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Analysis of the individual progress plan of instruction with special reference to its use in continuation schools in Massachusetts

Rust, J. Hester
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BOSTON UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Thesis

AN ANALYSIS OF THE INDIVIDUAL PROGRESS PLAN OF INSTRUCTION WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO ITS USE IN CONTINUATION SCHOOLS IN MASSACHUSETTS

Submitted by

Jessie Hester Rust
(B. S., Simmons, 1918)

In partial fulfillment of requirements
for the degree of Master of Education

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First Reader: Alice M. Haley. Faculty, Garland School, and Instructor Boston University

Second Reader: Herbert Blair, Professor of Education.

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I.

INTRODUCTION

NEED FOR THE STUDY

Continuation schools are a relatively new departure from our more deeply rooted phases of the public school system, and for that reason, the literature available on this subject is rather limited in comparison to that which we find on other educational subjects. Instructors in these part-time schools have had to work out their own solutions to many problems. There are no experiences to be inherited and be used as a basis for further progress.

One of the most difficult problems is how to meet the immediate needs of the pupils. Practically all of the children attending part-time schools are employed in industries which are numbered and varied. There are usually a few boys and girls who are temporarily out of work, and there are occasionally some pupils who are termed "special cases". The training which each needs most is the thing that will help him to be successful on his own present or future job. Material that will be helpful to one person may have no place in another's scheme of things. Coupled with these varying needs are the differences in ability and achievement of each child. Therefore, each pupil presents a distinct problem, and some method of instruction which will fill the needs of the various members of such a school must be found and employed.

It is quite obvious that any attempt to treat these pupils as a class or group will fail to accomplish the desired results. At the beginning of the continuation school movement, some attempts were made to conduct classes according to conventional school practices, but the results did not warrant continuing such a procedure. The objectives of the continuation school were lost sight of completely under such conditions. One of the just criticisms

of part-time schools is aptly expressed in the following quotation. "Individual needs are lost sight of in the relentless march of academic grouping, group instruction, group testing and group progression."[1]

It is necessary then to find a way to meet the needs of the pupils in these schools, and to avoid the pitfalls of class instruction. The most logical way to solve this problem is by some form of individual instruction. An increasing number of efforts along these lines is being made. Many have proved helpful, some have failed, while others which have been used advantageously in some subjects have not been at all feasible when used with other material.

The attempts at individual instruction have been many and varied. Numerous teachers have tried to work out some scheme of adequately satisfying the urgent needs of the individual pupil. As a result of these attempts on the part of many teachers, the methods used may present different conclusions. Since it is quite likely that no perfect system of such training has yet been devised, it seems quite possible that a study of these attempts at individual instruction might well result in the accumulation of considerable information which would be of benefit to instructors in continuation schools.

THE PROBLEM

In recent years many books and magazine articles have been published concerning individual differences. Practically every one agrees that there is a considerable range in the ability of individuals to acquire informations and skills. Since this is an accepted fact, it naturally follows that each child will not react in the same way to identical methods of teaching. The mental growth of the individual will vary as does his physical growth.

[1]F. J. Keller, "Day Schools for Young Workers", Introduction by C. A. Prosser, p. xiv.

[1] J. Butler, "Day Schools for Young Workers", Introduction by G. A. Pfrommer, p. xiv.

The difference may be even more marked mentally than it is physically. Ability and rate of learning of a certain pupil may be vastly different from that of his neighbor. The slow or the gifted child can not do his best work nor attain his greatest mental growth when he is being trained in a class where the instruction is based solely on the level of the so-called average ability of achievement. As a people, we take great pride in being a democratic country. In theory, at least, we consider our educational system a democratic one. In order that this may be practically as well as theoretically true, we must make ample provision for these varying degrees of mentality. Instruction along some lines, at least, must be individualized if we are to get the best results from our teaching.

Our attempts at individual instruction have grown out of this sincere desire on the part of some educators to provide training for each child which would be commensurate with his abilities. Much has been done in this particular field, and it doubtless would be helpful to make a study of the methods used in order to draw conclusions from them that might be of benefit to those who have been attempting to carry out this type of work or to those who might be contemplating its inauguration.

The problem selected for this paper is one in which a restricted study of the prevailing methods of individual instruction has been made with special reference to the application to continuation schools. The part-time schools of Massachusetts were chosen for the study. Since these schools were among the first to be established in this country, the material obtained from such a study might well represent some of the best efforts in this method of instruction. Moreover the writer had access to and was working with such groups, and was especially interested in this particular problem, as she has been associated with a continuation school since its estab-

lishment by state law in 1920.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

It is hoped that this study will make available for those interested, information on the following points:

1. The need for individual instruction in continuation schools.
2. How it has been and may be used most effectively.
3. The types of information best suited to this method of teaching.

SOURCES AND METHODS

In an attempt to become familiar with the literature on the subject of individual instruction, the most recent books on it were carefully consulted. Articles on this subject and allied subjects, published in educational magazines, were read and studied.

Personal interviews were held with many continuation school instructors, who have been using such a plan, in order to get first hand information concerning methods, results, and reactions of both teacher and pupil to this form of instruction.

Since it was physically impossible to conduct personal interviews with representatives of all continuation schools, a survey was mailed to the ones which could not be otherwise reached. In this way, an attempt was made to reach all such schools in the state. Information was obtained from twenty-one continuation schools out of a total of forty approached. The results of the personal interviews and the surveys were recorded and conclusions drawn from them.

One trade and two homemaking schools in the state have been included

in this survey, because their problem is very closely allied to that of the continuation schools. It was found after this study was begun, that the former schools had much to offer that might well serve as a pattern for the continuation schools to follow. Therefore, material from the Quincy School of Homemaking, The Worcester Trade School for Girls and the Essex County School of Homemaking has been included in this study.

An attempt was made by the writer to formulate and use contract sheets in a short unit in her foods classes. Although the work was far from being complete or comprehensive enough from which to draw definite conclusions, some very interesting information was obtained from it.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The writer is conscious of the limitations of this study. It is generally conceded that the material obtained by the use of questionnaires is not very reliable. There is too often the possibility of misinterpretation, both on the part of the persons answering the questions, and on the part of the person who summarizes and tabulates the results. In the absence of a better method, however, the results of such a procedure may be considered as indicative of current practices.

II.

INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION

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THE NEED FOR INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION

It is not difficult to find many educational writers stating that the recitation method of instruction does not satisfy the needs of the present day pupils.

> "The recitation method almost universally used in the public schools is generally acknowledged to be inefficient because (1) it sets the same pace for all pupils in the class, a pace too slow for the more clever and too fast for the more stupid: (2) it wastes the time of those who know the lesson and teaches little to those who do not: (3) it does not give to the teacher an accurate knowledge of the progress made by the bashful or slow pupil and brings in undesirable personal elements."[1]

> "The procedure (developmental or recitation method) has certain dangers which must be avoided. It (1) wastes time when used on simple material, (2) admits of wandering and pointless argument, (3) admits of minute quibbling, and (4) is hard to adapt to individual differences...."[2]

There is another apparent difficulty with the group method of instruction. Numerous children leave school at an early age and in most cases this withdrawal is due to a lack of interest. This apathy on the part of the pupils may be because of the failure of our schools to provide a satisfactory answer to the vital needs of the individual.

> "So many good things have a tendency to hide some very serious defects. It is this very system (the group method), however, that is so organized as to prove the very greatest of all causes for the early withdrawal from school...."[3]

These quotations give reasons why many educators feel that there is an urgent need for a change in our customary system of training youths. In an attempt to develop a cure for these ills, instructors have resorted to various educational devices. Among the foremost of these is individual instruction in its many forms and modifications. "Individual instruction and supervised study are two of the earliest attempts to remedy the difficulties which the psychology of individual differences revealed as inherent

[1] G. S. Fletcher, "Use of Printed Practice Sheets and Standardized Test Sheets in Teaching School Subjects," School and Society, Vol. XXXII (August 23, 1930), pp. 264-265. [2] W. H. Burton, "The Nature and Direction of Learning," p. 379. [3] V. T. Thayer, "The Passing of the Recitation," p. 162. Quotation from W. L. Harris, Addresses and Proceedings of the National Educational Assoc., 1874, p. 266.

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> "Individual instruction makes one outstanding contribution to educational procedure that merits attention at the outset of any attempt to appraise its merits. It strikes directly at the two grave evils in traditional teaching by breaking up the lockstep method of pupil progress and substituting mastery learning for partial learning."[2]

The gifted child needs individual instruction. One great possibility of the plan for caring for individual differences is its benefit to such children. Educators, on the whole, have been exceedingly busy accomplishing aids for the retarded children and have rather flagrantly neglected the superior ones. The theory of adapting our lessons to the individual gives ample opportunity for instruction that will stimulate the growth of this unusual type.

In spite of the fact that this type of instruction has many supporters, and that it is being increasingly used in many schools, there is still a question as to the advisability of individualizing all subjects. Some of them, as arithmetic and spelling, lend themselves quite naturally to this sort of teaching.[3] There are others which do so fairly well, for example, the social studies.[4] There are still others which do not seem to adapt themselves at all well to this method. Physical training and music fall into this latter class.

It is evident, then, that many subjects may be successfully individualized. Individualization of a subject, however, does not necessarily mean the abolishing of all class work. Better results may be obtained from a successful combination of the two methods. While it is not probable that individual instruction is a panacea for all present day educational ills, it is, without doubt, one method which may at least partially remedy some of the prevailing evils of class instruction.

[1] V. T. Thayer, op. cit., p. 181.
[2] Ibid, p. 202.
[3] Carleton Washburne, "Winnetka", School and Society, Vol. XXIX (January 12, 1929), p. 39, 42.
[4] Ibid., p. 43.

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[2] Carleton Washburne, "Winnetka", School and Society, Vol. XXIX (January 18, 1929), p. 79, 42.
[3] Ibid, p. 802.
[4] Ibid., p. 83.

FUNDAMENTAL TYPES OF INDIVIDUAL PROGRESS PLANS OF INSTRUCTION

Before attempting to analyze what is being done in the field of individual instruction at the present time, it might be well to survey briefly the origin and growth of the various well known plans of this particular type of education. A resume of this work should give us a better knowledge of the objectives of such procedures and the methods used in carrying them out.

Although one may think of this particular phase of education as a very recent one, the reverse is true. Our earliest form of education was highly individualized. All children received their training at their mothers' side or while working with their fathers. Even when the first schools were established, the work in them was largely individual. It was later revealed, however, that this form of education was not adequate, and the idea of training in groups was evolved. Kilpatrick says,

> "....Up to a century ago, the children of our schools had only individualized instruction and in this absence of group effort and cooperative activity, much was lost. The coming of class teaching was counted a great advance. For some purposes it was a great advance..."[1]

While this group work was advantageous in many ways, there was also something lacking in it, and educators began to look around for the difficulty. It was evident that individual differences in children were ignored when this method was used and so pioneers in the field began to study ways and means to overcome this lack of consideration for the individual. It began to look as though a combination of the two methods might be a satisfactory arrangement. In other words, individual instruction conducted through groups might help to solve the problem.

"As early as 1888, P. W. Search introduced a form of individual instruction into the high school of Pueblo, Colorado."[2] The results obtained

[1] W. H. Kilpatrick, "An Effort at Appraisal", 24th Year Book, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, p. 273.
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from this experiment were such as to warrant its continued use.

And somewhat later, in 1912 and 1913, one finds that Frederick Burk of the San Francisco State Normal School made an intensive study of such problems and applied the results of his investigation to the class rooms. Much of his work and that of his teachers was published for general use, until the attorney general of the state of California ruled that it was not within the province of a normal school to do so. C. W. Washburne, a pupil of Mr. Burk, has persistently carried out his ideas in the public schools of Winnetka, Illinois, and this system is known as the Winnetka Plan.

The name of Miss Helen Parkhurst is outstanding in this field of work. Her plan, called The Dalton Laboratory Plan, derives its name from Dalton, Massachusetts where it was carefully worked out. This system has been used considerably in foreign countries, especially in England.

Henry Morrison, Professor of Education in the University of Chicago, has devised a slightly different scheme which is known as the Morrison Unit Plan.

These three plans are a few of the many methods of individual instruction now being used in this country. Each plan has its own characteristics. In only a very few schools are the plans here mentioned used unchanged; in most cases they are greatly modified. These modifications are many and varied in as much as many adjustments are necessary to meet the definite needs of the schools in which this type of teaching is employed.

THE DALTON LABORATORY PLAN

We have already mentioned Miss Helen Parkhurst as one of the outstanding pioneers in this field. She became greatly interested in solving this

problem of dealing with the needs of the individual about the same time that Dr. Burk was experimenting along these lines (1912-1913).

So great was her enthusiasm that she went abroad where she worked and studied with Madame Montessori during the year 1914. The next year Miss Parkhurst returned to this country and worked here as Madame Montessori's representative until 1918. During this period, some of the former's experiments were carried on in San Francisco with the cooperation of Dr. Burk.

Miss Parkhurst began her individual labors in this field in September 1919, in a school for crippled boys in New York City. Mrs. W. Murray Crane, one of the directors of the school, became exceedingly interested in the development of this phase of educating youths in accordance with their abilities. As a result she conceived the idea of trying out such a scheme in her home town of Dalton, Massachusetts. Miss Parkhurst was called upon to establish the new system and it is from this school that she took the name "Dalton Laboratory Plan" which has since been applied to her method.

The Dalton Laboratory Plan works with the individual through groups. Classes are not abolished. The work in any given subject for the year is divided into contracts or contract-jobs, comprising one month's work. The pupil may work as rapidly or as slowly as he pleases or his ability allows him to go. Some arbitrary period of time must be given so one month or twenty school days is chosen. All the pupils may not finish in this time. On the other hand some may complete the work in a shorter period. There is an important requirement about the completion of subject matter. No pupil may proceed to the next contract in any given subject until he has completed the assignments in all subjects for that particular contract. One decided advantage of this stipulation is that it teaches the child to budget his time so that he will manage to finish all contracts within the allotted time.

In practice, the Dalton Laboratory Plan is rather simple. The child has the right to choose what he wishes to work on when he comes to school in the morning. He may have some arithmetic problems that require his mastery, or a topic in history to delineate. He makes his choice and settles down. No bells disturb him and he continues to work on that particular problem as long as his interest lasts. Perhaps he spends the whole morning on this one subject. He has the freedom to do that if he so wishes.

In the afternoon, however, he is required to attend a conference period. Once a week he meets each subject teacher in conference and receives the assignment for the following week. Problems are discussed, if they are at all hazy. A mutual exchange of ideas may also be held at this time, and this is quite likely to be exceedingly helpful to some types of minds. It is obvious that by the arrangement of these conference periods, one overcomes a possible shortcoming of the Dalton Laboratory Plan. Some individuals are not adapted to working alone. Many persons need the stimulus of a class discussion. This conference with the entire class active would tend to lend this necessary incentive to those who thrive on it.

> "In any adequate program of individualization, the group must remain. Individuality must emerge in group life. Individual differences must be provided for. Individualization of instruction must mean the meeting of individual needs through group instruction (1) by adapting to individual differences and (2) by providing for maximum development of individuality."[1]

Even the class rooms used in this plan are arranged according to subjects rather than by grades. All the material for geography is assembled in one room. All the necessary equipment for the study of art is collected in another, and so on. Reference books for each subject are placed in their respective rooms. These books play an exceedingly important part in such a plan of instruction and their supply should be adequate. Children of all

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grades may be working on their various problems in the same subject in the same room at the same time. They are not only allowed, but encouraged to work in groups as long as they do so quietly. When the room is in use for a conference, a notice to that effect is posted on the door.

Needless to say, the assignments in such a system are an exceedingly important part of the instruction. They must be (1) clear, (2) concise, (3) expressed in a vocabulary suited to the age of the child, and (4) stimulate interest. The contracts are printed or mimeographed and then placed in the hands of the children. Miss Parkhurst devotes two complete chapters to the question of assignments in her book "Education on the Dalton Plan". Many samples are given there as an aid to the instructor.[1]

> "The first condition of a good assignment is that it shall be invariably written, not oral, clearly expressed and designed to show the pupil what it is leading up to. In drawing it up, the teacher must get rid of the idea that she is preparing a plan for herself. What is needed is a plan to be used by the pupils as a guide in their attack upon the points on their contract-job. A good assignment represents a block of the whole job completed from the standpoint of the pupil himself."[2]

The system by which the progress of each child is kept is another exceedingly important phase of this plan. Instead of the report cards commonly used to record the ability with which the work has been performed, graphs are employed to show the amount and rate of progress. At the end of each week, a line is drawn to show the extent to which the assignment has been accomplished. The instructor has one graph on which all the pupils in a section are listed. A quick glance at this shows the teacher how each pupil is progressing, how each child rates when compared to the other members of the class and in what cases individual help is needed. Another graph which is made out and kept by each child has all the subjects which he is taking listed on it. A glance at this card shows the rating and progress of the indi-

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Since this method of instruction places so little value on "marks" as they are generally considered, it is evident that very little importance is attached to examinations also. They are eliminated on this theory: That the child who has studied as he pleased and at his own rate of speed will retain what he has learned.[2]

Nor are promotions a dreaded feature under such a system. No child fails. Under the usual school conditions, a pupil would not be promoted if he fell short of accomplishing the required work for a given grade. Under the Dalton Plan he is spared this embarrassment, for in the fall he merely resumes his lessons at the point where he left off in the spring. Such a procedure, at least, does much to foster and preserve a feeling of contentment and satisfaction among the pupils.

The success of the Dalton Plan depends on three principles, according to Miss Parkhurst. The first of these is freedom. Enough freedom must be allowed the child that he may develop himself. This freedom, however, must not lack guidance.

> "This ideal freedom is not license, still less indiscipline. It is, in fact, the very reverse of both. The child who does as he likes is not a free child. He is, on the contrary, apt to become the slave of bad habits, selfish and quite unfit for community life. Under these circumstances he needs some means of liberating his energy before he can grow into a harmonious responsible being, able and willing to lend himself consciously to cooperation with his fellows for their common benefit. The Dalton Laboratory Plan provides that means by diverting his energy to the pursuit and organization of his own studies in his own way. It gives him that mental and moral liberty which we recognize as so necessary on the physical plane in order to insure his bodily well-being. Antisocial qualities and activities are, after all, merely misdirected energy."[3]

In order to obtain this freedom which Miss Parkhurst feels is the keynote of her plan, the pupils are allowed to do more or less as they wish,

[1] Helen Parkhurst, op. cit., Chap. VII.
[2] Ibid., p. 144.
[3] Ibid., p. 18.

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"This ideal freedom is not license, still less indiscipline. It is, in fact, the very reverse of both. The child who does as he likes is not a free child. He is, on the contrary, apt to become the slave of bad habits, selfish and quite unfit for community life. Under these circumstances he needs some means of liberating his energy before he can grow into a harmonious responsible being, able and willing to lend himself consciously to cooperation with his fellows for their common benefit. The Dalton Laboratory Plan provides that means by diverting his energy to the pursuit and organization of his own studies in his own way. It gives him that mental and moral liberty which we recognize as so necessary on the physical plane in order to insure his bodily well-being. Antisocial qualities and activities are, after all, merely misdirected energy."[3]

In order to obtain this freedom which Miss Parkhurst feels is the keynote of her plan, the pupils are allowed to do more or less as they wish,

[1] Helen Parkhurst, op. cit., Chap. VII.
[2] Ibid., p. 144.
[3] Ibid., p. 18.

just as long as they accomplish what must be done. The time is arranged purely at the child's convenience. A very definite reason for allowing this freedom is given in the following quotation:

> "Unless a pupil is permitted to absorb knowledge at his own rate of speed, he will never learn anything thoroughly. Freedom is taking his own time. To take someone else's is slavery."[1]

Cooperation, or the "interaction of group life", as Miss Parkhurst prefers to call it, is the second principle of the Dalton Plan. In a school of this type which is functioning properly, the pupil finds himself a part of a social group of which he may or may not be considered a member according to his conduct. He must make the adjustments necessary to bring about his acceptance into the group if he wishes to become an active member. When the pupil is given his assignment, the chances are that he will attempt to work out a plan for its solution by himself. This failing, he probably will consult his colleagues or even his teachers. Cooperation must extend beyond the pupils. It must embrace the teachers also. The teacher must cooperate with the pupil to the extent of making the work clear, in order that the child may know just what is required of him. The end products of the pupil's study will be acquired then "through individual efforts and through collective cooperation."[2] The value of cooperation is strongly expressed by a quotation which Miss Parkhurst uses from Dr. John Dewey's book "Democracy and Education."

> "The object of a democratic education, he writes, is not merely to make an individual an intelligent participator in the life of his immediate group, but to bring the various groups into such constant interaction that no individual, no economic group, could presume to live independently of the other."[3]

The third principle of the Dalton Plan is time budgeting. The benefits of this are obvious. A child may find himself all at sea at the end of the first month's contract because he failed to make the proper time allow-

[1]Helen Parkhurst, op. cit., p. 19.
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These three principles may be considered as attendant learnings. Kilpatrick[1] lists them as such with an additional one. His terminology is slightly different from that of Miss Parkhurst.

(1) Acquiring responsibilities.
(2) Matter of time budgeting.
(3) Social relationships.
(4) Better self-respect.

The importance of the foregoing list can not be denied. Each adult must acquire this specific training if he is to live happily and amicably with himself and with his neighbors. Therefore, it is exceedingly important that these learnings be taught in some form. How they are to be presented is another matter. Some educators may feel that they may be best acquired if presented as attendant learnings, while others may be of the opinion that such material is best taught as primary learnings. The question as to the method to be used for such instruction is, in all probability, an open one.

There are many advocates of the Dalton Plan, but it also has many enemies. No system of education which represents such a sharp departure from the conventional school routine can escape being the subject of many controversies.

The chief characteristics of the Dalton Plan may be summed up as follows:

(1) Its thoroughness is invaluable. "The mastery of one assignment is

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(2) "It concentrates upon a careful organization of assignments."[2]

(3) Some provision is made for individual differences even though it is merely in the rate of speed of learning.[3]

(4) It requires the acquiring of fixed quotas in a given time.[4]

Probably all of us will agree that the first three characteristics of the Dalton Plan are very worthy and commendable advantages of the system. There will be, very likely, a difference of opinion as to the value of the fourth.

No system of education can pass unchallenged. We find that Kilpatrick offers the following criticism of this plan.

> "....The school is to be judged by the service it renders, renders to the child and to society, and any scheme of education which does not result in the young growing properly up into adult life is justly to be condemned. But neither of these considerations, nor both put together justifies us in reducing the education of childhood to learning what the adult will need. The gap between childhood and adulthood is too great. To disregard this, to reduce education to mere preparation, this is the fatal defect in the Dalton Plan and the common notion...."[5]

> "....The essential error of the Dalton Plan then is as with all external examination schemes, that it accepts childhood as a time of storing up learning to be used when called for at a remote day, frequently in adult life...."[5]

That this system is not one of perfection is felt by other writers. We get such a reaction in the following quotation, "Individual teaching (reference is here made to clothing classes) represents an extravagant use of the teacher's time, and a loss of the stimulation that should come from class discussions...."[6]

One obvious difficulty of this individual work is the dull child. He can no longer fail to be noticed, for his ability shows up plainly under such conditions. The teacher can not ignore him, for he will become a real problem which must be given careful consideration. Fortunately there are

[1]V. T. Thayer, op. cit., p. 204. [2]Ibid., p. 204.
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[5]Ibid., pp. 277-279. [6]Agnes K. Hanna, "Home Economics in the Schools", p. 107.

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[5] Ibid., pp. 277-279. [6] James K. Hanna, "Home Economics in the School", p. 177.

few really dull pupils and rarely is a child dull in all subjects.

Another very trying difficulty is the pupil who shirks. Needless to say, he has ample opportunity to shirk under such a system, if he so wishes. The only solution for such cases is to make the incentive so great that the pupil will not want to waste his time.

The incentive used not only may be, but probably will be different in each case. The teacher must again regard each pupil as an individual, but with a careful consideration of characteristics other than rate of speed in learning. The needed incentive for some children will be only a few words of praise. Others might be inspired by the spirit of competition. Still others may possess the qualities of leadership and will respond more easily and eagerly if they are made the heads of groups studying certain problems in which they are particularly interested. These are only a few of the incentives that may be used. In this way right habits of work may be developed that may carry over into other branches.

Another drawback may come in the fact that the teacher may expect and allow too much work to be done by the pupil who tries to race through all of his assignments. He should be curbed in some way and his progress controlled.

When such a plan is inaugurated, some difficulty will be experienced by the pupils in settling down to work. The child will have to be guided and gradually directed into this marked change from the usual school routine. "Experience shows again that it takes about six months to accomplish that result."[1] Therefore the instructor must be patient and allow this amount of time to elapse before becoming discouraged because every member has not made this adjustment.

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individual in his relation to a group and his relation to other individuals of different ages.[1] Such things as disposition, emotional life, social environment and family history are considered by her to play a more important part in the development of the individual than his academic ability. It is as equally important to guide the outgrowths of these variables into the proper channels as it is to develop scholastic ability.[2] Miss Zirbes cites many examples of cases where the ideal teacher may assist the child in ways not connected with his scholastic training if real provision for individual differences is being made.

That a criticism of the limited value of individual instruction is not uncommon is shown by the following quotation:

> "Individual differences which are fundamental to a consideration of types of training that should be provided consist not only of differences in I. Q. and mental alertness but differences in attitudes, aptitudes and opportunities relative to life occupational interests as they are conditioned by economic and other environmental differences.."[3]

Individual instruction is frequently carried out by using ability grouping. While the method of instruction used under this plan may differ somewhat from that used under the Dalton or similar plans, we are still mainly concerned with the adaptation of our educational system to individual differences.

Dr. Alice V. Keliher in her "Critical Study of Homogeneous Grouping", raises some objections to this method of individual instruction.[4] Her conclusions are based on the assumption that the scholastic side of the individual is not the only side to be considered. Most systems recommended for the consideration of individual differences are concerned only with academic skills. She agrees with Miss Zirbes that the correct development of such characteristics as disposition and control are even more important to the welfare of the human being than is the development of his scholastic

[1] Laura Zirbes, "The Real Significance of Provision for Individual Differences", Education, Vol. LII (April 1932), p. 443. [2] Laura Zirbes, loc. cit.
[3] "Industrial Education", Bulletin No. 21, 1929, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, p. 2.
[4] Alice V. Keliher, "Critical Study of Homogeneous Grouping," Columbia Univ. Contributions to Education, Teachers College Series, p. 31.

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[2] "Industrial Education", Bulletin No. 81, 1924, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, p. 8.
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"....Some problems in life are always pressing for solution. It seems only reasonable that to function in life, education must be consciously continuous with life; must develop those dispositions which go to make an individual successful in integrating his life with society...."[2]

There are many advantages of individual instruction given. Miss Lucy L. W. Wilson lists the following in her book "Educating for Responsibility":

Advantages to the child

(1) "Individualized assignments remove most of the handicaps due to
   (a) A short memory span. Helpful suggestions are at hand when needed.
   (b) Absence. (Especially in such cases as quarantine, religious holidays, etc., where children are not ill. The lessons may be sent home, or if this is not feasible, the pupil begins where he left off before the absence. In this way he is not subjected to the embarrassment of finding himself in a class where he is unacquainted with all the work that is going on around him.)

(2) Almost automatically it takes care of difficulties due to different abilities or different rates of speed or both....

(3) It makes it easily possible not only to make the aim clear but also to make it reasonably certain that each child sees each unit of work in its proper setting and perspective...."[3]

Advantages to the teacher

(1) "It compels better and ever better pedagogy. The teacher must see her subject from the viewpoint of the child.

(2) It makes supervision efficient. A department head may know with a minimum of visiting exactly how the work is being done, whether it is functioning, and why. He is in a position to give first aid and professional advice; the teachers are in the position of being able to ask for help concretely and definitely.

(3) It helps to discover children's difficulties, and to show that these may come from different causes, some of which are curable....

(4) By posting the assignments in all subjects, according to grade, teachers get a bird's eye view of all the work, and are able to cooperate as never before.

(5) The substitute teacher is less of a problem and creates far less havoc

(6) Teachers no longer shrink from being observed at work...."[3]

Miss Wilson feels that there are no special disadvantages to the child under this system of teaching, nor does she list any outstanding ones to the

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[2]Ibid., p. 34.
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Additional advantages given by other writers are:

(1) Useless repitition is avoided.[1]

(2) Unique opportunities are afforded of coordinating the work in various subjects.[1]

(3) The problem of promotion is banished.[1]

(4) Imposed home work is avoided. If the pupils work at home, it is because they wish to do so.[1]

(5) Disciplinary problems are reduced to a minimum or entirely disappear.[1]

(6) In spite of many opinions to the contrary, the expenditure of carrying out such a system need not exceed that of regular school work. More stationery is used, but in most cases the extra cost of this item is more than compensated by the smaller number of text or reference books required.[1]

(7) This method permits continuity of interest and effort by minimizing artificial interruptions.[2]

(8) It also permits children to learn by scientific methods to investigate and discover for themselves.[2]

(9) The relation of teacher and pupil is transformed by establishing contact, respect without fear, joy in daily living, and willingness to do hard work.[2]

Few things in life, educational systems included, are perfect. There are usually points in favor of them and against them. The teacher must weigh the two sides of the question and determine whether or not the advantages outweigh the disadvantages before deciding to use this or any other method with her specific class.

THE WINNETKA PLAN

The plan of individual instruction used at Winnetka, Illinois is a

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direct outgrowth of the system used at The San Francisco State Normal School. The superintendent of Winnetka, Carleton W. Washburne, received his training under Mr. Burk and became so completely convinced that this method of teaching was a progressive step in education, that he has spent many years endeavoring to work it out in a satisfactory manner.

Fundamentally this system is based on much the same principles as the Dalton Plan. The one idea in mind when carrying out this or any other plan of individualized instruction is to give to each child that which is to be of most value to him in his own struggle through life.

> "....Every child has a right to master those knowledges and skills which he will probably use in life; every child has the right to live naturally, happily, and fully as a child; human progress depends on the development of each individual to his full capacity; and the welfare of human society requires the development of a vital social consciousness in each individual."[1]

> "....Progressive education is scientific and appreciative rather than dogmatic and arrogant with regard to human relationships. It seeks to develop personal powers, independent thinking, a practical good will and cooperative abilities. It aims to liberate rather than to indoctrinate...."[2]

Although the principle underlying this system is similar to that which is the basis of the Dalton Plan, there are some differences in the way in which the results are reached. One of the important differences is the division of time. Definite periods of time are assigned to each subject. The same freedom which is allowed the children who study under the Dalton Plan is not given to those who are enrolled in the Winnetka Schools, except in the case of exceptionally self-reliant children. They are allowed to apply for this privilege, and if the instructors approve of such action, the children are permitted to budget their time as is done in the case of the Dalton Plan. There is, of course, the occasional case of a child who is completely engrossed in his work when the period is over. The teacher does not disturb

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him, but such cases are the exception and not the rule. In general the time limits are definitely fixed.

In addition to the definite time division for subjects, the Winnetka Plan has another rather rigid time requirement. One half of each session is spent acquiring knowledges and skills, and the remaining time of each session is spent in creative work.

> "First of all the curriculum is divided into two distinct parts. One part consists of those knowledges and skills in which we are trying to make children like-minded. The other consists of stimuli and opportunities for creative work under social conditions...."[1]

The acquiring of knowledges and skills is obtained in a slightly different way from the procedure used under Miss Parkhurst's plan. While the time requirements of the Winnetka Plan are very definitely stated, there are no time limits for the accomplishments of any particular lesson or subject matter. Complete mastery must be attained and the time requirement is a secondary consideration. Instead of contracts, units are used, but the term which one associates with the Winnetka schools is goals. Frequent goals are set up, and it is the desire on the part of the pupil to reach this goal, rather than the necessity of completing his assignment in a stated period of time that inspires his work.

> "The chief incentives depended upon are the intrinsic interest of the job, pride of workmanship, ambition to reach a higher level of achievement in the social and creative activities, the thrill of creative participation, and in general, the pleasure of meeting the approval of one's fellows."[2]

Books which are self-instructive have been prepared for the various subjects. The child may begin the study of a problem in multiplication which presents new elements. He takes his book or pamphlet and studies the instruction and the models given. Then he tries the problems suggested. If he succeeds in solving these, he does a certain amount of prescribed work. If he

[1] C. W. Washburne, "Winnetka", p. 48.
[2] S. R. Logan, op. cit., p. 175.

[illegible] but such cases are the exception and not the rule. In general the time limits are definitely fixed.

In addition to the definite time division for subjects, the Winnetka Plan has another rather rigid time requirement. One half of each session is spent acquiring knowledges and skills, and the remaining time of each session is spent in creative work.

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[1] C. W. Washburne, "Winnetka", p. 46.
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fails to grasp the method, he continues to study more explanatory examples and does more practice problems. When he feels that he has mastered the problem, he is ready for the test. The problems for the test are in a special book at the teacher's desk. In order to avoid the possibility of any child being able to tell another about the test material, the tests are prepared in many forms. The pupil gets the answers from the teacher when he has completed the test, and does his own correcting. If he has no errors, he goes on to the next section of his work. If he has made mistakes, the correction sheet gives him explicit directions as to how to remedy the particular fault which was disclosed. This procedure takes place until he has reached perfection. This method is used in the many subjects which are well adapted to such instruction. The following quotation briefly outlines the working of this system:

> "(1) The objectives or goals are very specifically stated. They are determined as far as possible on the basis of research as to social needs. ....They are attainable by every normal child -- each child must reach one hundred per cent mastery of each goal. Subnormal children, of course, have a modified curriculum....
>
> (2) Materials of instruction have been prepared that are self-instructive and self-corrective....
>
> (3) Complete diagnostic tests have been provided in a number of forms...."[1]

Another way in which the Winnetka system differs from the Dalton Plan is in the fact that completion of a certain unit in all subjects is not required before a pupil can go on to the next unit in any one subject. It is considered advisable to have the work on approximately the same level, and the pupils are encouraged to keep the work in the different subjects on a fairly even plane, but this is not a rule of the system, and the pupils may go on if they desire, and have completed the preceding unit or goal in that subject.

It is not possible or feasible to attempt to use this method of unit

[1]C. W. Washburne, "Winnetka", p. 48.

[illegible]

instruction for all subjects. The social sciences are an example of material which does not lend itself too well to this particular plan. For these subjects, socialized class work is helpful and it is for this very reason that one half of the time spent in the Winnetka schools is devoted to creative work. "No attempt is made to teach subject matter in these creative activities."[1] Whatever information the child learns is gained from a sheer interest in the enterprises undertaken. In order that no child may be deprived of an opportunity to acquire these certain desired informations, each pupil is made a member of some committee. During the creative work period, the children have dramatics, and carry out all sorts of projects. One very interesting and instructive activity is the editing and publishing of a newspaper. It can be readily seen that this particular problem offers numerous opportunities for the acquiring of social knowledge.

The purpose of the creative work is directly opposed in one respect to that of the individual instruction period. The pupil must consider others. The objectives of the socialized activities may be summarized as follows:

(1) To develop the child's creative ability, initiative, ingenuity and originality.

(2) To teach him to live harmoniously with his fellow beings.

(3) To give him information which has a distinct social value.

The grouping of the pupils in this system also varies from that of the Dalton Plan. Instead of rooms being equipped for and devoted to one special subject, they are planned for groups which are arranged more nearly in accordance with our commonly used grading system. The pupil is placed with the group with whom his social age most closely coincides. He does not change rooms frequently as do the children under the Dalton Plan. The entire day's work for the lower grades is carried on in this same room. Departmentalized

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[1] C. W. Washburne, "Winnetka", p. 42.

work does not begin until the junior high school is reached.

The progress records of the Winnetka system are known as goal books. In these books the goals for a given subject are specifically stated. These goals are set up for various steps in each subject, and are based on speed and accuracy. When a pupil satisfactorily passes a test on the material for any one goal, he is marked O. K. in the goal book beside that particular goal. These books are sent home each month with a card showing attendance, deportment, attitude, etc. The advantages of these goal books are considered to be as follows:

(1) Facilitates supervision by the superintendent because he can see at a glance what each child is doing.

(2) Shows the teacher just what is expected of her and enables her to know exactly where each child is in his work.

(3) Enables the pupil to know exactly what he is working for.

(4) Informs the parents as to the purpose of the school and the progress of their children.

(5) Aids in the working out of the individual instruction part of the program.[1]

The fundamental differences between the Winnetka and Dalton plans are then summarized as follows:

Dalton	Winnetka
1. No creative work. The only class work is during the conference period.	1. Creative activities.
2. Freedom to spend the time as desired.	2. Fixed periods of time for each subject.
3. Grouping by subjects.	3. Grouping by social age.
4. Contracts with definite time limits are used.	4. Units or goals with no definite time allowance.
5. The progress in any one subject depends upon the completion of the same contract for every subject.	5. The progress in one subject is not dependent on that in all subjects.

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Like the Dalton Plan, the Winnetka Plan can not pass unchallenged. Kilpatrick feels that the division of time into two distinct parts, one for the acquiring of knowledges and skills, and the other for the promotion of creative activities is its greatest fault.

> This division "tends to break the child's learning into two disconnected parts. One part, highly mechanical, belongs to the system of goals -- a system too nearly complete in itself, too little connected with life itself. Stated psychologically, the danger is that learning will not transfer. Stated in terms of life, the danger is a divided self -- that the child will look on learning as something to be learned and then put behind him."[1]

Courtis suggests a system which would reverse these two methods. He would give the projects first place and have the drill and instruction work assume second place.[2] Kilpatrick agrees with this view stating that he feels that such a plan would be a decided advantage.[3]

Mr. Washburne quite naturally feels that there are decided advantages in this form of instruction, and he has some rather conclusive evidence in answer to the many objections which are often raised against this method. In response to the oft heard criticism that such a system places too heavy a burden on the teacher, Mr. Washburne replies that such is not the case. He bases his conclusions on a study which he made of the number of hours spent outside the class room by Winnetka teachers, and by other teachers in nearby localities which did not use the individual system.[4]

Two other studies were also made by Mr. Washburne. One was to determine whether or not the individual instruction plan saves time for the pupils. The results of this study showed that there was a saving of time for some children.[5] The third investigation was to ascertain the cost of

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[2] Stuart A. Courtis, "The Development of Individual Instruction at Detroit", Twenty-fourth Year Book, The National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, p. 112.
[3] W. H. Kilpatrick, op. cit., p. 28.
[4] C. W. Washburne, "Does Individual Instruction Place Too Heavy a Burden on the Teacher?", Twenty-fourth Year Book, The National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, p. 206.
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The Winnetka plan, like many others, has not reached perfection. It does represent, however, a whole-hearted effort toward improving the present day educational system. Many educators feel that the prevailing system is inadequate because it fails to bear in mind constantly that it is training individuals and is not aiming to turn out boys and girls who will be trained alike in the same pattern.

THE MORRISON UNIT PLAN OF INSTRUCTION

The Morrison Unit Plan of instruction is not an individualized method of teaching in the same sense as are the Dalton and Winnetka Plans. It is rather the adaptation of a unit plan of teaching which results in individual work. The information to be taught in a certain course is divided into units. Each unit requires definite learnings just as do the Dalton contracts and the Winnetka goals. In this way the systems are similar.

Before the teaching process in any particular unit is undertaken, the pupils are given a pre-test. In this manner the material which the pupils already know on this subject is found out and eliminated from the proposed unit. Much time is saved by this testing, for in many cases the children have a much wider knowledge of the particular material than is suspected. Occasionally there may be found a pupil who may not need to take the course at all. This might well happen in the case of English composition.[2]

When the unit has been carefully planned, taking into consideration the results of the pre-test, the teaching begins. Presumably this is group or

[1]C. W. Washburne, "Does Individual Instruction Cost More than Class Instruction", Twenty-fourth Year Book, The National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, p. 201.
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The Morrison mastery formula as given by its originator is as follows:

> "....Pre-test, teach, test the result, adapt procedure, teach and test again to the point of actual learning...."[1]

It is after the first achievement tests have been given that individual instruction takes place. It does not run completely through the unit as it does in the Dalton and Winnetka systems. Those who show a complete mastery of the subject by successfully passing the achievement test should go on to the next unit; those who have not acquired this mastery should be given help on the particular problems which trouble them.

> "Theoretically and ideally, whenever a pupil has learned, he should go on with his learning, even though he be the only one in the section to do so. Practically, it does not altogether work out that way...."[2]

It is not likely that the class will react to instruction in such a way that each child will have to be treated as an individual. There will be, in all probability, groups which can be dealt with advantageously and without putting too much of a strain on the teacher. There usually will be a

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few problem cases which will exact a very large amount of individual work from the teacher before complete mastery is obtained.

> "The adaptation (learning products other than skills) is a unitary thing, and the pupil has either attained it or not. Individuals may differ greatly in the length of time and the ease with which they take on the change which a given adaptation implies, but if two pupils have attained a given adaptation, they cannot differ with respect to the fact of their attainment...."[1]

> "....The ultimate test of a product of learning which has involved a genuine adaptation is that it is never lost, otherwise than through its transformation into new adaptations or through the rise of pathological inhibitions...."[1]

That this Morrison Unit Plan of instruction may be adapted to vocational subjects as well as to academic is shown by an article in the "Journal of Home Economics" for September 1931, which definitely outlines a clothing unit to be taught under such a plan.[2] A minimum requirement level is set up and it is this material which really comprises the unit learning. However, an opportunity is given for the girls to obtain a mark of "B" or "A" by doing supplementary work. The mark received for the completion of the required unit work is "C". Miss Skinner feels that this plan "encourages the pupil to choose, in a limited way, the grade she will make and to assume responsibility for her own progress; it also sets before her definitely a clear picture of what she is expected to achieve".[2]

While the Morrison method does not arrange for individual instruction in as extensive a way as does the Dalton and Winnetka plans, it does provide for taking care of individual differences in one respect--that of complete mastery. Complete mastery is acquired by different children at different rates of speed, and therefore a means of satisfying this difference must be provided.

Perhaps the two greatest theoretical advantages of the Morrison Unit

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Plan are (1) the fact that it does not waste time in teaching material which is already known by the pupils, but places its emphasis on the unknown, whether it be for the whole class, a small group or an individual, and (2) it requires complete mastery of the learnings undertaken.

> "....The objective of teaching in the school is not only adjustment but adaptability, not only putting the youth in intelligent contact with the world as it is but providing him with the cultural tools with which he can and will read the changing face of life. It is pedagogical waste, therefore, to use teaching time for the schooling of the pupil in what he can learn himself, and especially in what can be learned but not taught. Still worse, it would seem to be educational failure outright to compromise and put the student in but partial and lamely specialized contact with the world in which he must live under the mistaken theory that education and knowledge are synonomous terms."[1]

These three plans, the Dalton, the Winnetka and the Morrison are perhaps the best known. Most schools, however, develop their own system. It would be difficult for any educator, however capable, to formulate a plan which could be advantageously used in all schools under all conditions. The fundamental principle of providing for individual differences is the important point to be considered. After studying their own specific cases, instructors can devise a method of dealing with individual differences which will be well suited to the particular group with which they are working. The value of this form of instruction lies in the fact that <u>some</u> provision is being made for individual differences. The form which such training takes will of necessity be determined by the school in which it is being used. "As long as the principle that animates it is preserved, it can be modified in practice in accordance with the circumstances of the school and the judgment of the staff."[2]

[1]Henry C. Morrison, op. cit., p. 99.
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III.

CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

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ESTABLISHMENT

Continuation schools were established to fulfill a longfelt social and economic need. Pupils who had left the elementary and secondary schools to enter employment were presenting a serious problem to society. Employers were expecting a certain amount of skill in the work which these children had undertaken, and society was demanding of them the ability to live harmoniously with other people. Any child whose education has been discontinued at such an early age can not be expected to meet these requirements satisfactorily. A means of providing these young workers with the necessary training in both vocational and cultural fields had to be found. The apprenticeship system of former days had only partially solved the problem and had never been particularly satisfactory because of its limited scope and influence. Economic changes had caused the decline of even this meagre system and some other form of training had to be discovered to take its place. A study of the situation resulted in the trial of continuation schools as a possible solution to the problem.

As a result, continuation schools for working boys and girls have been established by law in many parts of our country, as well as in foreign lands. Fundamentally the laws relative to such schools are the same in different localities, although they vary somewhat in detail. They all deal with the compulsory education of the employed minor. The number of hours which the children are required to attend is regulated by state legislation, but usually ranges from four to eight hours a week for the working youth. In Massachusetts, when a child is temporarily out of work, he automatically becomes a full time member of the school and is known as a twenty-hour pupil. The hours spent at school must be part of the total number which the law allows

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As a result, continuation schools for working boys and girls have been established by law in many parts of our country, as well as in foreign lands. Fundamentally the laws relative to such schools are the same in different localities, although they vary somewhat in detail. They all deal with the compulsory education of the employed minor. The number of hours which the children are required to attend is regulated by state legislation, but usually ranges from four to eight hours a week for the working youth. In Massachusetts, when a child is temporarily out of work, he automatically becomes a full time member of the school and is known as a twenty-hour pupil. The hours spent at school must be part of the total number which the law allows

the child to work. For example, if a state sets up forty-four hours as the maximum length of time that a girl under sixteen may be employed, the four, six or eight hours which she attends school must be a part of the total forty-four and must come within the time limits during which such work would be done. Ordinarily the time is between the hours of eight in the morning and five in the afternoon. Compulsory classes may not be held in the evening, as it is realized that such a time is not opportune coming as it does after a long day's work.

In Wisconsin working children between the ages of sixteen and eighteen years are required to spend only eight hours a week in school. Employed minors of the ages of fourteen and fifteen, however, must attend fifty per cent of the time. This necessitates the grouping of pupils in pairs so that alternate groups will be in attendance at school and at work. When such an arrangement takes place in Massachusetts, these schools are known as cooperative schools. To be able to enter one of these, the child must have completed the eighth grade. The administration of these schools in the latter state is more nearly like that of the regular high school than it is like that of a continuation school.

It is difficult to place accurately the credit for being the first state to establish continuation schools. Wisconsin is often given this distinction but it must be remembered that Boston had a voluntary continuation school for employed minors as early as 1910, and that the Douglas Commission had been working on the problems of working children in Massachusetts previous to the legislation in Wisconsin.[1] The law relative to such instruction in Wisconsin was passed in 1911, after a two year's investigation of child workers. The part-time school at Milwaukee

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Pennsylvania was the next state to fall in line with this idea of part-time education. In 1915, it passed a compulsory law which embraced the entire state. The attendance requirement of this law was eight hours a week for all working children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen.

New York and Massachusetts enacted legislation pertinent to this matter at about the same time. In 1913 laws were passed in both states permitting localities to establish continuation schools and making it compulsory for regularly employed children to attend these schools in localities where they were maintained. Only Boston and New York City had established schools at that time, so the effects of these laws were not far reaching. Massachusetts, however, passed a law in 1919[1] which made the establishment of part-time schools compulsory in cities and towns where two hundred or more minors (boys and girls) were employed, provided the law was accepted by the cities and towns in the state by the adoption of a referendum at the state election of November 4, 1919. The law was adopted and went into effect at the beginning of the school year in September 1920.

Under this law each child must attend a period of four hours a week if working, and a total of twenty hours a week when temporarily unemployed. Similar legislation was passed in New York at about the same time. This legislation requires that all communities of five thousand or more population must establish and maintain a part-time school and compels the attendance of all employed boys and girls under eighteen years of age.

In 1930 twenty-eight states had followed the lead of these pioneers,

[1]General Acts of Massachusetts 1919, Chap. 311, General Laws of Education, Sec. 21, Chap. 71.

although in eight of the states the work was not compulsory, but permissive.[1] This growth has not been accomplished without some opposition, however, because this particular system of education like all others has its strong advocates and its equally strong dissenters. One question which is frequently raised concerns the value of the instruction which can be given in such a limited amount of time.

Before we can judge as to the type of instruction which should be given in part-time schools, if it is to prove of value to the child, we must acquaint ourselves with the type of pupils which it serves and with their immediate needs. Is the instruction in these schools answering the purpose for which such institutions were established? If not, what means of improving it can be found?

CHARACTERISTICS AND NEEDS OF CONTINUATION SCHOOL PUPILS

The continuation school pupil is one who has left the regular school to get to work before he has reached the age when the state law permits him to sever completely his educational connections. The reasons for leaving school are numerous. Persons unacquainted with continuation school work would quite naturally think of economic reasons as being either the only cause or the primary one for young people leaving school. In spite of the prevalence of this opinion, there is a question as to whether it is as important a reason as it seems. Economic necessity might not head the list of reasons given by pupils. Burdge, in his study "Our Boys", states that financial reasons were given by only eleven per cent of the boys in New York City, and by only seventeen per cent of the boys in smaller cities.[2] Many other reasons are apt to prevail in the

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replies given to any continuation school teacher who attempts to ascertain the causes of leaving school to go to work. Some of the more important ones given to the writer by 1555 continuation school girls are given below:

1. Lack of interest in or dislike of school.
2. Dislike of teacher.
3. Failure in one or more subjects or failure to be promoted.
4. Desire to work or preference for it.
5. Economic necessity.
6. Too much work to be made up because of enforced absence.
7. Consciousness of being over age or over size.
8. Desire to leave because chum has done so.
9. Desire of parents other than economic.

These reasons might easily be classified and grouped as are the reasons given by Cohn:

1. Economic necessity.
2. Dissatisfaction with school.
3. Personal feelings of child or attitude of parent.
4. Preference for work.[1]

Lack of interest has been placed first in the writer's list because it is the reason which has predominated in her contact with over 1500 continuation school girls. Goldberger agrees that this is probably the most important reason[2], while Woodbury states definitely that about one fifth of the children interviewed in her study left because of dislike of school or slow progress or non-promotion.[3] It is quite likely that a pupil's lack of interest in school is due to the fact that the particu-

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[2]A. M. Goldberger, "Variability in Continuation School Populations", p. 44.
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1. Lack of interest in or dislike of school.
2. Dislike of teacher.
3. Failure in one or more subjects or failure to be promoted.
4. Desire to work or preference for it.
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lar type of school which he is attending does not offer him adequate satisfaction for his most urgent needs and desires. In the elementary school the curriculum is more or less rigid. There is little opportunity for individual expression until the first year of high school or the ninth grade under the junior high school system. This fixed program has a tendency to make some children dissatisfied and they may take the path of least resistance and leave school even before a grammar school diploma has been obtained.

In the secondary school there may be several reasons that contribute to this feeling of discontent. The child may be enrolled in the wrong course or some of the subjects in it may not inspire him in any way, although others may be of vital interest to him. Because of the organization and administration of the usual secondary school, the pupil cannot often afford to drop the subject which does not stimulate him and as a result he fails in that particular course. It is fairly obvious to what ends such a condition may lead. All too often the dropping out of school is the result. The opinion has prevailed, and probably still does to a certain extent, that vocational work is primarily for the inferior or undeveloped child. As a result, pupils who might be happy in such work may not select it because of the stigma which is likely to be attached to one who followed such inclinations. It is doubtless true, also, that the vocational training in our secondary schools cannot give real trade preparation. The reasons for this failure are obvious.

Since lack of interest seems to play such an important part with many children who leave school, one of the important elements which enters into the success of part-time schools is the ability to hold the interest of the child. If a pupil has left some other school because of

its inability to inspire him, the essential purpose of the continuation school would seem to be that of supplying instruction which will develop and sustain a keen interest in the material which is presented. It is with this consideration in mind that continuation school programs should be planned.

The bitter disappointment due to failure to be promoted tends to make the victim ready to leave and try another field, usually work of some sort.[1] Repeated absences may bring about similar results. So much work is lost that in many cases it is physically as well as mentally impossible for the child to make up the required lessons in the allotted time. Sickness is frequently the cause of these absences which have been given by some children as the reason for leaving school.[2]

Another cause for the child leaving may be the one in which the size and age of the pupil plays an important role.[3] The child who is over developed physically may be extremely unhappy when he finds himself in a group, the members of which are very much smaller than he is. The same reaction is apt to occur when the pupil is older than the majority of the members of his particular grade or class.

There is even the possibility that the pupil's dislike of a teacher or teachers may be a determining factor in his choice of school or work.[4]

In cases where parental control does not predominate a pupil may leave school because a chum does. This reason may seem inadequate and foolish to the adult, but to the child it is a very real one and it is listed as one of the reasons given by the Boston Continuation School pupils studied by Cohn.[5]

Some parents who have had very little education feel that any one

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of their children who has attended beyond the sixth grade possesses a wealth of knowledge.[1] This training, in many cases, is much greater than that of the parents. Consequently the child is urged to leave school and begin work that his meagre earnings may be added to the family income. While this additional income is not absolutely necessary, the parents see no need for further education. They see persons with little training making fairly large wages and fail to realize that the wage scale stops here. They do not realize that more education might eventually lead to increased earnings. Shortsightedness on the part of both parents and children as to earnings may be another factor which influences the number of years which children spend in school.

It is difficult to ascertain just how important a part economic necessity plays in the elimination of children from school. Many pupils use this as an excuse rather than to give the real reason.[2] The writer has found in her twelve years' work in continuation school that the opposite is also true. Some girls do not give the necessity for added income as the reason but cover it up by some other excuse. Only by repeated and careful questioning can the real reasons be obtained. Woodbury states that approximately one third of the continuation school pupils studied by her left school because of economic reasons.[3] Cohn quotes from a bulletin of the Department of Labor that about one child in five leaves because of necessity.[4] Cohn also gives the figures for the pupils enrolled in the Boston Continuation School in 1924. Approximately fifty per cent of these gave economic reasons for leaving school.[5] The great variability in these figures may be due in part to the reasons mentioned above.

The desire to work often prompts children to discontinue their

1D. R. Cohn, op. cit., p. 19. 2A. M. Goldberger, op. cit., p. 44.
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Because of the many and varied causes for which children leave school, it can be readily seen that each pupil enrolled in a continuation school may be there for a different reason and therefore becomes an individual problem. Length of time spent at school, achievement level, and the reason for leaving school all vary to a great degree. Even the type of work which is entered upon by these boys and girls is of a diversified nature. There is usually only one common factor which the jobs possess, that is, the element of being unskilled. Several hundred surveys of the work done by continuation pupils (girls) have been made by the writer, and it is safe to say that in the majority of cases, the work is of a very unskilled nature. In a few instances there is a limited chance for promotion, in others, there is a more probable chance for advancement after the pupil becomes sixteen years of age, but in the majority of positions there is little chance for promotion. If the circumstances are parallel in other part-time schools (and it is quite possible that they are) the continuation school ought to afford its members prevocational training and an opportunity for vocational guidance.

These two facts, first, that the pupils in these schools are engaged in very different lines of work, and second, the lack of opportunity for advancement, lead us to the conclusion that the immediate needs of these individuals will vary to a great extent.

Probably the first need will be that of some definite information which can be applied to the job on which the pupil is employed. Some of the minor things which would be of help are often overlooked. A case of this

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There are immediate needs of the pupils other than those dealing with employment. Home conditions often present serious difficulties, and the teacher can many times give hints as to the solution of these problems by offering them in the guise of individual lesson plans. Social needs are numerous. The business of just living from day to day with other persons is a complex problem for some people. The need which arises in each case depends upon the individual, and here again the teacher has an opportunity to exercise her ingenuity in offering the specific aid which different children crave. It is the task of the continuation school to determine the need in each case and then to work out a satisfactory means of answering it.

Adolescence is another important factor which greatly augments the task which faces the continuation school teacher. This period of unrest makes the treatment of these pupils a very delicate problem. Since all children do not pass through this stage of development in exactly the same way, the methods of handling the different cases must be chosen with discretion.

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There may be as many different ways of obtaining the desired results as there are children in the school.

Pupils, fourteen years of age or over, who have completed the sixth grade requirements (in Massachusetts) and have the promise of a job may leave the regular school. They should immediately enter the continuation school in towns and cities where continuation schools are provided. This may be the day that they are fourteen or it may be a month before their sixteenth birthday. They are permitted by law to leave the continuation school on the day they become sixteen. Studies have been made to determine the proportion of children leaving school at the various ages between fourteen and sixteen years. Gearon found in his study that about twenty-five per cent of the children left as soon as their educational requirements were completed.[1] That is, they left on their fourteenth birthday provided they had completed the sixth grade. Approximately fifty per cent of the working children investigated by him left the regular school before they were fifteen years old.[2] Therefore, the remaining half left somewhere between the ages of fifteen and sixteen and as a result spent comparatively little time in the part-time school. It can be readily seen that the amount of time spent by each pupil enrolled in the continuation school varies considerably. This diversified time and age element makes the demands of each pupil different and requires that each child be treated as an individual. It would be unreasonable to expect a child who entered school in December to compete with one who had been enrolled at the beginning of the school year. Likewise it should not be expected that a seventh grade child could do the same work as one who had completed the first year of high school. The very fact that the organization of continuation schools not only allows, but requires this continuous enrollment, presents a situation which makes it highly desirable

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that a portion of the training given in them be individualized.

It is doubtless true that the pupils who enter a continuation school do so with a varying degree of educational background as well as in different stages of physical and mental growth. The range of achievement usually is from the sixth grade (pupils in Massachusetts are compelled by law to complete the sixth grade or its equivalent)[1] to the second year of high school. Gearon,[2] Cohn[3] and Woodbury[4] all found this to be the range. They found that it was exceptional to have a child leaving in the third or fourth year of high school. The peak is reached at the seventh or eighth grade.[5] Gearon found that the majority of his pupils left at the seventh,[6] while Woodbury[7] discovered that most of the children studied by her left at the eighth grade. It is not surprising that the peak is reached at the end of the elementary school, especially in places where the eight-four system is still in effect, as "graduation" frequently takes place and many pupils feel that their education is now completed. This was found to be an important reason given by the boys studied by Burdge.[8] It is also true in many cases that the completion of the eighth grade and the legal age at which a child may leave school are reached simultaneously.

The age limits are from fourteen to sixteen, but it must be borne in mind that some of the children of these ages are not normally developed, and that their mental growth may be somewhat retarded. When the working children of Boston were studied, it was found that about one-third (31.5 per cent) of them were retarded.[9] Such a marked difference in their ability to achieve, together with the varied emotional status which each pupil presents, makes the grouping and instruction of the pupils in part-time schools a distinctly different problem from that found in the longer established elementary and secondary schools.

[1]General Laws of Education of the State of Massachusetts, Sec. I, Chap. 76.
[2]James T. Gearon, op. cit., p. 8. [3]D. R. Cohn, op. cit., Plate I.
[4]Helen S. Woodbury, op. cit., p. 125. [5]Howard T. Burdge, op. cit., p. 100.
[6]James T. Gearon, op. cit., p. 8. [7]Helen S. Woodbury, op. cit., p. 125.
[8]Howard G. Burdge, op. cit., p. 115. [9]Helen S. Woodbury, op. cit., p. 127.

The part-time school faces a very difficult problem. It must be able to create and maintain in the pupil an active interest in school work, and it must place the instructive material on a level which will mean mastery and not failure for each child. The instructors in continuation school must be at all times cooperative and friendly with the child. The personality of the teacher is exceedingly important in the success of any school, but it is even more of a contributory factor to the success of a continuation school. The curriculum of the school must be flexible in order that the immediate needs of the pupil may be satisfied. It is also exceedingly important that some attempt be made to give prevocational training and vocational guidance.

It is very obvious from these facts, that the functions and aims of continuation schools are not comparable to those of the conventional system.

> "....These functions are (1) the conservation of the education already acquired and the extension of it; (2) the providing of opportunity for prevocational experience to help in the choice of a vocation; (3) vocational guidance and follow-up work; (4) the establishment of an efficient employment bureau; (5) tying school work with the job as far as possible."[1]

The aims of continuation schools are well expressed in the following paragraph:

> "The continuation school exists to help these boys and girls make the necessary social, civic, and economic adjustments which are inherent in their change of status from school to wage earners. The continuation school affords these youths an opportunity to continue a type of general education in character with their new status and to become more intelligent citizens. It helps them to get the most out of their immediate jobs; tends to stabilize them in employment; aids them to a more intelligent choice of occupation and encourages their advance from unskilled to skilled trades. It maintains such cooperative relationships with employers as promises advantages to the minor and the employer."[2]

METHOD OF MEETING PUPIL NEEDS

The question which arises next is how to administer these schools that

[1]Compulsory Continuation Schools, Bulletin of the Massachusetts Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education, Whole Number 111, No. 2, p. 13. Published 1920. [2]"State Aided Vocational and Part-time Education of Massachusetts", Bulletin of the Massachusetts Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education, Whole Number 205, No. 2, p. 12. Published 1929.

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The question which arises next is how to administer these schools that

they may function properly and fulfill the given objectives. The administration of the school and the organization of the curriculum, as well as the grouping of the pupils and the content of the courses will exert a great influence on the way in which the school functions. One of the first problems is classifying the child and enrolling him in the group from which he will derive the most benefit. There are many possibilities. He may be assigned on the basis of age, achievement, mentality or occupation, and there are advantages and disadvantages relative to each of these arrangements. Probably the vocational classification is the one to be most desired as the members will have as their common interest their job.

The smaller schools will encounter even more difficulty in the grouping than do the larger ones. The intention of the administrators may be to classify the pupils according to the particular method which the former have chosen as the best for their specific situation. But all sorts of disturbing elements enter in to break up the contemplated grouping. Shops that employ several pupils on the same job can not spare them all on the same day. Usually one or two attend each day. For many excellent reasons, requests come in for Mary to attend on Wednesday, or for Tom to be present on Friday. Certain unavoidable circumstances at the place of business or at home permit the child to attend only on a stated day. Since there must be whole-hearted cooperation between the employer and the school, a supreme effort is made to grant these requests whenever it is at all feasible. Therefore, in spite of the best of plans, the teacher in part-time schools frequently finds that the class of pupils of which he is to be the leader has very little in common if judged by any particular basis of grouping.

The number enrolled in the classes of schools of this type also has an important bearing on the results attained. The State of Massachusetts

recommends that not more than fifteen pupils be registered in any one group.[1] It is difficult to keep the number down to this level and the classes sometimes increase in number. The strain put upon the teacher and the inability to accomplish the best instruction of the pupils with large classes are fully realized. When the larger groups are unavoidable, the teacher may divide the class into smaller groups, the members of which have a common interest, and procede with individual instruction, using the small group as he would an individual. "Classes should be small enough for individual instruction and for individual counselling and guidance."[2]

The subject matter taught in these schools is unlike that which is given in the formal class rooms. The time is divided equally into two parts. One is devoted to academic work and the other to vocational training. The one dominating principle in the choice of subject matter is the pupil's need for it. The vocational work often assumes trade instruction, but in the case of the girls it frequently becomes training in home making, courses in foods, clothing, family relationships, home nursing and similar subjects being offered. In addition, commercial courses and power machine operating may also be given. Occasionally other courses may be offered, but usually only when there is a distinct and definite relation between such courses and the job on which the pupils are employed. The predominating subjects for the boys are woodworking, printing, metal work and household mechanics. Some electrical work may be offered. The major portion of the academic work is related to the vocational interests, and is resolved around four subjects, English, hygiene, civics and arithmetic. Although related work is the prime requisite, it is not given to such an extent that cultural training is not considered. Many lessons are given for the sole purpose of instilling general information and adding to the child's joy in living. In fact, one of

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the aims of the school is to instill a knowledge of good citizenship. Other desirable attainments are the desire to read good literature, a wise handling of money, and the acquiring of social and moral virtues.

The planning of this material so that it will answer the individual needs presents a gigantic task to the teacher. Theoretically she must plan a lesson sheet for each individual. Actually she plans for small groups of pupils who have some common interest or some common basis for achievement.

> "....Continuation school training must be case study work. That is to say, in theory a different course of study must be prepared for each child, while in practice, as many courses will be devised as there are homogeneous groups of pupils...."[1]

In order that the teachers may more easily plan the subject matter to meet the needs of the individual and to relate it to the present and possible future employment, all instructors in continuation schools are required to do a prescribed amount of follow up work. Massachusetts expects that a teacher will spend one third of his total working hours visiting homes and places of employment.[2] This proportionally large amount of time is required that the teacher may have close contact with both home and working conditions of each child. Surveys are made for each pupil registered and the conditions in both places are recorded for possible future use. While on these visits the instructor frequently learns of problems which confront the pupils and many times these cases furnish excellent material from which the teacher may develop lesson plans which will be particularly adapted to the individual in question.

All the foregoing evidence points to the following conclusions. First, that continuation schools differ to a great degree from the formal elementary and secondary schools, as to the length of time pupils are required to attend, the type of child enrolled, the objectives, and the ultimate aims.

[1]F. J. Keller, op. cit., p. 46.
[2]Bulletin Continuation Schools, "Outline of Objectives" (September 1926), Massachusetts Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education.

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Second, because of these differences, it will not be possible to employ traditional class room methods successfully. And third, it is necessary to practice some other form of instruction which will, in all probability, be more effective.

One possible solution to the problem is to use individual instruction. For what subjects, in what form, and to how great an extent such instruction is to be used, may be decided best only by studying the experiences of those workers in the field who have already inaugurated this form of teaching in their schools and who have bent their untiring efforts to planning and organizing this particular form of instruction. Therefore, it follows that a study could profitably be made in order to ascertain whether some form of individual instruction was being employed in continuation schools, to find out if this method was considered feasible by those actively engaged in this particular branch of school work, and to determine the manner in which such training, if used, was carried out. It was with the idea of obtaining this material that a survey of the Massachusetts continuation schools was made. It was also with this purpose of gaining first-hand information concerning the use of individual lesson sheets that the writer conducted a short experiment using such material with her foods classes.

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IV

AN EXPERIMENT USING INDIVIDUAL CONTRACT SHEETS IN A SHORT FOODS UNIT

VI

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Individual lesson plans have been used in certain phases of vocational or shop work for some time. When such plans were first put into use, they were usually worked out and employed for particular subjects. Other branches were rather neglected. It has long been recognized that individualized work was easily carried out in the clothing classes. Such instruction has not been so widely used with the foods classes. It was with the idea of seeing how such material would work out with the foods work that the writer attempted to employ some contract sheets in a short foods unit.

The sheets were used as supplementary problems, the girls getting them and working on them whenever they had the time. The contract contained three groups of problems related to the day's lesson. Group C contained the minimum requirement which must be completed if a grade of "C" was to be secured. The satisfactory completion of the B group in addition was necessary to earn a "B" grade. Group A usually contained material of a more difficult nature, and those pupils who did this group well in addition to the others received a mark of "A". References were listed on the sheet and adequate reference books were provided. One or two lessons were allowed for the completion of the work according to the amount of time which the girls had for the work. The papers were marked and the ranks recorded.

Some very interesting information was received from this study.

(1) With few exceptions the girls were very much interested in doing the contracts. The teacher was surprised many times to see the eagerness with which some girls attacked the problems.

(2) The problem of discipline became almost negligible. The girls were so busy that they had no time for misbehaving.

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(2) The problem of discipline became almost negligible. The girls were so busy that they had no time for misbehaving.

(3) The use of contracts prevented a waste of time which frequently occurs even in reasonably well planned cooking classes.

(4) This work gave the pupils a more extensive knowledge of the subject matter related to the lesson than the teacher could have possibly given in the same time to the class as a whole.

(5) The girls learned to use reference books wisely and grew to enjoy doing so.

The results of this short experiment can not supply conclusive evidence concerning the use of individual contract sheets in foods classes. It would seem quite likely, however, that such sheets might be used to advantage in the teaching of foods. The writer has found them exceedingly helpful and intends to continue their use with her foods classes. There may be other answers to the problem of finding the best form of instruction for part-time schools, but it is reasonable to expect that the individual plan offers the most satisfactory solution. The particular plan adopted, the manner in which it is to be employed, together with other details, is a question which can be answered only by individual instructors who, because of varying conditions, will be obliged to work out the method which can be most successfully used in their own particular schools.

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COPIES OF

INDIVIDUAL CONTRACT SHEETS USED BY THE WRITER

IN A

SHORT FOODS UNIT

COPIES OF

INDIVIDUAL CONTRACT SHEETS USED BY THE WAITER

IN A

SHORT ORDER UNIT

PROTEINS
EGGS
CONTRACT NO. 1

You will find below three groups of assignments. The girls who complete the first or C group satisfactorily are entitled to a "C" mark. Those who do the B group satisfactorily will earn a "B" mark. Anyone who does all the three groups well is marked "A". It is not expected that every girl will be able to do all three groups.

Work as rapidly as possible, but not so fast that you make mistakes. Answers are to be written out on paper and handed to the teacher at the end of the lesson.

GROUP C

1. We frequently hear that eggs should be sold by the pound instead of by the dozen. Using scales find out how many eggs there are in a pound. Is it more accurate to buy eggs by the pound or by the dozen?
2. A simple way to test whether eggs are fresh or not is to place one carefully in a bowl of salt water. Use $\frac{1}{2}$ c salt to 1 qt. water. You will find the salt solution prepared at the teacher's desk. A fresh egg sinks and a stale egg floats. Test the eggs at the teacher's desk. Are they fresh or stale? Do the same with some of the eggs at the supply table. Are they fresh? Why does a stale egg float?
3. Properly cooked eggs are not boiled. They are more easily digested when prepared in the following way. Put 3 or 4 inches of cold water into both parts of your small double boiler and place over a flame. When the water in both is boiling put an egg into the top part, and place the upper part over the lower. A soft egg is cooked 3 min.; a medium one is cooked 7 min. A hard cooked egg is left for 10 min. Cook an egg for yourself as you wish it. Let the teacher see it when it is done and describe it on your paper.

GROUP B

Make a drawing of an egg and label the parts. There should be seven.

GROUP A

Find out all you can about the preservation of eggs and describe two methods. One which is used commercially and one which may be used at home. At what time of the year is it best to preserve eggs at home?

References

Everyday Foods, Harris and Lacey, Chap. 7.
Elementary Home Economics, Matthews, pp. 204-205
School Kitchen Textbook, Lincoln, Chap. 13, p. 133.

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SALEM CONTINUATION SCHOOL

CONTRACT 1 B

EGGS

GROUP C

1. Eggs are considered a very nutritious food.
   a. Do you think this is true? Give reasons for your answer.
   b. Has the white or the yolk of the egg more food value?
   c. Sometimes, when a person is ill and unable to retain any food in his stomach, the doctor orders a "fruit albumen drink". This is an egg white shaken up with ice and lemon or orange juice.
      Why does the doctor order this instead of a cooked egg?
      Why is it called an albumen drink?

GROUP B

Have you ever noticed that a silver spoon or fork that comes in contact with an egg becomes discolored?
   a. From your reading, see if you can find out what causes this.
   b. How would you remove the stain?

GROUP A

State briefly the composition of egg in terms of protein, carbohydrate, etc.

References

Those on Sheet 1.

SALEM CONTINUATION SCHOOL

CONTRACT II

FISH

GROUP C

1. To what class of foods does fish belong?
2. What does it do for the body?
3. Your mother sends you to the market to select a fish for a chowder. How will you know that it is fresh?
   How will you know that the fishman is not giving you cod?
   How will you care for the fish when you reach home?

GROUP B

1. Is the flavor of fish mild or strong?
2. For this reason, what types of sauces and vegetables should be served with it?
3. Name two sauces with which you are familiar that might be served with fish.
4. Name three vegetables that would be suitable with fish.

GROUP A

1. Name as many fresh fish as you can think of.
2. What important fishing port is near us?
3. Write anything of interest that you know about this city.

References

Everyday Foods, Harris and Lacey, Chap. XIX.
The Boston Cooking School Cook Book, F. M. Farmer.
The School Kitchen Textbook, Lincoln, Lesson XXII.
Junior Foods and Clothing, Kinyon Hopkins -- see Index.
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SALEM CONTINUATION SCHOOL

CONTRACT III

PROTEINS
MILK

GROUP C

1. We sometimes hear milk called a "perfect food". Is this statement true?
2. Is it advisable for an adult to live for a long time on milk?
3. Is milk a complete food for children?
4. If not, what is used with it?
5. To what class of foods does milk belong?
6. How much milk should be used for each adult a day? for each child per day?

GROUP B

1. How should milk be cared for when it arrives in the home?
2. How may milk be purchased other than fresh?
3. What would you do with some milk that had soured?
4. What is used with sour milk as a leavening agent?

GROUP A

1. Make a list of the various food elements found in milk.
2. In your own words, write a short article covering one side of the paper, showing how milk can be used to aid the health of the family.

References

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Consult other books at the desk. Use the index.
Consult the pamphlets on milk put out by the New England Dairy Council.

SALEM CONTINUATION SCHOOL

CONTRACT III

FOOTNOTES
MILK

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SALEM CONTINUATION SCHOOL

MEAT CONTRACT

GROUP C

1. To what class of foods does meat belong?
2. What is its value to the body?
3. Name at least four other foods which may be used in place of meat.
4. Describe the appearance of a good piece of roast beef before cooking.
5. Tell how you would cook a tender steak.
6. Tell how you would cook meat for a stew.

GROUP B

1. How does meat compare in cost with other similar foods?
2. State briefly the composition of meat.
3. How may the amount of money spent for meat be decreased?

GROUP A

1. Choose one of the following kinds of meat and write a paragraph (covering one half a sheet of paper) on it. Lamb-- Beef-- Pork.

References

Junior Foods and Clothing, Kinyon Hopkins, pp. 82, 86, 162-163, 198, 210-216, 225-226.
The School Kitchen Textbook, Lincoln, Lesson X.
Boston Cooking School Cook Book, Farmer, pp. 229-233, 255, 281.
Everyday Foods, Harris and Lacey, pp. 165-170.
Elementary Home Economics, pp. 267-277.

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SALEM CONTINUATION SCHOOL

CHEESE CONTRACT

GROUP C

1. What does cheese do for the body?
2. State briefly the composition of cheese.
3. How does the cost of cheese compare with the cost of meat?
4. Is this fact of any help if you need to save money?
5. What is the most important point to remember about cheese cookery?

GROUP B

1. From the following list select the foods which would make a well balanced meal if served with a cheese fondue.

Boiled Potato	Scrambled Eggs	Banana Whip
Lettuce Salad	Sliced Tomatoes	Sliced Oranges and Cake
Macaroni	Fried Fish	Strawberry Ice Cream
Meat Loaf	Toast or Crackers	Peach Shortcake
Doughnuts	Mince Pie	

GROUP A

1. Write a short paragraph on the manufacture of cheese.

References

Everyday Foods, Harris and Lacey, pp. 118-119.
The Boston Cooking School Cook Book, Farmer, p. 10.
Elementary Home Economics, Matthews, pp. 221-223.

SALEM CONTINUATION SCHOOL

CHEESE CONTRACT

GROUP C

1. What does cheese do for the body?
2. State briefly the composition of cheese.
3. How does the cost of cheese compare with the cost of meat?
4. Is this fact of any help if you need to save money?
5. What is the most important point to remember about cheese cookery?

GROUP B

1. From the following list select the foods which would make a well balanced meal if served with a cheese fondue.

Boiled Potato	Scrambled Eggs	Banana Whip
Lettuce Salad	Sliced Tomatoes	Sliced Oranges and Cake
Macaroni	Fried Fish	Strawberry Ice Cream
Meat Loaf	Toast or Crackers	Peach Shortcake
Doughnuts	Mince Pie	

GROUP A

1. Write a short paragraph on the manufacture of cheese.

References

Everyday Foods, Hertel and Lacey, pp. 118-119.
The Boston Cooking School Cook Book, Farmer, p. 10.
Elementary Home Economics, Matthews, pp. 281-283.

SALEM CONTINUATION SCHOOL

BREAKFAST CONTRACT

GROUP C

1. Mary is twelve years old. She has a brother fifteen, and a baby sister two years old. Plan a breakfast menu for the entire family including the mother and father.
2. Mary has a cousin, Jane, who is very thin. Plan a breakfast which will help her to gain weight.
3. Make two breakfast menus. (1) For a man who works in an office. (2) For a man who is employed as a city laborer.

GROUP B

1. Find out all you can about the commercial preparation of dried fruits.
2. How does the cost of dried fruit compare with that of fresh fruit?

GROUP A

1. Write a paragraph on the value of fruit to the body.

References

Consult any of the books at the desk, and look up fruit in the index.

SALEM CONTINUATION SCHOOL

BREAKFAST CONTRACT

GROUP C

1. Mary is twelve years old. She has a brother fifteen, and a baby sister two years old. Plan a breakfast menu for the entire family including the mother and father.
2. Mary has a cousin, Jane, who is very thin. Plan a breakfast which will help her to gain weight.
3. Make two breakfast menus. (1) For a man who works in an office. (2) For a man who is employed as a city laborer.

GROUP B

1. Find out all you can about the commercial preparation of dried fruits.
2. How does the cost of dried fruit compare with that of fresh fruit?

GROUP A

1. Write a paragraph on the value of fruit to the body.

References

Consult any of the books at the desk, and look up Fruit in the index.

V

SURVEY OF MASSACHUSETTS CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

V

THE SURVEY OF MASSACHUSETTS CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

In order to restrict the number of schools studied to a reasonable one, the continuation schools of Massachusetts were selected for the study. It was, of course, necessary that the information secured concerning the use of individual instruction in these schools be authentic. That this might be the case, personal interviews were held especially with those instructors who had apparently been quite successful in formulating contracts and using them with their pupils. It was not possible, however, to employ this means to secure the desired information from all the schools, and a questionnaire was sent out to those which could not be reached for personal interviews.

Information was received from twenty-one of the forty continuation schools approached. As this number represents 52.50 per cent of the part-time schools in Massachusetts, and as the answers received were from cities and towns in scattered geographical sections, the replies are felt to be fairly representative of such schools in the state.

It has been previously stated that two home making schools and one trade school for girls have been included in the survey. The information from all these schools was obtained by personal interviews with various instructors in each school. The data from these interviews have been included because the problems of the home making and trade schools are very similar to those of the continuation schools. Moreover, in each case, the material received was of such a nature that it would be helpful to those interested in this particular problem. Therefore, the total number of schools studied was twenty-four, and the results of the survey are based upon this number.

THE SURVEY OF MASSACHUSETTS

CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

In order to restrict the number of schools studied to a reasonable one, the continuation schools of Massachusetts were selected for the study. It was, of course, necessary that the information secured concerning the use of individual instruction in these schools be authentic. That this might be the case, personal interviews were held especially with those instructors who had apparently been quite successful in formulating contracts and using them with their pupils. It was not possible, however, to employ this means to secure the desired information from all the schools, and a questionnaire was sent out to those which could not be reached for personal interviews.

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COPY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE SENT TO MASSACHUSETTS CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

A STUDY OF THE INDIVIDUAL PROGRESS PLAN OF INSTRUCTION

NAME OF SCHOOL----------LOCATION----------
Street City

Will you please fill out the following blank and return it in the enclosed envelope on or before February 24, 1932?

Please use check marks ( ) whenever possible to indicate your answers.

Is some plan of individual instruction used in your school?
Yes ----- No ----- Occasionally ----------

Is this type of instruction used for
Four hour pupils -----
Regular teaching -------- Daily -------- Occasionally ----------
Supplementary teaching--- Daily -------- Occasionally ----------
Twenty hour pupils -----
Regular teaching -------- Daily -------- Occasionally ----------
Supplementary teaching--- Daily -------- Occasionally ----------

In which of the following courses is it used? Foods -----
Clothing ----- Home Management ----- Family Relationships ----- Social ---
Economics ----- Related Academic ----- Other Courses ----------

For which of these courses do you consider it best adapted?
Foods ----- Clothing ----- Home Management ----- Family Relationships ----
Social Economics ----- Related Academic ----- Other Courses ----------

Do you hold class discussions daily (for twenty hour pupils) ------
weekly ----- monthly ----- at the beginning of each new contract --------
at the end of each contract ----- never -------

Are pupil conferences held daily (for twenty hour pupils) ---------
weekly ----- monthly ----- at the beginning of each new contract --------
at the end of each contract ----- never -------

Is there a list of references to books and periodicals on the sheet?
Always ----- Occasionally ----- Never -----

Why do you use references? To stimulate interest ----- To supplement the problem ----- To give the necessary directions for fulfilling the contract ----- To teach the proper use of reference books ----- To develop independence in working through a problem ----- To teach resourcefulness ---
Other reasons ----------

Does your contract cover one day's assignment ----- More than one day's assignment ----- One week's work (for twenty hour pupils) -----
A longer period of time ----------

Does your contract contain a minimum requirement -----
One supplementary problem ----- Two supplementary problems -----
Other material ----------

Is the minimum requirement based on average ability -----
less than average ----------

What type of progress record is used? Graphs ----- Charts -----
Pupil written reports ----- Other methods ---------- None -----

Is the progress record kept by pupil ----- teacher -----
Other person ----------

Is it checked daily for four hour pupils ----- Monthly ----- at the
end of each contract ----- Other Method ----------

Is it checked daily for twenty hour pupils ----- Weekly -----
Monthly ----- at the end of each contract ----- Other Method ------

Are pupils marked by A. B. C. method ----- Good, Satisfactory, Poor
method ----- Other Methods ---------- Not marked ----------

Are grades based on achievement only ----- industry only -----
attitude only ----- a combination of all these ----- Other Method ----

Are pupils' comments on the Individual Progress Method favorable -----
unfavorable ----- otherwise ----------

Do parents' comment on it favorably ----- unfavorably -----
otherwise ----------

Will you list below the advantages and disadvantages of this method
which you feel are outstanding.

Advantages	Disadvantages

Note: It would be appreciated if you would enclose sample copies of the various Individual Progress Sheets, a sample of the progress record which you keep, and any other material which you feel would be helpful in this study.

Return to J. H. Rust, 389 Essex Street, Salem, Massachusetts.

Does your contract contain a minimum requirement -----
One supplementary problem ----- Two supplementary problems -----
Other material ----------

Is the minimum requirement based on average ability -----
less than average ----------

What type of progress record is used? Graphs ----- Charts -----
Pupil written reports ----- Other methods ---------- None -----

Is the progress record kept by pupil ----- teacher -----
Other person ----------

Is it checked daily for four hour pupils ----- Monthly ----- at the
end of each contract ----- Other Method ----------

Is it checked daily for twenty hour pupils ----- Weekly -----
Monthly ----- at the end of each contract ----- Other Method ------

Are pupils marked by A. B. C. method ----- Good, Satisfactory, Poor
method ----- Other Methods ---------- Not marked ----------

Are grades based on achievement only ----- industry only -----
attitude only ----- a combination of all these ----- Other Method ----

Are pupils' comments on the Individual Progress Method favorable -----
unfavorable ----- otherwise ----------

Do parents' comment on it favorably ----- unfavorably -----
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Will you list below the advantages and disadvantages of this method
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Advantages Disadvantages

Note: It would be appreciated if you would enclose sample copies
of the various Individual Progress Sheets, a sample of the progress
record which you keep, and any other material which you feel would
be helpful in this study.

Return to J. H. Hunt, 389 Essex Street, Salem, Massachusetts.

COPY OF THE LETTER WHICH ACCOMPANIED THE QUESTIONNAIRE

389 Essex Street
Salem, Massachusetts
February 8, 1932

My dear

I am particularly interested in that type of instruction which deals primarily with the individual, and which is commonly known as the contract method. As a teacher in a Continuation School, I am making an analysis of this method of teaching, for it is my belief that the results of such a study would be most helpful to those of us who are in this field. It is reasonable to expect that some valuable suggestions and conclusions might be drawn from it.

It is with this hope that I am asking you to cooperate by answering the enclosed questions. For it is only with your kind cooperation and that of other interested persons that enough material will be made available to make the results of this study of real value to us all.

Cordially yours,

HJR:FSC

SUMMATION OF THE DATA RECEIVED FROM TWENTY-FOUR PART-TIME SCHOOLS IN THE STATE OF MASSACHUSETTS

The replies to the first question concerning the use of individual instruction in the continuation schools of Massachusetts are most significant. All of the twenty-four cases studied claimed to use this method. Nineteen schools or 79.15 per cent reported the general use of this plan, while five schools or 20.83 per cent reported its occasional use. Such information presents evidence that the continuation school instructors of this state feel that the use of the individual method of instruction is decidedly helpful in solving some of the problems which arise due to the various needs of the pupils in part-time schools.

TABLE I GENERAL USE OF INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION IN TWENTY-FOUR CONTINUATION SCHOOLS IN MASSACHUSETTS

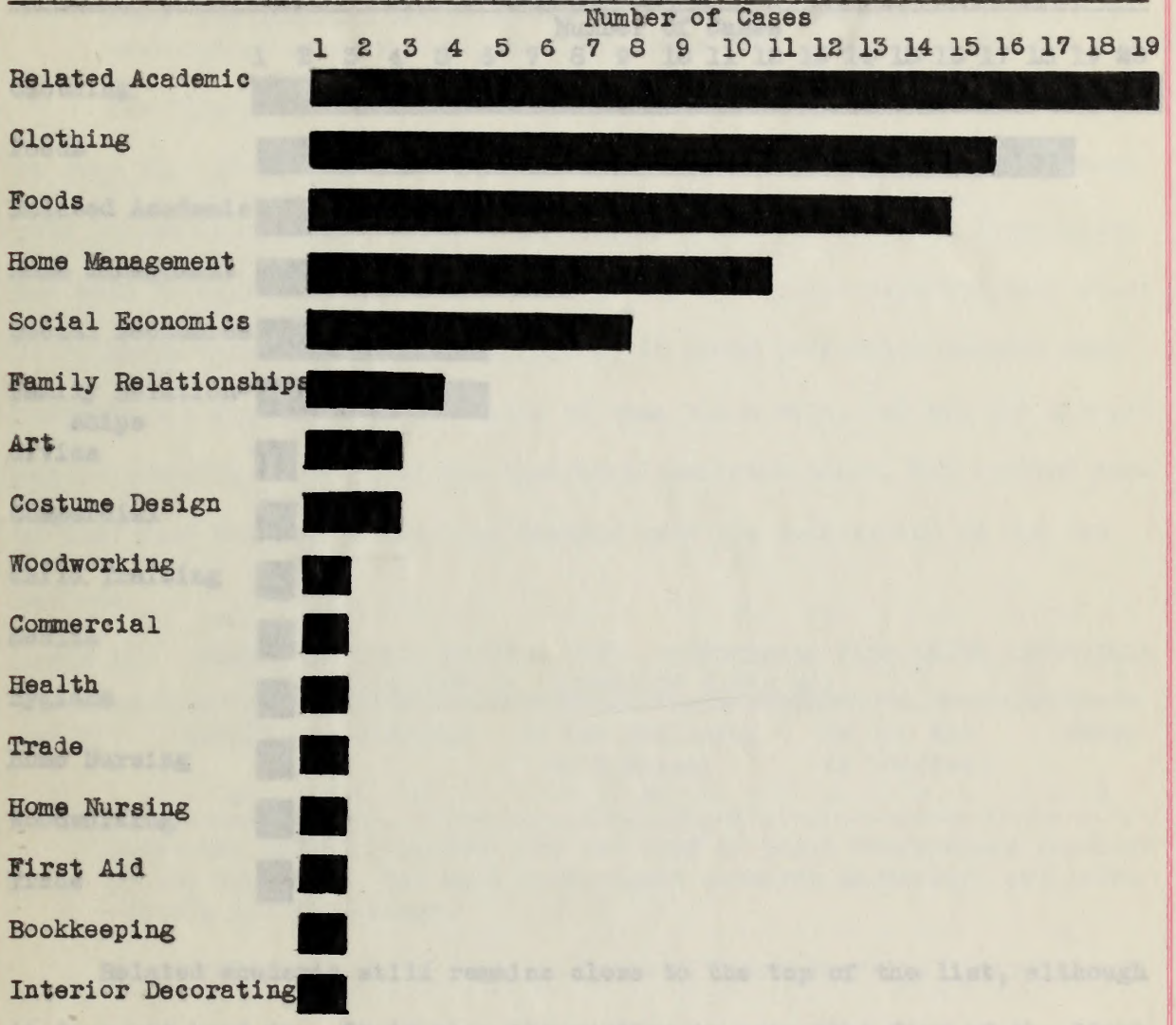
Four Hour Pupils		
Regular Teaching	Daily	Occasionally
4	8	8
Supplementary Teaching	Daily	Occasionally
	3	8
Twenty Hour Pupils		
Regular Teaching	Daily	Occasionally
2	6	4
Supplementary Teaching	Daily	Occasionally
1	2	4

Note: The total number of replies on this table is more than twenty-four due to the fact that more than one type of instruction was checked for both the four hour and twenty hour pupils in several cases.

The most important fact shown by Table I is that individual instruction is applicable to both four hour and twenty hour pupils. Moreover, it can be used successfully in supplementary work as well as in the regular lessons. It is interesting to note the wide range of conditions under which this method is used. This would seem to indicate that the value of instruc-

tion sheets is not confined to any one group of pupils or to any particular branch of the work.

GRAPH I THE SUBJECTS FOR WHICH INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION IS MOST FREQUENTLY USED IN THE CONTINUATION SCHOOLS OF MASSACHUSETTS



This graph is exceedingly interesting in view of the following quotation: "Vocational education is more often individualized than regular academic instruction...."[1] The figures given here would indicate that individual instruction is more frequently used for related academic work than in any other subject. The vocational courses are a close second, however.

[1]Mary Huntington Comings, "Individualization of Work in the Vocational School at Madison", Twenty-fourth Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, p. 114.

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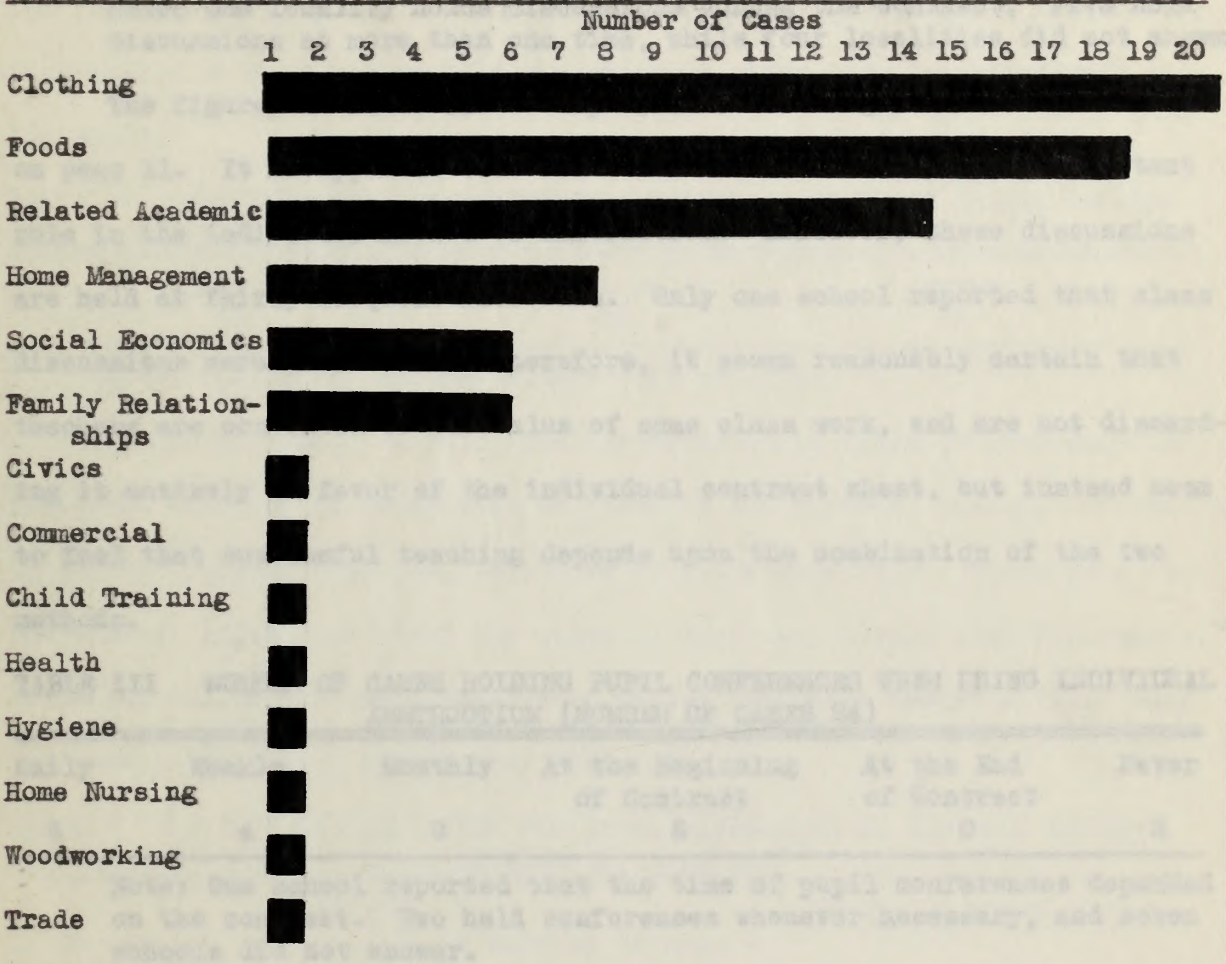
[1] Mary Huntington Cowings, "Individualization of Work in the Vocational School at Madison", Twenty-Fourth Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, p. 114.

GRAPH II SUBJECTS FOR WHICH INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION IS CONSIDERED BEST ADAPTED BY THE INSTRUCTORS IN TWENTY-FOUR CONTINUATION SCHOOLS IN MASSACHUSETTS



Related academic still remains close to the top of the list, although it does not head it. It is also interesting to note that five of the first six subjects listed are home economic subjects, which tends to show that vocational subjects are often individualized. The fact that these home economic subjects were checked so many times may be due to the set up of the question on the survey.

It is difficult to account for the lack of individualization in woodworking. Possibly this is due only to the fact that it was not included in the list on the questionnaire.

GRAPH II SUBJECTS FOR WHICH INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION IS CONSIDERED BEST ADAPTED BY THE INSTRUCTORS IN TWENTY-FOUR CONTINUATION SCHOOLS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

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It is difficult to account for the lack of individualization in woodworking. Possibly this is due only to the fact that it was not included in the list on the questionnaire.

TABLE II NUMBER OF CASES HOLDING CLASS DISCUSSIONS PARALLEL WITH THE USE OF INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION (NUMBER OF CASES 24)

Daily	Weekly	Monthly	At the Beginning of Contract	At the End of Contract	Never
10	6	0	5	2	1

Note: One locality holds discussions during the contract. Five hold discussions at more than one time, while four localities did not answer.

The figures in Table II are important in the light of the statements on page 11. It is apparent that class discussions still play an important role in the individual method of instruction. Moreover, these discussions are held at fairly frequent intervals. Only one school reported that class discussions were never held. Therefore, it seems reasonably certain that teachers are convinced of the value of some class work, and are not discarding it entirely in favor of the individual contract sheet, but instead seem to feel that successful teaching depends upon the combination of the two methods.

TABLE III NUMBER OF CASES HOLDING PUPIL CONFERENCES WHEN USING INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION (NUMBER OF CASES 24)

Daily	Weekly	Monthly	At the Beginning of Contract	At the End of Contract	Never
6	4	0	2	0	2

Note: One school reported that the time of pupil conferences depended on the contract. Two held conferences whenever necessary, and seven schools did not answer.

It is obvious from the data in Table III that there is apparently no agreement among the teachers as to how frequently pupil conferences should be held. This may be due to two causes. It is quite possible that the question as asked on the survey may have been misinterpreted. Instructors may have considered that a conference meant a formal one. Discussions with teachers would lead us to believe that more instructors really hold personal conferences with their pupils than would be indicated by the figures. Informal conferences are doubtless held. There is also the possibility that

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Note: One locality holds discussions during the contract. Five hold discussions at more than one time, while four localities did not answer.

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Daily	Weekly	Monthly	At the Beginning of Contract	At the End of Contract	Never
6	4	0	2	0	8

Note: One school reported that the time of pupil conferences depended on the contract. Two held conferences whenever necessary, and seven schools did not answer.

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the individual plan of instruction has not been in use long enough to settle definitely in the minds of the instructors the question of the advisability and time for holding pupil conferences. These reasons may account, in part, for the lack of response and also for the failure of this table to show any outstanding data. Consequently the material given here has relatively little value.

TABLE IV THE INCLUSION OF REFERENCE MATERIAL IN CONTRACT SHEETS (NUMBER OF CASES 24)

Always	Occasionally	Never
11	10	2

Note: One school did not answer this question.

It is reasonably certain from the material in Table IV that most instructors consider it beneficial to place on the contract sheets, references to books, magazine articles, pamphlets or other materials. There were eleven schools (45.83 per cent) who answered that they always used references, while ten (41.66 per cent) added them to the contracts occasionally. Only two schools (8.33 per cent) never used them.

TABLE V LIST OF REASONS GIVEN FOR USING REFERENCES ON CONTRACT SHEETS (NUMBER OF CASES 24)

Reason	Number of Times Checked
1. To develop independence in working through a problem.	17
2. To teach resourcefulness.	17
3. To supplement the problem.	15
4. To teach the proper use of reference books.	14
5. To stimulate interest.	10
6. To give the necessary directions for fulfilling the contract.	8
7. To enable pupils to compare texts.	1
8. To save the teacher's time.	1

Note: Some reasons were checked by a number of schools.

The material in Table V is interesting from a standpoint of the number of times the first five reasons were checked. It is quite evident that references are included for many reasons, all of which are of indisputable value to the child.

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TABLE IV THE INCLUSION OF REFERENCE MATERIAL IN CONTRACT SHEETS (NUMBER OF CASES 24)

Always	Occasionally	Never
11	10	3

Note: One school did not answer this question.

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The material in Table V is interesting from a standpoint of the number of times the first five reasons were checked. It is quite evident that references are included for many reasons, all of which are of indisputable value to the child.

TABLE VI LENGTH OF TIME NEEDED FOR COMPLETING CONTRACTS (NUMBER OF CASES 24)

One Day	More Than One Day	One Week	A Longer Period
14	5	1	1

Note: One school stated that the contracts were usually of five weeks' duration, another reported that they varied in length, while still another listed the contracts used in that particular school as covering twelve to sixteen lessons.

The data in Table VI show that short contracts are most commonly used. The length of the time for completing contracts, however, depends on the specific conditions under which they are used. Many notes added to the replies to this question indicated that the organization of the school units, the subject matter, and the special problem upon which the contract is based, all influence the length of time required for the pupils to complete the contracts.

TABLE VII AMOUNT OF INSTRUCTIVE MATERIAL INCLUDED IN CONTRACT SHEETS (NUMBER OF CASES 24)

Minimum Requirement Only	One Supplementary Problem	Two Supplementary Problems
12	1	2

Note: One school stated that there were no specific requirements on the contract sheets which it used. Another reported that the lessons were not arranged in this manner. One school (the one reporting one supplementary problem) calls the requirements minimum and maximum. One school mentioned the inclusion of other material. Six schools did not reply.

Although the replies to this question were not as numerous as might be desired, the figures in Table VII signify that the contract sheets often contain only a minimum requirement. Fifty per cent answered in this way.

Twenty replies were received in answer to the question, "Is the minimum requirement based on average ability or less than average?" Sixteen or 66.66 per cent of the group agreed that they based this requirement on average ability. Only four schools or 16.66 per cent based it on less than average ability, but one school did state that the requirement was based on less than the average in some special cases. This information would indicate that the common practice in the continuation schools of Massachusetts is to base the minimum requirement on average ability.

TABLE VI LENGTH OF TIME NEEDED FOR COMPLETING CONTRACTS (NUMBER OF CASES 24)

One Day	More Than One Day	One Week	A Longer Period
14	8	1	1

Note: One school stated that the contracts were usually of five weeks' duration, another reported that they varied in length, while still another listed the contracts used in that particular school as covering twelve to sixteen lessons.

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TABLE VII AMOUNT OF INSTRUCTIVE MATERIAL INCLUDED IN CONTRACT SHEETS (NUMBER OF CASES 24)

Minimum Requirement Only	One Supplementary Problem	Two Supplementary Problems
12	1	8

Note: One school stated that there were no specific requirements on the contract sheets which it used. Another reported that the lessons were not arranged in this manner. One school (the one reporting one supplementary problem) omits the requirements minimum and maximum. One school mentioned the inclusion of other material. Six schools did not reply.

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More than one method was checked by six schools when the question concerning the type of progress record used was answered. Therefore, the total number listed is thirty instead of twenty-four.

Type of Record	Number in Use
Charts	17
Graphs	5
Pupil written report	4
Other methods	
Teacher's reports	1
Cards	1
Unit card to be punched	1
No details given	1
Total	30

All the schools replied to this question and stated that some form of progress record was used. The data given here would indicate that the predominating method of recording pupil progress in the continuation schools of Massachusetts is by charts.

The answers to the next question relative to the person who kept the progress record also totalled more than twenty-four, as seven schools felt that the progress record should be kept by both teacher and pupil. It is quite evident, however, that the record is usually kept by the instructor, as twenty-three of the schools replied to this effect. One school did not answer. It was impossible to determine accurately from the answers, which type of progress record was kept by the teacher, and which type was kept by the pupil in every case. In the majority of cases, however, the records kept by the teacher were charts. Twenty-two schools reported that this was their custom.

TABLE VIII FREQUENCY WITH WHICH PROGRESS RECORDS ARE CHECKED (NUMBER OF CASES 24)

When Checked	For Four Hour Pupils	For Twenty Hour Pupils
Daily	13	1
Weekly		7
Monthly	1	1
At end of Contract	8	6
Total	22	15

More than one method was checked by six schools when the question concerning the type of progress record used was answered. Therefore, the total number listed is thirty instead of twenty-four.

Type of Record	Number in Use
Charts	17
Graphs	5
Pupil written report	4
Other methods	
Teacher's reports	1
Cards	1
Unit card to be punched	1
No details given	1
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TABLE VIII FREQUENCY WITH WHICH RECORDS ARE CHECKED (NUMBER OF CASES 24)

When Checked	For Four Hour Pupils	For Twenty Hour Pupils
Daily	13	1
Weekly		9
Monthly	1	1
At end of Courtest	8	8
Total	22	19

Note: In one case the records are checked at varying intervals. One school reported that the records of twenty hour pupils were kept by the employment or placement teacher at his own discretion. One school did not report concerning the four hour pupils, while eight did not reply to the question about the twenty hour pupils.

The data in Table VIII indicate that there is no agreement as to how often progress records should be checked. Undoubtedly the individual instruction plan has not yet reached perfection, and so there is at present no agreement as to the frequency of checking pupils' progress. The practice of daily checking was the one which predominated in the checking of four hour pupils. Thirteen schools or 54.16 per cent followed this custom. The figures for the twenty hour pupils were incomplete. In two cases this lack of answers was due to the fact that the schools did not have any such pupils enrolled.

TABLE IX MARKING OF PUPILS (TOTAL NUMBER OF CASES 24)

A. B. C. Method	Good, Satisfactory Poor Method	Other Method	Not Marked
9	6	5	4

Note: Of the five schools which employed other methods, one merely checked, one allowed credits, one used the E. F. G. system, and two did not go into detail concerning their system.

From the material in Table IX, we see that different systems of marking are used throughout the state. There is no outstanding method by which children are graded. One might expect that there would be a fairly uniform manner of marking when such a plan of instruction was used. However, the very absence of agreement on this question of marking might show that the marking of pupils in the continuation schools is, in all probability, relatively unimportant in the eyes of the instructors. This would not be strange since there are no promotions dependent on grades in these particular schools. The important fact to be noted is that some method of checking progress is being employed by twenty part-time schools in Massachusetts. This number represents 83.33 per cent of the number replying to the survey.

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A. B. C. Method	Good, Satisfactory Poor Method	Other Method	Not Marked
9	6	5	4

Note: Of the five schools which employed other methods, one merely checked, one allowed credits, one used the E. T. G. system, and two did not go into detail concerning their system.

From the material in Table IX, we see that different systems of marking are used throughout the state. There is no outstanding method by which children are graded. One might expect that there would be a fairly uniform manner of marking when such a plan of instruction was used. However, the very absence of agreement on this question of marking might show that the marking of pupils in the continuation schools is, in all probability, relatively unimportant in the eyes of the instructors. This would not be strange since there are no promotions dependent on grades in these particular schools. The important fact to be noted is that some method of checking progress is being employed by twenty part-time schools in Massachusetts. This number represents 83.33 per cent of the number replying to the survey.

The number of schools which based their grades on achievement only was four, and there were none which graded on attitude or industry alone. Three schools did not report. It is significant to note that seventeen of the total number replying, based the marks on a combination of achievement, industry and attitude. This implies that 70.83 per cent of the teachers who replied are basing their grades on a combination of elements rather than on any one single type of accomplishment.

TABLE X COMMENTS ON THE INDIVIDUAL PLAN OF INSTRUCTION (TOTAL NUMBER OF CASES 24)

	Favorable	Unfavorable	Otherwise
By Pupil	21	0	1
By Parents	9	0	1

Note: One school did not answer in regard to the pupils' comments. Another said there were no comments, but that it was merely accepted. The question concerning the parents' attitude was not answered by thirteen schools.

Two important facts seem apparent from the data in Table X. One that it is quite obvious that the pupils are favorably impressed with the contract method. The figures indicate that twenty-one schools (87.50 per cent) of the number studied approved this particular form of instruction. The second fact is that it is equally certain that very little is known concerning the parents' reactions. Replies to this question were received from only ten schools or 41.66 per cent of the total number. Nine localities reported that parents were in favor of the method, but this number is hardly large enough to use as a basis for any conclusive evidence. The reply to this question received from one school was interesting. The parents "seldom realize that work can be carried on without regular book assignments, but when an explanation is made, they generally see the advantages."[1]

The value of these figures is questionable. In order to know whether these replies represent an honest opinion of the pupils and parents, it

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would be necessary to find out how the information recorded by the instructors was obtained. If the question was put directly to the children or to their parents, it is very possible that they both may have answered in the affirmative because they wanted to make a good impression. Or they may have felt that such a reply was expected from them. These and other reasons have a direct influence on the answers. If the replies to this question were based on voluntary remarks, the material would be more authentic and consequently would become a more valuable index of the reactions of both pupils and parents to this particular form of instruction. There was no way in which the source of information could be determined from the survey.

One of the most important and helpful questions of the survey was the one which dealt with the disadvantages and advantages of the individual plan of instruction. The replies were numerous and varied. It was found, however, after careful study and compilation, that the reasons given quite naturally resolved themselves into three groups. The first includes those advantages and disadvantages which affect the teacher, the second comprises those which have a direct influence on the pupil, and a third contains general advantages and disadvantages which have no direct relation to either the instructor or the pupil.

Advantages to Instructors

1. Shows the ability of pupils.
2. Makes the approach to pupil easier.
3. Helps to solve problem of absence.
4. Gives teacher individual contact with pupils (2)*
5. Can be used in any subject equally well.
6. Serves as an index (to pupil progress) for teachers.
7. Teacher can be a real councilor and helper, not merely a lecturer.
8. Prevents teacher talking too much.

Disadvantages to Instructors

1. Requires a great deal of time (7)
2. Requires a great deal of individual help. (2)
3. Requires a long time for keeping records (2)
4. Difficult to formulate good contracts.
5. No two pupils are doing the same thing.

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Advantages to Pupils

1. Allows for individual differences. (8)
2. Prepares for additional school training and gives vocational guidance. (5)
3. Takes into account present needs and environment. (4)
4. Teaches proper and wider use of reference books. (3)
5. Stimulates competition. (2)
6. Makes provision for definite achievement. (2)
7. Gives stimulation to superior pupils.
8. Guides pupils into different interests.
9. Gives satisfaction to slow pupil.
10. Provides a definite assignment.
11. Aims to accomplish much in a short time.
12. Serves as a motivation for the pupils.
13. Gives practical progress.
14. Effort is used as opposed to strain.
15. It develops the following characteristics or abilities in the pupils:
    (a) Social efficiency
    (b) Initiative and independence (2)
    (c) Ability to think clearly (3)
    (d) Ability to concentrate
    (e) Self-control
    (f) Ability to express thoughts
    (g) Ability to form individual conclusions.

Disadvantages to Pupils

1. Lack of class discussion. (4)
2. Unless contract has been carefully planned for each pupil a lack of interest may result. (3)
3. Lacks personal element (working by himself).
4. Lazy pupils may not work as fast as they can (may be due to lack of stimulus from other members).
5. Pupil might develop more poise and the ability to use better English if made to think "on his feet".
6. Meagre vocabularies and the inability to get ideas from a printed page make progress difficult.

General Advantages

1. Report of progress goes to home and employer.
2. Gives continuity to work of continuation school.
3. Lends more interest to and aids in carrying out sewing projects.

General Disadvantages

1. Cost. (2)
2. "None that can not be overcome."

* The figures in parentheses indicate the number of schools which listed the same advantage or disadvantage.

It can be readily seen from these lists that the advantages given greatly outnumber the disadvantages. Therefore, it is apparent that the instructors in the part-time schools of Massachusetts consider the value which is derived from the use of the individual instruction plan to be greater than the difficulties which its use presents.

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GENERAL CONCLUSIONS OF SURVEY

From this survey of part-time schools in Massachusetts, some definite conclusions may be drawn. Some plan of individual instruction is generally used by the instructors in these schools. This form of teaching seems to be equally well adapted to both the regular and supplementary work of four hour and twenty hour pupils. Despite the fact that vocational work may be considered especially well adapted to the individual method of instruction, it is used most frequently for related academic work in these continuation schools. Such a plan of teaching was considered best adapted to clothing, but the related academic work stood in second place. Most instructors agreed that some class work was necessary to successful teaching. Concerning pupil conferences, no data of real value were received. Over eighty-five per cent of the teachers replying favored the inclusion frequently, if not always, of reference material in the contract sheets. The reasons checked the greatest number of times for the use of references were those which dealt with the development of resourcefulness and independence. The length of the contract sheet varies, but the shorter ones are more generally favored. Fifty per cent of the total number of schools which replied stated that the contract sheets contained a minimum requirement only. Some sort of progress record was kept in all of the twenty-four schools which answered the questionnaire, and in the majority of cases it was kept by the teacher. A few schools, however, recommended that the pupil keep an individual record also. There was no agreement as to how often these records should be checked. No common system of marking was found to prevail. The noteworthy fact is that over eighty per cent of the schools replying were attempting to check pupil progress in some way. Marks, if given, were most frequently

based on a combination of achievement, industry and attitude. The comments of the pupils on this plan of instruction were exceedingly favorable, but those of the parents are little known. Too much value should not be placed on these answers, however, as it must be remembered that several factors may have influenced the comments of both pupils and parents.

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VI

CONCLUSIONS

XV

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The following conclusions may be drawn from this study.

1. Individual instruction is one method of overcoming the problem of individual differences.

a. It is apt to be limited to provision for differences in mental alertness and rate of speed of learning only.

b. Both academic and vocational subjects are being taught by this method.

c. Individual instruction should be combined with some class work for successful teaching.

d. The length of the contracts used for this type of instruction varies. The material given may provide work for one day or for several.

e. Some form of progress record is kept in practically every school that employs this form of teaching. These records may be kept by the teacher or pupil, or both.

2. Individual instruction sheets are generally used with this particular method of teaching. These lesson sheets assume different forms. They may contain a minimum requirement only; they may include a minimum and a maximum requirement; they may comprise a minimum requirement plus one or two supplementary problems.

3. The varying needs and characteristics together with the different achievement levels of continuation school pupils make some form of individual instruction desirable in these schools.

a. Individual instruction has found favor in the eyes of the teachers in Massachusetts continuation schools, and is being generally used by them.

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a. Individual instruction has found favor in the eyes of the teachers in Massachusetts continuation schools, and is being generally used by them.

b. The methods used by them are varied. They are usually a modification of one of the fundamental plans, the modifications being made to meet the specific needs of the particular school in which they are being used.

c. Instructors do not agree concerning all the details of organizing and administering such a plan of instruction. They do agree, however, that the advantages of such training greatly outnumber the disadvantages.

VII

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VIII

APPENDIX

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COPIES OF

INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION SHEETS USED IN SOME CONTINUATION

SCHOOLS IN MASSACHUSETTS

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INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION SHEETS USED IN SOME CONTINUATION

SCHOOLS IN MASSACHUSETTS

School Citizenship.

Group I.

I. A community is a group of people living together in a definite locality, interested in the same thing and abiding by the same laws. Therefore, our school is a community and we are the citizens in that community. Our school, like a person, can receive a bad reputation if its members are discourteous.

1. How can we be more courteous to teachers, students and visitors?

2. Look up in the dictionary the meaning of "prejudice", "dislike" and "hate".

II. (1) Alice Brown did not come to school yesterday. This morning there is a great deal of gossiping. Mary: "Did you hear the terrible news? Alice's father robbed the store where he works. I never did like her anyway. I'm going to ask to have my seat at school changed."

Janet: "I'm going to, too. I'm ashamed to be seen anywhere near her. Her dress is old and faded."

Mary: "We won't lose anything by showing a little pride."

Janet: "She's so quiet and bashful. We'd never want her in our club now, either."

Mary: "Perhaps she will leave school."

1. Why didn't these girls like Alice?

2. Were they fair-minded?

3. How could they have helped Alice?

III. What does the term "school spirit" mean to you?

(2) What are some of the things that a"good school citizen" can always be depended upon to do?

(1)
(2)
(3)
(4)
(5)

IV. Explain the meaning of "the majority rules."

Your best friend did not get the presidency of your class so you and she do not attend the meetings. What spirit does this show?

The class votes to buy a set of books for class use. Nine have opposed the motion and won't attend any meetings.

1. What is your opinion of the attitude of these students?
2. Were these girls who stayed away from the meeting helping the class and provi . , themselves to be worthwhile friends?
3. What should be the precedent in electing all class officers?
4. How is good sportsmanship related to good school citizenship?

Group II

I. List 10 traits that you think every student should cultivate.
II. In "We and Our Government" by Jenks and Smith, read again "The Athenian Oath". List the aims that were stressed.
III. "As daily into class you go,
Your classroom manners often show
The best and worst of you - and so
Improve them - 'tis a debt you owe."
1. Give five examples that will explain the above quotation.
IV. What would "Respect for school property" include?
V. What would your criticism be of a student who powdered her nose or cleaned her finger nails in public?

Group III

I. Read Ch. 24 in "Your School and You" by Bliss. Write a sentence about each of the seven "signposts" so that anyone would have a very definite idea of each from your statement.
II. What is an "introduction"? What is the best form?
1. Why do good manners demand introductions?
2. What are some of the rules to follow?
III. List five instances where courtesy can be shown at school.
1. List five good lunchroom habits.
2. How is right conduct a sure aid to success?

2/4/32

Prepared by Verna Clarke -- Essex County School of Home Making -- Hathorne, Massachusetts.

I. Answer each of the following questions by "yes" or "no".
1. Did the colonists win the Battle of Bunker Hill?
2. Did the Americans try to capture Canada during the War?
3. Were the British driven out of Boston?
4. Did the French in Canada help the Americans against England?
5. Did England have a strong navy in 1775?
6. Did the Americans win any naval battles in the War?
7. Did the Second Continental Congress give Washington ample money and supplies?
8. Was the American campaign against the British in the Ohio Valley successful?
9. Was Benedict Arnold's plot successful?
10. Did the Declaration of Independence make the colonists independent?

II. Name two British generals in the American Revolution.

2.

III. Name six leaders who fought under Washington.

1 4
2 5
3 6

IV. Two men who helped America but did not fight in the army were
1. _____who helped by_____
2. _____who helped by_____

V. In the Declaration of Independence were many complaints against King George. List five of them.
L.
2.
3.
4.
5.

VI. Four foreigners who helped us to win the war were?
1._____ from_____
2._____ from_____
3._____ from_____
4._____ from_____

VII. The three principal campagins of the Revolution were:
1.
2.
3.

VIII. Write one word in each blank to complete the paragraph.
The colonists were divided among themselves into_____ parties. The patriots to the American cause were called_____ Those who were loyal to the king were called_____. After the war, many of the latter returned to_____
This war not only made the United States_____of England but in England the power was taken from the king and given to _____.
The _____River instead of the _____Mountains was now our western boundary.

IX. Write after each event the name of some man prominently connected with it.

1. Battle of Lexington and Concord.
2. The war at sea.
3. Capture of Fort Ticonderoga.
4. Battle of Bunker Hill.
5. The expedition to Canada.
6. Capture of the "northwest."
7. Aid from France.
8. Writing of the Declaration of Independence.
9. Commander-in-chief of the American army.
10. Training the soldiers at Valley Forge.

X. Underline the one word or phrase that completes each statement.

1. (Jefferson, Franklin, Washington) secured aid for us from France.
2. France decided to help us after our victory at (Trenton, Concord, Saratoga)
3. Cornwallis surrended at (Trenton, New York, Yorktown, Princeton.)
4. The American soldiers suffered most:
   (in crossing the Delaware.
   (wintering at Valley Forge.
   (in the siege at Yorktown.
   (in the retreat from Canada.
5. The Declaration of Independence was first proclaimed in (Boston, Albany, Bunker Hill, Philadelphia, New York.)

1/18/30

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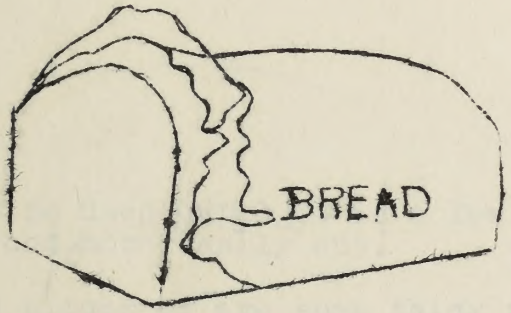
MALDEN CONTINUATION SCHOOL

FOODS

Sheet # 14

Bread



Bread has been an important part of the world's diet from the earliest ages.

1. Name several kinds of bread.

2. Bread made from grains, principally wheat, contains all the food elements necessary to the growth and repair of the body, and therefore has been called "the staff of life."

3. What are the ingredients found in bread? And why do we have each? Read "Household Science and Arts" by Josephine Morris.

4. Does your mother buy her bread or make it?

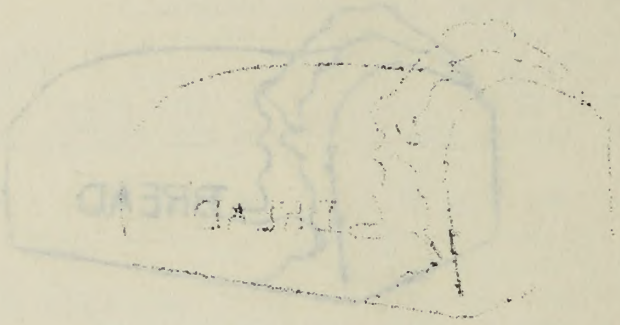
5. Do you eat both light and dark bread? What kind do you usually have?

6. Dark breads are better than white because they always contain the coarse outside part of the grain. This helps all the food to keep moving along through the digestive tract.

7. Something is needed to make the bread light and porous; yeast is used for this purpose. Yeast is called the leavening agent.

8. What is yeast?

9. What must the temperature be for yeast to grow?



10. What happens when the yeast begins to grow in the bread?

11. Tell briefly how bread is made from the time it is mixed until it is finished baking.

12. Bread should not be used until it is a few hours old. It is more digestible then and more easily cut.

13. Can you cut even slices or are some thick and some thin?

14. How may left over bread be used?

15. Many housekeepers save all dry pieces of bread and use them for bread crumbs in cooking. Why is this a good plan?

16. Why should the bread box be scalded out often?

17. What are quick breads? Name at least three.

18. Name several kinds of grains used in making bread.

19. Wheat is used more for flour than any other grain. Name two kinds of wheat.

20. What is the difference between bread flour and pastry flour?

21. How is bread served? Name several ways.

22. How is bread eaten at the table when bread and butter are served with the rest of the meal?

23. When making sandwiches, bread which is a day old is best.

24. Why do we sometimes remove the crusts when making sandwiches?

25. Name several sandwich fillings that you like.

Ref:
Food and Health — Kinne & Cooley
Domestic Science — Lyons & Carnshan
Household Science & Arts — Josephine Morris
Health — Turner & Collins

MALDEN CONTINUATION SCHOOL

FOODS

Sheet # 9

Breakfast

Breakfast is probably the meal that gets the least attention. Everyone needs to eat breakfast because it is too much to expect the body to go without food from supper until noon of the next day. If you want to be ready for a good day's work you must eat some breakfast.

1. What do you consider a good breakfast for a working girl?

2. What did you have for breakfast?

   Was this a good breakfast?

3. How much time do you have in the morning to eat breakfast?

   Is this enough time?

4. Do you get your own breakfast or does your mother or sister get it for you?

5. Have you a good appetite or do you have to force yourself to eat breakfast?

6. There are several ways that you can improve your appetite in the morning. One is to get up early enough to be able to take your time while washing and dressing. It is no harder to get up ten minutes of seven than at seven o'clock if you make up your mind to it. You will also have a better appetite if you can plan to eat with the rest of the family. You may even go on an errand for your mother before breakfast. This breath of fresh air will help you.

7. Some suggestions for breakfast will include fruit, cereal, beverage, bread served either as toast or muffins. What is a "menu"?

8. Why do some people need more for breakfast than others? Give an example of such a case.

9. Make out a good menu for breakfast using suggestions given above for a school girl.

10. Make out a good menu for a man who is working hard all day.

11. We do not need the same kind of a breakfast in summer as in winter. How does the season of the year affect the meal?

12. There are several ways that you can help to get breakfast ready the night before. The table can always be set. If you are to have orange juice for breakfast this may be prepared. The dry ingredients for muffins may be measured and sifted the previous night. If your mother gets the breakfast you can help by doing these things for her the night before.

13. What is a good beverage to have for breakfast?

14. What is the best---milk, coffee, tea or cocoa?

15. Which do you drink?

16. What food value is there to be found in coffee or tea?

MALDEN CONTINUATION SCHOOL

FOODS

Sheet # 10

Luncheon

What you have for luncheon determines the afternoon's success--if you have too hearty a meal you feel sleepy; if you do not have enough to eat you are soon hungry and tired.

1. Do you eat lunch at home or do you take your lunch?

2. If you eat at home, what time do you have lunch?

   If you take your lunch when do you eat?

3. What did you have for lunch yesterday?

4. What are you going to have today?

5. How many of your family are at home for luncheon? What ages are the children?

6. A good luncheon will often consist of a cream soup, bread or biscuits and butter and a simple desert.

7. Do you have the most hearty meal at noon or at night?

8. Make out a good menu of a luncheon for a noon meal suitable for a school girl.

9. Make out a good menu of a luncheon which a working man might take with him if he is working hard.

10. Make out a good menu of a box lunch for a girl in the factory.

11. A salad may often be served for a luncheon and this makes a good variety as there are so many kinds to make.

Ref. Book: Food and Health ------ Kinne & Cooley

MALDEN CONTINUATION SCHOOL

FOODS

Sheet # 11

Dinner

The dinner may be served at noon but often the family have dinner at night when everyone is through work for the day. This should be the pleasantest meal of the day because there is usually more time to eat.

The dinner should be simple so that whoever prepares it will not be kept in the kitchen longer than necessary. Quite often some of the dinner may be prepared after breakfast.

1. What time do you have your evening meal?

2. How many grown ups and how many children are there in the family who are at home for meals?

3. What did you have for dinner last night?

4. How does the time of year make a difference in the dinner menu?

5. A dinner usually consists of vegetables, meat, fish or eggs, bread and butter and some dessert.

6. Make a good menu for a family of moderate means.

7. A scalloped dish is often served for either luncheon or dinner. A scallop is a cooked dish where there are layers of two different kinds of foods, usually bread crumbs or potato with meat, fish or eggs.

8. Name several scalloped dishes.

9. A salad may be used for dinner as well as for luncheon. Name several salads which may be used.

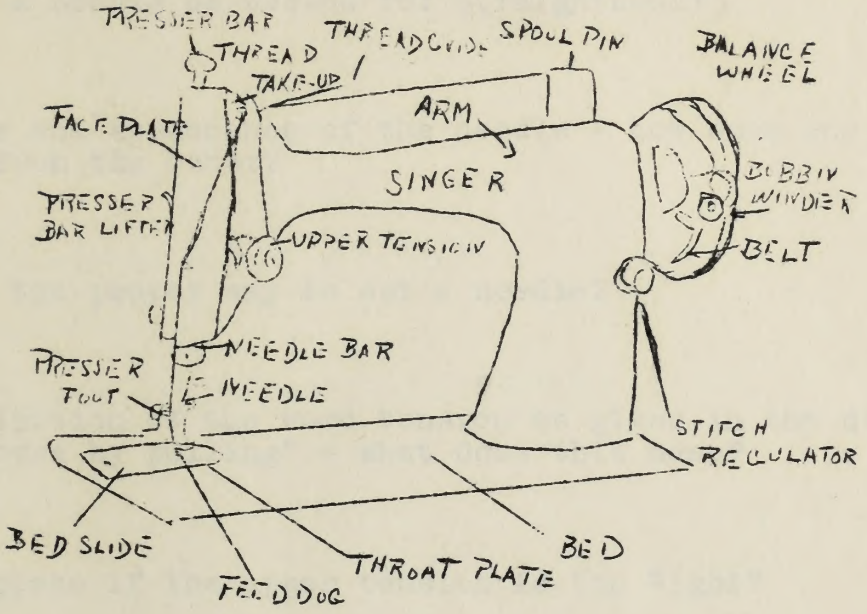
10. Name two salads that might be used as a dessert.

11. What beverage may be served with dinner?

Ref. Book: Food and Health --- Kinne and Cooley.

MALDEN CONTINUATION SCHOOL

Clothing Sheet #3

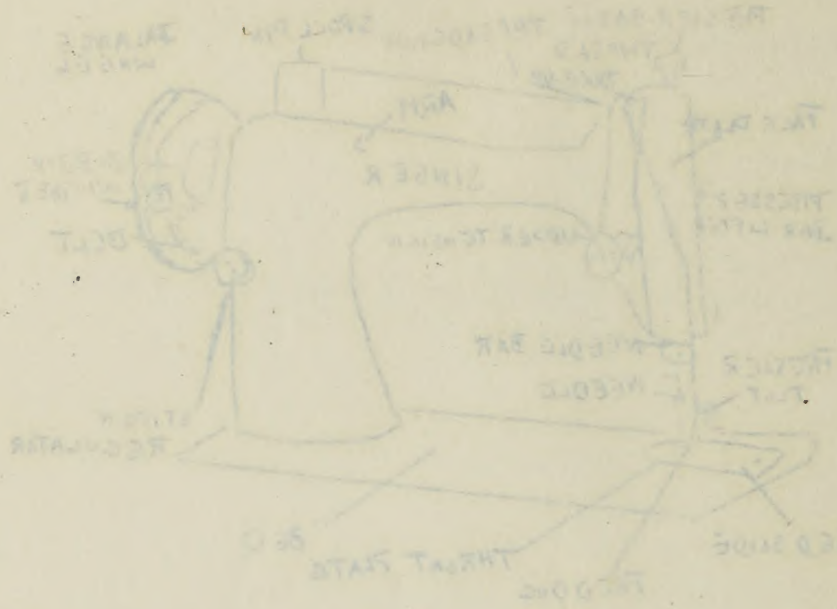


Sewing Machine

1. The first thing is to learn the names of the different parts of the machine. The most important parts are:-
   Needle set in lower end of Needle Bar.
   Presser Foot which holds the work firmly and attached to the lower end of the Presser-Foot Bar. Bar may be released by the Presser Bar Lifter.
   Feed is a toothed metal surface under the presser foot which grips the cloth and pushes it toward the needle.
   Bed is the place on which the work rests when stitching.
   Bobbin - metal spool on which thread is wound to furnish the lower thread supply.
   Bobbin Case in which the bobbin rests.
   Bobbin Winder - winds bobbins.
   Tension Spring or Upper Tension - regulates the passing of the thread to the needle.
   Thread Take-Up - pulls up the slack in the thread and locks the stitch.
   Balance Wheel - wheel at the right of the arm which is given a turn in starting the machine.
   Band-Wheel - small wheel next to the balance wheel over which the leather Belt of the machine passes to the larger wheel under the table.
   Read the "Manual of Family Sewing Machines."

2. How is the lock stitch formed?

3. The bobbin must be wound evenly. Why?



4. Why shouldn't you use a large needle when stitching on fine material?

5. How may a needle be tested for straightness?

6. Describe the appearance of the needle - how does one side differ from the other?

7. What is the proper way to set a needle?

8. The definition of the word tension as given in the dictionary is- "stress by pulling" - what does this mean?

9. What happens if the upper tension is too tight?

10. What happens if the lower tension is too tight?

11. How may the tension be adjusted?

12. How do you pull up the under thread?

13. After both threads are on top lay both ends back under the presser foot before starting to sew. Why is this necessary?

14. How do you place the garment you are to stitch?

15. Some machines have the balance wheel turning towards you and some turn from you. Which way does the Singer machine turn?

16. What will happen if the machine is run in the wrong direction?

17. How do you finish a seam?

18. When sewing always keep the material to the left of the presser foot, allowing the seam to extend to the right. Why?

19. How is the length of stitch regulated ?

20. When do you use a long stitch?

21. How is the presser bar adjusted?

22. Why is oiling of the machine important?

23. What is the belt shifter?

24. What may cause an upper thread to break?

25. What may cause a lower thread to break?

26. What may cause a puckered seam?

ARITHMETIC C

Unit I. Percentage.

Unit II. Profit and Loss.

Unit III. Check up problems.

Unit IV. Bills and Receipts.

Unit V. Trade Discount.

Unit VI. Check up problems.

Unit VII. Banking and Deposit Slips.

Unit VIII. Interest.

Unit IX. Checks.

Unit X. Check up problems.

Unit XI. Fire Insurance.

Unit XII. Life Insurance.

Unit XIII. Check up problems.

Prepared and used at the Quincy School of Home Making
Quincy, Massachusetts.

ARITHMETIC 8

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UNIT I - PERCENTAGE.

Group C. I. In order to study percentage, you will have to first memorize the following table:

1/2 =	50%	5/6 =	83-1/3%
1/3 =	33-1/3%	1/7 =	14-2/7%
2/3 =	66-2/3%	1/8 =	12-1/2%
1/4 =	25%	3/8 =	37-1/2%
3/4 =	75%	5/8 =	62-1/2%
1/5 =	20%	7/8 =	87-1/2%
2/5 =	40%	1/9 =	11-1/9%
3/5 =	60%	1/12 =	8-1/3%
4/5 =	80%	5/12 =	41-2/3%
1/6 =	16-2/3%	1/16 =	6-1/4%

2. Do the following problems, and hand in for correction:

Hamilton's Essentials of Arithmetic
Page 30 - Examples 55 through 98.

Hamilton's Essentials of Arithmetic
Pages 32 and 33 - Examples 3 through 21, 23 and 24; 26; 28 through 30.

Group B. Do the following additional problems:

Hamilton's Essentials of Arithmetic
Pages 37 and 38 - Examples 2 through 16; and 20 through 29.

Group A. 1. Obtain ten problems from the teacher and do them out on the board, and explain to the teacher.

2. Come to teacher for oral recitation on this problem.

Suggestions for Group A. - Strayer & Upton - p. 181-195

UNIT I - PERCENTAGE.

Group C. I. In order to study percentage, you will have to first memorize the following table:

1/2	= 50%	3/8	= 83-1/3%
1/3	= 33-1/3%	1/7	= 14-2/7%
2/3	= 66-2/3%	1/8	= 12-1/2%
1/4	= 25%	3/8	= 37-1/2%
3/4	= 75%	5/8	= 62-1/2%
1/5	= 20%	7/8	= 87-1/2%
2/5	= 40%	1/9	= 11-1/9%
3/5	= 60%	1/12	= 8-1/3%
4/5	= 80%	5/12	= 41-2/3%
1/6	= 16-2/3%	1/16	= 6-1/4%

2. Do the following problems, and hand in for correction:

Hamilton's Essentials of Arithmetic
Page 30 - Examples 55 through 98.

Hamilton's Essentials of Arithmetic
Pages 32 and 33 - Examples 5 through
21, 23 and 24; 25; 28 through 30.

Group B. Do the following additional problems:

Hamilton's Essentials of Arithmetic
Pages 37 and 38 - Examples 2 through 16;
and 20 through 29.

Group A. 1. Obtain ten problems from the teacher and do them out on the board, and explain to the teacher.

2. Come to teacher for oral recitation on this problem.

Suggestions for Group A. - Strayer & Upton - p. 181-185

UNIT II - PROFIT AND LOSS.

Group C. I. What is profit and loss? Define.

II. How do we calculate profit and loss?
(a) Do examples on page 40, Hamilton's Essentials of Arithmetic - No. 47-61.
(b) Recite the principles learned to the teacher.

Group B. Industrial Arithmetic for Vocational Schools
Page 52, 53, and 54.
Examples 3 through 6 and 8 through 23.

Group A. Robert and Helen Smith, finding they needed a little extra money for Christmas, decided that they would become candy manufacturers. Helen said that she would furnish the brains if Robert would furnish the muscle. Helen tried the following recipe for fudge and found that it made a good quality of candy.

Materials for one pound of fudge:

1½ sq. chocolate	¼ c. corn syrup
½ c. milk	1 T. butter
2 c. sugar	1 t. vanilla

Measures and costs:

Sugar @	6¢ a lb.
Milk	16¢ a qt.
Butter	64¢ a lb.
Chocolate	4¢ a square
2 c. syrup to the can	20¢ a can
Vanilla costs 1¢ per pound of fudge	
Sacks cost 15¢ a hundred.	

Candy was put up in ¼ lb. sacks. Of course, the first question that came up was the selling price. Bob said that 60¢ per pound would give a fair profit. Let us see if he was right in his estimate.

1. What was the cost of the materials for one pound of candy?
2. What was the profit on ten pounds of fudge? Don't forget to count the cost of sacks.

At first, when the business was small, Mother said nothing about cost of gas. Neither did the children count the cost of their time. They agreed to pay 16¢ an hour for the gas. They found that they could make 8 pounds of fudge in one hour. After talking for some time they decided to pay themselves 50¢ each for an hour. Any money over this was to be given to Mother. They made and sold 64 pounds per week.

UNIT III.

Obtain check-up problems from teacher.

UNIT II - PROFIT AND LOSS.

Group C. I. What is profit and loss? Define.

II. How do we calculate profit and loss?
(a) Do examples on page 40, Hamilton's
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Materials for one pound of fudge:

1½ sq. chocolate	½ c. corn syrup
½ c. milk	1 T. butter
2 c. sugar	1 t. vanilla

Measures and costs:

Sugar	@ 8¢ a lb.
Milk	10¢ a qt.
Butter	64¢ a lb.
Chocolate	4¢ a square
½ c. syrup to the can	20¢ a can
Vanilla costs 1¢ per pound of fudge	
Sacks cost 15¢ a hundred.	

Candy was put up in ½ lb. sacks. Of course, the first question that came up was the selling price. Bob said that 60¢ per pound would give a fair profit. Let us see if he was right in his estimate.

1. What was the cost of the materials for one pound of candy?
2. What was the profit on ten pounds of fudge? Don't forget to count the cost of sacks.

At first, when the business was small, Mother said nothing about cost of gas. Neither did the children count the cost of their time. They agreed to pay 10¢ an hour for the gas. They found that they could make 8 pounds of fudge in one hour. After talking for some time they decided to pay themselves 30¢ each for an hour. Any money over this was to be given to Mother. They made and sold 64 pounds per week.

UNIT III.

Obtain check-up problems from teacher.

UNIT IV - BILLS AND RECEIPTS

Group C. I. What is a billhead?
Hint:
(1) Look up what material you can find about billheads.
(2) Select one that you like.
(3) Obtain one common billhead from teacher, to be used in class room work.

II. How do you receipt a bill?
Hints:
(1) Look up method that may be used.
(2) Write correct form.
(3) Turn to "Industrial Arithmetic for Vocational Schools", page 103-104; and do ex. 1-3 inclusive. Receipt these bills one month from day of purchasing.

Group B. I. Do the following 5 problems and pass in.
Make out bills for the following:

1) Debtor--School.
Creditor--Philips Co., Millinery Wholesalers.
Sept. 2--4 yds. velvet @ $2.75
4 rolls wire @ 30¢
3 feather fancies @ 67½¢
2 frames @ 65¢

2) Debtor--Yourself.
Creditor--Mils Bjaik Co., Millinery Wholesalers.
April 5--1¾ yds. silk @ $3.50
1 feather flat @ $2.00
1 frame @ 60¢

3) Debtor--Yourself.
Creditor--School.
Description:-Black velvet hat.
Price of making--$2.00
Materials used:
2½ yds. velvet @ $2.75
2 feather fancies @ 67½¢
Lining 25¢
Frame 50¢
Findings 25¢

4) Debtor--Yourself.
Creditor--School.
Description--One blue crepe dress.
Price of making--$10.00
Materials used:
6¾ yds. crepe @ $2.59
1-1/8 yds. black silk @ 98¢
1 card fasteners @ 10¢
2 spools silk @ 18¢

5) Debtor--School.
Creditor--John C. McInnes Co., Wholesalers--Dry Goods
Sept. 2--39½ yds. percale @ 22½¢
20 yds. gingham @ 35¢
Sept. 3--40½ yds. cameo @ 19¢
5 yds. satin @ $3.25

Group A. Use problems 4,5, written out in C, and page 103-104, ex. 4, 5; receipting one month from day of purchasing.

UNIT IV - BILLS AND RECEIPTS

Group C. I. What is a billhead?
Hint:
(1) Look up what material you can find about billheads.
(2) Select one that you like.
(3) Obtain one common billhead from teacher, to be used in class room work.

II. How do you receipt a bill?
Hints:
(1) Look up method that may be used.
(2) Write correct form.
(3) Turn to "Industrial Arithmetic for Vocational School", page 103-104; and do ex. 1-3 inclusive.
Receipt these bills one month from day of purchasing.

Group B. I. Do the following 3 problems and pass in.
Make out bills for the following:

1) Debtor--School.
Creditor--Phillips Co., Millinery Wholesalers.
Sept. 2--4 yds. velvet @ $2.75
4 rolls wire @ 30¢
3 feather fancies @ 67½¢
2 frames @ 65¢

2) Debtor--Yourself.
Creditor--Mills Black Co., Millinery Wholesalers.
April 8--1⅝ yds. silk @ $3.60
1 feather flat @ $2.00
1 frame @ 60¢

3) Debtor--Yourself.
Creditor--School.
Description:-Black velvet hat.
Price of making--$2.00
Materials used:
2¼ yds. velvet @ $2.75
2 feather fancies @ 67½¢
Lining 25¢
Frame 30¢
Findings 25¢

4) Debtor--Yourself.
Creditor--School.
Description--One blue crepe dress.
Price of making--$10.00
Materials used:
6⅝ yds. crepe @ $2.50
1-1/8 yds. black silk @ 98¢
1 card fasteners @ 10¢
2 spools silk @ 18¢

5) Debtor--School.
Creditor--John C. Holmes Co., Wholesalers--Dry Goods
Sept. 2--39½ yds. percale @ 12½¢
30 yds. gingham @ 35¢
Sept. 3--40⅝ yds. cambo @ 19¢
3 yds. satin @ $3.25

Group A. Use problems 4,5, written out in C, and page 103-104, ex. 4, 5; receipting one month from day of purchasing.

UNIT V - TRADE DISCOUNT.

Group C. I. What are the terms used in Trade Discount, and how are they used?

Hints:

(1) Look up terms and their definitions.

(2) Recite to the teacher on the terms used in discount, and give the definition of each.

(3) Do the following examples on paper to hand in:

P. 47 Ex. 1-10
Ex. 21-25

P. 48 Ex. 1-5
Ex. 10-14

Group B. Turn to Hamilton's Essentials of Arithmetic, Page 49. Do Examples 1 through 7 on paper to hand in.

Group A. Come to teacher for oral recitation. Obtain some additional examples to be worked out on the board.

UNIT VI.

Obtain check-up problems from the teacher.

UNIT V - TRADE DISCOUNT.

Group C. 1. What are the terms used in Trade Discount, and how are they used?

Hints:

(1) Look up terms and their definitions.

(2) Recite to the teacher on the terms used in discount, and give the definition of each.

(3) Do the following examples on paper to hand in:

P. 47 Ex. 1-10

Ex. 21-25

P. 48 Ex. 1-5

Ex. 10-14

Group B. Turn to Hamilton's Essentials of Arithmetic, Page 49. Do Examples 1 through 7 on paper to hand in.

Group A. Come to teacher for oral recitation. Obtain some additional examples to be worked out on the board.

UNIT VI.

Obtain check-up problems from the teacher.

UNIT VII - BANKING AND DEPOSIT SLIPS.

Group C. I. What is a Bank Deposit Slip and how is it used?

Hints:

(1) Obtain a blank from the teacher, and note what is on the blank.
(2) What is such a slip used for?
(3) What must you know to fill out such a slip?
(4) Fill out blank deposit slip furnished by teacher, to represent the following deposits to your own account:

1. Deposit to your account November 9, 1930 the following--$10.25 in coins, and the following checks: Granite Trust Company, $10.00 Wollaston Trust, $5.60 and Federal Reserve, $6.80.
2. Deposit to your account May 16, 1930 the following--$26.00 in bills, $42.80 in coin, and the following checks: Hartford National, $16.00 and Newton Trust, $10.50.
3. I wish to deposit in the Quincy Trust Company on Oct. 11, 1928 the following--$48.67; $10.00 in gold, and the following checks: Security Trust, Lynn $8.04; Federal Reserve, Boston $10.25; Granite Trust, Quincy $17.00.
4. You wish to deposit to your account No. 129916, $75.17--a $2.00 gold piece, and the following checks: National Reserve $4.81; Wollaston Trust $8.10; First National $26.16. This deposit was made in the Granite Trust Company on June 16, 1928.

Group B. Do examples in Hamilton's Essentials of Arithmetic, page 162 - example 4.

Group A. Write out the entire procedure you went through from the time you stepped inside the door of the Granite Trust Company until you left, if you were to make the following deposit:

$45.00 in bills; $16.50 in coin; and checks from Wollaston Trust $5.20; Granite Trust $10.20 and Quincy Trust $9.50.

UNIT VII - BANKING AND DEPOSIT SLIPS.

Group C. I. What is a Bank Deposit Slip and how is it used?
Hints:
(1) Obtain a blank from the teacher, and note what is on the blank.
(2) What is such a slip used for?
(3) What must you know to fill out such a slip?
(4) Fill out blank deposit slip furnished by teacher, to represent the following deposits to your own account:

1. Deposit to your account November 9, 1930 the following--$10.25 in coins, and the following checks: Granite Trust Company, $10.00 Wollaston Trust, $3.00 and Federal Reserve, $6.50.
2. Deposit to your account May 16, 1930 the following--$56.00 in bills, $42.50 in coin, and the following checks: Hartford Nation-al, $18.00 and Newton Trust, $10.50.
3. I wish to deposit in the Quincy Trust Company on Oct. 11, 1928 the following--$48.67; $10.00 in gold, and the following checks: Security Trust, Lynn $8.04; Federal Reserve, Boston $10.25; Granite Trust, Quincy $17.00.
4. You wish to deposit to your account No. 129918, $73.17--a $2.00 gold piece, and the following checks: National Reserve $4.81; Wollaston Trust $8.10; First National $26.16. This deposit was made in the Granite Trust Company on June 10, 1928.

Group B. Do examples in Hamilton's Essentials of Arithmetic, page 182 - example 4.

Group A. Write out the entire procedure you went through from the time you stepped inside the door of the Granite Trust Company until you left, if you were to make the following deposit:

$45.00 in bills; $16.50 in coin; and checks from Wollaston Trust $3.50; Granite Trust $10.50 and Quincy Trust $9.50.

UNIT VIII - SAMPLE INTEREST.

Group C. I. What is simple interest, and how is it calculated?

Hints:

(1) Read Hamilton's Arithmetic, page 61.

(2) Do the following examples:

Hamilton's Arithmetic:

P. 62--Ex. 10, 25, 34, 39, 48.
P. 63--Ex. 6, 13, 17, 20, 24.
P. 65--Ex. 6, 12.
P. 67--Ex. 7, 13, 16, 29, 35.

II. What is compound interest?

Read Hamilton's Arithmetic, page 62.

Do examples 8-17, allowing compound interest.

Group B. Do the following assignment and hand in:

Hamilton's Arithmetic page 69-70.

Begin with written work at bottom of page 69.

Do examples through 8 on page 70.

Group A. Give in your own words the difference between simple and compound interest.

UNIT VIII - SIMPLE INTEREST.

Group C. I. What is simple interest, and how is it calculated?
Write:
(1) Read Hamilton's Arithmetic, page 81.
(2) Do the following examples:
Hamilton's Arithmetic:
P. 82--Ex. 10, 25, 34, 39, 48.
P. 83--Ex. 6, 13, 17, 20, 24.
P. 85--Ex. 6, 12.
P. 87--Ex. 7, 13, 16, 29, 33.

II. What is compound interest?
Read Hamilton's Arithmetic, page 82.
Do examples 8-17, allowing compound interest.

Group B. Do the following assignment and hand in:
Hamilton's Arithmetic page 69-70.
Begin with written work at bottom of page 69.
Do examples through 8 on page 70.

Group A. Give in your own words the difference between simple and compound interest.

UNIT IX - CHECKS.

Group C. I. What is a check and how is it used?

Hints:

(1) Obtain a check blank from the teacher, and note how it is made up.
(2) What is the use of a check?
(3) Who is the maker, and who is the payee?
(4) Make out five checks, drawing from your own account as maker:
  (a) To John Brown, payee, for $10.00
  (b) To Fred Smith, payee, for $110.00
  (c) To John Jones, payee, for $1,500.00
  (d) To Mary Black, payee, for $1.25
  (e) To Jack White, payee, for $52.26
(5) Do the following problem, to be passed in:
  Hamilton's Arithmetic, page 162, ex. 5.
(6) How do you endorse these checks?

Group B. Do the following problems to pass in:

1) James Morgan sent a check to Robert Clark of 5 Summit Road, Quincy, for a rug, on Oct. 22, 1928. Mr. Clark received the check and endorsed the check and drew his cash from the bank on Oct. 25, 1928. Show how the check looked when it returned to Mr. Morgan, cancelled.
2) Do ex. 2 on page 161, Hamilton's Arithmetic.
3) " " 6 " " 163, " "
4) " " 8 " " 163, " "
5) Guy Adams has an account in the First National Bank of St. Louis. On October 1, 1929 he had $428.96 in his account. During the month he drew the following checks:
  To John Doe - $5.60 To Mary Smith - $16.20
  To Fred Jones - $10.50 To Rachel Adams - $25.50
  What was his bank balance on November 1?

Group A. The travels of a check.

New York, Nov. 2, 19 No.4267

THE EMPIRE BANK

Pay to the order of Roy Page $220 30/100

Two hundred twenty and 30/100 Dollars

John Lee

The above check was written because John Lee of New York owes $220.30 to Roy Page of Detroit. Its whole history is one of travel, as is shown on the next page.

UNIT IX - CHECKS.

Group C. I. What is a check and how is it used?
Hints:
(1) Obtain a check blank from the teacher, and note how it is made up.
(2) What is the use of a check?
(3) Who is the maker, and who is the payee?
(4) Make out five checks, drawing from your own account as maker:
(a) To John Brown, payee, for $10.00
(b) To Fred Smith, payee, for $110.00
(c) To John Jones, payee, for $1,500.00
(d) To Mary Black, payee, for $1.25
(e) To Jack White, payee, for $82.25
(5) Do the following problem, to be passed in:
Hamilton's Arithmetic, page 102, ex. 5.
(6) How do you endorse these checks?

Group B. Do the following problems to pass in:
1) James Morgan sent a check to Robert Clark of 3 Summit Road, Quincy, for a rug, on Oct. 22, 1928. Mr. Clark received the check and endorsed the check and drew his cash from the bank on Oct. 25, 1928. Show how the check looked when it returned to Mr. Morgan, cancelled.
2) Do ex. 2 on page 181, Hamilton's Arithmetic.
3) " " 8 " " 183, " " "
4) " " 8 " " 183, " " "
5) Guy Adams has an account in the First National Bank of St. Louis. On October 1, 1929 he had $428.98 in his account. During the month he drew the following checks:
To John Doe - $5.80 To Mary Smith - $16.20
To Fred Jones - $10.00 To Raoul Adams - $25.00
What was his bank balance on November 1?

Group A. The travels of a check.

New York, Nov. 5, 19 No.4287

THE EMPIRE BANK

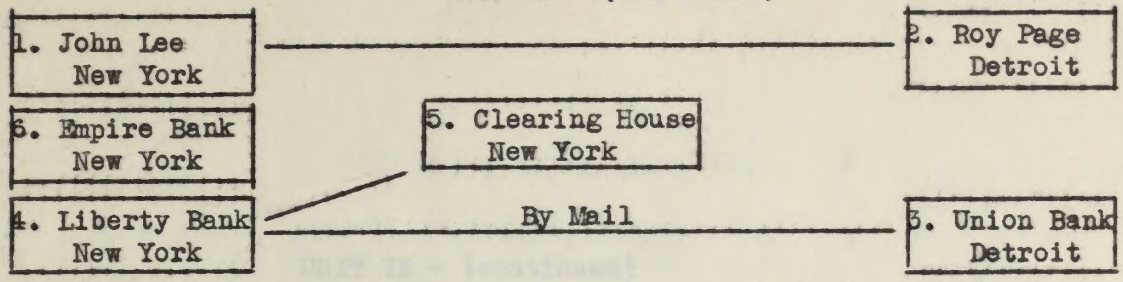
Pay to the order of Roy Page $220 30/100

Two hundred twenty and 30/100 Dollars

John Lee

The above check was written because John Lee of New York owes $220.30 to Roy Page of Detroit. The whole history is one of travel, as is shown on the next page.

UNIT IX - (continued)



Step I. John Lee has a checking account in the Empire Bank of New York. He writes a check for $220.30 on this bank, and mails it to Roy Page in Detroit.

Step II. The check arrives at Mr. Page's office in Detroit.

Step III. Mr. Page indorses the check and deposits it in the Union Bank of Detroit, where $220.30 is added to his account.

Step IV. Most banks in large cities like New York, Chicago, San Francisco, Detroit and Philadelphia do business with one bank in each of the other large cities. The Union Bank indorses Mr. Lee's check and mails it to the Liberty Bank in New York, with which it does business.

Step V. The check arrives at the Liberty Bank in New York, and this bank sends it by messenger the next morning to the New York Clearing House, where it is handed over to a messenger from the Empire Bank. Thus Mr. Lee's check gets back to the Empire Bank on which it was drawn.

Step VI. The Empire Bank deducts $220.30 from Mr. Lee's account. At the end of the month the bank returns the cancelled check to him. If he is wise, he will keep his check as a receipt. When Mr. Lee's check is returned to him, he finds across the back of it the three indorsements shown below. These record the check's travels since the first day he wrote it.

	Pay any Bank or Banker Nov. 5, 1928 Indorsements Guaranteed Union Bank Detroit, Mich.	Received Payment Through New York Clearing House Nov. 7, 1928 Indorsements Guaranteed Liberty Bank New York

UNIT IX - (continued)

Step I. John Lee has a checking account in the Empire Bank of New York. He writes a check for $250.30 on this bank, and mails it to Roy Page in Detroit.

Step II. The check arrives at Mr. Page's office in Detroit.

Step III. Mr. Page indorses the check and deposits it in the Union Bank of Detroit, where $250.30 is added to his account.

Step IV. Most banks in large cities like New York, Chicago, San Francisco, Detroit and Philadelphia do business with one bank in each of the other large cities. The Union Bank indorses Mr. Lee's check and mails it to the Liberty Bank in New York, with which it does business.

Step V. The check arrives at the Liberty Bank in New York, and this bank sends it by messenger the next morning to the New York Clearing House, where it is handed over to a messenger from the Empire Bank. Thus Mr. Lee's check gets back to the Empire Bank on which it was drawn.

Step VI. The Empire Bank deducts $250.30 from Mr. Lee's account. At the end of the month the bank returns the cancelled check to him. If he is wise, he will keep his check as a receipt. When Mr. Lee's check is returned to him, he finds across the back of it the three indorsements shown below. These record the check's travels since the first day he wrote it.

Pay any Bank or Banker Union Bank Roy C. Page Indorsement guaranteed Detroit, Mich.	
Pay to the order of Clearing House Empire Bank New York Roy C. Page Indorsement guaranteed Liberty Bank New York	
Pay to the order of Empire Bank New York Liberty Bank New York Indorsement guaranteed John Lee New York	

UNIT IX - (continued)

1. Mr. Page indorsed the check at the Union Bank just before depositing it. Why did he wait till then to indorse it?
2. Which indorsement shows that the Union Bank of Detroit sent the check to another bank? Does this indorsement show where they sent it? What statement on the back of the check shows that the Union Bank sent the check to the Liberty Bank?
3. On what day and where does the Liberty Bank turn the check over to the Empire Bank?
4. Rose Mason sends a check for $54.20 on the Copley Bank of Boston to Ada Jones of Denver. Mrs. Jones deposits it in the Commercial Bank of Denver, which sends it to the National Bank of Boston. This bank takes it to the Boston Clearing House. Where does it go then? Diagram its travels.

UNIT X.

Obtain check-up problems from the teacher.

UNIT XI - FIRE INSURANCE.

Group C. What are the essential fire insurance terms, and what do they mean?
(1) Obtain conference from teacher.
(2) Write definitions of insurance terms.
(3) Do following problems:
Hamilton's Arithmetic, page 103, ex. 2-13.

Group B. Do the problems given below:
Hamilton's Arithmetic, pages 103-4, ex. 14-26.

Group A. Get ready for oral recitation on this problem.
Obtain five problems from teacher to work out at the board and explain to the teacher.

UNIT IX - (continued)

1. Mr. Page indorsed the check at the Union Bank just before depositing it. Why did he wait till then to indorse it?
2. Which indorsement shows that the Union Bank of Detroit sent the check to another bank? Does this indorsement show where they sent it? What statement on the back of the check shows that the Union Bank sent the check to the Liberty Bank?
3. On what day and where does the Liberty Bank turn the check over to the Empire Bank?
4. Rose Mason sends a check for $64.50 on the Copley Bank of Boston to Ada Jones of Denver. Mrs. Jones deposits it in the Commercial Bank of Denver, which sends it to the National Bank of Boston. This bank takes it to the Boston Clearing House. Where does it go then? Diagram its travels.

UNIT X.

Obtain check-up problems from the teacher.

UNIT XI - FIRE INSURANCE.

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(1) Obtain conference from teacher.
(2) Write definitions of insurance terms.
(3) Do following problems:
Hamilton's Arithmetic, page 103, ex. 2-13.

Group B. Do the problems given below:
Hamilton's Arithmetic, pages 103-4, ex. 14-28.

Group A. Get ready for oral recitation on this problem.
Obtain five problems from teacher to work out at the board and explain to the teacher.

UNIT XII - LIFE INSURANCE.

Group C. I. Answer the following questions:

1. What is life insurance?
2. Name the types of policies we have studied.
3. Explain each fully.
4. What are dividends?
5. When you are 21, will you take out a life insurance policy? Why or why not?
6. If you should take one out, which policy do you think is best? Why?
7. What is the policy? Face of the policy?
8. Given the premium and the face of the policy, how would you find the rate?
9. Given the age, type of policy and face of policy, how would you find the premium for one year?
10. Give several reasons why it is unwise to wait until old age before taking out life insurance. Remember that a person who applies for life insurance must take a medical examination.

II. Do examples in Hamilton's Arithmetic, page 106, examples 1-9.

Group B. Strayer and Upton--Page 310, ex. 1 (at top of page). Explain to teacher.

Group A. Obtain special assignment from the teacher.

UNIT XIII.

Obtain check-up problems from the teacher.

UNIT XII - LIFE INSURANCE.

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5. When you are 21, will you take out a life insurance policy? Why or why not?
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7. What is the policy? Face of the policy?
8. Given the premium and the face of the policy, how would you find the rate?
9. Given the age, type of policy and face of policy, how would you find the premium for one year?
10. Give several reasons why it is useless to wait until old age before taking out life insurance. Remember that a person who applies for life insurance must take a medical examination.

II. Do examples in Hamilton's Arithmetic, page 106, examples 1-9.

Group B. Strayer and Upton--Page 310, ex. 1 (at top of page). Explain to teacher.

Group A. Obtain special assignment from the teacher.

UNIT XIII.

Obtain check-up problems from the teacher.

The Citizen at Work.

References:

Hill - "Community Life and Civic Problems" pp. 133-135.Ch. 13
Dunn - "The Community and the Citizen" Ch. 11, 12
Lyon - "Making a Living" pp. 109-124, 178-227
Broome and Adams - "Conduct and Citizenship". Ch. 6
Finney - "General Social Science". Ch. 41
Towne - "Social Problems". Ch. 4, 5, 8
Ross - "Civic Sociology" pp. 47-61, 72-79 - 229-237

Group I

A good citizen desires an active life. Very often this means that he desires wealth. Honest labor brings honest gain. Cooperation and good sportsmanship make for successful business. Nowhere, more than in business, is the citizen so dependent on the community. Therefore, he has many obligations.

1. List five ways in which he is dependent on the community.
2. What should be your conduct as a worker? To what extent are you responsible?
3. How are employers and employees dependent on each other? Apply your answer to your work in the foods laboratory.
4. What kinds of work would you be barred from doing? Why have these restrictions been made?
5. How could a few dishonest workers in school destroy confidence in school?
6. What work was it necessary for a pioneer family to accomplish?
7. What qualities are necessary to success?

Group II

1. Is child labor good or bad? What are five arguments you would use to uphold your statement?
2. How has industry changed since the days of the pioneer and early colonists?
3. List the important industries in your community.
4. What conditions in your clothing class would tend to produce the best results?

Group III

1. Read an account of the settlers who came to make the settlement of Jamestown. How were they responsible for the colony not being successful at first?
2. Write a short account of the Industrial Revolution in America.

Prepared and used at The Quincy School of Home Making--Quincy, Mass.

The Citizen at Work.

References:

Hill - "Community Life and Civic Problems" pp. 133-138.Ch. 13
Dunn - "The Community and the Citizen" Ch. 11, 12
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Broome and Adams - "Conduct and Citizenship". Ch. 8
Finney - "General Social Science". Ch. 41
Towns - "Social Problems". Ch. 4, 5, 8
Ross - "Civic Sociology" pp. 47-81, 72-79 - 229-237

Group I

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7. What qualities are necessary to success?

Group II

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Group III

1. Read an account of the settlers who came to make the settlement of Jamestown. How were they responsible for the colony not being successful at first?
2. Write a short account of the Industrial Revolution in America.

Prepared and used at The Quincy School of Home Making--Quincy, Mass.

SAMPLES OF PUPIL PROGRESS RECORDS KEPT IN CONTINUATION SCHOOLS IN MASSACHUSETTS

THE NEW DENNISON CLASP
PAT'D NOV 20 1923
No. 80
DENNISON MFG. CO. FRAMINGHAM, MASS. U.S.A.

S.J.H. PRESS 10-26-31-1M FORM 202

CITY OF SOMERVILLE, MASS.
SCHOOL COMMITTEE
CONTINUATION SCHOOL PROGRESS RECORD

NAME

Date	Job No.
Name of Job	
In	
Out	Out

Operations

Tools used

Name of pupil _____ Class _____

The above-named pupil hereby elects the following school work.

Unit of work No. _____ Subject _____

Date begun _____ Units previously earned.

Completed _____ _____

Credit allowed _____ _____

les 19 1025 95

_____

Lynn Public Schools

CONTINUATION SCHOOL

Achievement Card

_____

_____

Acad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Shop	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15

Class_____

FOODS PROGRESS RECORD

Name_____ **Date Entered**_____

Preservation
- Jelly
- Pickling
- Canning

Fruits
- Apple Sauce
- Stewed Prunes
- Fried Apples

Cereals
- Boiled Rice
- Oatmeal
- Cornmeal Mush (Fried)

Eggs
- Eggs

Soups
- Split Pea
- Chowder
- Cream of Onion

Vegetables
- Potatoes
- Stewed Tomatoes
- Steam Squash
- Spinach

Desserts
- Apple Roll
- Raisin Cupcake
- Orange Junket
- Cup Custard
- Apple Tapioca
- Baked Apple
- Cookies
- Gingerbread

Pastry
- Apple Pie
- Custard Pie
- Lemon Meringue Pie
- Banbury Tarts
- Cheese Straws

Meat
- Bacon
- Beef Stew
- Creamed Dried Beef
- Meat Loaf
- American Chop Suey
- Meat Pie
- Meat Cake

Fish
- Baked Haddock
- Fried
- Salmon Croquettes
- Salmon Loaf

Bread
- Quick Bread
- French Toast
- Toast
- Dumplings
- Muffins
- Baking Powder Biscuit
- Griddle Cake

Beverages
- Cocoa
- Coffee
- Tea

Puddings
- Baked Rice Pudding
- Steamed Chocolate
- Chocolate Cornstarch
- Baked Indian
- Cottage Pudding

Candy

Sandwiches

Sauces

Special Housekeeping

Table Setting and Serving

EVERETT CONTINUATION SCHOOL

Class _____ **CLOTHING PROGRESS RECORD**

Name _____ **Date Entered** _____

Processes of Construction

Use of Pattern.....
Garment Fitting .....

Stitches

Basting .....
Hemming .....
Running .....
Blind Stitch .....
Overcasting .....
Overhanding.....
Backstitch.....
Catstitch.....
Machine Stitch.....
Whipping .....
Darning.....

Decorative Stitches

Featherstitch .. ..
Cross Stitch ....
Hemstitch.....
Blanket Stitch .....
Smocking .....
Chain Stitch.....

Seams

Plain .....
French.....
Flatfell.....
Welt .....
Tuck .....

Finishings

Binding.....
Piping.....
Facing.....
Buttonholes.....
Pockets.....
Tucks and Plaits.....
Plackets and Openings..
Pressing.....

Findings

Hooks and eyes.....
Buttons.....
Lace .....
Snaps..... .....

Use and Care of Machine

Care of Clothing

Stain Removal .....
Dyeing .....
Laundering.....

Student's Contract Graph

Name _____

Class _____ Contract No. _____

Date Begun Date Completed Time Weeks Days			Remarks Absent Tardy		Absent	Tardy
5th Week						
4th Week						
3rd Week						
2nd Week						
1st Week						
Subjects	Art	Arith.	Civics	English		
Tests						

David Hale Fanning Trade School for Girls

_____
(Director)

Explanation To Students

The David Hale Fanning Trade School for Girls grades students on trade alone. Dressmaking, Millinery, or Power Operating Girls of 7th, 8th, or 9th grade work together, which makes the academic work somewhat difficult, especially for the girl who can work faster. In order to give all a fair chance, the DALTON SYSTEM has been adopted.

This in brief is the scheme:

1. All lessons for each month are carefully worked out with directions and explanations. These are called the CONTRACT ASSIGNMENTS. One of these contracts is given to each student.

2. A CONFERENCE is held in each subject each week when further explanations are given, questions answered, etc. At all other times students get help as it is needed, and each may work ahead as rapidly as she pleases.

3. As work is completed, it is scored off on the teacher's record and on the student's CONTRACT GRAPH. In this way each student keeps a full record of her work and time.

4. Each student is responsible for her entire contract:
   (a) She knows where she is slow and she can get extra help.
   (b) She knows that when she has completed her contract, she may do the things she needs, or likes best.

Student_____ Subject_____

ENTERED:

	FIRST WEEK	SECOND WEEK	THIRD WEEK	FOURTH WEEK	FIFTH WEEK	SUMMARY
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						

Suggested by the State Department of Education, Commonwealth of Massachusetts,

Division of Vocational Education

PROGRESS RECORD CHART

HOME NURSING

NAMES OF PUPILS	BED MAKING				CARE OF PATIENT										BANDAGING			CHILD CARE			
	Closed	Open	Occupied		Moving patient and adjusting pillows	Moving patient to sitting position	Bed bath	Foot bath	Temperature	Pulse	Respiration	Applications, hot, cold, dry, wet	Sterile dressings	Tray setting	Triangular	Four tail	Roller	Bathing	Dressing	Feeding	Play

Suggested by the Stete Depertment of Educetion, Commonweelth of Maesechusetts,

Division of Vocetional Education

PROGRESS RECORD CHART

CLOTHING

NAMES OF PUPILS	STITCHES													MACHINES				PROCESSES OF CONSTRUCTION														UPKEEP			GARMENTS					
	Basting	Hemming	Overcasting	Overhanding	Running	Backstitch	Catchstitch	Featherstitch	Cross stitch	Hemstitch	Blanket stitch	Chain stitch		Knowledge of parts	Adjustments	Attachments	Cleaning and oiling	Plain seam	French seam	Flat Fell	Welt Seam	Tuck Seam	Hems	Binding	Facing	Piping	Button holes	Pockets	Tucks	Plackets	Plaits		Stain removal	Darns	Patches	Selection of Patterns	Altering of Patterns	Garment Cutting	Garment Fitting	Pressing	

Suggested by the State Department of Education, Commonwealth of Maseachusetts,

Division of Vocational Education

PROGRESS RECORD CHART

FOODS

NAMES OF PUPILS	PRESERVATION				CARBOHYDRATES			VEGETABLES					BREADS			SOUPS				PROTEINS				CAKES and PASTRY			LEFT OVERS						MENU PLANNING					MEALS					
	Canning	Jellies, jams, etc.	Pickles		Fruits	Cereals	White Sauce	Boiled	Creamed	Scalloped	Baked	Fried	Batters	Quick breads	Yeast breads	Cream	Puree	Chowder	Stock	Eggs	Cheese	Meat	Fish	Butter	Sponge	Pies	Bread	Cake	Fruit	Vegetable	Meat	Fish	Breakfast	Lunch	Dinner	Teas	Sunday Night Suppers	Marketing	Preparation	Table Setting	Table Serving	Estimating Costs	

1m-9-'30. No. 9983-b