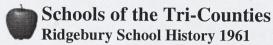
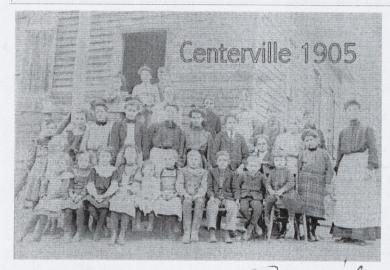
# Tri-Counties Genealogy & History Sites by Joyce M. Ticel







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Souvenir School Booklets

Ridgebury Township Page

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This article is taken from the 1961 Smithsonian-

The Yearbook for the

Smithfield/Ulster/Ridgebury Joint School

a

Ridgebury Township Schools

Ridgebury was constituted a township in 1818; parts were taken from Athens and Wells Townships. The early settlers were largely of English descent and were mostly from Connecticut, New Jersey, and eastern New York.

The name "Ridgeberry" grew out of the name of Samuel Bennett's farm, a place of ridges and berry bushes, which was located east of Centerville.

We don't exactly know how the first school came to be organized, but from the old minutes of the school board we find that a schoolhouse was built when the people of a neighborhood could get together, find a teacher, and a place to have school and maintain a school for three months.

By 1837 there appears to have been five full districts and one-half district. In 1841 Sodom was "sot off" to Smithfield Township.

The early schoolhouses and facilities were similar to those in other districts in our area. They were framed buildings usually with six windows, three on each side, and a front door. The first desks were hand made and were for two children. A chunk stove in the middle of the room heated the scholars nearest to it very well, while those further away froze or moved nearer the stove in the coldest weather. There were always handy blocks of wood to sit on; a bench usually ran around the room on three sides. As the building was often the only meeting place of the community, except for the stores and taverns, preaching services, singing schools, and socials were often held in the schoolhouse. Water was carried from a near-by spring in a pail, and passing the water with the pail and dipper was a coveted treat for the scholars. A typical school lunch would include a baking powder biscuit with black molasses, pancakes, and fried pork rinds.

The job of building the early schools was let to local handy men for about \$20 per school. There is no record of any purchase of lumber, or fixtures, so they must have been contributed by the neighborhood.

There were three months of summer school and three months of winter school. In summer the younger children went and the teachers were usually women. They received from \$12 to \$15 for the three months term and "boarded around" unless they lived in the neighborhood. In the winter a very different situation prevailed. About the middle of December after the potatoes were dug, the corn husked, the butchering chores done, the homespun woven, and the family clothed for winter, there was a lull in life on the farm; and the older boys and girls could be spared to go to school. Then the teachers were usually men; they had to be big enough or compelling enough to handle the big boys and girls who often were 17, 18, or 19 years old. They received as much as \$30 to \$50 for teaching three months, depending on the size of the boys and their ability

to drive a bargain. The boys usually sat on the north side of the schoolhouse and the girls on the south side. The land was usually given for school purposes until such times as it would be no longer used as such; then it reverted to the former owner or his heirs. Somewhere along the line, probably in the 1890's, books began to be furnished by the township and paid for with public moneys.

In 1840-42 the Irish immigrants came into the township. The men worked on the North Branch Canal from Tioga Point (Athens) to Sunbury. There was such an increase of population that three schools were built on the east side of the township, the Cain, the Chapel, and the Desmond Schools. We find a note in the minutes of the school board about this time that no teacher shall be hired who doesn't have a thorough knowledge of the English language, and all classes shall be conducted in English.

Teachers were examined by members of the school board as to their general knowledge and their ability to teach. Certain directors were hired to inspect the schools and report to the board at stated intervals. The usual report was that the director "found the school in a prosperous condition with (a certain number of pupils) present. " Sometimes a lack of books was mentioned.

About 1880 the old school building at Bentley Creek was condemned and a new two-room school building was built. By 1900, there were sixteen schools in operation in the township; soon after this, schools began to be closed and children transported. The jobs of transportation were let to the lowest bidder, usually for \$100 to \$140 for the year. The wagons must have the ends of the seats protected so children could not fall out and plenty of robes, blankets, and soapstones were to be furnished to keep children comfortable in cold weather. Seven months of school were held at this time, beginning about September 1. Teachers received about \$35 to \$50 per month.

In 1908 Ridgebury's only high school was built at Centerville at a cost of about \$3000. Two years of high school were held there besides two rooms of elementary grades until 1919. Ada VonWolfradt was the last high school teacher. The levy of school tax, had, by this, time, climbed to ten mills.

We find in 1909 that teachers must have at least three years of experience before they could be hired in the township. The school library came into being about this time. At first, the library usually consisted of a few volumes contributed by parents.

By 1924, there were only five teachers hired in the township. One room was open at Centerville, one at Bentley Creek, the South Grove, Hanlon Hill, and Desmond Schools. About then the length of the term climbed to eight months.

A Mother's Club was formed at Bentley Creek and a Community Club at Centerville in the late 1940's. This grew into a P.T.A. at Bentley Greek about 1949. In 1952 only two schools remained in operation--one at Bentley Creek and one at Centerville, It was in this year that both schools were condemned, and after careful study it was thought best to build a new building as there was a building boom in Ridgebury at that time. In 1953, a new building built along modern lines and costing \$118,000 was erected near the site of the old Baldwintown School, geographically about the center of the township. Four, rooms and a multi-purpose room were built, and students moved into the new building in January 1954. A trailer park came into the township, and the building of homes continued. In 1958, four rooms were added. The township became the second fastest growing township in the county, with a school enrollment of about 250 pupils in kindergarten through sixth grade.

Ridgebury Township formed a jointure with Smithfield Township on July 1, 1950 and on July 1, 1953, Smithfield, Ridgebury, and Ulster Townships formed a jointure with the high school at East Smithfield.

Ridgebury Township is now one large community with much the same interests throughout instead of the sixteen small school centers of a century and a half ago.







Bentley Creek School shutting the door for the last eimt - January 1954



Five year old Jennie Miller is last in line in this 1900 Ridgebury School Photo

You are the 781stvisitor to the Ridgebury School Page since the counter was installed on 23 December 2000

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## INTRODUCTION

This portfolio of Elementary School Classrooms is the first of a series of school building portfolios designed to cover specialized features of school building planning. The attempt has been made to present a cross section of planning of elementary classrooms as it has been carried on throughout the nation. In the selection of illustrations advice of state school superintendents, architects, and others interested in education has been sought. The plans included here represent a wide range of philosophies of education, as well as of adjustment of school plant to meet the needs of such philosophies.

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POSSIBLE USES OF THE PORTFOLIO

To assist educators and architects in the use of this portfolio, an elementary classroom check list, an index to outstanding features of the plans, and a bibliography of recent references on elementary school buildings are included. A review of these materials will leave the impression that an elementary classroom can be adequately planned only after thorough study of the needs of teacher and pupils and of the kinds of educational programs that are to be carried on.

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Every state in the Union is represented in this collection of classroom plans. There has been no effort to characterize any of the plans as the best produced in any state. Most of the plans are plans of classrooms which have recently been incorporated in school buildings and they therefore reflect some degree of adjustment to present-day

In the majority of cases, each plate carries a floor plan, an elevation, and a detailed drawing of a special feature of a classroom, or their equivalents. The architects' notes have been condensed from statements which the architects or, in some cases, school officials have made about characteristics of the classrooms which might be of interest to those

planning new elementary buildings.

Among the plates are classrooms with dimensions determined on the basis of a minimum number of square feet for each child of prospective enrollment. Some classrooms have merely traditional chalkboard and bulletin board equipment. In other instances, there has been a maximum of adaptation to pupil and teacher needs. Storage spaces, locker spaces, extensive display boards, lavatories, and many other features are indications of this expansion of functional planning. In many cases workrooms adjoin classrooms and are equipped with benches, sink, and tool and supply cabinets. Other evidences of the desire on the part of planners to meet the real needs of the teaching and pupil groups are to be found. Apparently, in many cases, teachers themselves have participated in the original planning, and thus the rooms have become petter laboratories for children as well as for eachers.

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The check list will afford the opportunity of checking against the general philosphy which will control the teaching process. In the check list will be found many classroom features that have already been incorporated into plans, as well as suggestions that have come out of professional group thinking concerning what elementary classrooms should be like. Any group planning classrooms for an elementary school might use this check list in various ways. They might check the items in this list which they consider essential for their programs. On the other hand, they might use this check list as the basis for a new check list which would be the result of their own discussions and conferences and which might include items above and beyond the ones incorporated here.

As the check list is being used, opportunity will be afforded for instructing architects in the philosophy of education which the educators seek to follow, as well as in the nature of the curriculum and the methods of instruction to be employed. The time spent on this initial phase of planning usually brings splendid results, for it enables educators and architects to get a common understanding of the evolution that is taking place in elementary education and of the desirable variations from traditional practices which will meet local needs.

Superintendents of schools and boards of education will find it advantageous to use the plates of this portfolio, as well as the index, in their discussions of the elementary facilities which are to be planned. Opportunity should be afforded school board members to study the plates of classrooms that have already been constructed. Plates 76-80 represent classrooms not as yet built but proposed by educational groups who have studied in detail

elementary classroom needs. Boards of education should be encouraged to discuss the contrasting features of these plates and should be informed concerning the kinds of programs that might be carried on in the different types of rooms. This intensive study will provide a splendid supplement to visits to classrooms and might even be a substitute for widespread visitation for observation of classroom characteristics. In fact, the national scope of the portfolio gives a more extensive overview of what has happened in the nation than is possible through visitation on the part of most people.

A further step in local planning might be the production of new layouts for elementary class-rooms by teachers in a school system. These could be used as a basis of discussion between board members, the administrative staff, teaching groups, and the architect in advance of the actual planning of a school. Frequently, when a new school building is used for the first time, teachers who have not participated in the plan are critical of what has been incorporated in their rooms. If such conferences were held at the very beginning of the planning of a new school, the architect could begin his work with a definite knowledge of what was to be done, and criticism of subsequent users, based on non-participation in the planning, would be avoided.

Those participating in the planning should also be encouraged to read widely in the bibliography. For instance, much can be gained from the bulletin on schoolhousing needs of young children developed in 1939 by the Association for Childhood Education, under the leadership of Dr. Jean Betzner. In this bulletin are to be found suggestions from teachers concerning their functional needs. It is apparent that when teachers are consulted concerning the features to be included in a school building, the resulting classroom plan will vary considerably from what the architect himself conceives as desirable, or from what state law or regulation establishes as essential. A perusal of this bulletin, as well as of other bibliographical materials, will help teachers to discover the kind of progress that is being made in their fields of work and the relationship between the environment provided for children and the kinds of programs that can be carried on.

#### A SAMPLE OF GROUP PLANNING

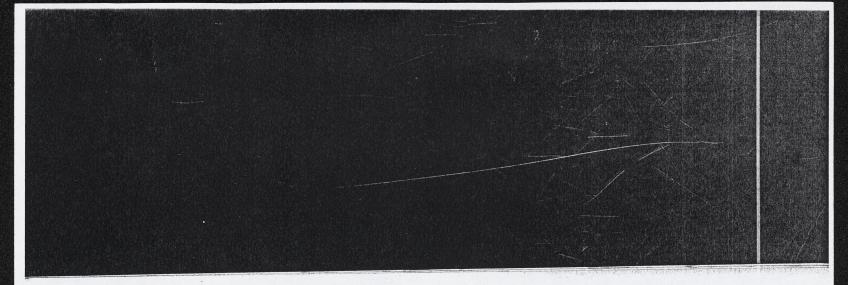
Plate 80 represents a classroom drawn as a result to hold mixed clay in jars, easel paints, scissors, of group discussion in the Utah State Agricultural paste, and other needed art supplies. These cab-

College Training School. This group planned a room and made the following observations:

"'A good workman deserves good tools' and adequate space outfitted for his particular kind of work. The learner in the field should have no less. Besides being useful a schoolroom can have qualities of interest, beauty, and uniqueness.

"The classroom space, the principal working place for large group enterprises, can be equipped with modern movable individual desks and tables and chairs for small groups. These can be grouped in working combinations, or they can be pushed aside for rhythms and other activities. The fireplace will be attractive with mantle to hold artistic bric-a-brac, and with a wall space for a large mirror and choice pictures. The rug in front makes a pleasant homelike place for intimate confidences, and for sharing plans, experiences, stories, and poems. The shelves on either side hold books for all types of research, literature for pleasure reading, and sufficient textbooks for drill in skills. Near-by are teacher and student filing cabinets for records, classified information, pictures, and maps. The piano and radio-victrola, with an abundance of records, encourage listening, singing, creative music, and rhythms. In addition to shared cupboards, each child has a separate locker for his belongings. The large doors of glass and the low spacious windows extend this room's services onto the terrace, and into the gardens, pet pens, playgrounds, and the world beyond.

"Four outside doors, one a service entrance, eliminate possibilities of congestion when groups enter and leave, and thus lessen wear and tear on nerves of children and adults. Children coming in from outdoors hang their wraps in the wardrobe and store play equipment and lunches in proper cupboards. The basins, mirrors, and individual toilet supplies encourage attention to personal attractiveness. The kitchen unit with cupboards, sink, stove, work surfaces, and utensils invites culinary experimenting and the serving of lunches, refreshments, and even whole meals. Easily accessible cupboards hold cleaning paraphernalia for children's housekeeping. A partial partition of this workroom is made by two movable cabinets on one side, and a large work table on the other. One cabinet has storage space for various sizes and kinds of paper and finished pictures. The other has a shallow tray top and bottom cupboard space to hold mixed clay in jars, easel paints, scissors,



inets with movable easels make it possible for art groups to work in any part of the building, on the terrace, or on the grounds.

"The slight elevation of the platform extends the usability of the classroom and at the same time sets it apart for dramatic play with the classroom section serving for the audience floor. Curtains and the wardrobe closet supply additional dramatic needs. Besides serving as stage, this end may quarter those interested in experimenting with scientific apparatus, those following the growth of plants or watching the behavior of animals, and those carrying on building activities. The museum case may hold children's specimens and collections as they are brought in. The accumulated articles provide firsthand material for casual illustration, and stimulate new and further research.

"Thus the classroom, the workroom, and the platform may be used as separate parts to serve the needs of groups engaged in many different types of work, or at other times the three parts may be used as a whole to serve the needs of larger groups."

#### INDEX OF OUTSTANDING FEATURES

All features of all classrooms have not been included in the plates of this portfolio. The architects' notes supplement the drawings. In instances they indicate the color schemes, the acoustical treatment, the placement of radiation and ventilating units, the location of clocks, and other service facilities. The index summarizes not only the things incorporated in the plans but also the items mentioned in the architects' notes. Ready reference is given to all types of classroom features where a comprehensive review is sought.

#### COSTS AND NEEDS

The cost of a classroom always affects the features that can be incorporated. As elementary school buildings are being planned in school systems the struggle between economy of space and determination of space requirements on a functional basis will constantly arise. The space needed for pupils' desks and seats, with sufficient aisle space for circulation, has frequently in the past determined the size of classrooms. Boxes have been provided in the desks for the storage of books and materials. Classrooms have followed a rectangular shape and unilateral lighting has predominated because of the character of the building plan. These characteristics of classrooms are not necessarily good because they have been universally followed.

Often such classrooms are built to conform to rigid state requirements of size, lighting, and the like. In the future state laws and regulations should be more general in nature and less restrictive in details. If education in a democracy is to advance, reasonable freedom must be allowed the local communities not only in their experimentations in curriculum and teaching method, but also in devising the school building spaces which will most definitely further the aims upon which the locality and its professional educational workers have agreed.

# CHANGING NATURE OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

The question may well be raised as to what changes will be found in a similiar portfolio produced twenty years hence. It is clear that ideas of pupil-teacher relationships are changing. It is also evident that the relationship of pupil to subject matter is undergoing considerable revision. Activity educational programs are bringing about the idea that the classroom is a laboratory. More and more the effort is being made to give the classroom an attractive, livable atmosphere in which the elements of democratic procedures can be given full play. As this trend continues, the classroom will undergo further change. Not only will safety, sanitation, good lighting, both natural and artificial, and student and teacher comfort be used as criteria in planning, but human relationships and the learning processes themselves will play greater roles in future planning.

#### THE COMMUNITY CENTERED SCHOOL

The rapidly growing concept of the school as a community center suggests the need for planning classrooms even in the elementary school for wider use than for children alone. Many adult educational needs can be satisfied in elementary schools. There are many occasions when parents and their children might well be working together in the workrooms or classrooms of elementary schools. There is a distinct advantage in having educational spaces planned so that a full-day use of school plant may result. Some of the plates included here are illustrations of the way in which classrooms may be planned as parts of community schools.

### THE PLANNING OF OTHER PORTFOLIOS

The portfolios which follow this one will be concerned with secondary school classrooms, and with special rooms of various kinds that are com-

can portray ideas with simple lines or stick figures sufficiently well to convey impressions graphically. This skill may require a little practice, but it certainly should be acquired.

To make effectual use of the blackboard: (1) Keep it clean. (2) Be sure all the children can see the material. (3) Avoid glare (looking at it from the children's position). (4) Make material legible. (5) Do not hesitate to use the ruler, compass, or other guide when necessary. (6) Stand so that children can see what you are writing, or work quickly and step aside. (7) Do not have too much on the board at one time. (8) Save space, if necessary, by using mimeographed or dittoed sheets for certain exercises.

Picture the children in the primary room of a two-room school in a small community. They are seated on the floor in front of a radio. At 1:30 the teacher sets the dial and a voice, familiar to them by this time, introduces the storyteller and the story "The Five Chinese Boys." They settle themselves for a period of real enjoyment. As the plot unfolds, their attention and facial expressions show their interest. At the close, they voice their opinions in a lively discussion; some draw pictures of the story's scenes; a dramatization is planned. Some have objects from China which they offer to bring. This type of experience is repeated over and over in all types of school and in many fields of subject matter.

"Educators have come to realize that radio marks an advance in education comparable only to that brought about by the invention of printing."

These suggestions should assist in utilizing the radio:

- 1. Arrange the day's program so that the broadcast ties in with the regular work.
- 2. Use the guides sent by stations in planning the radio teaching.
- 3. Prepare the pupils for listening to broadcasts by means of pictures, discussion, reading, and otherwise.
- 4. Enrich the broadcast by the use of other visual aids, such as maps or pictures. Point to pertinent places on a map or show related pictures as the broadcast is heard.
- 5. Follow the broadcast with discussion, drawing, investigation, construction, or other activities that may fit the broadcast and the day's program.

6. Assign reports on programs broadcast in out-of-school hours. Follow these with reports and discussions in school.

7. Organize school broadcasts both actual and imaginary. This requires careful preparation. Such broadcasts may be of the following types: a straight talk; an interview, panel, or round table discussion; an on-the-spot report, a quiz bee, a classroom pickup forum, or debate, a dramatization, a program of music, or a demonstration lesson.<sup>1</sup>

Among sources of information on programs are local radio station weekly schedules and the *Journal of the AER* (Association for Education by Radio).<sup>2</sup> Several of the large school systems, state departments of education, and university-owned radio stations issue program logs, station schedules, and utilization handbooks which are of value to those schools within the areas of "coverage."

Recordings have advantages over the radio as an audio aid. They can be (1) previewed, (2) repeated, (3) stopped at any place and discussed, (4) used at any time, (5) made in the school room and kept.

Recordings were used first in schools to teach music, and they continue to be thoroughly effective for this purpose (see p. 571). They contribute much to rhythmic expression and to games. Recordings are used to improve speech; others are available which test knowledge of the basic facts of addition and subtraction;<sup>4</sup> still others bring to the children bird calls and the sounds of jungle life.

Unbreakable records are now made which add to the possibility of children's using the phonograph independently. Wire and tape recordings are very satisfactory if the equipment is available. There is no breakage and the wire or tape can be cleared and used again and again.

Audio-visual aids may be used in *testing* and *evaluating* the results of teaching in several of its aspects.

1. Audio-visual aids may be used for testing in content and tool subjects. Mention has been made of the use of phonograph records for testing arithmetic knowledge. Other uses are: using test questions in

<sup>1</sup>Levenson, W. B. *Teaching Through Radio*, p. 48. Farrar and Rinehart. 1945. Adapted. Levenson also (p. 141) lists sources of information about programs.

<sup>2</sup> Published monthly (except June, July, August). 228 N. LaSalle St., Chicago, Illinois.

<sup>3</sup> One is the *News Letter* published monthly, except June, July, August, and September, by the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

<sup>4</sup> Developed by E. L. Ritter. Obtained from J. S. Latta and Son, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Miller, R. W. "Through Radio," Using Audio-Visual Materials with Children, p. 25. Association for Childhood Education, Washington, D. C., 1947.

the school's standpoint. The explanation is usually meager, and the depth of understanding generally required is over the heads of most elementary-school children. Nevertheless elementary-school pupils should begin to acquire a certain familiarity with such commonly used representations as Uncle Sam symbolizing the United States and John Bull representing England.

The *poster* can be teacher-made or pupil-made, or obtained from some agency outside the school. Its purpose is to emphasize some one idea forcefully, and it is not necessary that every pupil in a room make a poster. It is better to have a few posters made for the purpose intended and displayed in a conspicuous place. (For further suggestions see p. 624.)

Maps vary in kind. Children should begin with very simple maps of their environment, which they may make on the floor. A road map is easily obtained and has interest because of the children's travel over the familiar highways pictured on it. Children in grades above the primary should be familiar with the "air-age" maps and their use. Of course, the globe conveys more accurate impressions of the world than flat maps.

Charts are classified by Dale<sup>1</sup> as follows:

1. Time charts show time sequence, such as railroad timetables.

2. Stream or tree charts, such as a family tree or a river system, depict development or growth.

3. Organization charts represent by rectangles (sometimes circles), lines, and arrows the functional relationships within an organization, such as the United States Government.

4. Comparison and Contrast charts tell a summarized story by the simple device of showing two or more sets of data in column form.

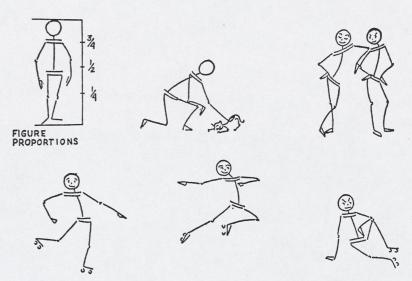
5. Pupil Achievement or Progress charts record and may show the work of each child in column or line form. Most teachers use these as incentives for stimulating pupil effort.

6. Direction or Guidance charts present, in simple statement or outline, certain directions for the pupils to understand and follow. The reader will find this type of chart in subsequent sections of this book. (See "Charts" in Index.)

Graphs can vitalize statistics and give them a direct appeal. In presenting information in this manner to children, the simplest form should be used first, such as different-sized baskets of corn to show

the amounts raised in different years. The baskets may be changed to bars later. It is essential that the data be accurate always. If they are taught how to make graphs properly, children will read graphs more readily and give them more attention when they appear in books. (See pp. 388-389.)

*Diagrams* are frequently used both in teaching and in the explanations given by pupils who may, for example, thus demonstrate relationships in the solution of arithmetic problems or in a scientific experiment. Colored chalk often increases the value of diagrams on the blackboard. This is one of the ways in which the blackboard functions as a visual aid.



Blackboards are accepted equipment in elementary-school class-rooms. Perhaps because they are so common, their value as a vivid means by which to present certain types of audio-visual teaching has not been sufficiently realized. They are a vital part of group instruction. They may be used by teachers and pupils alike. The bodily action connected with their use tends to focus group attention. Finally, the materials employed may be quickly and easily changed.

Many teachers hesitate to make sketches and illustrations on the blackboard because they lack drawing ability. Almost anyone, however, if he looks at objects carefully and perceives the general outline,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Op. cit., pp. 287-288. Adapted.

manner for that reason. Filmstrips for use in many fields of teaching, such as nature study, social studies, and literature, are available.

The opaque projector enlarges on a screen any flat nontransparent object or printed material. The room needs to be quite dark and the projector is rather cumbersome, but it has many advantages. It is excellent for group teaching on any level. On the lower level, for example, it can show experience reading charts or the pictures pertaining to a unit (e.g. different kinds of leaves gathered); and on the higher levels, pupils may be shown maps of areas for comparison, graphs in arithmetic, pictures of life in different regions, pupils' English work for discussion, creative work for enjoyment, and tests.

The *microprojector* is a way of projecting small images in enlarged forms on a screen by means of an attachment applied to a microscope.

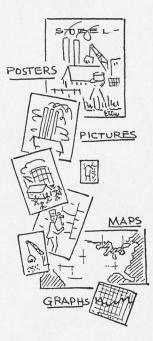
From early times *pictures* or *drawings* have been used to convey ideas. Those most commonly used for teaching purposes now are photographs and the different kinds of prints.

Photographs and prints are easily obtained from many sources and are usually not expensive. Some teachers delight in using their cameras to obtain shots for school use. Magazines and newspapers often contain suitable photographs. Sets of views pertaining to units and topics may be procured from commercial organizations, and some industrial concerns, especially transportation companies, send out splendid material. The illustrations in textbooks are usually an integral part of the content, and the children should realize this and "read" the pictures in connection with the text matter. Every teacher needs a file (if nothing more than a cardboard carton) in which to keep pictures ready for use. Numbering each picture also helps, for the number can be filed under several field categories and topics in connection with which the picture may be used. Teachers would do well to keep these standards in mind when they select pictures for specific purposes:

- 1. Are they good pictures from the standpoint of focus, arrangement, artistry?
- 2. Will they increase knowledge or affect attitude?
- 3. Are they true to conditions with which pupils should become familiar?
- 4. Do they depict a typical aspect of an area or topic and not an an exceptional case?

There are gradations in the manner in which children "read pictures. They may (1) simply name the objects seen, (2) describe what is happening (in an action picture), or (3) explain what it means.

Much could be said concerning the use of pictures under different conditions. The entire class as a group may view a picture, or it may be passed from child to child if it is not projected. It may be posted on the bulletin board or placed on the reading table.



Young children may use pictures (1) to organize information in a scrapbook, such as classifying and mounting pictures of farm buildings, livestock, machinery, and crops; (2) to illustrate experience reading lessons, (3) to illustrate number concepts. Older pupils may use them to illustrate notebooks, to show customs and clothing of other periods and people, and show scenery of different regions.

Graphic materials, such as cartoons, posters, maps, charts, graphs, and diagrams, are not as objective as other materials discussed but are often sufficient for clarification.

The cartoon aims to influence the reader by an appeal to his emotions. Consequently it may be desirable or undesirable depending on

1. Films which are selected and shown should clearly relate to materials being studied. Pupils should not be compelled to view a film which does not directly enrich their subject-matter

2. Every film should be previewed before it is shown to the children. 3. Manuals and guides accompanying the films should be studied and their suggestions used.

4. The teacher should prepare children for viewing a film by: a. setting the background, as one would motivate any other type of lesson,

b. presenting and explaining any new words, if it is a silent film,

c. making other necessary explanations,

d. assuring a good showing (no waste of time in setting up and adjusting the machine),

e. following the first showing with discussion and questions, f. supplementing with other materials such as objects, pic-

tures, charts,

g. reshowing the film, perhaps even a third time, if there are enough unanswered questions or parts not clear,

h. relating the film to the unit or subject being studied,

i. checking with lists of questions to see what pupils have gained. (This also helps them realize that the movie is an integral part of teaching.)

The still picture—and this term includes the stereograph, the different kinds of slides, the filmstrip, photographs and prints, and the projections of the opaque projector—is more versatile and more practical than motion pictures.

The stereograph gives pupils the feeling of reality as they look through the stereoscope at the three-dimensional views. The stereoscope is not expensive and the views are plentiful. Often only one picture is needed to make clear the size of the redwood trees or the height of the Rockies. The "blinders" on the frame make it easy to imagine that one is on the location looking directly at the objects in the picture.

Slides can be purchased or made by the teacher or children. They

may be used (1) to stimulate interest in a subject, (2) to make clear or emphasize points during periods of discussion or study, (3) to review a unit of work, (4) to aid pupils in presenting a topic, (5) to give pupils standards with which to compare their work, (6) to project a picture or map on a large sheet of manila paper or blackboard so that it and additional features may be drawn over the projection.

Dent offers good advice for teaching the child how to look at the slides:2

- 1. The child should recognize such technical points as finding a known element with which to compare height, size, or distance of new
- 2. He should acquire the ability to determine the perspective of the view; whether it is close up, as of a flower; at a distance, as of a mountain peak; or from above, below, or on the same level.
- 3. He should see the picture as a whole and never lose the meaning by taking it apart.
- 4. He should only be guided by his teacher—not told what to see.

Filmstrips are a series of still pictures in film form. They are small rolls, easily filed, stored, or shipped. They may be black and white or in color. They may be purchased or school-made. Photographs or illustrations, such as charts, maps, cartoons, and drawings, may be made into filmstrips. If the filmstrip is composed entirely of pictures, oral explanations may accompany the showing, or explanations may alternate with pictures on the filmstrip. Sound filmstrips are also available.

Filmstrips can be shown through a regular filmstrip projector or, with an attachment, through a slide projector. The room does not need to be completely darkened, and discussions proceed in a livelier

ferring pictures or printed matter to the glass. Colored pencils come in sets of six and cost about \$.50 per set. These slides may be cleaned with a kitchen cleaning powder. The dry glass may be cleaned with an ordinary eraser. (3) Lumarith slides: This material withstands heat. It comes in sheets about 20×50 inches (priced approximately \$.55 to \$1.50, depending on the weight) and can be cut into pieces with scissors or paper cutter. It is furnished by the Celluloid Corporation, 290 Ferry Street, Newark, New Jersey.

Directions for making slides are given in Dent, E. C., The Audio-Visual Handbook, pp. 56-68, Society for Visual Education, Inc., 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago, 1942.

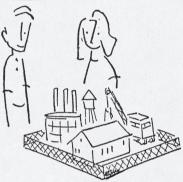
<sup>2</sup> Ibid., p. 70. Adapted.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Directions for making slides: (1) Ordinary glass slides: Children draw pictures or print words on paper in an area 21/4 × 3 inches. Lay a slide or piece of good window glass 31/4 × 4 inches over the drawing or printed matter. Trace the picture or words on the glass with India ink. Let the ink dry. Slides used frequently should have the tracing covered with a cover glass and both pieces bound around the edges with binding tape. If permanency is not desired the ink may be washed off and the glass used again. Pictures cut freehand from lightweight paper, black or a color which will not allow the projector light to pass through, may be pasted on the slide. (Use a cover glass if obtainable.) The result will be a silhouette on the screen. (2) Etched glass slides: Follow the above directions except that colored pencils may be used for trans-

manner children may learn about butter making by churning, about cloth making by spinning and weaving, about furniture making by building school cupboards or a play corner.

The *museum* is a means of making accessible to children objects which they otherwise would not see; it thus provides enriching and broadening experiences. As pupils collect and arrange the articles of





a museum, they gain in ability to organize ideas and to work out general principles. Articles in these collections may be those brought by the children; those obtained in the community, such as hobby collections; articles from foreign countries; those offered by business concerns; and those in private and public museums. The items displayed may be real objects; samples, such as of building materials in a house; miniatures, such as toy tractors; or parts of a thing, such as a twig from a coffee tree showing the pod and seeds.

A real purpose should precede the establishment of a school museum. It should be a growing project and should not be regarded as complete in any specified time. The objects should be identified by labels which are fairly uniform, neat, and well written. Duplication should be avoided as much as possible, and special care should be taken to avoid making it a collection of curios. Dale¹ suggests these questions to evaluate exhibits:

1. Does this specific exhibit attract attention?

2. Does it sustain interest?

<sup>1</sup> Dale, E. Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching, p. 437. The Dryden Press, 1946.

3. Can it be easily understood?

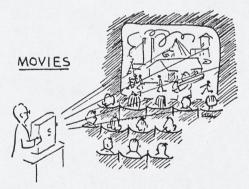
4. Does the audience get the message?

Excursions are a means of helping children learn by going to the scene and observing at first hand such things as construction in bridge building, processes in a cotton mill, civil-service work in a post office, bird life in the woods or park. The steps necessary for a successful excursion are given in the chapters on techniques and on science and are applicable for all field trips.

Demonstrations bring understanding to children in much less time and often more clearly than is possible by reading. It is much easier to show how to tie a knot than to tell someone how to do it, and children often benefit even more when they participate in a demonstration. (See p. 507 for further discussion.)

Dramatic plays, pageants, pantomime, tableaux, and puppet shows all may contribute to the building of concepts. Those who profit most are those who take part. Therefore, it is a good idea to have many of the pupils as actors. Such plays may be the incentive for reading, observation, and interviews in order to assemble information and materials for an accurate, interesting presentation.

There are two main kinds of *motion picture*—silent and sound. These may be in black and white or in color. Instructional and school



entertainment films are commonly 16-mm. (millimeter) and are mostly of the sound type, although a few of the older ones are silent. The following suggestions may be helpful in the selection and use of motion pictures.

Therefore, the principal aim of audio-visual teaching is to develop broad, clear, rich, usable concepts as foundation stones for children's learnings, understandings, and attitudes—these to be acquired through the senses by means of first-hand contacts, models, pictures, the radio, and recordings. To illustrate, a child who has never seen a garden could scarcely react intelligently when he hears the word "garden." How might he obtain this understanding? The most real experience would be for him to make a garden of his own. If he could not do that, he might visit one; or, he might plant a miniature garden in a box at school. If he could not experience the real thing, he might see gardens in a movie, or in other pictures. By such means he would acquire ideas and form concepts of "garden" which would have a meaning depending on the experiences he has had and the manner in which they have been organized.

There has been a tendency to think of audio-visual instruction merely as the use of the movie film, filmstrip, radio, and recordings. This is a very narrow interpretation. Audio-visual instruction includes actual first-hand experiences, as those obtained through excursions, visits to museums, and acquaintance with models; it includes experiences with objects also through the less direct mediums of photographs and other pictures; and it includes experiences in abstract forms, such as charts and graphs. In general, we may say that it implies educational materials which are mainly independent of printed words.

The following *principles* should help teachers in the use of this teaching technique:

1. Audio-visual techniques should be an integral part of the whole plan of teaching. A museum, for example, should function in both social studies and language arts.

2. Teachers should select the types of material which most nearly meet the requirements of the situation. Thus a movie may be desirable for a jungle study, still pictures for a study of the Capitol at Washington.

3. Direct-experience teaching materials should be selected on the basis of practicality. Thus, growing popcorn may be feasible in Iowa but not in Detroit, although Detroit pupils can pop the corn and eat it.

4. Selection of materials should be based on pupil background of experience. A diagram would suffice to give the idea of a tunnel if children knew about culverts.

5. The value of visual aids is proportional to the degree of reality they bring to children. A pupil operating a toy model of a steam shovel may get a clearer concept than one who sees the actual shovel in operation.

6. Visual aids should stimulate further activity. Thus a good movie may motivate reading or other types of investigation.

7. Teachers should utilize all materials provided by both the immediate environment and other sources, such as objects from the home and films from the outside.

The field of audio-visual instruction is very broad, as has been indicated; therefore, only some of the more important aspects of present-day *methods* and *materials* will be discussed.



First-hand experiences are fundamental to learning. Youth learns by seeing, hearing, feeling, smelling, and tasting. One spring a group of kindergarten children in a midwestern community illustrated this by participating in the making of sirup. The trees were tapped; the sap was caught in pails and carried to the school kitchen, where it was boiled. Some of the sirup was made into maple sugar. Thus the students learned the principles of sugar making more thoroughly by actually going through the steps of a pioneer process. In a similar

Leonard, E. M., Miles, L. E., and Vander Kar, C. S. *The Child at Home and School*. American Book Co., 1942. This is a comprehensive treatment of child development and the meeting of child needs in school.

Stratemeyer, F. B., Forkner, H. L., McKim, M. G., and committee members. *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947. This book shows the relationship of society to the curriculum of the present-day school.

CHAPTER 2

### GENERAL TECHNIQUES

HERE are various effective techniques which the school can employ at different levels to educate boys and girls in good citizenship. "Study your lesson" is not sufficient. In addition each pupil should be taught how to study and work independently. A well-equipped pupil has plans for attacking problems. He has methods for studying topics. He utilizes guides for using books and objective materials. He possesses the means for acquiring facts, developing skills, and measuring his own growth. To assist teachers in guiding pupils to greater independence in their work, we discuss in this chapter some details of the following techniques: audio-visual instruction, unit procedure, group and individual instruction, study guides and helps, skill development, and measurement of teaching.

In the succeeding chapters these techniques are referred to frequently as they are applied to various fields of learning.

#### AUDIO-VISUAL INSTRUCTION

Much teaching is being done and has been done with words, our most convenient tools for conveying ideas. Even though convenient, words are useless unless they are meaningful to the user. Word meanings vary with individuals, depending upon the individual's background of experiences. The ideas or concepts which words represent in any person's mind are the results of the fusion of experience elements, whether actual, vicarious, or imaginary.

trying situation. Children's ideas of what is funny often

crude to the adult but through guidance and direction this

may become a very desirable usest. Levelty means not only

the items given in the first column of the table.

9. Check yourself +, -, U(ncertain), for the characteristics given in column two.

10. Show what capacities in column one would be utilized when teaching the communication skills, as they are given in column three.

11. For which items in column four will the teacher be responsible? Be able to defend your choice.

#### SECTION THREE: Personal Reactions

12. In column five of the table, star the items you deem most important at the stage of elementary school development.

13. What other institutions in your judgment have a very strong influence on child development?

14. Add more items to those given which you think would belong in each of the five columns of the table.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

Anderson, J. E. "Child Development and the Growth Process." Thirty-eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, pp. 15-25. Public School Publishing Co., 1939. This material aids teachers in understanding child development and the conditions and factors involved in the learning process.

Breed, Frederick S. Education and the New Realism. Macmillan, 1939. This book compares the pragmatic philosophy with the realistic as applied to education, with leanings toward the realistic. It is in a sense a reply to certain pragmatic principles as expounded by educators of that philosophical preference.

Cole, Luella. Teaching in the Elementary School. Farrar and Rinehart, 1939. Part II, "The Teacher and Her Class," has helpful suggestions on motivation, control, and general guidance of group instruction. Other sections discuss the teacher's relations to various factors of her work.

Forty-sixth Yearbook for the Study of Education. Part II. "Early Childhood Education." The University of Chicago Press, Chicago 37, Illinois. 1947. From this book one can obtain ideas basic in planning the most suitable school program adapted to the best development of young children.

Jersild, A. T. and associates. *Child Development and the Curriculum*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1946. A fine help in understanding children, this book describes child development from infancy through adolescence.

many a trying situation. Children's ideas of what is funny often appear crude to the adult but through guidance and direction this tendency may become a very desirable asset. Loyalty means not only faith in, and support of, one's country, but also loyalty to friends, to school, to community, to oneself, and to ideals. The most loyal child is the one who, among other things, stands for good principles of citizenship in the school. Leadership is much easier for some than for others. Many, on the other hand, can acquire abilities necessary to become leaders. They learn to conduct meetings successfully, to be chairmen of committees, or to lead in playground activities if they are given the chance, and to understand some of the requisite techniques. If there is leadership, there must be those who can follow a leader, who can be good contributing committee members, who can ask useful questions in a meeting, or who can take their places and do their parts in a game. Our form of society makes two basic requirements of an individual: that he be a good leader and a good follower. Are the schools providing the necessary experiences through which children can acquire these abilities? Co-operation is necessary if democratic government is to function. All public schools, especially the one-room rural school, offer good situations for teaching children to work with others, to help each other overcome individual difficulties, and to promote the feeling of working for the good of all through mutual helpfulness. Good health is a social obligation as well as a comfort to the individual. A person can seldom be ill without inconveniencing someone else. To what extent can the schools develop the attitude of consideration of others as one goal of keeping well?

# QUESTIONS—PROBLEMS—REACTIONS (see page vii)

#### SECTION ONE: Facts

- 1. What opportunities should the school offer children?
- 2. What is the prime reason for conducting schools?3. What are two prominent obligations of the school?
- 4. What are the three main headings in the table "The Function of the School"?
- 5. What are given as "Factors in the School"?6. Which of these factors is the most important?
- 7. Under what form of government will these characteristics of good citizenship function best?

#### CHAPTER 1

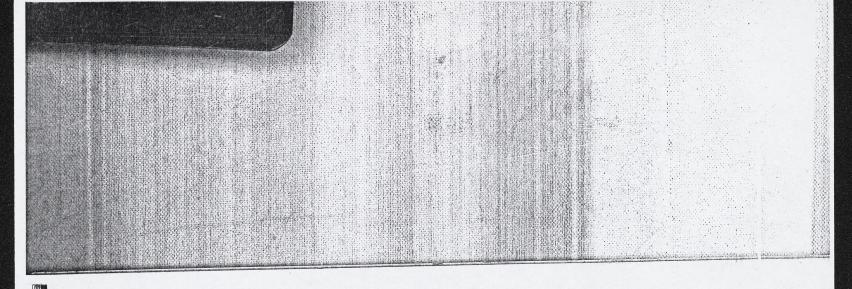
### THE FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL

HILDREN are the reason for the existence of schools. Whatever contributes, therefore, to happy school experiences for children and opens the way to real life and growth individu-:ally, in their school groups, in their communities, in their nation, and in their world should be of prime concern to the school. It is the school's obligation to direct the wide range of attitudes, interests, urges, and needs into the most promising channels.

Society has evolved two ways to meet this obligation. One is by transmitting to the present generation carefully selected parts of the accumulated culture and knowledge of the ages up to the present, with directions for using this heritage beneficially and adding to it if possible. The other is by developing the present generation of children individually and collectively to function efficiently in the activities of the democracy and the world in which they live. The table on page 3 presents these ideas graphically. The following paragraphs explain this table in some detail.

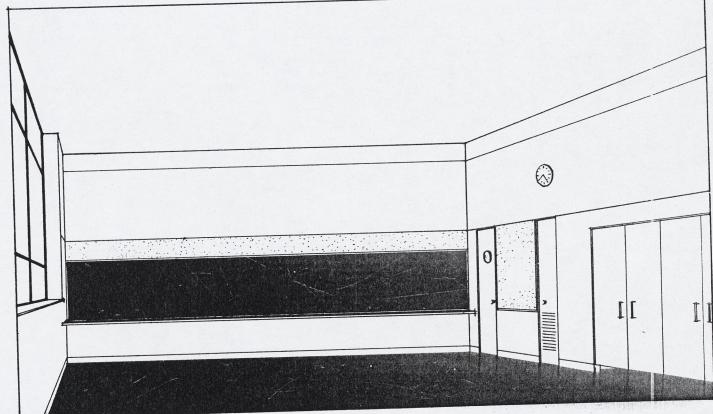
The child. No two children are alike in all respects. Even those who come from the same home and have had practically the same environment, possess divergent personalities. All normal children, however, even though they differ, have many urges in common—to play, to use materials, to communicate, to inquire, and to learn. These urges give rise to needs: children feel a need to make objects to play with, a need to ask questions, to receive attention, and many more.

The Function of the School	A GOOD CITIZEN Society's Goal	Characteristics essential for living together well, such as		Fairness Honesty Kindness—thought- fulness of others Humor Loyalty Industry Progressiveness Open-mindedness Leadership Ability to follow Ability to select good leaders Interest in govern- ment Co-operation Good health Respect for property, law, ideals
	THE SCHOOL Society's Agent	Factors in the School	Equipment, such as	Clean and pleasant room Proper lighting Proper scating arrangements Instructional materials Textbooks Reference books A library with recreational reading material Play materials Artistic objects Bulletin board Reading table
			A Plan, such as	General techniques of method, such as Group instruction Individual instruction Units of work Study guides and helps Skill development Measurement of teaching Course of study, including provision for Communication skills, such as language, reading, spelling, writing Social studies and elementary science The arts  Elementary mathematics
			The Teacher with desirable characteristics, such as	Good health Sympathy Resourcefulness Knowledge of subject matter Knowledge and use of good techniques Naturalness of manner Ability to stimulate interest Ability to inspire pupils with confidence and to work Fairness Tact Humor Refinement Pleasing voice
	THE CHILD Society's Obligation	Undeveloped capacities, attitudes, interests, urges, needs, such as		Play Work with materials Communication Curiosity Admiration of beauty Collecting Investigation Interest in pets Interest in plant life Interest in other children Appreciation of praise Interest in stories Enjoyment of social recognition

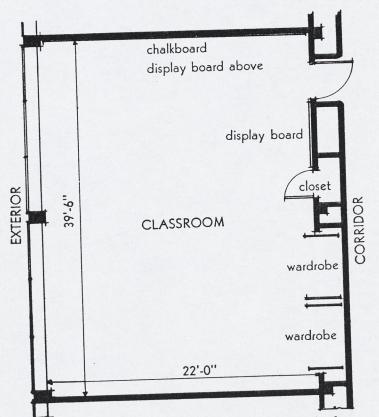


Engelhardt School Building Portfolios ELEMENTARY CLASSROOMS

Portfolio A PLATE 29



LOOKING TOWARD FRONT OF CLASSROOM



NORTHVILLE GRADE SCHOOL Northville, Michigan

LYNDON AND SMITH, Architects 1936

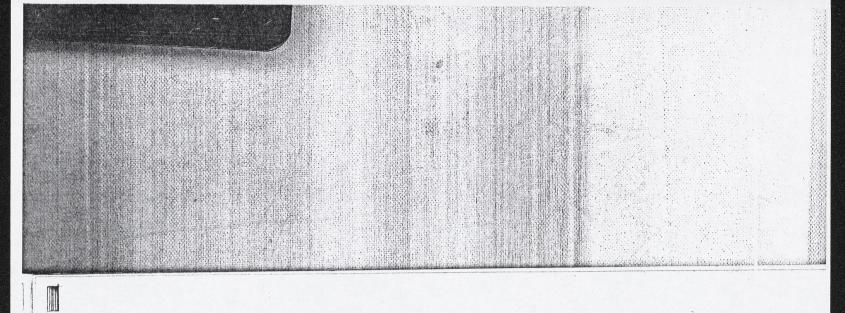
# ARCHITECT'S NOTES

Exterior wall entirely devoted to windows. Continuous unbroken surface throughout the room. White ceiling, ivory tinted white walls, with milk chocolate brown wainscot on northern exposures. Wardrobe and teacher's closet in corridor wall. Doors inset to avoid corridor projection.

PLAN scale: one inch equals eight feet

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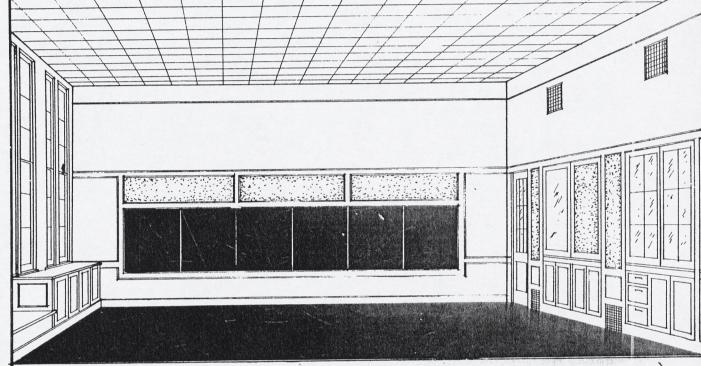
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Engelhardt School Building Portfolios ELEMENTARY CLASSROOMS

Portfolio PLATE

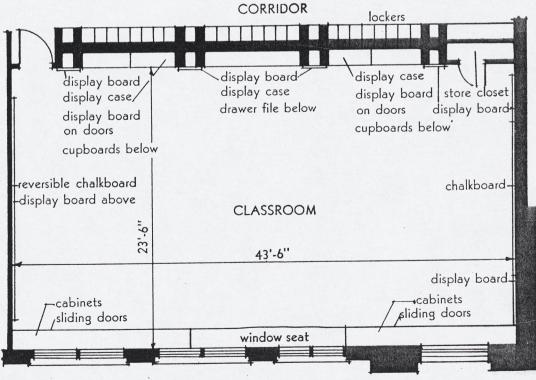
28



LOOKING TOWARD FRONT OF CLASSROOM

THOMAS STREET SCHOOL Lansing, Michigan

WARREN S. HOLMES CO., Architects 1937



PLAN scale: one inch equals eight feet EXTERIOR

generous size with win dow seat and cabinet along exterior wall. In stallation of display boards at various place convenient to children Pupils' lockers in corri dor. Storage closets and cupboards inset in corridor wall. Southwes exposure. Cool colors to offset warmth and bril liance of exposure. Ligh green linoleum floor with dark green border, and 2" lemon yellow feature strip. Wainsco of light gray-green linoleum. Light gray-greet walls above wainscot

White semi-acoustica tile ceiling. Green corl

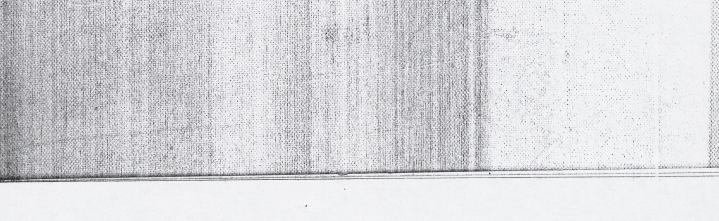
display areas.

ARCHITECT'S NOTES

Room dimensions of

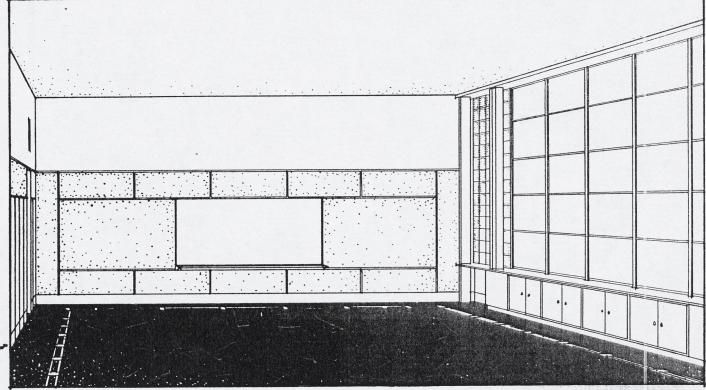
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Portfolio A PLATE 27



LOOKING TOWARD FRONT OF CLASSROOM

FARRAGUT SCHOOL Bay City, Michigan JOSEPH C. GODDEYNE, Architect 1938

# glass block EXTERIOR To----radiator grille shelf tack space 30'-6" CLASSROOM chalkboard tack space above 24.0" and below display boardtack space bookcase and magazine rack wardrobes CORRIDOR

#### ARCHITECT'S NOTES

Steel wardrobes within classroom in corridor wall. Metal cases under exterior window. Glass block extension to window areas. Linoleum floor in design. Generous display space. 24 ft. classroom width.

PLAN

scale: one inch equals eight feet

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