M. Newcomb, Experimental Social Psychology (New York: Harper and Brothers, Inc., 1932), p. 621.

Educational Practice encompasses, very thoroughly, the mental health research up to 1952.[2] His chapter on the "School and Mental Hygiene", however, is significantly limited in research. This is very understandable if one considers for a moment what is involved in conducting such research. To conduct an experiment concerning a specific school experience as it relates to mental health would require such an artificial setting that the results would be highly questionable. The teachers would have to play roles and the students would have to be highly controlled. The experiment could only try to improve mental health for it could never be set up to destroy mental health. To conduct an experiment in relating the school's influence to mental health would have to be done in already existing situations, and without the knowledge of any of the participants. This is what the author has attempted to do.

Educational and Psychological Research

A recent significant experimental study is that of Fleming in which he sought to determine how deeply a mental hygiene approach to education could influence children.[3]

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[2]Arthur J. Bachrach, "An Analysis of Research in Mental Hygiene and Its Implications for Educational Practice" (unpublished Doctor's thesis, The University of Florida, 1952).

[3]R. S. Fleming, "The Effects of an In-Service Program on Children with Symptoms of Psychosomatic Illness," The Journal of Educational Sociology, 24: 394-405, March, 1951.

He selected twenty-six children in nine elementary classrooms who were identified by a physician as having psychosomatic disturbances. These youngsters were compared with twelve other children with psychosomatic symptoms found in three other classrooms. The experimental group of twenty-six was taught by teachers who emphasized warm, friendly, helpful, relaxed relationships. The teachers in the comparison group continued to emphasize the fulfillment of subject matter requirements and made no special effort to meet the emotional needs of children. At the close of this experiment, a marked reduction in frequency of psychosomatic symptoms was found in the experimental group, and there was a significant improvement in school attendance. The control group, on the other hand, showed no improvement in the frequency or intensity of psychosomatic symptoms, and attendance became worse during this period.[4]

The now classical experiments of Lewin, Lippitt, and White with groups of ten-year old boys have shown how group atmosphere influences individual behavior. Observations were made of the reactions of boys to an authoritarian, a democratic, and a laissez-faire group climate.[5]

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[4] Ibid.

[5] Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph K. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created 'Social Climates'," Journal of Social Psychology, 10:271-299, May, 1939.

> It was found that in an authoritarian atmosphere the boys showed aggressive domination toward one another, or they became submissive and apathetic. They had little interest in their work, and displayed forty times more overt hostility toward one another than did the boys in the democratic group.
>
> In the democratic groups there was a moderate amount of aggression, but most of it was friendly. The boys made constructive suggestions to one another, had satisfying social relations, a high interest in their work, assumed individual responsibility, and were able to work in the absence of the leader.
>
> The laissez-faire groups, where complete freedom was allowed caused the boys literally to run wild. Little work was accomplished, there was much aggression, play, and silliness, and a great deal of confusion and insecurity.
>
> While it is unwise to make sweeping generalizations from these experiments, a few conclusions are warranted. One is that authoritarian discipline will reduce misbehavior in the classroom at the cost of reducing interest in achievement and increasing latent or active aggression. Another implication is that a democratic classroom atmosphere may be more noisy than an authoritarian classroom, but there will be more constructive group activity, more cooperation among the children, and greater potential for the development of self-control by individuals.[6]

Theories and empirical findings concerning the social psychological correlate of mental illness are summarized in a review prepared for the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan.[7] The purpose of this report was to critically review theories and research from two levels of analysis--the environmental-demographic and the interpersonal. The study explored such correlates as the

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[6] Ibid.

[7] William A. Scott, "Social Psychological Correlates of Mental Illness and Mental Health," Psychological Bulletin, 55:65-85, March, 1958.

incident of mental disorders to the occurrence of major social events, urban-rural differences, intracity differences, racial and ethnic differences, sex differences, and socio-economic status. In reviewing a number of studies and theories concerning the relation of sociological factors to mental health, Schneider observed that nearly all their hypotheses could be subsumed under a small number of categories. Mental disturbance was seen variously as stemming from (a) the individual's inability to meet role demands, (b) membership in some underprivileged group, (c) a forced abrupt transition from one social situation to another, (d) disorganization of a social system, (e) inability to attain social acceptance, (f) subjective or objective mobility in the class structure, (g) incompatible values, and (h) social isolation. These were the factors and studies discussed under inter-personal correlates of mental health.

In the summary of this report, if we assume <u>what has yet to be demonstrated</u>, that social maladjustment will eventuate in mental disturbance diagnosable by other criteria, it is possible to speculate regarding a possible correspondence between some of the demographic-environmental correlates and some of the interpersonal correlates of mental illness. Specifically, we may interpret certain empirical relations in the former category in terms of concepts utilized in the latter. It is possible for example,

to regard major cultural events, such as war, depression, and technological advancement as having potential effects on the society's mental health through the wide-spread role dislocations and disruption of primary group ties which accompany them. Similarly, it is possible to seek explanations for the geographic, socio-economic, race, and sex differences in rates of mental illness in certain interpersonal characteristics of the ecological and demographic situations. Possibly relevant dimensions of the interactional processes have been suggested: social isolation, the degree of involvement of individuals within a particular social system, and differences in socialization procedures employed by various groups.

Such interpretations as these are speculative and vaguely formulated at present. It is by no means clear that the interpersonal level of analysis is the most appropriate level at which to seek explanations of mental disorder.[8]

It is significant to discuss two other experiments which relate to the child and his school experience. These two experiments are mentioned in all of the books reviewed by this author concerning mental hygiene in education.

The first, concerns teachers' perceptions of maladjustment. This study conducted by Wickman, of teacher's

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[8] Ibid.

attitudes toward child behavior indicates that teachers may unwittingly contribute to the maladjustment of children by being concerned more with aggressive youngsters than with those who are withdrawn or submissive. Wickman demonstrated that teachers are more disturbed by children whose behavior disrupts the smooth operation of the classroom than they are by quiet, complacent, withdrawn youngsters who cause no trouble. These reactions are significant when it is learned that clinicians consider the behavior of the good, obedient, withdrawn child more prognostic of serious maladjustment than that of the troublesome child.[9]

The second study analyses pupils awareness of desired qualities in teachers. Witty, through a radio contest in which 33,000 children in grades one through twelve were asked to write on the subject, "The Teacher Who Helped Me Most," found the qualities mentioned most frequently as characteristic of the best-liked teachers were: (1) cooperative, democratic attitude; (2) kindliness and consideration for the individual; and (3) patience.[10]

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[9]E. K. Wickman, Teachers and Behavior Problems (New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1951); a digest of Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes (New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1928).

[10]Paul A. Witty, "An Analysis of the Personality Traits of the Effective Teacher," Journal of Educational Research, 40:662-671, May, 1947.

Psychoanalytical Literature

In reviewing the literature it was necessary to include the interpretations of some of the great psychoanalysts. Freud, for example, made some important contributions.[11] Freud's point was that these unconscious feelings can enslave the individual in that they can block his very potential to achieve and, if too serious, can cause a variety of neurotic behavior or prolonged mental and physical illness.

There are some important implications here for public education and for the teacher. As stated by Raebeck:

> In the first place, it becomes clear that the child must be helped to recognize and contend with the negative feelings of hate, rage, and fear that frustration produces. Secondly, it becomes incumbent upon the teacher to set up comfortable living situations of interest and challenge and to avoid those situations which produce fear, frustration, guilt, and anxiety within the child. Thirdly, school activities should emerge largely as the result of patient planning and mutual understanding. Reason suggests that when school performance is produced through threats to social position, fear of failure, fear of punishment and loss of love, frustration is great and strong negative feelings are created. Such feelings are usually repressed and the child can leave school with emotional blocks that actually reduce physical, emotional, and intellectual sensitivity. A reservoir of unconscious aggression may be created which, at the very least, increases the individual's fear and uncertainty of himself and others.
>
> In short, when the child is unable to meet the demands of society without developing and repressing strong negative feelings, the teacher is in a unique

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[11] A. A. Brill (ed.), The Basic Writings of Sigmund Freud (New York: Modern Library, Inc., 1938).

> position to: (1) help the child to understand the normalcy of his feelings; (2) encourage the child to understand the nature of his frustrations; (3) aid him in reducing the unconscious pressure of negative feelings through individually creative outlets.[12]

Alfred Adler had profound insight and conviction as to the relationship and role of the school and mental health. Adler's broad understanding of psychiatry as a social task led him early in his career to become interested in prophylasix. 'He reasoned that adult maladjustment could be reduced most effectively if the early mistaken outlook of the child could be corrected.' While it would not be possible to reach each child through his parents, this could be accomplished through the teachers in the schools--the school is placed between the family and life in society. It has the opportunity of correcting the mistaken styles of life formed under family upbringing, and the responsibility of preparing the child's adjustment to social life so that he will play his individual role harmoniously in the orchestral pattern of society--an educator's most important task, one might almost say his holy duty, is to see to it that no child is discouraged at school, and that a child who enters school already discouraged regains his self-confidence through his school and his teacher. This goes hand-in-hand with the vocation of the educator, for education is

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[12]Charles Raebeck, "Psychoanalysis and the Public School," Phi Delta Kappan, 38:288-289, April, 1957.

possible only with children who look hopefully and joyfully upon the future.[13]

Recognized Authorities in Mental Health

The final step is to review the literature of the present day mental hygienists in relation to our subject. Herbert A. Carroll, a psychologist, writing in the field of mental hygiene has this to say about the role of the school in the life of a child.

> It is axiomatic that an individual's behavior patterns are to a considerable extent the products of the several environments in which he has lived. During his childhood years, his family, his school, and his community mold his character, shape his personality, and lay the foundations for his future. If the family, the school, and the community do their work well, his chances for a successful and happy life are greatly enhanced; if they do their work badly, his personality may be so warped that satisfaction in adult life will be difficult, if not impossible, to achieve. The family plays its most important role during the individual's pre-school years. Most of what he knows at the age of five or six had been learned from the family circle. At this time, in our culture, the school takes over, and for several years exerts a vital influence on the impressionable human being for whose development it shares responsibility with the parents.
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> It is no longer considered that the sole responsibility of the school is to "train the mind." For a long time now, considerable stress has been placed upon the importance of physical health and physical development. Supervised play, athletic contests, and other forms of physical education constitute an important part of the school's activities. It is recognized, also, that the social needs of children must be met. There has been, however, a hesitancy on the part of the school to accept responsibility for the mental health of

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[13]Heinz L. Ansbacher and Rowena R. Ansbacher, The Individual Psychology of Alfred Adler (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1956), pp. 399-400.

> children entrusted to its care. Because of inadequate attention to the emotional needs of children, the school has contributed to the development of behavior disorders. It is partly responsible for the high frequency of mental disease in this country.[14]

Redl and Wattenberg contribute the following concerning the relationship between school and mental health.

> Schools are institutions set up by society to help the young acquire the skills, knowledge, and attitudes needed in adult living. As far as children are concerned, the main business of living in school is learned in one form or another. Most expect and want to master reading, other language arts, and number skills. They enjoy making things and expressing themselves through various artistic media. They expect to acquire interesting knowledge about the world in which they live. In addition, they take more or less delight in developing new ways of thinking and of getting along with people.
>
> In the mental and emotional economy of youth, learning is a central theme. Its relation to mental health is deep and pervasive. On the one hand, success in school can be and often is emotionally strengthening. For the same reason, poorly managed learning situations which create difficulties can damage a child's stability.
>
> The relationship between learning and mental health is a two-way street. Just as the school's efficiency in enabling a child to master his environment affects mental health, so a child's mental health alters his ability to learn. Others, though fewer in number, may compensate for otherwise unsatisfactory living by investing an unusually high proportion of energy in school learning.[15]

Lingren wrote on the cultural influence on mental health that there are disintegrative conditions and influences which are a function of the cultural and social

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[14]Herbert A. Carroll, Mental Hygiene, The Dynamics of Adjustment (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956), pp. 287-288.

[15]Fritz Redl and William W. Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and Company, 1951), p. 187.

atmosphere of which the school is a part and which, therefore, are inescapable. Inasmuch as the school is the instrument of society, it is bound to inculcate those values and standards which are part of the culture, often without regard to whether they have an integrative or disintegrative effect on mental health.[16]

Ambrose and Miel discussing the relationship between school environment and feelings felt that school experiences inevitably involve children in a great deal of emotion.[17]

> The process of learning to live in a world with others is accompanied by conflicts and struggles. When children move into new contacts and are introduced to a wider social world, there are necessarily moments of sorrow and despair, and moments of joy and exhilaration. The very presence of other children, the social tools and skills which must be mastered, force a reappraisal of self and a restructuring of one's image of self. At best, the process of maintaining a view of one's self as adequate and competent produces its share of feelings, both troublesome and satisfying. At worst, the experiences at school may shatter what was previously a rather satisfactory self-picture leaving a child confused and uncertain.
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> Neither teachers nor children can avoid feeling angry or discouraged at times. As children interact with each other, they are bound to quarrel, have misunderstandings, and say ugly things, though the next moment, they may be thoughtful and sympathetic toward the very people whom they have just abused. Children will discover that they cannot do somethings that others can do, that they must give up some of their ways, that they must share time, space, possession, and even the teacher. Some plans will be thwarted; some ideas criticized; some faults corrected. At times, a

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[16]Henry Clay Lindgren, Mental Health in Education (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1954), p. 390.

[17]Edna Ambrose and Alice Miel, Children's Social Learning (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision

> child will become discouraged when he does not live up to his own expectations, when he feels he has failed to live up to the expectations of others or when others do not respond as he expected they would. Some may hurt deeply because they find no status in the school group or because they are not achieving useful skills.[18]

An interesting opinion is expressed by Dorothy Rogers in her analyses of the importance of the elementary school years in emotional development.[19]

> The outlines of personality are defined early. It is generally accepted that the behavior of the child is more easily modified than that of the adult, and that as a person grows older his behavior becomes increasingly resistant to change. Hence it is essential from the very beginning that the child should be inculcated with attitudes and behaviors conducive to good mental health--at the elementary school level behavior is modifiable, but efforts to effect improvement must be appropriate to the child involved--another reason that the elementary school years are crucial is that the child at that stage is deeply affected by his experience. It is erroneous to think of this period as emotionally latent. We usually think of children in the primary grades as unpreturbed and smiling--the "perpetually-happy-child fallacy." A great proportion of mental illness is believed to be preventable; and treatment of mild maladjustments in elementary school may forestall chronic, severe disorders later. The teacher is the only adult at hand, in most cases, who has formal training in the study of children's problems. Let it not be forgotten, however, that the school may contribute to a child's maladjustments as well as prevent them. Although he gains in independence at school, he also feels the pressure of greater responsibilities. In the classroom he must prove himself as a person in order to find his place in the group.

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and Curriculum Development, a Department of the National Education Association, 1958), p. 79.

[18] Ibid.

[19] Dorothy Rogers, Mental Hygiene in Elementary Education (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1957), pp. 14-15.

> In addition, the educative process as it often functions involves many hazards to mental health, such as may be involved in competitive evaluation and in disciplinary techniques. Finally, the elementary school is important as a factor in mental health because it is the only agency outside the home that touches all of the children of all the people. In fact, a considerable fraction of each child's day is spent in the classroom, but the total impact of the school on the child's personality is even greater than the fact would seem to indicate. These are critical years for the child whether his problems be chiefly those of home or of school. If there are conflicts in the home, the child brings their emotional effects to school; the teacher is in a position to help the child, and if she fails him, the chances are that he will not get assistance anywhere. Therefore, even though the problem did not originate in the school, the teacher with a mental-hygiene orientation will manipulate the child's school experiences so as to further his general adjustment.[20]

A further review of literature will be included in Chapter III to substantiate the choice of items used in the structured interview questionnaire for selecting the schools in which the experiment was conducted.

Summary

The review of the literature has presented significant research and literature associated with the basic hypotheses of the study.

The literature was limited to observations, psychoanalytical theory and interpretations, logic, and experience. They all indicate the relatedness of the curriculum of the school to the child. The difficulty has been to substantiate the literature in the field of mental health with scientific research.

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[20] Ibid.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The Sample

It is accepted as a physical impossibility to obtain data from all the schools in the universe. It was not only feasible but necessary to select a sample of schools which were representative for a specified universe. The sampling technique, employed scientifically, gives results which are as reliable as results of surveying a whole universe. It was necessary, therefore, to define the universe and the sample in which the testing of the hypotheses would occur.

The universe that was selected was located in the central portion of the lower penninsular of Michigan. It included a nine county area. The counties were: Barry, Calhoun, Eaton, Jackson, Ingham, Ionia, Livingston, Shiawassee, and Washtenaw. These counties were selected as they were located within a fifty mile radius from the origin of the study and it was physically possible to visit the schools in this area. It included school systems which operated an educational program from kindergarten through the twelfth grade.

To be able to generalize from the investigation required that the sample be representative of Michigan's

schools and that the schools be controlled in as many variables as possible, with the exception of the elementary school curriculum.

The following basic criteria was established for controlling variables in the study:

1. Size
2. State equalized valuation per pupil
3. Enrollment in elementary school
4. Organization
5. Socio-economic level of community
6. Location of community
7. Size of community
8. Education level of community
9. Administrative staff

The data on the schools in Michigan was taken from the records of the Michigan State Department of Public Instruction for the years 1957-1958. The size of the school was limited to fourth class school districts. According to a law a fourth class school district must contain over 75 children between the ages of five and twenty years and a total population of less than 10,000.[1] A school that would be representative of Michigan schools would be in this size school district.

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[1]W. Ray Smittle and John Darbee, A Digest of Michigan School Law (Clawson, Michigan: Oakland Education Press, 1957), p. 3.

The median for state equalized valuation per pupil at the time of this study was nine to ten thousand dollars. The schools in this study had a range of between $4,000 and $22,000; a ratio of better than five to one. This could mean that one school could provide five times the financial support, based on the same tax rate. Quite obviously this could influence the curriculum and the attitudes of teachers.

To find the representative school in terms of this criteria a minimum and a maximum tax base was established. The minimum was $7,500 per pupil and the maximum was $12,500. This range included the majority of schools in the sample, and eliminated the extremes. By applying the criteria of state equalized valuation thirty-seven school districts remained from fifty-one fourth class school districts in the specified universe.

In order to test a sufficient number of children and teachers the writer selected elementary schools that operated at least two sections for each grade level, this would involve a minimum of fourteen teachers and an approximate enrollment of 420 to 450 children. This was considered to be a minimum elementary enrollment and staff. The enrollment factor began to cut the thirty-seven school districts down to twenty-six; eleven of the school districts had between 358 and 653 children in their total program of K-12.

The next controlling factor was organization of the schools. The study necessitated having a kindergarten through six grade program under one roof; functioning in one general environment, under one general curriculum and providing contact with the same general curricular experiences and provisions for mental health. Six districts had the proper enrollments but had primary units functioning in one area of the district, or various grades in other buildings on the same locale, or with still other grades located in the high school building. This dispersed distribution of children and the lack of organizational structure in one building eliminated seven more school districts from the study.

From the remaining nineteen school districts three operated elementary programs that were too large to be successfully representative of the elementary schools in fourth class districts.

One system was finally eliminated because it made use of college students who undertook their practice teaching in the system, and would add to the complexity of the teachers' attitudes, by such a situation.

Fifteen schools were selected in which the investigator was to make his subjective observation of the curriculum in action, and obtain an interview with the school administrator in order to gather the necessary answers to the items on the investigator's questionnaire and begin

to establish the dichotomy in curricular experiences and provisions for mental health.

Within the fifteen schools it was necessary to eliminate two more in that they were both suburban communities. In spite of their average tax valuation they had a higher socio-economic class of citizens than the remaining schools and the factor was constantly being controlled as much as possible in this study.

One more district was eliminated because of its being a college town, and the investigator did not want the children of faculty members to unduly raise the educational level of the homes from which the children came.

One other school was eliminated in that it came from a community that was considerably larger than all the remaining districts and as such the community could offer many more educational services and opportunities.

Eleven schools were equated as to administrative staff, and only those with a full time principal were considered. All eleven schools met this requirement and were investigated for purposes of this study.

All eleven schools cooperated in what they understood to be an educational survey of curricula, facilities, and services. This approach was necessary in order to not disturb the natural curricula in the schools. It was felt by the examiner that schools do not fear surveys as much as they would fear investigations, evaluations, or comparisons. It was not the purpose of the investigator

to threaten any of the administrators or teachers.

The Questionnaire

A basic assumption implied throughout the study has been that the investigator could determine qualitatively and quantitatively the curricular experiences and provisions for mental health functioning in an elementary school. It was further assumed that the information could be obtained by observing the curriculum in action, and by a structured interview with the administrator's consent. It thus became necessary to construct a questionnaire which would determine the presence or absence of curricular experiences and provisions for mental health.

The items had to consist of the school experiences which the research and the literature determined to be detrimental or beneficial to the mental health of children.

The questions were determined on the following bases:

1. The literature and research in mental health as it relates to the school.
2. Submitting the items to a group of mental hygienists and educators qualified in their field.
3. The author's own experience in working with children on the primary and intermediate level.

In Chapter II it was explained that a further review of the literature would be necessary in order to establish the criteria for the selection of the various items in the questionnaire.

This review which follows may be considered representative of the current thinking in the field of mental hygiene in education. Their general agreement will become apparent as their concepts of good and bad mental health experiences are discussed.

Herbert A. Carroll. Carroll's chapter on "The School" illustrates his experiences and convictions on the following problem areas:[2]

1. Scholastic achievement. The need for achievement is strong in every school child. The mental hygiene point of view requires that this need be satisfied, and it can be satisfied only when the scholastic goals set for him are within his reach. Instead of being concerned primarily with maintaining high standards, the school should be concerned with the vital problem of helping each student, at his own level, to increase his knowledge, to develop emotional stability, and to maintain his self-respect.

2. Grades. Since most of our schools make use of grades, it is necessary to consider the question of hygienic and unhygienic attitudes toward them. Teachers and pupils alike should take the point of view that grades are given for two practical reasons: (1) as an index to the quality of the work done; (2) as a basis for promotion.

The first of these reasons is subject to many qualifications. A grade in a single subject is by no means an

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[2]Carroll, op. cit., pp. 288-295.

accurate evaluation of the quality of the work done by the pupil. An average of a large number of grades is more reliable but still far from exact. The problem of the validity and reliability of grades has been carefully studied during the last quarter of a century. Investigators agree that the tests which are customarily used to measure the degree to which the student has achieved the objectives of the course are, on the whole, remarkably low in validity; that is, they do not measure what they purport to measure. The situation with respect to reliability is even worse; the grades given on an essay examination in history, for example, depend to a considerable degree upon who rates the paper and when he rates it.

If grades must be given as a basis for promotion, then a simple "passing"and "incomplete" plan provides the best system. If the school is convinced that in addition to this it needs to have abasis for awarding of honors and scholarships, then a five-point system, A, B, C, D, and incomplete, is acceptable. The percentage system should never be used, for it rests on the false assumption that grades are so exact that a teacher can differentiate between an eighty-nine and ninety and that there is a goal of absolute perfection--100 per cent--that students should aim at. Obviously no pupil can do perfect work in a course; obviously the teacher himself does not know the material perfectly. Moreover, it is undesirable from the mental

hygiene point of view for children to be taught to think in perfectionistic terms. Achievement in the classroom is always relative.

Grades, especially numerical grades, tend to stimulate competition. It is undesirable, both educationally and psychologically, for a child to feel that his principle reason for studying hard is that he may defeat someone else. Every school has observed examples of bitter competition for honors.

From the mental hygiene point of view, failure is bad enough; failure accompanied by punishment for failing is even worse. The best stimulate for good work is success. The more often a child is successful, the better he will do. Therefore, the school should so plan its program that each child can experience a series of academic successes. This can be done only by taking his abilities into account and by encouraging him to set scholastic goals which are well within his reach. Failure is always at least temporarily disintegrating; persistent failure usually leads to serious behavior disorders. Success is a constructive experience; continued success usually leads to integration and to self-confidence.

3. Discipline. The causes of misconduct, insofar as classroom conditions are concerned, are not hard to identify. Every child needs to succeed. Denied the opportunity to satisfy his need for scholastic achievement

he strikes out against his environment. Adjustment of the course content to the abilities of the children being taught would solve many disciplinary problem.

The relationship between teacher and pupil should be such that the child is made to feel emotionally secure. She should resort to disciplinary measures only when such steps have to be taken for the good of the group. She should never use fear as a technique of control. To make a child feel emotionally insecure is to create, not eliminate, behavior problems.[3]

Redl and Wattenberg. Redl and Wattenberg provide additional measurable criteria:[4]

1. Report cards, grades, and marks. The worst part of teaching for many conscientious people is the assignment of grades or marks, especially when these go home on report cards. If grades are based on any objective system, they are psychologically unfair. If the system is founded on relationship between individual capacity and performance, it seems to breed a different species of injustice.[5]

The whole process of assigning grades is so filled with possibilities for increasing emotional conflict among

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[3]Ibid.

[4]Redl and Wattenberg, op. cit., p. 197.

[5]Ibid.

children as well as teachers that it remains a bugaboo. As the fatal day approaches, evidences of insecurity mount; young people become extra good, apple-polishing increases, and anxiety is openly displayed. The defensiveness of teachers breaks out in a rash of symptoms ranging from case-hardened insouciance to nervous indigestion.

Before leaving this problem-laden topic there is one fallacy which should be exploded. In some schools, systems are set up on the assumption that young people experience success and failure in school only on the day report cards are given out or promotions are announced. Some such arrangements may be called "no-failure" systems. The term is absolute nonsense. Feelings about school work are built solidly as a result of day-to-day experience. It is bootless to tell a child who knows he gets most problems wrong that he is doing satisfactory work. The unpleasantness and repeated frustrations do not disappear without trace just because the report card bears an S or a B or some other mystic symbol.

Is there a better way than marks and report cards for schools to perform their evaluating function? The answer is "Yes." A number of schools rely upon parent-teacher conferences to communicate information about the young people. In these, planning for young people takes precedence over rendering verdicts about them. That is as it should be. This can only work well when the staff is given adequate

time and there is a good basis of parent-teacher co-operation.[6]

Henry Clay Lindgren. Lindgren describes the school's influence in mental health under the following topics:[7]

1. Disintegrative Influences in Education:

a. Conformity. One of these factors is the emphasis and insistence on conformity and the submission which is characteristic of the emotional climate of many schools. This often has the effect of discouraging originality and independence in the thought and action. To be sure, a certain degree of conformity is necessary in all social situations, otherwise groups lack cohesion and purpose and are unable to operate effectively. When conformity becomes an end in itself instead of the means to an end, when it becomes a central value in the child's personality, there is a dying out of the capacity for originality and the desire for self-direction.

b. Reward and Punishment. Some children who are subjected to situations of this sort over the years come to believe that the rewards of learning are not the pleasure and satisfaction of practicing a new skill or discovering

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[6]Ibid., pp. 331-334.

[7]Lindgren, op. cit., pp. 390-397.

a new bit of information but are instead the praise of the teacher. Or, even more commonly, children come to feel that learning is something one does to avoid punishment or criticism. In effect, an over-emphasis on the reward-and-punishment aspects of the educational situation produces a distortion which causes students to substitute a rather hallow and insubstantial type of goal for the deeper satisfactions that result from greater personal adequacy--such things as improved relations with others, greater skill in dealing with the problems of one's environment, greater effectiveness in self-expression, and the like.

c. Competition. There is no quarrel here with the friendly sort of competition which often helps to stimulate interests in the classroom. What we are concerned with is a situation that causes children to subordinate all other considerations in favor of an intense drive to get the best marks. In the worst of the competitive situations, children no longer care about what they learn--whether it is useful, whether it is worth remembering over the summer vacation, whether it helps make the world around them more understandable--their only concern is to defeat each other.

Another effect of the over-emphasis on competition is that it makes students too fearful of failure. Preoccupation with failure induces an unrealistic and somewhat neurotic orientation of life. In the first place, a certain amount of failure is inevitable in life. Ofttimes the

overly competitive person is so afraid of failure that he tries to cover up or deny to himself the fact that he has failed. Or he might indulge in self-condemnation and self-recrimination for not having lived up to his expectations. In the second place, failure can be a useful experience in learning. The emotionally mature person is one who can accept the fact that he has failed, analyze and appraise the situation, and determine what he should do next. The overly competitive person is often so overcome by anxiety or the inability to accept the reality of his failure that he is unable to profit from his experience.

d. The Organizational Structure of the School.

(1) Communication. One of the chief problems is the difficulty which children experience in trying to communicate with adults and vice versa. We should be aware that the organization of the classroom makes it easy for the teacher to talk to the class but not for the class to talk to the teacher.

(2) Autocratic Tradition. The organizational structure of the schools prescribed by convention and tradition is one which is best suited for the distribution of power in an autocratic atmosphere. It is an arrangement that makes it easy for one person to make most of the decisions on behalf of the staff and the students. This type of organization may seem desirable for purposes of economy and efficiency, but it makes the development of democratic practices a difficult one.

(3) Unreality of the Curriculum. One of the most difficult problems which schools must face is that of developing a curriculum which has reality and life for children. What happens all too often is that children fail to see any connection between what they study in school and life in the world outside. Merely because the connection between the curriculum and life is obvious to an adult does not mean that it is obvious to a child. After a while, children get the idea that nothing that the school teaches is of any practical use, and that the curriculum is a series of uninteresting tasks which do not bear any real relationship to each other.

(4) Examinations and Marks. Most teachers agree that our present systems of grading leave much to be desired, but they also agree that we have not found acceptable substitutes for grades. One of the reasons for this difficulty is that our grading system is suited to an educational organization which emphasizes competition, often to the detriment of learning. If competition were no problem, grading would be much less of a problem. If grades were merely the evaluations of learning, devoid of any emotional considerations, they would present no real difficulties, but as long as an A is an honor, a reward, and a designation of high status, and an F is a disgrace, a penalty, and a designation of low status,tensions and anxieties are inevitable.[8]

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[8] Ibid.

2. Integrative Influences in Education.

a. Satisfying Need to Learn. One of the more specific contributions which the modern school makes toward the mental health of children is the opportunity it provides for satisfying their normal curiosity, their natural desire to learn more about themselves and their environment.

b. Meeting the Need to Participate with Others. The chief value of a social nature that the school has for children lies in the opportunities it provides for children to learn how to cooperate, cope, and even compete with a variety of adults and children.

c. Learning Social Norms and Customs. By participating in a social situation removed from that of his family, the child is enabled to have a dual experience in learning how to deal with the problems of life. At school he learns the ways that society has developed for dealing with such problems.

Participating in group experiences with other children also helps to "socialize" the child. He learns to share, plan cooperatively, lead and follow, and to participate in group decision making. And the more opportunity his school provides for experiences of this sort under competent guidance, the better he will learn these social skills.

He also learns to cope with some difficult problems. Not only will some of the values and standards he

learned at home come into conflict with the norms of his peer group, but there is also likely to be differences among the several peer groups with whom he associates, not to mention the disparities between the standards of the student world and the world of teachers and other adults. Learning to socialize means, in part, being able to maintain a satisfactory balance between being an individual and being a member of the family group, the peer group, and the larger group that is the school.

d. Learning to be Self-Directive. Although there is much progress to be made by the schools in this regard, the very fact that the school presents the child with a new experience which he must meet largely on his own means that he must develop some resources for independence and self-reliance. And although the school tends to provide ready-made solutions for many if not most of the problems it presents to children, there are still situations, particularly in the informal aspects of the curriculum, that give children opportunities to work out solutions for themselves. Some schools give children more opportunities to work out solutions than others; some teachers do more with this than others.[9]

e. The Curriculum and the Extra-Curriculum.

(1) Student Government. At its best, student government can be a way of enabling children (particularly

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[9]Ibid., pp. 415-419.

at the secondary school level) to participate in the operation of their school, to help make policy, and to help enforce rules of their own making. At its best, student government can build morale and cohesiveness, can give students a sense of identity with the school, can make the school psychologically attractive. All of these factors are important both from the standpoint of good mental health and the learning of subject matter.[10]

(2) Willingness to Experiment with the Curriculum. Another factor that has helped to make the atmosphere of the school more conducive to mental health has been the willingness of some administrators and teachers to try experimental educational programs that in some cases are radical departures from traditional curricula.[11]

(3) Guidance Services. We should be aware that many schools have already developed facilities which have done much to individualize the relations of the school with the child. One of the most important phases of this development has been the growth in the number of trained school psychologists, counselors, and guidance workers. In schools where there is an effective guidance program, children do not feel so alone with their problems. They know that they have some place to go for help. To be sure, they

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[10] Ibid., p. 422.

[11] Ibid., p. 424.

have always been able to take their problems to their teachers, and probably just as many children go to their teachers as ever before, but there are many children who have difficulty in communicating with a teacher. Perhaps it is that the teacher is too much like a parent; the teacher, as we have said, is an authority figure--he can punish and reward. The counselor is more a neutral figure; one can talk things over with him and preserve one's privacy. Often teachers simply do not have the time to see all the students who would like to see them; one of the big advantages of a well-organized guidance program is that there are people who have time to meet with children individually. We mention him here because he makes a large contribution to those educational situations that are helping children to develop in ways that are healthy and emotionally mature.

(4) Special Education. Schools in increasing numbers are making provisions for children with special problems--mentally retarded, hard of hearing, cerebral palsied, and so forth. Community after community is coming to realize that it must provide special education for those who need special handling. The important motive where such programs have been organized seems to be the recognition by the community that it has a responsibility to all children, not merely to those who are able to benefit from the conventional school situation.[12]

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[12] Ibid., pp. 436-437.

Dorothy Rogers. Dorothy Rogers in her chapter on "Persistent Classroom Problems: Problems of Method," discusses mental health experiences related to certain methods or techniques in the elementary school.[13]

1. Extrinsic Motivation.

a. Free time. Better pupils are sometimes rewarded with free time or extra play while weaker children are required to do work in which they are deficient. The slower student, feeling that he has been penalized, cannot approach remedial work in the spirit of doing his best.

b. Appointment as leader or monitor. Another way of rewarding satisfactory work is by appointing a child as a group leader or monitor. All children should have opportunities for this type of recognition and leadership training.

c. Honor roll. The honor roll still adorns the wall of many a classroom and the names of the same children appear on it over and over. The very name "honor roll" seems to imply that the children whose names do not appear there are "without honor." Moreover, this is still another situation in which bright children anxiously compete against each other while duller children know they have no chance.

d. Exhibiting work. The incentive value of displaying children's work depends on the way the procedure is

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[13]Rogers, op. cit., pp. 238-244.

used. If the teacher's aim is to impress visitors she will consistently put up the work of the best pupils. Children who have nothing on display are crushed when their parents visit the school and, on looking around the room, ask their child the inevitable question, "Which is yours?"

e. Gold stars. The use of stars is a type of motivation particularly pleasing to small children. Although this technique has the basic weaknesses of most forms of extrinsic motivation, it may be of some positive value. Unlike honor rolls stars are not publicly exhibited. Their usage may be abused, however, so that children will cheat to get them. The temptation may be largely removed by permitting the child to participate in evaluating his own work to decide when a star has been earned.

2. Evaluation.

a. Report cards as instruments of evaluation. First of all, how effective are report cards in measuring progress toward goals? If a child is given a C in reading for two consecutive months does it mean that his progress is simply average for the class? If his grade in reading improves from C to B does it signify improvement in all the processes involved in reading, some of them, or simply in attitude toward reading?

The diagnostic aim suffers badly where report cards are concerned. A letter grade is compounded of so many variables such as skills, attitudes, understandings,

or any combination thereof, that one has no idea where weaknesses and strengths lie. The key on the report card indicates that "D" means "Poor." Johnny thinks: "I am doing poorly; I should improve. What can I do?" Actually, Johnny may be performing quite creditably for him and the grade may merely signify that his achievement is below the average of the class.

Is there much likelihood that Johnny's D will spur him to greater achievement? Perhaps it will if Johnny usually makes higher grades because then he knows it is possible. But if the D is his customary mark, he simply learns to think of himself as too dull to do anything worthwhile. "I'm just dumb, I guess" Johnny shrugs. He identifies his performance with himself and comes to view himself as an inadequate person.

What of report cards as a means of comparing one's abilities with others? It is a valid conclusion that the child who makes low grades in mathematics has less ability than the average? No, because poor performance is often linked to poor instruction. Even if teaching is effective and grading is done "on the curve," relative potential is still not clear. Does a median position in reading refer to speed, or comprehension, or what? Besides, may not a class fail to represent a typical segment of the total school population of that age? Mary skipped a grade and found it easier to lead the more advanced class than the

one she came from because fewer bright children were among her new classmates. It will do the child harm anyway to know his relative performance unless he is guided to see its implications in proper perspective. Inferior achievement can lead to feelings of defeatism.

Nor do report cards assist the child to learn about himself and define his goals. It would seem safe to assume that the child who makes all A's in history has special insight into the subject. Not always: the criterion of achievement may be simply the memorization of facts. Dora made A's in art because she was able to create carbon copies of objects; was that art? Report cards can never be interpreted except in the broader context of a teacher's philosophy and standards.

Do report cards assist the child to develop habits of self-evaluation? Rarely does the child participate at all in this type of evaluation. Even if he were asked what grade he should receive how should he be expected to know? The experts in education themselves are confused about what symbols should represent.

Since the card is devised by the educators themselves, it should certainly serve to adapt instruction to the needs of the child. The child may benefit slightly from the fact that the teacher must think briefly of every child's performance in the course of making out cards. However, performance should be measured continuously and

not merely at stated intervals if experiences are to relate to needs.

Where the teacher-pupil relationship is concerned, report cards often have a devastating effect. Teachers are often thought of as "giving grades." A poor grade becomes a symbol of reprimand or disapproval and thus generates antagonism. Thereby rapport needed for effective instruction suffers. Even the teacher may come to think of herself as "giving grades." To keep the support of certain influential persons in the community, teachers may give their children higher grades. Naturally, self-respect suffers and guilt feelings are created. Even very conscientious teachers manipulate grades in order to encourage children who are handicapped or have suffered some other misfortune. But what of the children whose psychological needs the teacher has not fathomed?

High grades may indeed strengthen egos and in some cases create a closer teacher-pupil relation. But cannot sounder means be used to achieve the same ends? The feeling of approval gained by brighter children is hardly worth the emotional hazard to others. Besides, a student who makes a B when aspiring to an A often suffers more than the child who always makes D's.

The function that report cards are believed primarily to serve is that of reporting to parents. Interview any parent and you will learn how vague are his interpretation

of grades. The key found on the card may serve simply to confuse the issue. "A" signifies "excellent" so the child making A's is praised and rewarded. Yet bright children often make high grades "with both hands tied behind them." The A actually encourages laziness because if it can be obtained without effort, why bother? Another child of lesser ability may work even harder and receive a low grade that is identified with "laziness." His parents shake their heads and tell him that he could do better.

Even if a child has loafed on the job punishment by parents will rarely effect improvement. The soundest approach is in helping the child to define suitable goals and showing how he can make progress toward them.

Yet the parent can hardly be blamed for taking action, even if it is wrong. Otherwise, why was the card sent home at all? Parents should be informed of the best way to interpret and utilize the information found on these instruments. For example, parents have a tendency to compare their child's grades with those of others. Educators should help their patrons realize that children of different abilities should not be expected to perform on the same level.

In order that children of less ability be freed of undue home pressures some schools use a dual marking system giving one grade for effort and another for achievement. Theoretically, the child is to be praised or blamed according to the amount of effort made regardless of

accomplishment. But exactly what is implied by effort and how may it be measured? Some children work unobtrusively and quietly while others make a production of everything they do. A child with little energy may require great effort simply to remain awake. An unhappy child may find it very difficult to concentrate on anything at all except himself.[14]

3. Course-of-Study Requirements and Grade-Level Expectancies. The problems of satisfying course-of-study requirements and meeting grade-level expectancies are allied. In either case external pressures may compel the teacher to sacrifice children's needs to the reality of externally imposed requirements.

a. Course-of-study requirements. A third grade teacher feels that she is expected to teach third grade work because that is the way her grade is designated. No matter that she gives an achievement test and discovers that some of the children are on the first grade level in ability to read. A third grade reader is placed in their hands. There are those who can read on the usual fifth grade level, but a third grade reader is likewise placed in their hands.

There will never be a situation when every child who comes to the third grade will be on the same level in every subject. Besides, if personal and social maturity

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[14] Ibid.

are taken into account the child will often fail to be in the correct grade for his academic achievements. Finally, to make the situation still more complicated, a program adapted to the interests of the children as well as to their academic needs is not likely to fit neatly into a prescribed course of study.

b. Grade-level expectancies. An allied problem is that of pressure to bring children up to national norms for a grade, despite factors in the local situation that make such a goal impractical.

4. Promotion and Retention.

a. Hazards of retention as traditionally practices. "Repeating" a grade usually means just that--repeating the same old tasks, whether or not they were learned previously, in the same old way. Because the practice carries with it the implication of failure, the self-esteem of both parent and child is threatened. Parents often feel that retention of their child is a reflection upon their own intelligence or their skill in rearing the child. They may project the blame onto the child thus increasing his feelings of failure or they may become hostile toward the teacher, thus making cooperation difficult.

The child suffers most. He may become the victim of odious sibling comparison because he is the only one in the family who was ever "kept back." "I don't know what's

the matter with you," a father states testily; "your sister always makes out all right." The child also feels left out because he cannot move along with his friends. But most of all he suffers because he feels like a failure.

b. Evidence from research. The summary that Sumption and Phillips made of the most recent research on this topic includes these points: there is no evidence that retention in a grade significantly accelerates a slow learning rate, nor does it assure subject mastery; likewise, non-promotion practices do not effect an increase in grade-achievement averages in individual groups or reduce the range of achievement there; finally, there is no proof that such practices improve the retained pupil's morale or personality adjustment.

In fact, the contrary proved to be true in a study of 416 children, including 139 slow learners, from five elementary schools in Wallingford, Connecticut. These pupils were selected from each grade level from first through eighth. Nonpromoted children were found to experience difficulty in social relationships due to their greater size and strength and more mature play interests. They were cut off during the school day from their preferred companions who were in the upper grades. It is not surprising that these children developed anti-social behavior and an unsatisfactory attitude toward school.[15]

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[15] Ibid., pp. 247-250.

5. Grouping.

a. Grouping within a grade. Some individuals advocate homogeneous ability grouping--on the basis that otherwise differences are too extreme. The pupils of greatest ability may lose interest through having to spend much of their time listening to the contributions of the children of weakest ability. The very dull might grow discouraged at the wide gap that exists between themselves and the brightest.

b. Others oppose ability grouping. While the children may be considerably alike in ability or characteristics, they will vary widely in other traits. Second, the formation of groups on the basis of a single variable is a direct contradiction of the "whole child" philosophy. Third, the emphasis is on educational objectives rather than on child needs. Lastly, the children themselves may be sensitive to being placed in special groups.

c. Grouping within a classroom. There should not be only a single grouping on the basis of over-all ability. Instead one should think of different groups for different purposes. Groups may also be formed in terms of special interests.[16]

6. Competition. It is not competition so much as competition in disproportionate amounts that hurts a child.

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[16] Ibid., pp. 252-253.

If he competes he may be taught to compete in ways that are inevitable anyhow, such as in finding a role in the group. He can accept failure in competition if he also has his share of successes. Therefore, it behooves the teacher to help the child to select proper goals.

Furthermore, the ravages of competition are more severe where the insecure child is concerned. A child who feels adequate and loved does not have to get "first place" to satisfy his ego because his ego is adequate already.

Again, competitive situations must be counterbalanced by plenty of situations involving group cooperation which will involve cooperative group planning, sharing of effort and responsibility, of credit and of blame. It is also often suggested that children learn to measure their own progress and develop the habit of competing with themselves; but even here a caution is in order. An individual may set standards too high for himself and drive himself too hard.

7. Homework.

a. Possible ill effects of homework. All concerned in the educative process--teacher, parents, and children--pay a price for the questionable advantages of homework. It is a nuisance for teachers to check papers prepared at home, yet they realize that the assignments will be of little benefit unless they do. Nor can they ever be quite sure how much of the work was done by the

child and how much by his parents and friends, so that it is useless to base remedial work on the results.

Parent-child relations are affected, too. Parents are engaged in a constant battle with the child to "do his homework." Often the parent in desperation, does the work himself, or at least, gives assistance. When Junior reports that the teacher did not like the way the problem was worked, the parent is forced to project the blame on the teacher and say she does not really know how to teach.

The children suffer most. The greatest penalty is in devoting to homework time that they need for recreation. They recognize the futility of much of this busy work and resent it.

b. Evidence from research. Research concerning the value of homework at the elementary school level may be summarized as follows: (1) homework seems to have little effect on a pupil's progress in school either in his own grade or later in high school; (2) voluntary homework has about as many values as compulsory homework; and (3) the benefits of homework are too small to offset the disadvantages, especially in poor homes. In an article in the New York Times Magazine, Benjamine Fine cites much experimental evidence on both the elementary and secondary school levels to show that formal homework assignments are of dubious value.[17]

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[17] Ibid., pp. 252-257.

Harold W. Bernard. Bernard discusses questionable practices in the school situation.[18]

1. Grades. When schools abandon uniform grading--there are now hopeful trends in that direction--we shall see pupils who are gaining in confidence, feelings of worth, and personal security. They will come to realize that they have a contribution to make in the school and in life, even though it is not identical with that of their classmates who sit in adjacent seats. Schools will be more lifelike when the "salary schedule" allows each child a chance to accomplish in his unique way.

Not the least serious criticism of the grading system is its unreliability. Study after study has shown that two different teachers do not give the same grade for objectively determined equivalence of achievement in academic accomplishment. There is considerable difference between the grading standards of various schools. The same paper graded by different teachers may, and has, received scores running the full gamut of the grading scale. Even the same paper graded by the same teacher at different times does not always receive the same score. The unreliability of grading should count as reason enough for regarding it as a questionable practice--to say nothing of the effect

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[18]Harold W. Bernard, Mental Hygiene for Classroom Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1952), pp. 233-243.

which it has on those who are at the receiving end of this unjust practice. The fact is that success in any line of activity depends, to a degree, upon the ability to get along with others and to make good impressions. What is needed, in the author's opinion, is not a repudiation of the subjective element in grading but a recognition of it that will allow the teacher to use it constructively.

The foregoing does not state, nor does it mean, that examinations and tests have no place in the educational scheme. What it implies is that such devices are only a part, not the entire medium or the end, of educational procedures. Tests and examinations have a constructive role to play in functional education, but their use--or rather, their misuse--leads to the logical question, "What is that use?"

Several techniques are being used for experiments in evaluation. One minor revision is to grade accomplishment in terms of ability rather than by personal comparisons. Thus, an S (for satisfactory) may be given to one student who is doing the work in a mediocre fashion, because his ability is low while another student who has the same accomplishment is given a U (unsatisfactory) because he has high potential, and another receives a C (commendable) for the same work, because he is working under definite and known handicaps. This system provides a workable basis for the wise use of informal and standardized examinations, but it also considers the child in terms of his

physical health and home background. Other dissenters from the grading and marking viewpoint are in favor of discarding formal letter and numerical designations and substituting conferences of various sorts.

The objective of all grading systems should desirably be to promote growth on the part of the pupil. This objective is perhaps nowhere better served than in the use of pupil self-appraisal. This plan calls for a detailed statement of the various aims, objectives, and desired outcomes of the learning situation. The aims are made clear to the students at the beginning of the term--in many places the students have participated in the formation of the objectives--then each student is given the chance, periodically, to evaluate his own progress toward the attainment of the goals. In the meantime, the teacher will have evaluated the student in terms of the same objectives. If there is any discrepancy between the two evaluations, teacher and pupil get together to discover the reasons for the differences. This serves to clarify any misunderstandings and thus has the effect of making for a more wholesome classroom atmosphere.

Now the tendency is to broaden the base and make use of the mediums inherent in the concept of evaluation. Anecdotal records; representative bits of work; health histories; the results of periodic intelligence tests and achievement tests; reactions to the responses made on

personality inventories; teacher-teacher, teacher-pupil, and teacher-parent conferences--all these become a part of the broadened concept.

2. Nonpromotion. An argument against the idea of block promotion is that students who are not prepared for the work of the next class will hold that class back. Statistics show that this, too, is a misconception. Studies indicate that from 70 to 90 per cent of the pupils who are given trial promotions make good in the next grade--this, in subject centered schools.

Effective pupil guidance will avert much of the prevailing practice of failing, but where mistakes are made it seems unwise to place the whole burden on the student. If conditions conducive to mental health are to prevail in our schools, the negative threat of failure must be replaced by more positive lures to educational achievement.

3. Homework. Closely allied to the threat of failure is the necessity for the student doing homework in order to complete the work of his grade or class.

In the first place, homework assignments are likely to magnify rather than to reduce the range of individual differences in academic achievement. The youngster who is having difficulty in keeping up with his peers is also likely to be the one whose home influences are distracting.

In the second place, young people, including those of high school age, need to have time for play and social development. School attendance should not demand of the student a monastic devotion to academic pursuits. He should be encouraged, especially during the winter months, to play and exercise in the open air. Since mental health involves the mental, physical, emotional, and social life of the individual, the mental phase should not be allowed or encouraged to take more than its fair share of time.

In the third place, homework is likely to create a poor learning situation, both in school and at home. Those who know they can do their work easily at home are likely to make little use of their study time in school, thus forming poor work habits when work should be given first place, and tending, besides, to prevent those who cannot work profitably at home from finishing their work at school.

4. Authoritarianism. There are several explanations as to why authoritarianism is harmful to mental health. One is that it limits the opportunity to practice the habit of independent thought. Pupils cannot learn how to think when what they are to think is dictated to them. Another is that it obviously restricts the opportunity for independent action, which we have seen is a fundamental human need. Freedom to grow, practice in standing on one's own feet is a prime requisite to the development of healthy feelings of psychological security. Protection by authority tends to

make for false feelings of security. Empirical and experimental data indicate that dictatorial procedures tend to stir up an attitude of resentment, thus inhibiting the development of harmonious relationships.

a. Restriction of freedom. There are many ways in which the restriction of freedom is manifest in the typical school. Among these may be listed (1) a concept of class routine in which sitting in chairs or at desks for the whole period is expected and sometimes enforced; (2) a set curriculum, which restricts the freedom of the pupils to exercise self-direction; (3) school rules and regulations which students have had no part in formulating; (4) the teacher's fear that, if he allows spontaneous activity, the class will get out of hand; (5) the relative lack of opportunity to choose and pursue activities which are outside the realm of traditionally conceived educational subjects; and (6) lack of freedom to pursue knowledge beyond the bounds of tests and references.[19]

D. B. Klein. Another source of reference is submitted by Klein.[20]

1. Failure. Failure in school work with its attendant expression of disapproval and disappointment by the

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[19] Ibid.

[20] D. B. Klein, Mental Hygiene, A Survey of Personality Disorders and Mental Health (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1956), pp. 584-585.

teacher often induces the youngster to feel that "teacher doesn't like me." It is but a short step from the conviction of being disliked to the feeling of being rejected. One of the crucial mental hygiene opportunities for the teacher is to guide the youngster in wise ways of facing the fact of failure. Individual morale is largely contingent on the possession of healthy techniques of adjusting to failure and a good teacher is one who can help the child develop such techniques.

The mental hygienist is concerned about the problem of academic failure because of its possible damage to the victim's personality. It frequently provokes frustration of the serious kind--the kind which means loss of self-confidence and threat to one's self-esteem. In the language of the psychoanalyst, it means superego trouble, or possibly a disguised Oedipus complex, considering how fathers react to poor report cards. The disciple of Alfred Adler will view it as the basis for what he labels an "inferiority complex." Precisely what descriptive label is employed is not important. What is important is to understand what school failure may mean to a sensitive child--and to some not so sensitive.

Shame and self-respect cannot dwell in the same psychological household and morale goes to smash when self-respect crumbles. This is what makes school failure a mental hygiene problem.[21]

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[21] Ibid.

2. Grades. All parties involved--teacher, pupil, and parents--are thus placing too much emphasis on the significance of academic grades. Both the elation produced by high grades as well as the humiliation precipitated by low ones may be too extreme in view of the reliability of the marks themselves as well as the uncertainty as to their precise implications. In some instances it is altogether possible for a student to receive an "A" in a course even though the study involved has failed to produce a change in his attitudes, to increase his body of factual knowledge, or to furnish him with new insights or new techniques. The course may involve little more than a rehash--sometimes under a different name--of material he has already absorbed in previous courses. On the other hand, another student, who completes the same course with a "C" may have made relatively more educational progress as a consequence of broadened intellectual horizons than the "A" student. Despite his "C" grade, he may thus have gotten more out of the course than many whose grades were higher.[22]

Two evaluation forms illustrate how another individual and one national agency assess a local school program in terms of mental health. These provided samples for the investigator. (See Charts I and II)

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[22] Ibid., pp. 615-616.

CHART I

SCHEDULE FOR THE EVALUATION OF THE MENTAL HYGIENE PROGRAM OF AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL[1]

Key for rating: A--Excellent; B--Good; C--Fair; D--Poor; E--Very inadequate

	Enter Ratings Below
I. Does the organization and conduct of the school contribute to the wholesome personality adjustment of teachers and pupils?	_____
a) To what degree are special efforts made to understand the needs of individual pupils through the employment of counselors and other guidance specialists who use: (1) tests of academic aptitude, (2) measurement of educational achievement, (3) study of social history, (4) personal interviews, (5) physical examinations? . .	1___ 2 _____ 3___ 4 _____ 5___
b) How much is done by way of remedial instruction in (1) reading, (2) arithmetic, (3) speech, (4) study skills, (5) other fields?	1___ 2_____ 3___ 4_____ 5___
c) Does the health program stress preventive as well as therapeutic aspects of pupil well-being?	_____
d) To what degree are happy, spontaneous, and constructive recreational experiences provided for all pupils? . . .	_____
e) To what extent was the system of evaluation (1) developed through faculty participation, (2) understood by the faculty, and (3) understood and accepted by the pupils?	1____ 2 ____ 3____
f) In the promotion of pupils, to what extent is their physical, emotional, and social status considered as well as their academic achievement? . . .	_____

[1]M. E. Bennett, "Some Aspects of Mental Hygiene in the Administration of an Elementary School" (unpublished Master's thesis, Stanford University, 1942), 89 pp.

CHART I (continued)

	Enter Ratings Below
g) Does the special education program make adequate provision for (1) the superior, (2) the retarded, (3) the physically handicapped, and (4) the socially maladjusted?	1____ 2____ 3____ 4____
h) As for records: (How adequate are pupil records? (2) How freely are they available for the use of teachers? . .	1____ 2_____
i) How well is the school equipped (1) to give individual guidance? (2) to employ the guidance conference to give teachers a better understanding of the pupils?	1___ 2_____

CHART II

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS[1]

SOME INQUIRES HELPFUL IN APPRAISING
MENTAL HEALTH IN A SCHOOL

PROGRAM:

1. What kind of respect is accorded the learning that comes by way of activities?

   For instance

Fine Arts	Music	Industrial Arts
Rhythms & Dancing	Dramatics	Physical Education

   A. Are they fully respected?

   B. Are they reserved for those with special talent? Is there any taint of exploitation of the young people involved? Is there too much "perfection seeking"?

   C. How much time is assigned to them in the school program? At what time of the day?

   D. Does the school plant reveal the results of the shop and the studio?

2. How important in the school life are such activities as

   Student Councils and Committees Student Religious Activities
   Discussion Groups
   Clubs Community Work or "Work Time"

3. The chance to express one's self creatively--whether in the arts or in other activities--enables young people to rid themselves of stresses and strains, to graping with problems, and to express strong feelings in a way that is acceptable and health-giving. Is this understood and is this understanding used to advantage?

4. Are these activities related to the academic work and to each other or are they carried on in compartments? In other words, to what are these activities relevant?

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[1]National Council of Independent School, Committee on Educational Practices, Boston, Massachusetts, 1952.

5. Is the mastery of the tools of learning so treated that these tools become elements of security in a child's life?

6. In the various studies is meaning an objective--for example, the applicability to current issues outside the school? Does such work help the student to understand and face his changing world?

GUIDANCE:

1. Is there an adviser to whom each child can turn, or who, on proper occasions, would turn to his advisee?

2. Is such adviser a counsellor who sits less as judge and disciplinary agent and more as the person to whom the boy or girl can talk?

3. Is there a pooling of insights by the adults who deal with each child to the point of a shared approach?

4. Are environmental factors studied and interpreted?

5. Is the testing system used as one kind of evidence rather than as a categorizer of children, a measure of teaching, or an end in itself?

6. Is there true regard for all kinds of gifts and degrees of success--for the achievements of those limited in academic, creative or athletic ability as well as those gifted in these ways?

7. Is the marking and report system a teacher's or parent's weapon, or is it a medium of learning and teaching and guidance?

8. Is there capable guidance of staff members in the understanding of young people?

9. What is the relationship between the school and available psychologists and psychiatrists?

ATMOSPHERE:

1. Do the children have a sense of belonging, each one to something in which he is a responsible participant?

2. Does the school belong to the students in the sense that they know its activities would not go on unless individuals and groups played their parts?

3. Is there a good understanding of the relative part to be played at different ages and stages by student initiative and teacher direction?

4. Do teachers learn as they teach--and do they know that teaching is a learning process for them?

5. Is there such genuineness in all relationships that both acceptance and constructive criticism of others and of one's self are possible and natural?

APPROACHES:

1. Children only learn deeply and fully that which they are ready to accept. Is the invitation to, and the expectation from, a child based, therefore, on a knowledge of his readiness and his ability?

2. Does the routine which cares for behavior of individuals within the classroom or within the school take into account that behavior is much more than contribution or infraction; that behavior is evidence of what a pupil is inside and where he is, emotionally and on the ladder of growth and learning?

3. Is the teacher-pupil relationship sentimental, exclusively academic and disciplinary, or is it essentially a positive, contributing friendship?

4. Is sarcasm distinguished from constructive criticism and firmness and honesty?

5. Are teachers in the habit of examining their own motivation, and is dislike of a child examined as a luxury which teachers should not afford?

GENERAL:

1. Listen to the noises in a school. There are differences, and these differences are more in quality than in volume.

2. Is sufficient leeway allowed both within the classroom and without for pupils to fumble and make mistakes? The permitted area for mistakes might include room for those trials and errors which could be experiments of learning and for some errors which, on reflection, promote the student's knowledge of himself?

3. Are there goals and standards definite enough to provide for pupils a good degree of security.

4. Does the school unfold a life sufficiently vital to contain, for the pupil, a vision of full and satisfying years ahead, a life which affords ample scope for his next years as he sees them?

5. Is there contemplation of the needs of both boys and girls and of the meaning of the sexes to each other?

6. Is there a common understanding through actual school experience of such phases of life as: independence, freedom, interdependence, responsibility, discipline, structure, and self-discipline?

7. Does the school aid and encourage parents to grow as parents? Is there a natural, honest, and constructive cooperation between home and school?

8. Is the recognition of spiritual values a significant force in the life of the school?

It was from the basic tenets expressed in the literature and research that the investigator developed his questionnaire (Chart III). As was mentioned previously, the items were then reviewed by qualified personnel.

Items 1, 2, and 33 gathered general information on the school and checked the data furnished by the State Department of Public Instruction.

Items 3, 4, 11, and 12 were included to determine the extent and the role that services played in the school based on the statements of Lindgren.[23]

Items 5 through 10 were based on the statements and research agreed to by all the authors, each of whom considered methods of evaluation and pupil progress directly related to mental health.

Items 13 and 14 referred to Lindgren's concern for conformity, reward, and punishment;[24] Bernard's discussion of authoritarianism;[25] and Carroll's comments on discipline.[26] These items were also recommended by one of the qualified individuals who reviewed the questionnaire.

Items 15 through 19 are based on the discussion of Lindgren concerning communication[27] and were also recommended by an individual from the group who reviewed the questionnaire.

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[23]Lindgren, op. cit., pp. 390-397.

[24]Ibid.

[25]Bernard, op. cit., pp. 233-243.

[26]Carroll, op. cit., pp. 288-295.

[27]Lindgren, op. cit., pp. 390-397.

CHART III

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL

1. How many teachers on the staff?_____
2. How many children currently enrolled? _____
3. Does the school have the services of a visiting teacher? _____

   (a) How does she function?_____
4. Does the school have the services of a child guidance clinic?_____
5. What type of cumulative records are kept on the students?_____

   _____

   (a) Where are they located?_____

   _____
6. How is pupil progress reported to parents?_____

   _____
7. What is the basis for measuring pupil progress?_____

   _____
8. How many children were not promoted last year?_____
9. What is the basis for non-promotion?_____

   _____
10. What is the operational procedure followed when a child is not going to be promoted?_____
11. How much is done in way of remedial instruction, reading study skills, etc.?_____

CHART III (continued)

12. What is done in special education for the gifted, retarded, physically handicapped, socially maladjusted etc.?_____

_____

13. How often are children referred to you for disciplining?

_____

(a) How are these children disciplined? _____

_____

14. What is the procedure for handling absences?_____

_____

(a) For handling tardiness?_____

15. Do parents often visit the classrooms?_____

16. How many times has the school used resource people from the community this year?_____

17. How many school programs or exhibits were presented for the public during the year?_____

18. How many field trips were taken during the year?_____

19. Have you ever been invited into a classroom as a resource person by a teacher?_____

20. Do the children have recess?_____

21. Do the children have art?_____

22. Do the children have music?_____

23. Does the school have an elementary band or orchestra?

_____

24. Do the children have gym?_____

25. Do the teachers assign homework?_____

CHART III (continued)

26. Do the children have a student council?_____

27. What activities did the student council sponsor this year?_____

28. Do the students have a newspaper?_____

(a) How often is it published? _____

29. What kind of audio visual equipment is available?_____

_____

30. Does the school have a library? _____

(a) How is it used? _____

31. Are both 5th grades working on the same subject now?___

_____

32. Does the school sponsor any recreational activities outside of the school gym class? _____

33. How would you describe the socio-economic level of the parents of your students? _____

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS

_____

_____

OBSERVATION OF CURRICULUM IN ACTION

1. Activity in classroom._____

2. Activity in halls. _____

3. Seating. _____

4. Student displays in halls and rooms. _____

_____

5. Condition of building. _____

Items 20 through 24 and 26 through 32 determine the scope and flexibility of the curriculum as was expressed by Lindgren[28] and Rogers.[29]

The observation of the curriculum in action added information which was also considered significant by Lindgren[30] and Rogers.[31]

Item 5 in this section was included for controlling the physical environments in which the curricula were functioning.

The two evaluating charts also furnished direct data for selection of the items.

The Schools

All of the eleven schools were visited by the investigator. An interview was conducted with the administrator and the questionnaire answered. Ninety per cent of the classrooms were visited in every school to observe the curriculum as it was actually functioning. From the control group of eleven schools two were selected, the one which offered the best curricular experiences and provisions for mental health and that which offered the poorest. The

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[28] Ibid.

[29] Rogers, op. cit., pp. 238-244.

[30] Lindgren, op. cit., pp. 390-397.

[31] Rogers, op. cit., pp. 238-244.

two schools were controlled as much as possible in every factor except the one which the investigator wished to examine, that of curricular experiences and provisions for mental health.

Only the two schools, which represented the poorest and best curriculum in terms of mental health, were selected in which to administer the tests. To establish statistical significant difference between the mental health of the children, it was necessary to use the extremes within the sample. By selecting more schools, more variables would have been uncontrolled. The emphasis was placed on the control of the sample not the size. These schools were actually functioning entities and could not be controlled as tightly as in a desirable experimental situation.

In addition to the controls already used in selecting the eleven schools, these school systems could be equated on the following basis:

1. located in the same county and had the same county educational facilities availabe.
2. located in towns of the same approximate size, one had a population of 400 and the other 600.
3. located off main highway arteries.
4. the same size in area, one encompassing 98 square miles the other 100 square miles.
5. equal in terms of state equalized valuation

behind each child, one had $12,355 per child and the other had $12,704 per child.

6. the same size in total enrollment K-12 one had an enrollment of 753 and the other an enrollment of 851.
7. equal as to training of their elementary administrators, both had Master's degrees.
8. equal as to the training of their elementary teachers, none had Master's degrees and two in each school were working for Bachelor degrees.
9. equal as to age of elementary administrators, and both had risen from the ranks of their present school system and had at least ten years of teaching experience in the system prior to their appointment as administrators.
10. equal as to average age of teachers on the elementary staff, but the poorer school might have had a slightly younger staff based on the observation of the investigator.

For purposes of this study it was important to recognize that none of the eleven schools evaluated would represent the worst possible curriculum for mental health or the best possible curriculum for mental health in the state, or even the nine county area. The study, by controlling as many variables that might influence the curriculum, outside of the school, eliminated the big differences in program that could have existed.

In answer to the items on the questionnaire, two schools represented a wider range than any other schools in the investigation. The rooms and halls and general activities were also visibly different to the investigator who visited the better school five times and the poorer school eight times. For purpose of this study the good school will be referred to as school A and the poor school as school B.

School A had a staff of 12 teachers and an enrollment of 475 children; a teacher-pupil ratio of approximately 40 to 1. In school B there was a staff of 16 teachers and an enrollment of 525 children; a ratio of approximately 33 to 1.

School A had a poorer teacher-pupil ratio in spite of the better mental health curriculum. This was not considered a factor in the questionnaire but might lead to an indication that a lower teacher ratio does not necessarily mean a better program.

Neither school had a visiting teacher or the services of a child guidance clinic.

Concerning cumulative records, school A attempted to obtain slightly more information by administering the SRA Mental Tests on alternate years and the Reading Tests Associated with Ginn Readers. School B had administered the California Test of Mental Maturity from time to time with no set pattern or apparent reason. Both schools kept the CA

39's, a standard attendance and grade record required by law in the state of Michigan.

Very little use was made of the records in either case and they were kept in the principals' offices.

Copies of report cards were obtained from both schools to determine to some extent the attitude toward marks and what was considered important to mark by the school systems.

School A did not use report cards in kindergarten. The teacher wrote an informal letter to the parent indicating general adjustment and total growth.

In grades one to three a key of O--Outstanding, S--Satisfactory, I--Improving, U--Unsatisfactory, and T--Tries, but does not meet standards, was used in the subject areas. In the areas of work and social habits a check mark was used to indicate habits that needed attention. The card was 5" x 8" and consisted of four pages. An area on the back page was available for remarks by teacher or parent.

In grades four through six the marks were: A--Excellent, B--Good, C--Fair, D--Poor, and E--Failure, for the subject matter areas.

The remaining part of the card was identical with the other card except for the addition of a few work and social habits. The children had a total of four marking periods.

On the front of the Primary card was written:

Dear Parents:

This report is sent that you may know how your child is progressing. It attempts to show his individual and social growth in the skills that the child needs to learn in order to adjust himself to everyday living. The statements in this report do not compare your child with any other child. Our purpose is to point out the progress he is making and the help he needs in order to become the person he is capable of becoming.

Your Early Elementary Teachers

On the front of the Intermediate card was written:

NOTE TO PARENTS:--This report is sent that you may know how your child is progressing. It attempts to show his growth in the work of the grade, including the development of the qualities that are important in good citizenship. We suggest that you visit the school for conferences with the principal and teacher to discuss the progress of your child.

Your Superintendent

In School B the card was 3" x 5-1/4" and consisted of four pages. One card was used in all graded, K-6. The method of grading was: A--Excellent, B--Good, C--Fair, D--Passable, E--Not Passing, and were used in the subject areas called Skills. In the area of growth in attitudes and behavior, called abilities the grades H--High rating, S--Satisfactory, W--Weak, and U--Unsatisfactory, were used.

The teacher had one three-inch line on which to write comments for each marking period. The children were graded six times each year.

On the back of the card was written:

To the Parents:

This report is a careful attempt to enlist your aid in the education of your children. The permanent grades go on their permanent record cards. The diagnostic grades show why the pupil received his permanent grades and enables you to give some attention to the weak points of your children. You are always welcome to confer with the teachers as to how you might help your children.

What was still more significant was what they were graded on in each school.

In school A the report card appeared as follows for the first three grades:

SUBJECTS

LANGUAGE ARTS

Reading

Recalls material read
Reads aloud well for grade
Shows interest in learning to read better

Language

Shows interest in poems and stories
Has ability to express himself well

Handwriting

Does letters well
Works neatly

Spelling

Can spell words needed
Is able to spell in regular lessons

SOCIAL STUDIES & SCIENCE

Shares information and mat'l with others
Helps in planning and discussions
Shows real interest

ARITHMETIC

Is learning fundamental processes
Is able to think through a problem

GENERAL

Child doing best he can
Child not quite doing his best
Teacher and parent should confer

WORK AND SOCIAL HABITS

WORK HABITS (Effort)

Listens to and follows directions
Begins and finishes work on time
Works independently
Works neatly

SOCIAL HABITS (Conduct)

Is courteous and considerate
Cooperates well
Respects public and private property

In grades four through six the card appeared as follows:

SUBJECTS

LANGUAGE ARTS

Reading
English (spoken and written)
Handwriting
Spelling

ARITHMETIC

UNIT WORK (Inc. Geog., His., Sci.)

ART

MUSIC

HEALTH

WORK AND SOCIAL HABITS

WORK HABITS (Effort)

Works to best of ability
Uses time, energy, and materials well
Completes work started
Works independently when necessary
Is self-reliant

SOCIAL HABITS (Conduct)

Is courteous
Uses self control
Pays attention
Is dependable
Respects rights of others
Cooperates with others

In school B the report card was as follows:

SKILLS

ARITHMETIC

Knows number facts
Solves thought problems

READING

Read for understanding
Read for pleasure
Read for information

LANGUAGE

Expresses thoughts orally
Expresses thoughts in writing

HANDWRITING

SPELLING

HISTORY

GEOGRAPHY

GENERAL SCIENCE

HYGIENE

ART

MUSIC

ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

ABILITIES

Shows self-control
Takes part in class activities
Cares for property
Is neat and orderly
Unclean objects out of mouth
Makes good use of his time
Is thoughtful of others
Works independently
Cooperates with all teachers
Cooperates with other children
Given attention to instructions
Sings with the group
Is friendly and fair in games

The philosophy of two different attitudes toward children were reflected in the report cards sent home to parents. School A had a much broader approach to the evaluation than school B.

When asked the basis for marks, school A measured the child against his own capacity for growth in lower grades and partly against a class average in the intermediate grades. In school B the child was measured against his own abilities after meeting "certain standards," these were not defined.

In School A the policy and expressed attitude toward non-promotion was significantly different than that of School B, with "not more than ten," being retained the previous year and fewer being retained this year. The basis for non-promotion was a cumulation of evaluation of

social, emotional, and academic growth. The parents were notified two marking periods before the end of the year, and usually came in to help in the final decision. The administrator expressed little faith in retention.

School B failed sixteen children in the first grade last year and at least two in all the other grades including kindergarten or a total of at least twenty-eight children. This procedure occurred every year according to the administrator. This was the highest number of failures of any school visited. The basis for non-promotion was, "they don't appear ready." Contact was made with the parents and if they came in this was welcomed if they did not no other effort was made.

In regard to a remedial instruction program neither school took responsibility. School B did have a speech correctionist twice a week for one-half of a day each time.

No program in special education existed in either system.

Teachers in school A as well as school B adapted the subject matter to individual needs as best they could. In school A the teachers cooperated with each other. A good first grade phonics teacher accepted a group of second graders in addition to her own, when she taught phonics.

The administrators were asked how often they had children referred to them for discipline. In school A the administrator said approximately one child every two weeks. The

investigator did not see this occur. This administrator scolded the children and on occasion used a paddle. School B administrator said, "teachers did their own disciplining, but on occasion he paddled some." In the number of visits at the school, the investigator had witnessed a child being sent to the administrator on six out of the eight trips. Paddling was used as a means of discipline in all the schools visited.

No parents visited the classrooms, unless by request in either school.

School A used local resource people in the classrooms throughout the year. For example they had a pilot talk on weather maps, the Conservation Officer, and German and Iranian exchange students.

School B did not use local resource people.

In school A the principal would discuss her trips, such as the one to California for the principal's meeting, with the children, and write an article about it for the school paper.

School B's principal did not visit the classrooms as a resource person.

School A had a very active student council. Its purpose was stated in the constitution:

> The purpose of this group shall be to promote fellowship and cooperation among students, to provide means for the students to take part in the school program, and to help our teachers with student activities and to make our school a better place in which to live and to learn.

They ran a store that sold school supplies and peanuts before school in the morning and afternoon and during recess. They had a sales tax license issued in their name.

The student council consisted of two elected representatives from each intermediate grade room and by one represented from each primary grade room.

The investigator witnessed the election of officers for the student council. Every child from grade one through sixth voted. In the intermediate grades they received ballots and voted at voting booths. In the primary grades the candidates went to all the rooms and appointees of the student council showed the children in which box to place their "X" as another appointee held his hand over the candidates' head.

The student council sponsored an annual talent show and selected the acts. They had at least three money raising projects during the year, one included the handling of the annual elementary school pictures, another was the placing of booths at the annual high school carnival. They also sponsored two dances during the year, for children in the elementary school only. They had circle dancing and square dancing, with instruction, mixed in with waltzes and rock and roll. One was held at Christmas time, the other around Valentine's Day. Attendance was excellent according to the administrator. With the money the children had

landscaped the school grounds and were buying small decorative picket fences.

School B had no student council.

Both schools had annual Christmas programs, and School B had an operetta.

Recess was twice a day for grades one through five and twice a day for grade six on two days only. The sixth grade had physical education three times a week in school A.

School B had recess twice a day for the primary grades only. Grades four through six had recess once a day.

The art program in School A was handled by the individual teachers. Two teachers in the building were more talented in this area than the other members of the staff. They regularly changed rooms with other teachers in order to give art instruction. Evidence of an art program appeared throughout the building.

In school B the art program was left to the discretion of the room teacher. The rooms gave little evidence of much time spent in the area. Art was done when all other tasks were completed.

School A did not have a music teacher. Twice a week for a half hour, they took part in a music class originating on the University of Michigan Campus and piped into their rooms over a public address system. A private dance teacher came once a week to give lessons during the school day.

School B had a music teacher three days a week. The principal said, "They spent too much time on music."

School A provided for the teacher to take their class into the multipurpose room once a week for gym in the first five grades. The sixth grade had benefit of a coach three times a week.

School B had no gym for the primary grades. In the intermediate grades they had gym one-half hour every day.

School A had a newspaper with articles submitted by any student in the school. The student council used the paper as a medium of communication, as well as an administrator or teacher. It was published every nine weeks.

School B had no newspaper.

Band lessons were given once a week to any child who wanted them in school A.

Band lessons were given to children in fifth and sixth grades once a week in school B.

Concerning the procedure of handling absences and tardinesses, in school A a child's word was acceptable for a short period of absence or being tardy. In school B a written note was the only thing accepted as an excuse. Tardiness was not a real problem at either school because most of the children came by buses.

In school A field trips were a regular part of the curriculum. The sixth grade had gone to Cinerama on money raised by the class. The entire school attended the Ann Arbor Music Festival. Many of the rooms had visited the capital and zoo in Lansing and the museum in East Lansing. The earlier grades visited farms and the community.

In School B field trips were not a part of the regular program. The administrator could not remember where they had gone this year, but was sure two or three rooms had taken a trip close by.

School A had superior audio-visual equipment, much of which was purchased by the student council. It consisted of a motion picture projector, two film strip projectors,and three phonographs.

School B had a film strip projector, and three phonographs.

In both schools homework was assigned. In School A the purpose was to broaden the children's interest, not drill as was the case in school B.

No recreational activities were sponsored outside of the school day by either school.

School A did not have a library room. Each teacher had $100 to spend on books for her room during the year. The books were kept on mobile carts and were moved from room to room periodically.

School B had the best library available in any of the schools visited. The children visited it once every two weeks. The library was used in conjunction with the community and had been donated by a philanthropist years ago.

Both administrators felt that their children came from lower middle-class families.

The investigator visited every room in the two buildings. In school A there appeared a variety of activities in almost all the classrooms. Many projects were visible and the walls were covered with pictures and plants. Live animals were kept in three rooms.

The seats in the rooms were movable and many children sat in groups of their own choosing.

In the halls there were hundreds of blooming plants in tin cans and pots. The hall was covered with pictures and stories written by the various classrooms. Posters requesting votes for candidates in the coming election were everywhere in a neat and orderly fashion. The school was not untidy. The school was a beehive of purposeful activity. During recess periods the children could buy milk from vending machines in the halls.

In school A the teachers were very friendly, the writer was welcomed into all the rooms and the teachers were very anxious to tell of classroom projects. Many of the rooms had their own student government and every individual had some responsibility in the room. They were continually giving the writer copies of projects from their classes. They told of the field trips they were going on, and how they related this to class activities.

School B also had movable seats but all were arranged in rows. The activity in the rooms was restricted and all the children were working on the same assignments.

In school B there were no pictures in the halls and no activity except at recess.

None of the teachers had any student government activities in their rooms.

The teachers did not discuss their projects or class when the writer visited their rooms.

The administrators in the two schools represented the two extremes in the selected sample.

The administrator in school A was delighted with the fact that anyone would want to visit the school and test the teachers and children. The administrator was constantly telling the attributes of the staff. The administrator furnished the writer with a copy of the student council constitution, and various projects of the school. The administrator showed every room in the school without being requested.

The administrator in school B did not show any enthusiasm for the investigator studying the school. The administrator voluntered no information, and never mentioned a member of his staff. The administrator would not have allowed the staff to take a test if its purpose was to determine intelligence or knowledge. The administrator cooperated only enough to show professional courtesy. The investigator had to ask to see each classroom.

Testing Instruments

The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory was administered to the teachers to determine if the school's curricula were related to teacher attitudes toward children, the second hypothesis. A teacher who could score high on this test would provide curricular experiences conducive to mental health, a teacher who would score low on this test would provide curricular experiences detrimental to mental health. The test was selected for it was designed by its authors that a teacher ranking at the high end of the scale should be able to maintain a state of harmonious relations with his pupils characterized by mutual affection and sympathetic understanding. The pupils should like the teacher and enjoy school work. The teacher should like the children and enjoy teaching. Situations requiring disciplinary action should rarely occur. The teacher and pupils should work together in a social atmosphere of cooperative endeavor, of intense interest in the work of the day, and with a feeling of security growing from a permissive atmosphere of freedom to think, act, and speak one's mind with mutual respect for the feelings, rights, and abilities of others. Inadequacies and shortcomings in both teacher and pupils should be admitted frankly as something to be overcome, not ridiculed. Abilities and strengths should be recognized and used to the utmost for the benefit of the group. A sense of proportion involving humor, justice, and

honesty is essential. Group solidarity resulting from common goals, common understandings, common efforts, common difficulties, and common achievements should characterize the class.

At the other extreme of the scale is the teacher who attempts to dominate the classroom. He may be successful and rule with an iron hand, creating an atmosphere of tension, fear, and submission; or he may be successful and become nervous, fearful, and distraught in a classroom characterized by frustration, restlessness, in-attention, lack of respect, and numerous disciplinary problems. In either case both teacher and pupils dislike school work; there is a feeling of mutual distrust and hostility. Both teacher and pupils attempt to hide their inadequacies from each other. Ridicule, sarcasm, and sharp-tempered remarks are common. The teacher tends to think in terms of his status, the correctness of the position he takes on classroom matters, and the subject matter to be covered rather than in terms of what the pupil needs, feels, knows, and can do.[32]

Norms have been established for experienced elementary teachers in systems with fewer than twenty-one teachers and with four years training. This would describe the group with which this study dealt.

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[32]Walter W. Cook, Carroll H. Leeds, and Robert Callis, Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (New York: The Psychological Corporation), p. 3.

Chapter IV presents the norms for this group and the evidence, in terms of scores, that the test was effective as used in the investigation.

Construction and validation of MTAI, Form A. In the selection of the 150 items for Form A, the published form of the Inventory, six factors were considered: (1) the discriminating power of the item, (2) the extent to which item responses are influenced by professional education courses, (3) the extent to which item responses are influenced by teaching experience, (4) the extent to which the content of the item duplicates that of another item, (5) the clearness of the statement, and (6) the consistency of the response patterns of the superior and inferior teachers.

Of the 150 items in Form A, 129 were taken from Experimental Form X-164 which had already been validated, giving a validity coefficient of .60 when correlated with three outside criteria of teacher-pupil rapport. The other 21 items were taken from Experimental Form X-239.

Three measures of discriminating power were available for each of the items in Form X-164, and two measures were available for all items in Form X-239. These measures were available for all items in Form X-239. These measures were: (1) Chi-Square, indicating the power of each item to discriminate between the original 100 superior and 100 inferior teachers, (2) the significance of the difference between the

per cent of responses of the superior and inferior teachers for each of the five categories of each item, and (3) for those items in Form X-164, an internal consistency measure of discrimination based on the upper and lower 20 per cent of the random group of 4--6 grade teachers. All of these measures were considered. One hundred thirty of the items have at least two response categories (SA, A, U, D, and SD) for which the difference in percentage of responses of the two criterion groups was significant at the five per cent level. The other twenty items have at least one response category for which the difference was significant at the given per cent level.

As a further check on validity, and using the items in final form, two studies were undertaken. The first one was in South Carolina in 1951 (Greenville, Spartanburg, and Anderson), the second in Missouri in 1951 (Mexico, Boonville, Fulton, and Jefferson City). The original validation study in 1946 had been in the schools of northwestern Pennsylvania and northeastern Ohio. It can be said that the communities represented in all studies were industrial and agricultural regions, mercantile areas, and wealthy residential districts. The schools represented the average in educational philosophy and practice, neither extremely progressive nor ultraconservative.[33]

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[33] Ibid., pp. 13-14.

The three measures used as outside criteria against which the MTAI was correlated were: principals' ratings, experts' ratings, and pupils' ratings. In the South Carolina Study these ratings established a composite validity coefficient of .63. In the Missouri Study they had a composite validity coefficient of .46.[34]

The California Test of Personality for intermediate grades Form AA was used to determine the mental health of the children.

The test was selected for it is organized around the concept of life adjustment as a balance between personal and social adjustment. Personal adjustment isbased on feelings of personal security, and social adjustment on feelings of social security, both basic tenets in the definition of mental health presented in Chapter I. The test covers the two broad areas of personal adjustment and social adjustment. Included under personal adjustment are: self-reliance, sense of personal worth, sense of personal freedom, feeling of belonging, with-drawing tendencies, and nervous symptoms. Under the area of social adjustment are: social standards, social skills, anti-social tendencies, family relations, school relations, and community relations. The test gives evidences of how children feel, think, and act regarding a wide variety of situations which vitally affect them as individuals or as members of a group.

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[34] Ibid., p. 14.

One of the major criticisms of the California Test of Personality was the classification and sub-dividing of the 144 items on the test. The total score was used in the study for it was determined, according to definition of mental health as presented in Chapter I, that personal and social adjustment could not be separated. It was also noted that the coefficients of reliability between the two social adjustment components, computed by the Kuder-Richardson formula on the Elementary level were .94.[35]

Taylor and Combs,[36] provided evidence on the validity of the test. It had long been held by workers in this field that well-adjusted people can accept more self-damaging statements or criticisms than the poorly adjusted. They had 168 sixth-grade children check on a list such damaging-to-self statements as were true about themselves. Pupils were informed that the results of the check list would remain anonymous.

This same group of children were tested with the California Test of Personality and divided into two groups, the upper 50 per cent (better adjusted) and the lower 50

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[35]Louis P. Thorpe, Willis W. Clark, and Ernest W. Tregs, California Test of Personality (Los Angeles: California Test Bureau, 1953), p. 4.

[36]Charles Taylor and Arthur W. Combs, "Self-Acceptance and Adjustment," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 16:89-91, April, 1952.

per cent (poorer adjusted). The test revealed a statistically significant difference in favor of the better-adjusted group; that is, the better-adjusted half of the class checked a statistically significant larger number of self-damaging statements than the more poorly adjusted half.

The Educational Research Bulletin of the New York City Schools carries this statement regarding the California Test of Personality: "This procedure (inventories organized so pupils can answer questions by themselves) which is followed in the California Test of Personality is perhaps the most diagnostic of any test of this type."[37]

Syracuse University found that the California Test of Personality correlated more closely with clinical findings than any other personality test.[38]

The norms for the elementary level were derived from 4,562 pupils in grades four to eight, inclusive, in schools in Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Massachusetts, and California.[39]

Test Administration

The California Test of Personality was administered to one room of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students in

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[37] Summary of Investigations, Number One, California Test of Personality Reported by the Editorial Staff (Los Angeles: California Test Bureau, 1950), p. 5.

[38] Ibid.

[39] Thorpe, Clark, and Tregs, op. cit., p. 27.

each school, a total of 180 children. The elementary principals selected the rooms in which the tests were to be given. The tests were given during the middle of the week in both schools one-half hour after lunch. The tests were administered on bright spring days in both situations.

The children provided the following information on the cover of the test booklet:

(a) grade

(b) sex

(c) age

(d) father's or guardian's occupation

Special effort was made to relax the testing situation. The investigator administered all the tests.

The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory was given after school in the middle of the week.

In school A all the teachers cooperated very quickly and two teachers expressed a desire to participate. On the afternoon of the test two of the teachers apologized to the investigator for previous engagements they had planned, but expressed a willingness to cooperate, and were both picked up on another trip.

The atmosphere in the classroom used for testing was relaxed and the teachers took the test with no visible qualms. Occasionally during the test one of the teachers would make a humorous remark. Upon completion of the test they were curious as to what was going to happen with the

data and visited concerning schools, the community, and the study.

In school B the testing situation was very tense, the teachers came into the room and began their test with very little talking. Only ten of the sixteen teachers appeared. During the test not a single word was spoken. Ten of the teachers handed in their papers without saying a word. They watched each other to see how their peers were progressing.

The investigator returned to the school to pick up the other six teachers and administered three more tests. It was necessary to tell the principal that the investigator would keep coming back until all the teachers were tested before the last three would cooperate. On one occasion the principal said he would call back and had forgotten when the investigator called back an hour later. These teachers did not want to cooperate. Three more trips were necessary to complete the testing of teachers.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Statistical Method

The statistical formula which best fitted the purpose and design of the investigation was the one-tailed *t* test. The one-tailed *t* test was used because the hypotheses had been stated in a given direction.

The basic assumption underlying the one-tailed *t* test is that it tests a null hypothesis. When located on an appropriate statistical table (table of t) this measure indicates a level of confidence for rejection of a null hypothesis. To prove that a difference is statistically significant the null hypothesis has to be rejected. It is important to recognize that rejection of a null hypothesis does not necessarily prove the superiority of one curriculum over another. It only discounts the likelihood that the differences were obtained by chance.

The formula used was:[39]

$$T = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{Sp\sqrt{\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2}}}$$

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[39]Wilfrid J. Dixon and Frank J. Massey, Jr., Introduction to Statistical Analysis (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957), p. 121.

The purpose of the formula was to determine, on the average, which is the mean, if there existed any statistical difference between the two populations of teachers and the two populations of children. The study was not interested in a comparison of the two groups as an end in itself, but only as they were representative of all teachers and all children who might exist under these two types of elementary curriculums.

The use of the mean fulfills two factors that are important in the selection of a statistic: (1) It is unbiased, which means on the average it gives the "right" answer, and (2) It is efficient which means it gives values which are concentrated more closely about the right values than values from any other statistic.[40]

The t test assumes the scores to follow a normal curve of distribution. It is difficult to plot the curve of these scores because of the limited number in the population sample of teachers. Based on the established norms of the test as presented in the manual of the test, these scores would fall into a pattern of normal distribution when considering all teachers. The mean for experienced elementary teachers with four years of training, in a system with fewer than twenty-one teachers, is thirty-seven with a standard deviation of 39.4 points.

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[40] Ibid., p. 74.

The t test may be used for comparing two means when the variances are unknown. Implied within the t test, however, is a measure of the variances. The results of a one-tailed t test are of greater significance when the variance between the two populations are equal. By use of the pooled mean-square estimate of variance, it was determined that there were no statistical differences between the variances of the two population samples. The formula used was:

$$Sp^2 = \frac{\sum X1i^2 - \frac{\left(\sum X1i^2\right)^2}{N_1} + \sum X2i^2 - \frac{\left(\sum X2i^2\right)^2}{N_2}}{N1 + N2 - 2}$$

For purposes of this study the .05 level of significance was selected. Any findings that are expressed as being significant in this study have attained the .05 level of confidence.

The Data and Findings

The above formula was applied to the score obtained by the two groups of teachers on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, Table I.

The results of the t test indicated that there was a significant difference between the two samples of teachers' scores, Table II.

One teacher in school B was omitted from the sample in that he had taken the test on two previous occasions and had had the theory underlying the construction of the test explained to him in detail. His score did not represent an extreme in school B.

TABLE I

TEACHERS' SCORES ON THE MTAI

School A	School B
-21	-31
8	-28
16	-26
23	-17
27	- 1
31	5
38	6
45	20
51	24
70	29
86	30
97	34
	36
	44
	69

The mean for school A was 39.25.
The mean for school B was 12.9

TABLE II

t RATIO BETWEEN TEACHERS' SCORES ON THE MTAI

School	Mean	t
A	39.25	2.18
B	12.9	

The *t* test was applied to the two groups of children's total scores on the California Test of Personality. One hundred eighty children were tested, Table III.

The mean for children's scores in school A was 107.7.

The mean for children's scores in school B was 101.4.

The results of the *t* tests indicate that the children's scores on the California Test of Personality were significantly different, Table IV. The estimate of variances showed that the variances between the two samples of children were equal.

The standard deviation for elementary school children based on the established norms was sixteen. The norms were given in relation to percentiles and a score between 111 and 117 would be included in the fifty percentile.

In the six rooms in which the children were tested a record was kept of the teachers' scores to determine if the particular teacher's score would show a relationship to her children's scores, Table V. The teachers had been with the children for eight months.

The teachers and their particular score had been identified without their knowledge.

The relationship between individual teachers' scores and the mean score of the children with whom they had worked was significant only in the fifth grade. In the fourth grade, Table VI indicates that the children's mean score was significantly higher on the California Test of

TABLE III

CHILDREN'S TOTAL SCORES ON THE CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY

Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6	
School A	School B	School A	School B	School A	School B
69	60	72	60	76	72
77	61	88	74	77	84
79	63	89	75	81	87
80	65	97	78	83	88
80	67	106	80	84	89
82	69	107	81	84	90
85	80	107	81	88	92
85	83	108	85	91	94
88	83	109	85	92	95
92	86	109	93	97	95
95	92	109	94	100	96
95	93	110	101	104	96
97	96	110	102	106	96
101	98	110	106	108	97
104	101	111	107	108	100
104	102	111	109	112	102
104	103	111	113	112	104
105	103	113	118	118	109
107	109	116	118	119	111
107	110	116	120	119	113
109	110	117	121	122	113
110	112	118	123	125	116
113	116	118	127	126	117
113	120	120	131	132	118
115	125	121	135	134	120
115	130	126		136	120
116	131	127			120
122	132	127			122
123	133	128			126
126		128			128
126		133			130
126		134			134
130		137			
135					
136					

TABLE IV

t RATIO BETWEEN CHILDREN'S SCORES ON THE CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY

School	Mean	t
A	107.7	2.31
B	101.4	

TABLE V

TEACHERS' INDIVIDUAL SCORES AND THEIR CHILDREN'S MEAN SCORE

Grade	Teachers' Scores		Children's Mean Score	
	School A	School B	School A	School B
4	27	44	104.3	97.7
5	86	5	113.2	100.7
6	51	-31	105.2	105.4

TABLE VI

t RATIO BETWEEN FOURTH GRADE CHILDREN'S SCORES OF THE CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY

School	Mean	t
A	104.3	1.29
B	97.7	

Personality in school A, but Table V indicates that the teacher in school B had a better score by seventeen points.

In the fifth grade school A had statistically significant different scores, Table VII. These two rooms represented the widest range of teachers' and children's scores. In only this most extreme case does the data tend to support the hypothesis that the teacher's attitude is related to the mental health of her students.

TABLE VII

t RATIO BETWEEN FIFTH GRADE CHILDREN'S SCORES ON THE CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY

School	Mean	t
A	113.2	2.78
B	100.7	

In the sixth grade the teacher in school A again scored higher than the teacher in school B, Table V. The children did not show any significant difference on their mean score, Table VIII.

As mentioned previously, an attempt to appraise the variable of the children's environment outside the school was made when the investigator asked the occupation of the fathers. There is substantial evidence to indicate the best single indicator of social class in American society is occupation. Occupation is highly correlated

TABLE VIII

t RATIO BETWEEN SIXTH GRADE CHILDREN'S SCORES ON THE CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY

School	Mean	t
A	105.2	-.004
B	105.4	

with socio-economic status. The data concerning the occupations of the fathers are presented below. These children came from similar socio-economic levels, predominately from the lower levels.

Occupations	School A	School B
Professional and semi-professional workers	5	3
Proprietors, managers, and officials, except farm	1	3
Clerical and sales	9	10
Craftsmen and foremen	21	18
Farmers	9	11
Protective-service workers	3	2
Operatives	5	3
Service worker	4	2
Laborers	37	34

Analysis of Data

The data on the teachers indicated that the sample of teachers in school A had significantly higher average scores on the MTAI than the sample of teachers in school B. The mean, according to the established norms, is thirty-seven. The teachers in school A averaged slightly higher. The teachers in school B were obvervably lower.

The data on the sample of children indicated that the children in school A had significantly higher average scores on the California Test of Personality. Both samples of children scored below the established norms for all children. The fact that these children were from a predominately rural area and a lower socio-economic class may have influenced the scores.

The data did not indicate a relationship between individual teacher's scores and their children's scores and in the sixth grade the children actually had lower scores. The investigator wanted to determine what had happened in this situation. His investigation revealed that in school A, the room tested had all the children that represented the bottom two-thirds of the sixth grade in terms of academic achievement. The top one-third had been put in a combination room of sixth and seventh grade students. This may have given the test scores in school A the negative slant. In school B there were two rooms of sixth grade students and some selection had occurred. The

investigator had been given the better room in which to test. School B had a man teacher in their other sixth grade room and he had been given most of the problem children. The administrator felt he could handle them better. Consequently the investigator could have tested the poorer selection of children in school A and the better selection in school B. This may indicate the resiliency of children to individual teachers, but not to the school's total curriculum.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The problem. The problem was to determine whether a positive relationship existed between curricular experiences and provisions for mental health and the mental health of children. The additional relationships between curricular experiences and provisions for mental health and teachers' attitudes, and between individual teachers and their children were also investigated. Curricular experiences referred to all the experiences which affect the child in his total growth in the school.

The methodology. The methodology involved a selection of schools from a nine county area in central Michigan. The schools selected from this area represented a statistical average school based on the criteria established in the study and the data from the Michigan State Department of Public Instruction for the year 1957-1958. The schools selected were controlled on as many variables as was possible in actual operating elementary school situations.

A questionnaire was developed from the research and literature in the field of mental health and education.

Particular experiences were referred to in the literature and research as being detrimental or beneficial to mental health. It was on the basis of these specific experiences that the items were constructed. The items were evaluated by collegues and qualified individuals in the field of mental health and education. The items were also reviewed in light of the investigator's own experience.

An interview was arranged with all the administrators in the schools that were selected in the nine county area. The questionnaire was answered in the course of the interview. The rooms in the schools were visited and observations pertaining to the questionnaire were recorded.

The two schools selected had much in common with many schools except that in the situation judged good, pupil evaluation was on a much broader base, there were minimum retentions, it was outstanding in the student government activities, and the curriculum included a broader variety of activities. The poor school, on the other hand, had the higher rate of retentions, limited activities for the students outside of the subject areas, and the curriculum provided lesser variety. These two schools represented the extreme positions in the selected sample.

The children were tested for mental health as measured by the California Test of Personality and the entire faculty of the two schools were tested on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory to determine attitudes toward children.

Implications for Administration

The implications for administration could only be made if a causal relationship between the mental health of children and the curriculum is assumed. This study does not provide that evidence. If further studies support this relationship and can eventually show a causal relationship, school administrators will have to re-appraise their methods of evaluating and promoting pupils and providing for individual differences, in terms of their effect on the mental health of children.

Recommendations for Further Study

This study was an exploration into the relationship of the elementary school curriculum and the mental health of children.

There exists the need for further study to collaborate the findings made here.

There exists the need for another study of this nature with different measuring instruments for teachers and children.

Further study should be made by more accurately measuring the total environment of the children.

Finally, an attempt should be made to determine if a causal relationship does exist between certain experiences within the elementary school curriculum and the mental health of children.

The findings. The findings indicated that in these two selected schools the children's scores differed significantly, and that a positive relationship existed between the curriculums and mental health.

The findings on the teachers' scores indicated that these two selected samples differed significantly, and a positive relationship existed between the curriculum and teachers' attitudes.

The findings on the relationships between individual teachers and their children did not prove to be significant in the three grades tested.

Conclusions

The data in this study indicate that there will be differences in attitudes of teachers corresponding to differences of extreme schools in terms of curricular experiences and provisions for mental health. The children will have better mental health in school curriculms with curricular experiences and provisions for mental health than those which do not appear to be conducive to mental health.

From this exploratory study there appears the need for additional research. There is a need for a repetition of this study with another sample of schools, teachers, and children.

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APPENDIX

Elementary • GRADES 4-5-6-7-8 • form AA

California Test of Personality

1953 Revision

Devised by

LOUIS P. THORPE, WILLIS W. CLARK, AND ERNEST W. TIEGS

Do not write or mark on this booklet unless told to do so by the examiner.

(CIRCLE ONE)

Name.....Grade.....Boy Girl

Last First Middle

School.....City.....Date of Test.....

Month Day Year

Examiner.....(.....) Pupil's Age.....Date of Birth.....

Month Day Year

E

INSTRUCTIONS TO PUPILS:

This booklet contains some questions which can be answered YES or NO. Your answers will show what you usually think, how you usually feel, or what you usually do about things. Work as fast as you can without making mistakes.

DO NOT TURN THIS PAGE UNTIL TOLD TO DO SO.

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9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

INSTRUCTIONS TO PUPILS

DO NOT WRITE OR MARK ON THIS TEST BOOKLET UNLESS TOLD TO DO SO BY THE EXAMINER.

You are to decide for each question whether the answer is YES or NO and mark it as you are told. The following are two sample questions:

SAMPLES

A. Do you have a dog at home? **YES NO**

B. Can you ride a bicycle? **YES NO**

DIRECTIONS FOR MARKING ANSWERS

ON ANSWER SHEETS

Make a heavy black mark under the word YES or NO to show your answer. If you have a dog at home, you would mark under the YES for question A as shown below. If you cannot ride a bicycle, you would mark under the NO for question B as shown below.

Remember, you mark under the word that shows your answer. Now find Samples A and B on your answer sheet and show your answer for each by marking YES or NO. Do it now. Find answer row number 1 on your answer sheet. Now wait until the examiner tells you to begin.

ON TEST BOOKLETS

Draw a circle around the word YES or NO, whichever shows your answer. If you have a dog at home, draw a circle around the word YES in Sample A above; if not, draw a circle around the word NO. Do it now.

If you can ride a bicycle, draw a circle around the word YES in Sample B above; if not, draw a circle around the word NO. Do it now.

Now wait until the examiner tells you to begin.

After the examiner tells you to begin, go right on from one page to another until you have finished the test or are told to stop. Work as fast as you can without making mistakes. Now look at item 1 on page 3. Ready, begin.

SECTION 1 A

1. Do you usually keep at your work until it is done? YES NO

2. Do you usually apologize when you are wrong? YES NO

3. Do you help other boys and girls have a good time at parties? YES NO

4. Do you usually believe what other boys or girls tell you? YES NO

5. Is it easy for you to recite or talk in class? YES NO

6. When you have some free time, do you usually ask your parents or teacher what to do? YES NO

7. Do you usually go to bed on time, even when you wish to stay up? YES NO

8. Is it hard to do your work when someone blames you for something? YES NO

9. Can you often get boys and girls to do what you want them to? YES NO

10. Do your parents or teachers usually need to tell you to do your work? YES NO

11. If you are a boy, do you talk to new girls? If you are a girl, do you talk to new boys ? YES NO

12. Would you rather plan your own work than to have someone else plan it for you? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT COLUMN

Section 1 A
(number right) .....

SECTION 1 B

13. Do your friends generally think that your ideas are good? YES NO

14. Do people often do nice things for you? YES NO

15. Do you wish that your father (or mother) had a better job? YES NO

16. Are your friends and classmates usually interested in the things you do? YES NO

17. Do your classmates seem to think that you are not a good friend? YES NO

18. Do your friends and classmates often want to help you? YES NO

19. Are you sometimes cheated when you trade things? YES NO

20. Do your classmates and friends usually feel that they know more than you do? YES NO

21. Do your folks seem to think that you are doing well? YES NO

22. Can you do most of the things you try? YES NO

23. Do people often think that you cannot do things very well? YES NO

24. Do most of your friends and classmates think you are bright? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

Section 1 B
(number right) .....

SECTION 1 C

25. Do you feel that your folks boss you too much? YES NO

26. Are you allowed enough time to play? YES NO

27. May you usually bring your friends home when you want to? YES NO

28. Do others usually decide to which parties you may go? YES NO

29. May you usually do what you want to during your spare time? YES NO

30. Are you prevented from doing most of the things you want to? YES NO

31. Do your folks often stop you from going around with your friends? YES NO

32. Do you have a chance to see many new things? YES NO

33. Are you given some spending money? YES NO

34. Do your folks stop you from taking short walks with your friends? YES NO

35. Are you punished for lots of little things? YES NO

36. Do some people try to rule you so much that you don't like it? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT COLUMN

Section 1 C
(number right) .....

SECTION 1 D

37. Do pets and animals make friends with you easily? YES NO

38. Are you proud of your school? YES NO

39. Do your classmates think you cannot do well in school? YES NO

40. Are you as well and strong as most boys and girls? YES NO

41. Are your cousins, aunts, uncles, or grandparents as nice as those of most of your friends? YES NO

42. Are the members of your family usually good to you? YES NO

43. Do you often think that nobody likes you? YES NO

44. Do you feel that most of your classmates are glad that you are a member of the class? YES NO

45. Do you have just a few friends? YES NO

46. Do you often wish you had some other parents? YES NO

47. Is it hard to find friends who will keep your secrets? YES NO

48. Do the boys and girls usually invite you to their parties? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

Section 1 D
(number right) .....

SECTION 1 E

49. Have people often been so unfair that you gave up? YES NO

50. Would you rather stay away from most parties? YES NO

51. Does it make you shy to have everyone look at you when you enter a room? YES NO

52. Are you often greatly discouraged about many things that are important to you? YES NO

53. Do your friends or your work often make you worry? YES NO

54. Is your work often so hard that you stop trying? YES NO

55. Are people often so unkind or unfair that it makes you feel bad? YES NO

56. Do your friends or classmates often say or do things that hurt your feelings? YES NO

57. Do people often try to cheat you or do mean things to you? YES NO

58. Are you often with people who have so little interest in you that you feel lonesome? YES NO

59. Are your studies or your life so dull that you often think about many other things? YES NO

60. Are people often mean or unfair to you? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT COLUMN

Section 1 E
(number right) .....

SECTION 1 F

61. Do you often have dizzy spells? YES NO

62. Do you often have bad dreams? YES NO

63. Do you often bite your fingernails? YES NO

64. Do you seem to have more headaches than most children? YES NO

65. Is it hard for you to keep from being restless much of the time? YES NO

66. Do you often find you are not hungry at meal time? YES NO

67. Do you catch cold easily? YES NO

68. Do you often feel tired before noon? YES NO

69. Do you believe that you have more bad dreams than most of the boys and girls? YES NO

70. Do you often feel sick to your stomach? YES NO

71. Do you often have sneezing spells? YES NO

72. Do your eyes hurt often? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

Section 1 F
(number right) .....

SECTION 2 A

73. Is it all right to cheat in a game when the umpire is not looking? YES NO

74. Is it all right to disobey teachers if you think they are not fair to you? YES NO

75. Should one return things to people who won't return things they borrow? YES NO

76. Is it all right to take things you need if you have no money? YES NO

77. Is it necessary to thank those who have helped you? YES NO

78. Do children need to obey their fathers or mothers even when their friends tell them not to? YES NO

79. If a person finds something, does he have a right to keep it or sell it? YES NO

80. Do boys and girls need to do what their teachers say is right? YES NO

81. Should boys and girls ask their parents for permission to do things? YES NO

82. Should children be nice to people they don't like? YES NO

83. Is it all right for children to cry or whine when their parents keep them home from a show? YES NO

84. When people get sick or are in trouble, is it usually their own fault? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT COLUMN

Section 2 A
(number right) .....

SECTION 2 B

85. Do you let people know you are right no matter what they say? YES NO

86. Do you try games at parties even if you haven't played them before? YES NO

87. Do you help new pupils to talk to other children? YES NO

88. Does it make you feel angry when you lose in games at parties? YES NO

89. Do you usually help other boys and girls have a good time? YES NO

90. Is it hard for you to talk to people as soon as you meet them? YES NO

91. Do you usually act friendly to people you do not like? YES NO

92. Do you often change your plans in order to help people? YES NO

93. Do you usually forget the names of people you meet? YES NO

94. Do the boys and girls seem to think you are nice to them? YES NO

95. Do you usually keep from showing your temper when you are angry? YES NO

96. Do you talk to new children at school? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

Section 2 B
(number right) .....

SECTION 2 C

97. Do you like to scare or push smaller boys and girls? YES NO

98. Have unfair people often said that you made trouble for them? YES NO

99. Do you often make friends or classmates do things they don't want to? YES NO

100. Is it hard to make people remember how well you can do things? YES NO

101. Do people often act so mean that you have to be nasty to them? YES NO

102. Do you often have to make a "fuss" or "act up" to get what you deserve? YES NO

103. Is anyone at school so mean that you tear, or cut, or break things? YES NO

104. Are people often so unfair that you lose your temper? YES NO

105. Is someone at home so mean that you often have to quarrel? YES NO

106. Do you sometimes need something so much that it is all right to take it? YES NO

107. Do classmates often quarrel with you? YES NO

108. Do people often ask you to do such hard or foolish things that you won't do them? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT COLUMN

Section 2 C
(number right) .....

SECTION 2 D

109. Do your folks seem to think that you are just as good as they are? YES NO

110. Do you have a hard time because it seems that your folks hardly ever have enough money? YES NO

111. Are you unhappy because your folks do not care about the things you like? YES NO

112. When your folks make you mind are they usually nice to you about it? YES NO

113. Do your folks often claim that you are not as nice to them as you should be? YES NO

114. Do you like both of your parents about the same? YES NO

115. Do you feel that your folks fuss at you instead of helping you? YES NO

116. Do you sometimes feel like running away from home? YES NO

117. Do you try to keep boys and girls away from your home because it isn't as nice as theirs? YES NO

118. Does it seem to you that your folks at home often treat you mean? YES NO

119. Do you feel that no one at home loves you? YES NO

120. Do you feel that too many people at home try to boss you? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

Section 2 D
(number right) .....

SECTION 2 E

121. Do you think that the boys and girls at school like you as well as they should? YES NO

122. Do you think that the children would be happier if the teacher were not so strict? YES NO

123. Is it fun to do nice things for some of the other boys or girls? YES NO

124. Is school work so hard that you are afraid you will fail? YES NO

125. Do your schoolmates seem to think that you are nice to them? YES NO

126. Does it seem to you that some of the teachers "have it in for" pupils? YES NO

127. Do many of the children get along with the teacher much better than you do? YES NO

128. Would you like to stay home from school a lot if it were right to do so? YES NO

129. Are most of the boys and girls at school so bad that you try to stay away from them? YES NO

130. Have you found that some of the teachers do not like to be with the boys and girls? YES NO

131. Do many of the other boys or girls claim that they play games more fairly than you do? YES NO

132. Are the boys and girls at school usually nice to you? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT COLUMN

Section 2 E
(number right) .....

SECTION 2 F

133. Do you visit many of the interesting places near where you live? YES NO

134. Do you think there are too few interesting places near your home? YES NO

135. Do you sometimes do things to make the place in which you live look nicer? YES NO

136. Do you ever help clean up things near your home? YES NO

137. Do you take good care of your own pets or help with other people's pets? YES NO

138. Do you sometimes help other people? YES NO

139. Do you try to get your friends to obey the laws? YES NO

140. Do you help children keep away from places where they might get sick? YES NO

141. Do you dislike many of the people who live near your home? YES NO

142. Is it all right to do what you please if the police are not around? YES NO

143. Does it make you glad to see the people living near you get along fine? YES NO

144. Would you like to have things look better around your home? YES NO

STOP NOW WAIT FOR FURTHER INSTRUCTIONS

Section 2 F
(number right) .....

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