

SOME TRENDS IN TWENTIETH CENTURY AMERICAN
EDUCATION AS REFLECTED BY A SURVEY
OF PRIMARY READERS

A THESIS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

That the educational system developed by any age is a mirror of the social conditions of the times is a well established fact. The earliest forms of education probably dealt with various phases of preservation of life. Securing food and shelter, and protecting one's self from enemies and from the dangers of nature probably constituted the earliest forms of instruction. As civilization increased in complexity, the problems of adaptation to new environments and of meeting new situations became important. There has been an education for the hunter, the warrior, the shepherd -- for virtuous living, ethical character, and good citizenship.

Twentieth century American education goes back in its origins and development over many years -- back through the period of our own national growth, through the time of the Reformation with its attendant benefits to educational theory and practise, through the Germanic invasions and the fall of the Roman Empire, through the rise of Christianity, through the world conquests of the Romans and their contributions to civilization, and on back to the little city states of Greece. Very slowly has our modern civilization evolved from the ideas of individual freedom worked out in Greece, the conceptions of political equality and government contributed by the Romans, the ethical forces appearing from Christianity,

and the thought of the state as existing for the individual brought in by the Germanic tribes.

Our own American education was very simple in its earliest developments. Life was simple, often a mere struggle for bare existence. Only the rudiments of learning -- reading, writing, and arithmetic -- were considered of importance to the child. In many communities the connection between church and state was so close as to make a separation of aims impossible. By 1820 an educational consciousness began to develop. The idea that education for everyone was a necessity in a democracy came to be the dominating one, and the nineteenth century witnessed the struggles for a free, tax-supported system of education. Influences from abroad began to creep in, and with them came new methods of organization and a new psychology of child study. The nineteenth century also witnessed astonishing changes in American social, economic, and political life. Development of industrialism drew many people away from the farms and villages into the urban communities, with the result that living became more complex and both the child and the adult were forced to face problems for which they had no adequate preparation. It has become the work of the educator to devise some form of school organization, some type of curriculum which will provide training for the vast numbers of children in attendance at the public schools -- children physically and mentally handicapped, and children of foreign parents, as well as those of native stock. In order to meet these needs, our educational theories have undergone great

changes within the past three decades.

In the closing years of the nineteenth century it became evident that three new influences were making themselves felt in educational theory. One of these three was science, particularly the theory of evolution which sprang up after Charles Darwin published his Origin of Species, in 1859. Nicholas Murray Butler, speaking before the National Education Association in 1900, made the statement that "every conception of this nineteenth century, educational as well as other, has been cross-fertilized by the doctrine of evolution."¹ Again in the same address, he said that all educational trends "are based consciously or unconsciously, upon the desire to apply the teachings of evolution and to progress toward the ideal of a perfected individualism."² Mark Sullivan, in his book Our Times, says that one lack in the schools of 1865-95 was science, and he points out that this defect has resulted in poor equipment of the pupils for the adult life of the twentieth century.³ He also quotes from Horace Mann a picture of the type of teaching in the earlier part of the century.

With all our senses glowing and receptive, how little were we taught; or rather, how much obstruction was thrust between us and nature's teaching. Our eyes were never trained to distinguish forms or colors. Our ears were strangers to music. 4

Cubberley says, in speaking of the scientific development since 1850, that "it is no exaggeration of the importance of

1. Nicholas Murray Butler, "Status of Education at the Close of the Century", National Education Association, Proceedings, 1900, p. 193.

2. Ibid., p. 195.

3. Mark Sullivan, Our Times, Vol. 2, p. 192.

4. Ibid., p. 190.

this to say that no addition of new subject matter and no change in the direction and purpose of education since that time has been of greater importance for the welfare of mankind, or more significant of the new world conditions, than has been the emphasis recently placed, in all divisions of state school systems, on instruction in the principles and the applications of science."⁵ The scientific movement is showing itself in the twentieth century in school organization and in methods of approach to studies of educational problems.

A second noticeable trend was the psychological one. Psychology has been present in some form in education from the time Socrates set up as his guiding principle in the instruction of the Athenian youth, "Know thyself," down to the statement made by Thomas W. Gosling before the National Education Association in 1931, that one big objective in education should be "to promote the development of an understanding and an adequate evaluation of the self."⁶ Cubberley says that "to the Herbartians we are indebted in particular ... for a new and truer educational psychology."⁷ He says further that "the forty years which have elapsed since the decade of the eighties with the consequent social and industrial and political changes through which our Nation has passed, have witnessed a complete alteration in attitude, and the child to be educated has been brought to the front in our educational

5. E. P. Cubberley, History of Education, p. 772.

6. Thomas W. Gosling, "Objectives in Education", National Education Association, Proceedings, 1931, p. 277.

7. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, p. 317.

thinking. Today, child welfare, rather than subject matter, occupies the center of the stage, while our educational practice is directed by a truer psychology than the decade of the eighties knew."⁸ The names of G. Stanley Hall and E. L. Thorndike have come to be associated with educational psychology.

A third significant trend has been the social one. In 1859, Herbert Spencer had declared in his essay "What Knowledge is of Most Worth?" that the purpose of an education was to "prepare us for complete living." In order to make this preparation he urged instruction in science to train for the daily duties of life. In direct contrast to the thought of Spencer regarding the purposes of an education was the philosophy of John Dewey to the effect that education is living. He said that the school should be living and not a preparation for living; that the school should be a preparation for social life by reproducing the typical conditions of social life. He said that "the democracy which proclaims equality of opportunity as its ideal requires an education in which learning and social application, ideas and practice, work and recognition of the meaning of what is done are united from the beginning and for all."⁹

James W. Joyner, in 1910, pointed out as some of the dominant trends in American education: moral education,

8. Ibid., p. 379.

9. E. E. Slosson and Bliss Perry, American Education and Literature, p. 256. Quoted from John Dewey.

altruism, peace, and public health.¹⁰ Education for citizenship has occupied the time and attention of such men as Charles W. Eliot and John Dewey. William Wickenden summed up the dreams of progressive educationalists in these words:

Education instead of being chiefly a training for economic labor to follow is being conceived as a normal process of human living, a voyage of self-discovery, an adventure amid life interests, a discipline of creative talents, a quest for understanding of self and life.¹¹

NATURE OF THE STUDY

The issue of the Elementary School Journal for April 1932, in announcing a new educational periodical bearing the title Educational Trends, makes this statement regarding the magazine:

Those responsible for the publication recognize the demand which is obviously becoming more insistent that increased attention be given to interpretation of educational theories and practises in terms of outcomes.¹²

It is a recognized fact that there have been many changes in American educational theory in the past thirty years. The results of these changes are apparent in school organization and in school text books. The fundamental thesis of this study is that the general trends in education have been reflected in school readers. It is the author's purpose to

10. James W. Joyner, "Some Dominant Trends in American Education", National Education Association, Proceedings, 1910, pp. 78-87.

11. James W. Wickenden, "Education and the New Age", C. A. Beard, editor, Toward Civilization, p. 264.

12. "New Educational Magazines", ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL, Vol. 32 (April 1932), p. 575.

select certain of these trends and trace them through representative series of readers, showing their presence in and effect on the content and arrangement of materials within the books.

During the past few years there have been many studies of the reading interests and abilities of both children and adults.¹³ It is not the purpose of this investigation to make any predictions as to what may be, or to offer any suggestions whereby the contents of the readers might be better selected or organized to serve their purpose. This study is not one of content as such. It is merely a historical survey, tracing the trends in the readers.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study has been limited in two ways:

- (1) Only readers through the primary grades have been used;
- (2) With the exception of six, only readers bearing copyright dates of 1900 and later have been examined.

The following is a list of the readers used in the study:

- Alexander, Georgia. Child Classics, Bobbs-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, c1909.
Primer
First Reader
Third Reader
- Baker, Clara B. and Baker, Edna D. Bobbs-Merrill Readers, Published by The State of Kansas, Topeka.

13. For summaries of recent reading investigations, see the entries in the bibliography under Gray, William Scott.

First Reader (c1923)
 Second Reader (c1924)
 Third Reader (c1924)

Baker, Clara B. and Baker, Edna D. True Story Series,
 Bobbs-Merrill Co., Indianapolis.
 Book One (c1928)

Boyden, Helen W., Student's Series, Scott, Foresman &
 Co., Chicago, c1897.
 First Reader
 Second Reader
 Third Reader

Cordts, Anna D., New Path to Reading, Ginn and Co.,
 Boston, c1929.
 Primer
 Manual for the Primer
 First Reader
 Manual for First Reader
 Second Reader
 Third Reader

Elson, William Harris, and others, Basic Readers, Scott,
 Foresman and Co., Chicago, c1930.
 Primer
 Second Reader
 Third Reader

Freeman, Frank N., Storm, Grace E., Johnson, Eleanor M.,
 and French, W. C., Child Story
 Readers, Lyons and Carnahan, Chicago,
 c1927.
 First Reader
 Third Reader

Hardy, Marjorie, The Child's Own Way Series, Wheeler
 Publishing Co., Chicago.
 Second Reader (c1928)
 Third Reader (c1927)

Jones, L. H., Readers, Ginn and Co., Boston, c1903.
 Second Reader
 Third Reader

Judson, Harry Pratt, and Bender, Ida C., editors, Graded
 Literature Readers, Maynard,
 Merrill, & Co., n. p.
 First Book (c1899)
 Second Book (c1900)
 Third Book (c1900)

Lewis, Homer P., and Lewis, Elizabeth, Lippincott's

Readers, J. B. Lippincott Co.,
Philadelphia.
Primer (c1910)
First Reader (c1911)
Second Reader (c1912)
Third Reader (c1912)

Lights to Literature, Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago.
Book One (c1898)
Book Two (c1900)
Book Three (c1900)

Murray, Clara, New Wide Awake Readers, Little, Brown &
Co., Boston, c1929.
First Reader
Second Reader
Third Reader

Norton, Charles Eliot, editor, The Heart of Oak Books,
D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, c1895.
Third Book

Searson, J. W., Martin, George E., Harris, Achsah May.
Studies in Reading (Kansas Readers)
Published by the State of Kansas,
Topeka.
First Reader (c1916)
Second Reader (c1917)
Third Reader (c1917)

Smedley, Eva A., and Olsen, Martha C., Smedley and Olsen
Series, Hall & McCreary Co.,
Chicago, c 1926.
New Primer

Wooster, Lizzie E., Readers, Wooster & Co., Chicago.
Primer (c1910)
First Reader (c1907)
Second Reader (c1915)
Third Reader (c1907)

In addition to using the readers mentioned above, the writer read quite widely and generally in order to find what have been the dominant trends in American education in the twentieth century. To verify the results of the reading, expert opinions were obtained from persons well acquainted with the field of education.

METHOD OF PROCEDURE

The investigation includes the following steps:

- (1) Determination through reading and interviews of what the general twentieth century trends have been in education;
- (2) Selection of readers for purposes of study;
- (3) Examinations of prefaces and contents for indications of the various trends;
- (4) Interpretation of results.

In the selection of the readers, no attempt has been made to find those which have had a particularly wide circulation, or those which have been used as state texts in Kansas. The books were chosen because they were available and probably fairly representative of the field studied. As nearly as possible the books have been examined in series of three, although in some instances only one or two of the series could be found.

The twentieth century has been chosen as the period to be covered, in full recognition of the fact that no single one of the trends mentioned became apparent for the first time January 1, 1900. The increasing industrialism and the social and political developments in American life in the last thirty years have left their impress on American education. Because the twentieth century marks a distinct phase of American development, it has been chosen as the time limit of the study.

The validity of the findings regarding the trends has been established in the following ways:

- (1) By a rather broad, general reading from both books and periodicals of twentieth century publication;
- (2) By securing expert opinions from people who know the fields of education and psychology;
- (3) By checking, in further reading, with the trends of other years.

CHAPTER II

SOCIAL TRENDS

Early American education was characterized by a very simple organization which corresponded to the social life and interests of the people. Nearly all the school had to do was to instruct in the fundamentals of learning, and trust to contacts outside the school to teach the child the real art of living. This could be done in an agrarian social order, but the times changed, and with these changes came new directions in education. Instead of developing in the children the ability to cipher, and spell, and read, "the function of the school is to develop a socialized individual,"¹ according to I. L. Kandel.

Education is now, as never before, a social necessity. There is a growing realization that the school should not be merely a preparation for some remote future time when the child will begin to live, but a place where he lives in the present -- where he absorbs certain ideals which help him to become a good citizen and live a life of social usefulness. One of the chief exponents of socialized education is John Dewey. E. E. Slosson, writing of him, says:

Dewey brought to the task what most of the earlier reformers had lacked, a thorough knowledge of the science of psychology upon which educational theory and practise must be based and a full recognition of

1. I. L. Kandel, Essays in Comparative Education, p. 79.

the social importance of education.²

Dewey himself points out that education must be the directing power of the new trends of industrialism and complex civilization or these forces will become destructive. He says:

Education must cultivate the social spirit and the power to act socially even more assiduously than it cultivated individual ambition for material success in the past....The motto must be: Learn to act with and for others while you learn to think for yourself.³

The new education must serve as a period of training for social participation. To this end, the pupils share experiences in the schools, which, in theory, should be places where actual social situations are set up. In many ways the social trends in education have shown themselves. It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss the following phases as they are reflected in the school readers studied:

- (1) Education by doing;
- (2) International tendencies;
- (3) Making education vital to the child;
- (4) Behavior rather than knowledge outcomes;
- (5) Education is life.

2. Slosson, and Perry, op. cit., p. 267.

3. John Dewey, "Some Aspects of Modern Education,"
SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, Vol. 34 (October 31, 1931), p. 584.

EDUCATION BY DOING

One of the underlying principles of John Dewey's educational philosophy is that of learning by doing. He would have the schools, as nearly as possible, represent a miniature society. The readers, especially the later ones, express this idea. The early readers studied have frequent provisions for word drills, and language and phonetic exercises of one kind and another. Lists of words were placed at the head of the lessons and usually included the new words. The teacher was told to put much stress on the words at the ends of the readers with a view to preparing the pupils for using the dictionary. Much drill was placed on the sounds, and in some cases the order of the teaching of the consonant sounds was given. Matters centering about proper pronunciation and correct inflection constituted almost all the child's activity in the school room.

In 1910 the Wooster Primer had the statement that the "natural instinct of children is to do things. They wish to be independent workers."⁴ Consequently, the author provided for this liking of children all through her book by giving suggestions for doing things. Models for writing were included in the text, as were those for drawing. Number work was given to the children with the suggestion

4. Lizzie E. Wooster, Primer, p. 3.

that number cards might be used to advantage. Another device to give the children something to do was stick-laying, used to teach numbers, color, and form. Paper-folding and paper-sewing exercises were suggested as an aid to teaching as was also clay modelling.⁵ The same plan has been more or less followed all through the series, the idea being to give the children something to do in order to facilitate the learning process.

The Kansas First Reader (1917) used the story method, and the editors hoped that the "simple helps in connection with the stories" might suggest "definite work, and hence insure increased enjoyment."⁶ A glance through each of the three books studied in the series reveals that after practically every selection there is an "action and expression" suggestion. Sometimes each child is told to dramatize a story, giving his own interpretation of it; sometimes pupils are directed to tell short stories of their own, related to the original but never a reproduction of it; sometimes the suggested action involves interpretation of what probably took place before the story started. In each case, the action is some sort of self-expression -- an opportunity for the child to show what he got from the story. In the third reader the notes are rather extensive at the ends of the stories, and the questions or "exercises" involve more

5. Ibid., p. 5.

6. J. W. Searson, E. Martin, and A. M. Harris, Studies in Reading, (Kansas Readers) First Reader, p. 3.

thought than action in answering them.

In 1926, the Smedley and Olsen New Primer included among its stories some definite suggestions for things the children could do. One of these is under the title "Things You Can Do at Home," and directs the child to get two boxes, a big one and a little one from which he is to make a doll house and furniture.⁷ On another page of the same book, this title appears: "Read and Do." The child is told to read to himself and then do as he is directed:

Draw a picture of a house.
 Draw a picture of a chair.
 Draw a picture of a bed.
 Draw a picture of a table.

Color the house yellow.
 Color the table green.
 Color the bed yellow.
 Color the chair green.⁸

The above exercise is very evidently designed to test how well the child can read silently and follow directions, as well as to appeal to his sense of independent action. The selections used as illustrations are only two of ten of like nature in the book of one hundred pages. It would seem that the inclusion of that number indicates the importance to the authors of action on the part of the child.

The Child Story Readers likewise emphasize this trait on the part of the child by including, in addition to definite suggestions for doing things, many little tests, objective in form, of which more will be said later in this study, which

7. Eva A. Smedley and Martha C. Olsen, New Primer, p. 38.

8. Ibid., p. 39.

not only provide the child with something to do, but test his reading progress as well. There are two sections in the third reader entitled "Making Things and Things To Do," and "Having Fun By Doing Things." One of the selections in the first section mentioned includes very definite instructions as to how to set a table;⁹ another, testing how well the child can follow directions, has outlined the procedure for making a Japanese kite.¹⁰ Pop corn balls and bird houses are discussed, with directions for making them in the same section. In the second section the children are told how to perform some little stunts that might help to entertain at some time. Such things as turning a glass of water upside down without spilling it, making a needle float on water, and making a lead pencil stand on the tip -- things that any child would be eager to try -- are described in detail.

The trend to learn by doing has thus been expressed in the readers. It has taken a decidedly different turn in the past few years, a tendency which is apparently in keeping with the general trend in educational practise. It is toward group activity, and group participation -- doing the things that actually come up in social usage, and is probably an application of what Dewey meant when he spoke of learning by doing.

9. F. N. Freeman, Grace E. Storm, Eleanor M. Johnson, and W. C. French, Child Story Readers, Third Reader, p. 209.

10. Ibid., pp. 212-13.

INTERNATIONAL TENDENCIES

Mr. I. L. Kandel of Columbia University, said a few years ago that "education is today moving in the direction of international norms."¹¹ In a world where practically every corner has been made accessible to every other, where the occurrences in Japan are known in America in a very few minutes, and where daily necessities come for thousands of miles, it is only natural that people should think in terms of international instead of national welfare. Realizing the importance to world peace of understanding among the nations, certain groups have been sponsoring world friendship organizations. The curricula of the schools have broadened to include courses in the social sciences designed to promote a better understanding of other nations. This trend has been reflected in the school readers.

The earlier readers studied have very little of the trend, as might be expected. There is nothing in the prefaces of the early books to indicate a thought toward internationalism. One of the earliest selections noted which showed any tendency toward international ideas was the poem by Robert Louis Stevenson entitled "Singing," found in the first reader of the Graded Literature Series (1899). The last stanza reads like this:

The children sing in far Japan,
 The children sing in Spain;
 The organ with the organ man
 Is singing in the rain.¹²

11. Kandel, op. cit., p. 81.

12. R. L. Stevenson, "Singing," H. P. Judson and Ida C. Bender, editors, Graded Literature Readers, First Book, p. 116.

The editors probably included the poem because they had an idea it would appeal to children, rather than because they had a definite plan of broadening the children's interests to include those of other lands. In the third book there is one selection apparently intended to increase interest in other children, as well as to give certain factual material. The story has been given the title "Hawaiian Children."¹³ The island home of the children is described, with the climate, flowers, homes, food, amusements, and schools coming in for their share. Apparently the author relies on facts for arousing interest. The selection is so detached from the experiences of most third graders, that they probably would not learn much after all in their appreciation of the Hawaiian children.

The series Lights to Literature, Book One, has two short selections based on the children of other lands, one about a little Eskimo boy,¹⁴ and the other one about a little Indian boy.¹⁵ Both these are very similar in content and approach to the story of the Hawaiian children. The Jones Second and Third Readers (1903) have brief little sketches about the Eskimo, the Indian, and one story each of China and Japan.

During the next twenty years, or until the publication of the Bobbs-Merrill Readers in 1924, there are no selections included concerning the children of other lands. This coincides fairly well with the facts of the history of the period, for not until after the World War closed did attention

13. Judson and Bender, op. cit., Third Book, pp. 206-10.

14. Ibid., Book One, pp. 47-48.

15. Ibid., p. 64.

turn to international affairs, and it was some time then, in getting into the readers. The third reader of the Bobbs-Merrill Readers has its contents divided into groups of stories. One of these groups is headed "Stories of Many Lands," and the editors say this of the section:

The tales and legends...are all realistic in character, introducing the child to other lands and other times than his own. They concern children and animals chiefly, and are well within the range of appreciation at this age.¹⁶

There are ten little stories in this group. One of them is entitled "The Leak in the Dike," and is the tale of Peter, the Dutch boy, who saved his land from a flood by thrusting his arm into a hole in the dike. There is a story along with facts -- an interest device. The group contains stories of the past as well as of the present, but it is a step toward better understanding of other children through more knowledge of them.

The Child Story Third Reader has a section called "In Other Lands." Some of the titles are: "A Japanese Garden"; "Indian Pottery"; "Kite Flying in Japan"; and "Noah's Ark."

In the third reader of the Wide Awake Series (1929) the statement occurs that "the selections which deal especially with child life and interests in other countries will broaden the child's view of the world, prepare him for the study of geography, and help him to be a wide awake child."¹⁷

16. Clara B. Baker and Edna D. Baker, Bobbs-Merrill Readers, Third Reader, p. v-vi.

17. Clara Murray, New Wide Awake Readers, Third Reader, p. 5.

The opening selection in the book has the heading: "All the Children of All the World," and attempts to impress on children the fact that other children like the same things even if they do wear different clothes, eat different food, and sing different songs.

The inclusion of these types of stories during the last six or eight years is significant of the trend toward internationalism which is making itself felt in education.

MAKING EDUCATION VITAL TO THE CHILD

One of the characteristics of the socialized education has been the attempt to make the subject matter of the stories and poems more real to the child, more vitally related to him in his own experiences. This has been more or less the purpose of all the readers studied, but the methods of accomplishing it have changed with changing education. In one of the readers published in 1900, the editor states that it has been the purpose "to live in the child's own world; to see with the child's eyes; to take on his feelings and sympathies - in all respects to be in harmony with him."¹⁸ A glance at the table of contents fails to reveal any grouping of the stories such as occurs in the later books, except under the heading "Classified Contents," where the stories are grouped by types as: fables, fairy and classical tales, child stories, history

18. Judson and Bender, op. cit., Second Book, p. 3.

and biography, nature study, and poems. It is interesting to note that poetry comprises approximately one-third of the selections given in this second reader, a condition which does not prevail in the later readers because scientific studies seem to indicate that poetry is not of great interest to primary children. The selections listed under "Child Stories" are presumably of real children but composed of mere routine incident and often with a very obvious moral or lesson, as in the case of the boy who played with his little wooden soldier and toy kitten when he should have been watching the baby, or the little girl whose cat caught her bird because she had the "in a minute" habit.

In 1898 the Lights to Literature, Book One, had this statement:

The child is naturally in sympathy with the activities of the great busy world around him, and so with the nature work we have interspersed stories of trades and occupations. That these lessons may be the expression of the child's self instead of coming from without, it is necessary that the thought of the lesson be suggested to him, so that it may become his own before he engages in the actual reading lesson.¹⁹

The stories just mentioned are of a shoemaker, a blacksmith, and a carpenter. The one dealing with the carpenter is very brief and to the effect that since Charlie's father is a carpenter, he (Charlie) has decided to follow the same vocation, and has put up a work shop in the barn where he made a doll house and furniture. This story is obviously an attempt to find material about which the child knows, but a later reader

19. Lights to Literature, Book One, p. 3.

would probably have gone further and given directions for the child who read so that he, too, could make a doll house. Book Two of the same series has selections chosen for their "fidelity ... to the experiences of pure, happy child life,"²⁰ but the stories are of the same type as in Book One.

Several years later, when the Wooster Readers came out, the realization of the necessity of broadening education became apparent. The Third Reader "contains lessons in History, Biography, Geography, Science, Nature Study, Industry, Hygiene, Ethics, stories of people in other lands, special Holiday lessons, and extracts from our best literature in both prose and poetry."²¹ The fact that the author specifically states that she has included these phases of reading shows her recognition of the broader scope of education. The story of the lump of coal given in this reader is in great contrast to similar selections in earlier books, in that factual material is presented in story form in which the children themselves find a lump of coal, and ask their teacher to tell them about it. Facts presented in such a way, according to recent scientific investigations, are much more interesting to children and therefore more likely to be remembered. Another selection, which is significant of the fact that the school has taken over some of the duties formerly cared for in the home, is the one on table manners in which

20. Ibid., Book Two, p. 3.

21. Wooster, Third Reader, p. 5.

the setting of the table is discussed along with suggestions for handling the silver and the napkin.

The Kansas Readers (1917) contain "charming nature stories, myths, fairy tales, fables, folk tales, rhymes, songs, plays and games, stories of home life, out door sports and holiday delights" which "interpret to the child the life he is to live."²² This, it will be noted, marks a step farther in socialized education -- the idea of interpreting life to the child. The second reader has a choice collection "interpreted naturally through lively action, vivid dramatization, and sparkling conversation."²³

In the Bobbs-Merrill Readers (1924) a further development is evident in the movement to broaden education:

In most schools the first-grade program includes a study of the activities of the home and community, and nature work appropriate to the season.... In the First Reader the stories fall into three groups. The first group is concerned with home life -- food and shelter; the second group, with community living -- buying, selling, and trading; the third group with out-of-door activities appropriate to the spring of the year.²⁴

For the first time mention is made of community living, a definite effort toward socialized education. Teaching the art of living together in a community has come to be a recognized necessity in the new education -- the setting up of social situations which the child will probably meet and supplying him with some means of adjusting himself in a satisfactory manner.

22. Searson, Martin, and Harris, op. cit., p. iii.

23. Ibid., Second Reader, p. iii.

24. Baker and Baker, op. cit., First Reader, p. 3.

In the second reader of the same series a new word makes its appearance. It is the word "realistic" and is used in describing a type of stories found in the book. The word often appears in the same connection in the later readers, and seems to be in harmony with the tendency dominant soon after the World War to think of everything in terms of realism. The True Story Series is, as its name suggests, designed to appeal on the basis of its realism. A glance at its contents shows its many-sided appeal. It has the selection of stories grouped under the following heads:

"The Farm"; "The Snow"; "The Birds"; "The Town"; "Toys"; "Books"; "The Circus."25

The stories, for they are all stories and not mere incidents, under the heading "The Farm" deal with the meadow, rabbits, the hen, the little white chickens -- objects with which any child who lives on a farm is familiar. Under the caption "The Town," the fire engine, the train, and the policeman receive attention. In the same book there is a page entitled "What To Do," which calls the child's attention to various things he should or should not do in the city. The form is that of the objective test. The questions are given here because they illustrate the attempt to relate subject matter to the child's life:

1. When you cross the street, what do you do?
 - a. I look for cars
 - b. I look at the houses
 - c. I look at the trees

2. When you get out of a car, what do you do?
 - a. I jump out when it is going
 - b. I wait till it stops

3. Where do you play?
 - a. I play in my yard
 - b. I play in the street
 - c. I play on the playground²⁶

There is no city child who has not had just these experiences, and needs to have called to his attention the various things that make for his own safety, and for his own adjustment to his environment. The little poem entitled "From the Train," will appeal more strongly to the child than a mere series of statements such as would have been used in the earlier books. The experiences are common to anyone who has ridden on a train.

I see, I see --
 What do I see?
 A house and a garden,
 A cow and a tree,
 A hill that goes up
 A hill that goes down,
 A queer little river,
 A queer little town!
 I sit very still
 All the long day,
 And the hills and the houses,
 Run ever away. 27

The Child Story Readers (1927) are built on the same plan. of content organization. In the First Reader, the selections are arranged in eight groups. This arrangement includes a section under "Community Workers," in which the child learns about the fireman, the grocer, and the policeman. The story of the fireman closes with the question, "Do you want to help me?" said the fireman. This is the way the child can help:

Do not play with fire.
 Clean up your yard.
 Learn how to turn in a fire alarm.28

These are principles of community living and citizenship

26. Ibid., p. 124.

27. Ibid., p. 117.

28. Freeman, Storm, Johnson, and French, op. cit., p. 115.

which each child should know and observe. The Third Reader has a classification much the same only longer and more detailed. Such farm activities as picking apples and filling the silo are brought out.

In 1928 the Child's Own Way Series of readers appeared. In this series each book has been given over to a certain phase of life. The second reader concerns community life and is the story of two little boys, cousins, one from the country and one from the city who visited each other in their respective homes. The incidents recorded deal chiefly with city experiences, while the last sixty pages of wild animal stories are the stories which the boys read in their book as they traveled to the country. The experiences are those of any city children and written in story form to show what to do under certain conditions. The Third Reader is entitled National Life, and centers about the history of the United States. The latter part of the book has stories of various industries dealing with food, clothing, and shelter. The book opens with a description of a happy family of today. The family is awaiting the arrival of Aunt Martha who has been abroad. When she comes, they all go to the movies, and the picture they see is the "Happy Family of Long Ago." This forms the basis for the stories dealing with early American life. The use of the motion picture as an interest device is unique, in the readers, as far as this study goes.

The New Path to Reading Primer is composed of little

plays. The Manual says of them:

The plays are real life experiences common to little children every where. The players are familiar; they are members of the family and therefore found in every child's home. The players, what they do, and what they say, the life situations in which they appear, all these are taken from the universal experiences of childhood. The play, because of its action pictures, its real life situations, and its short dramatic sentences, helps the pupil to interpret what he reads. 29

The modern writers apparently are less obviously trying to teach kindness to dumb animals, but they are probably succeeding better in developing a kindly sympathy for one's fellow-man. The facts listed in this part of the chapter have shown that the later readers are attempting to present subject matter so written and organized that it fits in with the aim of modern education to make instruction mean a process of real life and social adjustment to the child.

BEHAVIOR RATHER THAN KNOWLEDGE OUTCOMES

One characteristic of twentieth century American education has been the interest manifested in behavior rather than knowledge outcomes. This trend has been shown in the readers of the period. A great deal of emphasis in the early books was placed on memory work, especially the selections of poetry. The idea seems to have been that the child, by learning some of these little axioms in his youth, would have a foundation for guiding his behavior later in life. Many little couplets and quatrains were put in the readers expressly to be

29. Anna D. Cordts, New Path to Reading, Manual for the Primer, p. 5.

memorized. In the third book of the Heart of Oak Books (1895) poetry is declared to be "one of the most efficient means of education of the moral sentiment as well as of the intelligence. It is the source of the best culture. A man may know all science, and yet remain uneducated. But let him truly possess himself of the work of any one of the great poets and no matter what he may fail to know, he is not without education."³⁰ The Student's Series, Book One, (1897) gives much attention to the matter and form of the material placed in the readers and states that even if the poetry is somewhat difficult, "the meaning will soon be revealed, and the mind is enriched by the exercise which is almost involuntary."³¹ The second book of the same series states that it is not "easy to over-estimate the importance of familiarizing the child with literature of this class permanent value at the time when the memory is most retentive. He holds in memory until his later years those gems of literature which he learned during the early days of his school life."³² It is interesting to note the conflict of the psychology of this view with that of later statements. Very evidently, the poetry used in the readers was to be memorized for future use and because of good exercise afforded the mind by so doing -- one of those remote educational aims from which present practise is seeking escape. In some cases the prose selections were to be repeated by the

30. Charles Eliot Norton, Heart of Oak Books, Book Three, p. viii.

31. Helen W. Boyden, Student's Series, First Reader, p. 6.

32. Ibid., Second Book, p. 7.

children as nearly from memory as possible, a further emphasis in the knowledge side of education. In the earlier readers such selections as these appear frequently to be memorized:

Kind hearts are the gardens
Kind thoughts are the roots,
Kind words are the blossoms,
Kind deeds are the fruits. 33

Be you to others kind and true
As you'd have others be to you. 34

How doth the little busy bee
Improve each shining hour,
And gather honey all the day
From every opening flower! 35

This world is not so bad a world
As some would like to make it;
Though whether good or whether bad
Depends on how we take it. 36

If you're told to do a thing,
And mean to do it really;
Never let it be by halves;
Do it fully, freely!

Do not make a poor excuse,
Waiting, weak, unsteady;
All obedience worth the name,
Must be prompt and ready. 37

The Lights to Literature, Book Three, calls attention in its preface to the "character of the poetry, all of which is worth becoming a permanent possession."³⁸ The didacticism of the purpose back of the book is shown by the inclusion of James Whitcomb Riley's poem which begins "There, little girl, don't cry," under the title "A Life Lesson". The later readers do not include material of this type for the third grade.

33. Judson and Bender, First Book, p. 100.

34. Ibid., p. 103.

35. Ibid., Third Book, p. 140.

36. Ibid., p. 60.

37. Lights to Literature, Book Two, p. 14.

38. Ibid., Book Three, p. 5.

In 1910, the Lippincott Primer used many rhymes for memory work. The preface says:

These rhymes and stanzas are to be read by the teacher and memorized by the children. Their literary quality has been carefully considered and nothing has been presented which later education would wish to crowd out of memory and replace with something better. They are classic and form part of the equipment of every well educated mind. 39

Such rhymes as these are given for the above purpose:

Little Robin Redbreast sat on a tree.
Up went pussy cat. Down went he.
Down came pussy cat. Away Robin ran.
Says Robin Redbreast, "Catch me if you can." 40

The Wooster First Reader states that the "committing of memory gems or exercises" is an aid "to the child in gaining the use of a larger vocabulary."⁴¹ The selections given in this book are designed a little more toward what might be called moral education. The plan seems to have been to give the child certain lessons that he should learn, but give them through the memory verses, the mere learning of which was supposed to bring about the desired behavior. Moral education is as much a necessity now as ever, but the approach is different. The illustration given is a good example of the type of memory work in the series:

When e'er a task is set for you,
Don't idly sit and view it;
Nor be content to wish it done; --
Begin at once and do it. 42

Of frequent recurrence in this connection are the maxims of Benjamin Franklin taken from Poor Richard's Almanac. There

39. Homer P. Lewis and Elizabeth Lewis. Lippincott's Primer, p. 4.

40. Ibid., p. 21.

41. Wooster First Reader, p. 4.

42. Ibid., p. 117.

seems to have been some planning on the part of the editors in the arrangement of the memory gems, for they often continue the thought of the lesson after which they are found.

By 1917 when the Kansas Readers were published, there had been a change in educational theory. There is nothing to indicate that the little poems included are to be memorized. The character of the poems has changed also, as will be shown by the following stanza from the pen of Frank Dempster Sherman:

Bees don't care about the snow;
I can tell you why that's so.
Once I caught a little bee
Who was much too warm for me.⁴³

This humorous little poem has nothing of the moralizing in it which was found in some of the earlier poems, and any child who had picked up a bee would probably have a vivid recollection of the event. The poem is in harmony with the general tendency to make education more vital to the child. Another half-humorous little poem is this often quoted one:

O never tell your secrets to a fish,
Whatever else you do;
For fishes carry tails, you know,
And they might tell on you.⁴⁴

Nothing humorous ever occurred among the poems of the earlier readers. The Bobbs-Merrill First Reader (1924) has for its contents fifteen stories and twenty rhymes, an interesting point in view of the fact that the later readers contain practically no poems. Nothing tells the child to memorize the poems. The preface does not state, as previously, that they are for the purpose of enriching the mind. In subject matter, they show the same trend as the prose selections, an attempt

43. Searson, Martin, and Harris, op. cit., p. 146.

44. Ibid., p. 56.

to instruct from the child's own environment and to stress other phases of education than memory work. In form some of the poems resemble modern verse. The poem quoted below is rather a fanciful treatment of the white, fleecy clouds in the sky and is more for appreciation than memory:

White Sheep, white Sheep,
 On a blue hill,
 When the wind stops
 You all stand still.
 When the wind blows
 You walk away slow.
 White Sheep, white Sheep,
 Where do you go? 45

The poem was accompanied by a picture of a little girl looking up at the clouds.

The Child Story First Reader has no poetry because scientific investigations have shown that little children do not like it. The Third Reader says that "selected poems have been introduced in the second and third readers, not for the purpose of reading or memorization, but for appreciation."⁴⁶ The poems are several stanzas in length and there are no so-called memory gems scattered among the pages.

The same trend has been apparent in the prose of the readers as well as in the poetry. The children, in the early readers, were often told to reproduce certain selections as nearly as possible. Very often the trend toward didacticism was noticeable in such a comparison as that of thistles to bad habits. The prefaces of the early books stated that certain stories were included because the children should know

45. Baker and Baker, Bobbs-Merrill Readers, First Reader, p. 117.

46. Freeman, Storm, Johnson, and French, op. cit., p. 4.

them. The later selections are not put there in order that the child may know them only, but that, knowing them, he may develop the skills and attitudes and appreciations which he needs for his own successful living.

These facts show that there has been a change in the content and arrangement of materials in the readers and that the trend has been away from memory work as a means of acquiring knowledge and standards of behavior.

EDUCATION IS LIFE

The conception of education as life is too closely related to another section of the chapter to give it much attention at this time. The tendency in the later readers is to give the child reading material of both factual and imaginative types -- stories which will, in addition to providing facts, develop in the child the attitudes and skills which he needs in his social environment. The earlier readers had as their aim the cultivation of a lofty literary taste, a love for good books and reading. The purpose was rather well expressed in the words of an old English song:

Oh for a booke and a shadie nooke,
 Eyther in doore or out;
 With the grene leaves whispering overhede,
 Or the streete cryes all about.
 Where I maie reade all at my ease,
 Both of the new and olde;
 For a jollie goode booke where on to looke,
 Is better to me than golde. 47

47. "An Old English Song", EDUCATION, Vol. 25 (September 1914), p. 25.

Teaching the child what to read is still recognized as important, but the new trends in education have caused more attention to be paid to the child himself and to his interests. Every effort is being made to give the child what he needs to make him a useful citizen, and one who will be able to act intelligently his part in perpetuating the social order.

The social trends of education have been expressed in the school readers. Perhaps they are not quite so evident on the surface as are some of the other phases of the new movement, but they are there. They appear in the preface statements given by the authors or editors of the books, and in some cases by the publishers. The trends are found upon examination of contents of the readers, and in the arrangement of these contents within the books.

CHAPTER III

PSYCHOLOGICAL TRENDS

One of the phases of the "new education" of the twentieth century has been the shift in ideas concerning psychological processes, and the influence of this change on educational practises. During the closing years of the nineteenth century the prevailing ideas of faculty psychology and formal discipline dominated the organization of education. Near the end of the period the names of G. Stanley Hall, William James, and John Dewey came to the front in the field of psychology. These men had all, without doubt, been influenced by Darwin, and with them these older concepts of the mind under-went drastic changes. They pointed out that education involves not only an understanding of the subjects to be taught, but a knowledge of the person to whom they are taught. This led to a serious, scientific study of the human body. The child became the main object of observation, out of which grew the entire movement for child study. The break down of the old faculty psychology and formal discipline, recognition of individual differences, reorganization of learning principles, and construction of class room activities around the child, these have been some of the results of the new psychology. Arthur I. Gates, in 1930, stated the matter in this way:

Today the mind is not conceived in psychology as an entity which exists apart from the body; or as an agency superimposed upon the body as a kind of guide or master. We do not now consider a human being as exclusively or even primarily a machine guided by a

rational agency.¹ Gates, in the same article, outlines four ways in which psychological research has contributed to education:

- (1) By introducing the scientific method as the main means of study;
- (2) Through its influence on educational philosophy;
- (3) As reforming some educational practises;
- (4) By making possible new tools and techniques.²

I. L. Kandel of Columbia University, in a recent book on education said that psychology had contributed the idea of a child as a growing being, full of potentialities to be developed. Another contribution is the idea that learning can be best conducted through the activity of the learner instead of through prescribed methods from without. Still another is that education is a continuous process and not merely a matter of giving in early years all the child will ever need to know. Education builds on experiences and re-constructs in the light of new experience.³

While there is a full recognition on the part of the writer of the fact that scientific procedure and method probably came about as a result of the psychological movement, these phases have been treated in a separate chapter and under a different heading. In this chapter, only the

1. Arthur I. Gates, "The Contributions of Psychological Research to Education," *SCHOOL AND SOCIETY*, Vol. 31 (April 12, 1930) p. 486.

2. *Ibid.*, pp. 485-93.

3. Kandel, *op. cit.*, p. 86.

aspects of the movement as they have affected educational philosophy will be discussed in their relation to school readers.

The following points will be mentioned:

- (1) The child's own environment as a starting point for instruction;
- (2) Recognition of individual differences;
- (3) Emphasis on the child and not on method;
- (4) Education as a progressive whole;
- (5) The child as a slowly developing personality.

THE CHILD'S OWN ENVIRONMENT AS A STARTING
POINT OF INSTRUCTION

In Adam's fall
We sinned all.

Thy life to mend
This Book attend.

The Cat doth play
And after slay.

These lines in the old New England Primer were familiar to school children a few generations ago. Authorities seem to agree that probably no other school textbook ever had such far-reaching effects on both children and adults as this little book. It presents a very strong contrast to the readers used in the schools of the present in this respect: Its tone was predominantly religious and, while in perfect harmony with the thought of the times, it was detached from the immediate, everyday experiences of the child. The emphasis placed upon the child by the new psychology of the late nineteenth century demanded a new approach in instruction. The redirection consisted partly in recognizing that the child's own environment was the starting point of instruction. This tendency has been evident in all the readers studied. The first readers from the various series have been selected for this part of the study.

In 1898, the Lights to Literature, Book One, had this to say in the preface:

The child comes to school fresh from his play, where he has been in close touch with nature, whose manifest forms

he has been observing, either consciously or unconsciously. . . .As, little by little, the embryonic ideas and sympathies expressed in these pages are made clear and definite by close observation of nature, the child's interest is awakened and held. This is not because the subject matter is new, but because it gives activity and expression to dormant potentialities within him, which, fully developed, are the foundation for the next stage of his higher growth. Believing this, it has been our aim to begin with the child in the school room where he left off in the playground, utilizing the knowledge which he has obtained from nature. 4

Consequently, as a result of this aim, the selections in the book deal with such subjects as balls, flowers, apples, yellow birds, grass, oranges, leaves, fish, etc., not, in this instance, taken up with a view to nature study. The objects mentioned are accompanied by pictures, often brilliantly colored and used to assist in the interpretation of the text. The following statements are typical of those found in lessons on the first few pages of the book.

I see some flowers.

The flowers are blue.

The leaves have stems.

I see a bud.

The bud is blue.

The bud has a stem.

The stems are long.⁵

There were some blue flowers pictured above the writing. The later selections in the book practically all deal with some phase of nature, but evidently put there for the purpose of

4. Lights to Literature, Book One, p. 3.

5. Ibid., p. 9.

nature study in an effort to unite the process of fact getting with what the child has observed in his own experience. The pages dealing with the dandelion call attention to the fact that the dandelion is yellow; that it sleeps at night and awakens in the morning; that it soon takes off its "yellow hat" and puts on its "white one"; that the white one is made of "little white feathers" which do not last long; and concludes in this manner:

Soon the air will be full of white feathers.

Each feather carries a seed.

The children will try to catch them.

But the wind will blow the seeds.

They will find new homes far away.

Next year they will be dandelions.⁶

More will be said in the next chapter regarding nature study and its place in the readers.

The Graded Literature Readers, recognizing that the children must be interested to be instructed, have the contents of the first reader divided into two groups: "classic tales and fables," and "nature study."⁷ The so-called "nature study" in this book is very similar to that in the reader just discussed. It deals with bluebirds, dogs, kittens, chickens, and other objects with which the child is familiar.

So far, the selections in the readers have dealt with the child's own environment and the things he knows, but there

6. Ibid., pp. 98-99.

7. Judson and Bender, op. cit., First Book, p. 3.

has been no attempt to arrange them in other than a haphazard fashion. To bring home further to the child what he reads, the Wooster First Reader (1907) has this to say concerning the arrangement in the book:

Most children take up the First Reader at the beginning of the school year, and the lessons in this book are arranged with fall, winter, and spring subjects; lessons for special Holidays; Historical, Nature Study, Cleanliness, Kindness, Commercial, Scientific, Geographical, Poems, and Rhymes, Kindergarten occupations for seat work -- Stick-laying, Drawing, Writing, Filling of Blanks, Word Lists, and Phonic Drills.⁸

This is the first mention of any phase of hygiene being included in the readers. There is a distinction made, too, between "Nature Study" and "Scientific" selections, both, however, closely related to the child.

Following this series there were two more, the Child Classics (1909) and the Lippincott Series (1911), in which the first readers contain practically nothing but folk lore, fables, and fairy tales. There seems to have been a period about that time when the so-called "classic story" held sway almost entirely. With the Kansas Readers (1917) the turn came. The first reader contains "charming nature stories, myths, fairy tales, fables, folk tales, rhymes, songs, plays and games, stories of home life, out door sports, and holiday delights."⁹

The older readers had contained stories of out-door sports, home life, and games, but the significant factor is the mention of these features in the preface of this book.

8. Wooster, First Reader, p. 3.

9. Searson, Martin, and Harris, op. cit., First Reader, p. iii.

It means that more and more the editors are realizing the importance of the child's environment in this matter of instruction. Such a poem as this one entitled "The Skipping Rope" comes close to the actual experiences of many a little girl:

Over your head
And under your toes;
This is the way;
The skipping rope goes.

Up with this foot
And down with that,
While your heart
Goes pit-a-pat.¹⁰

The child's immediate interests have been utilized to teach kindness to animals in the following little poem called "I Love Little Pussy" :

I love little pussy,
Her coat is so warm;
And if I don't tease her
She will do me no harm.

I will not pull her tail
Nor drive her away;
But pussy and I
Very gently will play.

I will pat little pussy
And then she will purr;
And thus show her thanks
For my kindness to her. ¹¹

The Bobbs-Merrill First Reader (1923) has the statement that "the material is ... close to the child's experience."¹² Almost every boy has sometime ridden a broomstick pony, or gone fishing. To him such poems as these appeal:

10. Ibid., p. 71.

11. Ibid., p. 21.

12. Baker and Baker, Bobbs-Merrill Readers, First Reader,

I have a little pony,
 And it is dapple gray;
 Its head is made of straw
 And its tail is made of hay.¹³

The finest, biggest fish, you see,
 Will be the one that's caught by me;
 But if the big fish will not bite,
 Why then, I'll catch a little mite. 14

With the later series of readers, a new word appears in describing the stories -- the word "realistic." In the new True Story Series there are "realistic stories of nature and childhood activities" as well as some of the old folk tales; and the prose stories are, many of them, "true or possible stories about animals and the activities of modern children."¹⁵ The same book has an arrangement of contents which indicates an effort to bring the stories down to the child's own environment. The first group of stories deals with the farm; another, with the town; others, with toys, books, and the circus - all showing how the child's immediate interests are used.

The Child Story Readers are composed of both "literary" and "factual" materials, the latter "based upon nature and children's experiences and activities which have a strong appeal."¹⁶ In the New Wide Awake First Reader (1929), four children, two boys and two girls, are the characters throughout and they are shown doing things common to any normal children.

It has been interesting to note several points in

13. Ibid., p. 57.

14. Ibid., p. 87.

15. Baker and Baker, True Story Series, Book One, p. 4.

16. Freeman, Storm, Johnson, and French, op. cit., Third Reader, p. 3.

connection with this phase of the study:

- (1) The large amount of attention that was given in earlier years to nature and nature study as a phase of the child's environment;
- (2) The fact that there was a period during which little but folk lore was offered to children;
- (3) The phases of child activity and life which are receiving attention at the present time.

These facts indicate that the child is being instructed now in terms of his environment and the things he knows -- an application of one of the principles brought out by the new psychological movement in education.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

A recognition of the fact that all people are not constituted alike and that each one must be treated differently has been one of the results of the psychological movement. It has been introduced into the later readers, but is not apparent in the earlier ones.

Between 1900 and about 1912, it was not uncommon to find in the readers some sentences in script with the printed material. Often there were definite directions given to the pupils to copy, and, in case the script happened to be a four line stanza, to memorize. The names of the days of the week were sometimes given and the pupil was told to copy them exactly as his pattern indicated. The idea seems to have been that the child besides learning something that might be of

help to him later, would have a model for his writing. All the children were to try to write just alike. The Wooster Primer (1910) in the suggestions given to the teachers states that "care should be taken to get arm movement and a free, easy holding of the pencil and pen. Let the children watch the teacher write a letter or a word on the black board; then let her write a letter or a word on the black board for each child in the class, and help each child to trace that letter or word. If the children do trace the same letters or words many times on the black board, an easy arm-movement is soon acquired, and at the same time, a correct form is learned."¹⁷ There seems to have been every effort to make all of the children write alike and with the arm-movement. The later readers do not contain the script passages, neither do they contain pictures of potatoes and apples which are to be carefully reproduced according to form.

A definite recognition of the fact that rates of individual progress may be different becomes apparent in the preface of the Child Story Readers (1927) which says that "reading progress in the Child Story Readers has been placed on an individual basis if the teacher so desires, without raising administrative difficulties. The status of individual progress at any time is provided for by means of the comprehension checks following each lesson and by means of the supplementary diagnostic comprehension tests. These practise exercises which follow each lesson are based on the content of the lesson or lessons

17. Wooster, Primer, p. 5.

immediately preceding. Otherwise, such exercises are meaningless. Each child works every exercise for himself and records his reactions on an extra sheet of paper. Thus, an independent individual progress and economical types of seatwork are provided for. At the close of any lesson there is available to the teacher a measure of the child's reading ability."¹⁸

These comments show that, more and more, emphasis has been put on the individual child and what he can do. The children now do not all write and draw alike, neither do they all progress at the same rate in their reading. This trend to recognize individual differences has been outstanding in twentieth century American education.

EMPHASIS ON THE CHILD AND NOT ON METHOD

Another of the results of the new interest in psychology has been pointed out as the increased importance of the child over the subject matter. During these later years, such phrases as the "child-centered school," and "child interests" have become common. Everything is done with the child himself in mind. This tendency has appeared in the school readers of the twentieth century. The earlier readers give much attention to methods of teaching reading and not so much to what effect the reading matter will have on the child. Extensive directions are usually given to the teachers regarding the mechanics of their teaching. The Graded Literature Reader, First Book,

18. Freeman, Storm, Johnson, and French, op. cit., Third Reader, p. 5.

says that the editors "are convinced by their own experience and by that of many eminently successful teachers that the best way to teach beginners to read is by the Word and Sentence Method in the first lessons, combined later with the Phonic Method. This method, which is employed by the majority of successful primary teachers has governed the selection and arrangement of matter in this reader."¹⁹

The entire series bases its appeal to teachers on its "sound methods."²⁰ In the other readers which were published at about the same time much attention is placed on the teacher's use of phonics as a means of teaching. A few years later, the idea that method was not all of teaching had apparently prevailed, for the Wooster Primer has this to say:

The "talking teacher" never sends intelligent, orderly workers from his room. Hence the failure of all "Phonetic Method" books or any strictly "method" book. Such books work the teachers beyond reason with little or no beneficial results to the pupil. ²¹

More freedom is given to the teacher in permitting her to work out methods of approach better suited to her problems. Suggestions in the various readers are given to the teachers for the use of word cards to facilitate recognition of words by children, blackboard work, paper folding and sewing, clay-modelling, etc., all designed to give the child the attention he needs and make him the center of the school.

In 1909, the Child Classics Primer had this statement:

19. Judson and Bender, op. cit., First Book, p. 5.

20. Ibid., p. 5.

21. Wooster, Primer, p. 3.

Notwithstanding the strong thought tendency of the Primer, eighty per cent of its words are distinctly "phonetic" and form the basis of a simple phonetic system taught through induction. So simple is the method that no special training is necessary on the part of the teacher, and the book may be used with any standard method of teaching phonetics. 22

The first reader has aimed to provide "a definite and yet flexible method for teaching beginners to read."²³ Again, the emphasis is apparently put more upon the method and not so much on the child.

In the readers for the period beginning about 1910, the word "method" seldom appears in instructions to the teachers. More and more emphasis has been placed upon "drill" and "review." In the Wooster Primer, the author has said that "phonic drills and spelling reviews occur frequently, and may be used to give a variety of work. The word reviews may be spelled by sound and diacritically marked. The distinct and correct utterance of words is of utmost importance, and the habit can only be acquired by much drill and careful training."²⁴ In this instance, the teacher is not told to use some particular method, but the implication is that she should have one.

The trend seems to be toward developing in the child certain skills by whatever method best suits him. Often suggestions are found in the readers to the effect that the child should have a mastery over his language, that he should be able to see and feel his own progress for himself; but just

22. Georgia Alexander, Child Classics, Primer, p. v.

23. Ibid., First Reader, p. v.

24. Wooster, Second Reader, p. 3.

how to accomplish all this is not outlined.

The Kansas First Reader (1917) still has some method back of its teaching, but its statement is this:

Already she, (the teacher) will have developed a definite system of teaching new words. First she has doubtless led the child to see the old in the new....She should continue the word drills, taking care to develop in the child more and more power of independent mastery of new and strange words. Word drills should be given apart from the regular reading lesson but skill acquired in word drills should be applied directly in the reading work. Word-card drills, ladder drills, clock drills, and rapid sight drills may be used to good advantage. Many lessons containing difficult words may be made relatively easy and interesting if the teacher first reads the story well to the children and makes clear the more difficult parts. 25

The frequency of the word "drill" will be noted in the above quotation. Another new phase of teaching appears in the fact that much is said about training the pupil's eye to see accurately, his ear to be alert, and his voice to pronounce clearly and distinctly -- a further evidence of attention to the child himself.

In the later readers there is more and more evidence of attention to the child. Even the word groupings are carefully watched, so that the pause a child makes at the end of a line will be a natural one and will not develop a habit which will later have to be broken.

The Smedley and Olsen New Primer states that "changes in the material to be read and in the methods of procedure for the beginning work in teaching reading have been brought about as a result of a better understanding of children ... and

25. Searson, Martin, and Harris, op. cit., First Reader, pp. 177-78.

the realization that reading is from the first a thinking process and not a mere mastering of mechanics."²⁶

The same book gives a further statement of its purpose in terms of outcomes:

Attitudes and Appreciations

- Desire to read
- Taste for good literature
- Reading with a purpose
- Desire to have books
- Proper care of books

Abilities

- Ability to get the thought
- Ability to remember what is read
- Ability to read independently
- Ability to read with increasing eye-span
- Ability to hold book and turn pages properly

Habits

- Habit of reading
- Habit of getting the thought
- Habit of reading silently before reading orally
- Habit of proper eye movement
- Habit of reading without lip movement when reading silently
- Habit of reading without pointing
- Habit of reading with healthful posture and correct lighting ²⁷

The important matter in the minds of the authors of this book has been the effect produced finally on the child, and not the means or the method by which he has learned to distinguish one word from another.

The Child Story Readers stress interpretation of what has been read. It is a problem of "first importance and must be emphasized vigorously in every grade. In order that pupils will acquire the habit of looking for meaning in all reading

26. Smedley and Olsen, New Primer, op. cit., p. 5.

27. Ibid., p. 6.

experiences, provision has been made for numerous kinds of pupil responses and activities which center attention on meaning and give training in the various reading abilities listed in the Twenty-Fourth Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education."²⁸ The third reader of the same series states that the child has a definite "purpose each time he reads, for the reading lessons are motivated by directions to the pupil for reading."²⁹ The attempt of the editors to do something for the children besides teaching them to know words is evident. The Elson Basic Readers (1930) have as one special feature "a practical method based on the results of scientific studies to build an early foundation for the various reading attitudes, habits, and skills that are essential in modern life."³⁰

The change which has taken place is very apparent. There is, no doubt, still some method as such in use in instruction in reading, but it has lost its place of high favor and the child is occupying the position of interest. It is partly in recognition of the fact of individual differences that this change has come.

EDUCATION AS A PROGRESSIVE WHOLE

According to the older idea of faculty psychology, the

28. Freeman, Storm, Johnson, and French, op. cit., First Reader, pp. 4-5.

29. Ibid., Third Reader, p. 5.

30. William Harris Elson, Basic Readers, Primer, p. 5.

mind was thought to consist of several separate compartments each of which developed more or less in its own time and way. An education based on such psychology must take note of the various phases of development. With the breaking up of faculty psychology came the conception of the mind as a whole or unit, which grows as the child grows and presents distinctive phases of interest and capacity at different times. It was necessary to reorganize educational thinking and practise to harmonize with this idea.

In 1895, Charles Eliot Norton edited a series of readers called the Heart of Oak Books. It is interesting to note his comments upon the imagination and the importance of its correct training.

The imagination is the supreme intellectual faculty, and yet it is of all the one which receives the least attention in our common systems of education. The reason is not far to seek. The imagination is of all the faculties the most difficult to control, it is the most elusive of all, the most far-reaching in its relations, the rarest in its full power. But upon its healthy development depend not only the sound exercise of the faculties of observation and judgment, but also the command of the reason, the control of the will and the quickening and growth of the moral sympathies. The means for its culture which good reading affords is the most generally available and one of the most efficient. 31

The editor further states that his books have been "adapted to the progressive needs of childhood and youth" in the hope that they will show to the child the "intellectual life of the race to which he belongs."³² Just what Mr. Norton meant by "progressive" is not determined. The third reader

31. Charles Eliot Norton, Heart of Oak Books, Third Book, p. ix.

32. Ibid., p. lx.

has no illustration whatever, and the last one hundred pages of the two hundred and fifty in the book are devoted to Charles Lamb's version of the "Adventure of Ulysses." There has been no attempt to arrange the contents of the readers in any particular way. There seems to be no sequence or logical reason why the selections are placed as they are.

The Wooster Readers show an advance in progressive arrangement of contents in that each lesson is so arranged "that it leads to the next and the little people who appear in the illustrations are carried through the book."³³ This represents an attempt to unify educational practise with life, to make it harmonize with the individual. This series contains lessons on various phases of life and activities such as science, nature study, geography, hygiene, ethics and history -- some of the many phases of the child's experience. The statement often occurs in the prefaces to the effect that the contents have been carefully graded to suit the changing "interests and capacities" of the children. Frequently the work is said to be based on the child's needs -- just another way of saying the same thing. The Bobbs-Merrill Second Reader says that the "book is richer if it appeals to the child on several sides,"³⁴ another statement of the many-sided presentation and the many-sided development.

The unit plan of organization of material adopted by the

33. Wooster, Primer, p. 3.

34. Baker and Baker, Bobbs-Merrill Readers, Second Reader, p. 3.

later readers is probably an outgrowth of the attempts to unify education with the child's life interests. The Smedley and Olsen Primer is organized with "unity and continuity"³⁵ -- again, education as a progressive whole. The New Path to Reading Series has been built on the "plateau" plan and is divided into ten units of work, each unit representing a higher level of reading and skill than the preceding one."³⁶ The Elson Basic Readers have as a special feature the "organization of the material to promote sequential habits of thinking."³⁷

This particular phase of educational development is not so evident as some, but examination shows its presence as the above evidence suggests. In organization of material it is chiefly shown.

THE CHILD AS A SLOWLY DEVELOPING PERSONALITY

So closely related to the trend of education as a progressive whole is the conception of the child as a slowly developing personality, that only a little space need be given the matter. The careful grading which is now in progress with regard to the content of school readers is evidence of the recognition of this fact. The current idea already mentioned, that at certain ages certain capacities and interests develop, makes necessary this grading, for what a child likes at six,

35. Smedley and Olsen, op. cit., p. 5.

36. Cordts, Manual for the Primer, op. cit., p. 5.

37. William Harris Elson, op. cit., Primer, p. 5.

he may despise at ten. Scientific investigations have given certain criteria upon which to determine the content of the readers in order to keep in touch with the child's interests. The many sides of the child's personality are reached by the use of both factual and imaginative materials, and by attempting to use stories related to the child's own world of experience as much as possible.

The New Wide Awake Readers are carefully graded to suit the "needs and abilities of the pupil," and the selections are arranged so that "he may develop the habit of acquiring interesting facts as he reads."³⁸

These tendencies which have been under discussion are some of the most outstanding psychological trends which are reflected in the readers studied. Some of them do not appear in the earlier part of the period, a fact which seems to bear out the idea that they have found their way into the readers because they came to be recognized as good educational theory.

38. Murray, op. cit., Third Reader, p. 5.

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CHAPTER IV
SCIENTIFIC TRENDS

The beginnings of the scientific movement in the sixteenth century were very small. Copernicus and Galileo were among the first to apply this new method to their interests in astronomy. It was not long until the same type of investigation was being used in other fields with encouraging results. It found its way into the schools, and there came about new aims in instruction and new content in subject matter. With the work of Herbart in the nineteenth century education became a science. New subjects were placed in the curriculum. New methods of solving problems connected with school affairs were worked out -- methods attempting to measure accurately such factors as intelligence, interest, and personality. There is no doubt but that scientific procedure has been one of the outstanding trends in twentieth century education. It is the purpose of this chapter to show this trend as it has been reflected in the readers studied. Three phases will be discussed in their relationship to the readers:

- (1) The tendency to approach scientifically educational problems as shown in
 - (a) Contents
 - (b) Vocabulary
 - (c) Illustrations;
- (2) The movement to make everything objective; and
- (3) The inclusion of nature study as a part of the scientific movement.

THE SCIENTIFIC APPROACH

(a) Contents

There remain yet some phases of education little touched by scientific investigation. There is much need of additional research in many cases, and there has been a tendency, of later years, especially, to approach these problems in a scientific manner.

The influence of this trend in education has been expressed in the choice of selections for school readers. The interest factor has long been of recognized worth in the selection of reading material. It was mentioned all through the prefaces of the readers used as the consideration governing the choice of stories. The editors of the Graded Literature Readers state that the series should commend itself to "thoughtful teachers" because of "careful grading." The further statement is made that "a great consideration governing the choice of all the selections has been that they shall interest children. The difficulty of learning to read is minimized when the interest is aroused."¹ Almost without exception, such phrases as these appeared in the prefaces of the readers: "attract attention," "hold interest," "pupils' interests and capabilities," "attractive and interesting lessons," "many and varied child interests." The interest

1. Judson and Bender, op. cit., First Book, p. 3.

phase of learning is still perfectly good psychology, but how did the editors know what was interesting? There seems to have been a more or less blind search to determine the stories children liked. In a few instances, a somewhat scientific approach to the subject was indicated by such statements as one found in the Child Classic Readers:

The selections chosen have borne the repeated test of school-room trial both as to interest and careful grading.²

A few years later, the editors of the Kansas Readers stated that they had selected their material from the "best approved child literature."³ The criteria for determining this "approved" literature were not given. By 1924, when the Bobbs-Merrill Readers came out, the editors could say that "progressive educators have come to realize" that certain groups of material are more valuable and interesting to children than others.⁴ In the Child Story Readers (1927) the contents are very definitely based upon the scientific investigations of the reading interests of primary children.⁵

The Child Story First Reader is based primarily on the interesting and joyful experiences of childhood. Stories of these experiences are not something brought to the child; they are a real part of the child's life. All recent studies and research indicate clearly the importance of this simple factual material in reading content for beginners.⁶

Dunn has concluded that the "three elements, animalness, familiar experience, and childness, which are notably significant in

2. Alexander, op. cit., Third Reader, p. v.

3. Searson, Martin, and Harris, op. cit., First Reader, p. iii.

4. Baker and Baker, Bobbs-Merrill Readers, Third Reader, p. v.

5. Freeman, Storm, Johnson, and French, op. cit., First Reader, p. 4.

6. Ibid., p. 3.

the interest of one sex, are all positive in value for the other sex also, and that surprise and plot are important interest determiners for both.⁷ The same study pointed out that poetry was of little interest to small children; hence, the editors of the series included practically none in the first books. On the basis of these findings as well as those outlined in the Twenty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education the Child Story Series was built. The True Story Series has a statement in the preface as to what "recent studies in children's interests" have indicated, with the suggestion that the contents of the volumes had been chosen in accordance with the findings of the studies.⁸ In 1930 the primer of the Elson Basic Readers has the statement that one feature of its aim has been to awaken interest through "plot structure rather than mere routine incident." This carries out the idea advanced by the Dunn study, to which reference has already been made. The primer further says that during the time the series was in preparation scientific studies were constantly in progress regarding the problems which would lend themselves to "quantitative determination."⁹

These facts show that within the past few years, the matter of what to include in the readers has been subjected to scientific analysis and, in so far as the editors could apply the results of the studies, the contents of the readers of the past few years have been scientifically determined.

7. Fannie W. Dunn, Interest Factors in Primary Reading Material, p. 50.

8. Baker and Baker, True Story Series, Book One, p. 4.

9. Elson, op. cit., Primer, p. 5.

(b) Vocabulary

The scientific approach to a solution of educational problems has found expression in the selection of vocabularies used in the readers. The Graded Literature Reader, First Book, has this statement in the introduction:

The vocabulary, small enough to be mastered in the time assigned to the use of the book, is made up of words habitually used by children. 10

The process of determining what are the words "habitually" in use by children is not indicated. Apparently no scientific study of the subject was made. There is no scientific basis cited for the addition of new words to the other books of the same series. New words are listed at the beginnings of the lessons and carefully marked so as to facilitate their pronunciation. The Jones Second Reader, published in 1903, according to the editor "makes a distinct advance from the First Reader of this series in the range and character of its vocabulary."¹¹ There is nothing to indicate what was responsible for the difference in "range and character". The Wooster First Reader (1907) aims to give the child "a carefully graded vocabulary."¹² In 1911 the vocabulary of the Lippincott Reader is said to have been "carefully graded to the increasing ability of the child to master new words."¹³ In the Second Reader of the series, the editor says that "great care has been taken with the vocabulary, both to keep it simple and phonetic,

10. Judson and Bender, op. cit., p. 5.

11. L. H. Jones, Readers, Second Reader, p. 3.

12. Wooster, First Reader, p. 3.

13. Lewis and Lewis, Lippincott's First Reader, p. 3.

and to make the introduction of new words in a regular and progressive manner."¹⁴ The Third Book has a "progressively enlarged vocabulary."¹⁵ It is evident that the editors realized the necessity and importance in the matter of grading the vocabulary, but they made no statement to indicate that they approached it in other than a subjective manner. The Kansas First Reader (1917) has nothing definite to say regarding methods of choice of a vocabulary, except to point out that "these lessons are graded not on any mechanical basis, but on the interest basis. Some of the more interesting selections may contain more difficult words than others."¹⁶ From these quotations it seems evident that for a long time there has been a recognition of the fact that a vocabulary should be graded, but not until about 1923 is there any indication of actual attempts to do it.

The First Book of the Bobbs-Merrill Readers (1923) has a vocabulary which is "exceedingly small, adding only 300 words to the vocabulary of the Primer."¹⁷ In this instance the exact number of new words is given, a fact which represents an attempt to become somewhat more scientific. In the second book of the same series, the statement appears that the "total number of words in the Primer, First Reader, and Second Reader is less than 1200. This vocabulary, however, forms an excellent basis for later reading, since 80% of all the words are among the first 3,000 of those listed in E. L. Thorndike's Teacher's

14. Ibid., Second Reader, p. v.

15. Ibid., Third Reader, p. v.

16. Searson, Martin, and Harris, op. cit., First Reader, p. 177.

17. Baker and Baker, Bobbs-Merrill Readers, First Reader, p. 3.

Word Book, as the most commonly used in literature."¹⁸

In 1928 there appeared a series of readers known as the True Story Series. One of the salient features of this group of books is pointed out in the introduction to the primer regarding the vocabulary which is based "on Gates' Reading Vocabulary for Primary Grades including a large percentage of words most commonly used in children's literature and in school readers."¹⁹ Anna D. Cordts edited, in 1929, a series of readers entitled The New Path to Reading. She stated that:

The stories are rich in content, simple in vocabulary and of genuine interest to children in the first grade. Those which are the outgrowth of the Plays in the Primer are written in the child's vocabulary. They are vital and dramatic and for this reason are easily read with naturalness of tone and inflection. Completely new and important words are placed in that position and environment in the sentence in which they are most easily learned. For this reason less drill than usual is required for proficiency in recognizing the vocabulary. The nature and style of the content and the scientific control of the vocabulary make reading the delightful and enjoyable experience which the teachers and pupils have the right to demand.²⁰

The Teacher's Manual sent out with Book One gives some definite information about the building of the vocabulary. The words are of two classes: "(1) Old words of high frequency reviewed from the Primer; (2) new words of high frequency in standard first reader vocabularies.... Because the unphonetic, abstract words present the chief vocabulary problem in any first reader, particular attention has been given to this type of words.

(1) The new words are introduced in the most conspicuous places

18. Ibid., Second Reader, p. 4.

19. Baker and Baker, True Story Series, Primer, p. 5.

20. Cordts, op. cit., Book One, p. 111.

in the sentence; namely, at the beginning or at the end of the sentence. (2) They are introduced in the environment of easy, known words."²¹

The same trend toward vocabulary control is evident in the Child-Story Readers (1927)

As a scientific basis for determining what words should be included in the pupil's automatic reading vocabulary, the word lists which appear on the last pages of the First Reader have been checked against the first five hundred list of E. L. Thorndike's Teacher's Word Book, Horn's report of the "Spoken Vocabulary of Children up to and Including Six Years of Age" as given in the Twenty-Fourth Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education, and the words appearing most frequently in Kircher's "Analysis of Thirty-Seven Primers and First Readers," as found in the Twenty-Fourth Year Book."²²

Among the very latest series of readers has been the set known as the Elson Basic Readers. These books are entirely revised from the earlier edition. One special feature of the primer is cited as a "vocabulary to insure rapid progress, confidence and keen interest."²³ In the Second Book the statement appears that all the work of editing the volumes has been done in conjunction with studies of the various problems "which were subject to quantitative determination.... These studies have emphasized the need of more serious attention to certain fundamental factors in the construction of basic readers. Most notable of these is the need of establishing word mastery by the careful introduction, distribution, and

21. Ibid., Manual for Book One, p. 2.

22. Freeman, Storm, Johnson, and French, op. cit., First Reader, p. 5.

23. Elson, Basic Readers, Primer, p. 5.

repetition of the vocabulary -- features which, heretofore, have not had adequate attention in second readers."²⁴ In the third book the "vocabulary has been controlled with regard to the quality of the words, the range of vocabulary, and the distribution of new words by pages. The authors believe that reading fluency is often broken down by needless textual hazards which may be removed by careful editing."²⁵

These statements show that there has been a conscious attempt on the part of publishers and editors of readers within the past few years to be guided by the results of scientific investigations regarding vocabulary content and arrangement. The conclusion is that in this one phase of the field, the scientific trend, which is apparent in general educational activity, has made its appearance in school readers.

(c) Illustrations

Scientific approaches in education have become evident in the illustrations which have been used in school readers. In the early period studied the editors frequently called attention to the fact that the illustrations used in their books were actual photographs from nature, or, if not real photographs, they were careful drawings and were very accurate. They were evidently put in the books to make them attractive and form a valuable adjunct to the nature study given in the respective

24. Ibid., Book Two, p. 5.

25. Ibid., Book Three, p. 8.

grades. In some instances engravings of masterpieces were given with a view to quickening appreciation of the best in art."²⁶ In 1907 the Wooster Second Reader appeared and was still an example of illustrations, mostly photographs and pen drawings from nature. The aim of such books as these has been to please as well as "instruct". Lippincott's Primer has the statement in its preface that the illustrations were expressly collected for this particular book and that "by portraying the usual activities of the average child and the usual objects of his interests"²⁷ the purpose of the book in teaching the child to read rapidly and easily was to be furthered. By about 1920 the character of the illustrations changed. Casual examination of the later series shows that the pictures have been graded together with the contents of the stories. Scientific studies proved that little children could not appreciate a great deal of detail and background. Consequently, the pictures in the primers were made very simple, growing more complex as the child grew and developed both mentally and physically. In the early readers involved in this study, there was little or no difference in the complexity of the illustrations. The only change was in numbers, the primers and first readers containing more pictures than the third readers. In some cases the third readers were almost entirely devoid of illustration. The first definite statement regarding the new type of pictures

26. Judson and Bender, op. cit., First Book, p. 4.

27. Lewis and Lewis, Lippincott's Primer, p. 3.

is found in the Bobbs-Merrill Second Reader (1924):

The artist has made a studied effort to coordinate the illustrations with the development of the child's appreciative ability. While continuously stimulating in color and action, the drawings increase gradually in complexity through the three volumes. 28

For the little children, the new pictures give much prominence to objects which are to be specially noticed by making them large and placing them in the foreground of the picture. The boy, or the rabbit, or the mouse -- whatever it is -- is very plainly shown, in some instances occupying quite a large share of the picture. In the Child-Story Readers the "pictures represent a step forward in the child's development of appreciation. While the primer and first readers pictures contain little detail and almost no background in order that the child may not be confused, the pictures in the second and third readers grow very gradually in complexity and richness of detail."²⁹

These changes in the illustrations in the readers are results of scientific investigations which have revealed what a child can and cannot appreciate, and represent attempts on the part of the editors and publishers of the various newer series of readers to make their books conform to the findings of science.

28. Baker and Baker, Bobbs-Merrill Readers, Second Reader, p. 4.

29. Freeman, Storm, Johnson, and French, op. cit., Third Reader, p. 5.

OBJECTIVE TREATMENT OF PROBLEMS

A few years ago no one had ever heard of "objective testing" and "educational measurements." These terms are comparatively new in the vocabularies of people in general. The movement to reduce everything possible to measureable terms has penetrated into practically every field of educational endeavor, and has found expression even in the primary readers for children. The readers of the early part of the period studied made no attempt to measure objectively the comprehension of the pupil. In many cases little questions were asked at the ends of the stories, questions designed to bring out what the child actually knew of the content, and often so stated as to involve the re-telling of the incidents. "Tell in your own words" was frequently the beginning of the only test used. Often, in the early 1900's, a list of words was taken from a story and the pupils directed to use them in sentences. Sometimes the exercises involved such work as this:

Copy the names of all the trees mentioned. Write a sentence about each.

Tell five ways, not mentioned in this story, in which trees are useful to us. 30

In the same book the following exercise accompanies a biographical sketch of Longfellow:

Longfellow was born in _____.
When he was _____ years old, he went to _____ College.

Afterwards, he taught in _____ College.
 Later, he taught in _____ College.
 Longfellow was a _____ as well as a teacher.
 He wrote _____ and _____.
 He had _____ daughters and _____ sons. 31

These statements are apparently intended to determine just how much knowledge the student acquired from reading the selections. In the last exercise there is no chance to apply anything that has been learned previously. It is mainly a memory test, and fits in very well with the idea prevalent at that time that knowledge was the chief aim of instruction.

The Wooster series (1907) includes no questions after the selections. In some cases there is a note in small type at the bottom of the page giving the teacher some suggestions for discussions following the lessons.

A talk on climate and the sun should accompany this lesson. The children with some explanation can understand the natural causes that give certain climates. Explain the effects of a warm or cold body of water upon the land near it. 32

The use of notes for the lessons is characteristic of all the books examined in this series. There is no attempt to determine the pupil's reactions in any way.

The Kansas Readers (1917) include with their stories questions relating not only to the content of what has been read, but also to ideas the child should have found as he read. This represents a distinct step in the art of questioning. In the first reader of the series there is a little dramatized

31. Ibid., p. 133.

32. Lizzie E. Wooster, Third Reader, p. 120.

story, the characters being Dick and his Shadow. At the end, these questions are given:

Why did not the shadow come to Dick?
 Why could not Dick catch the shadow?
 How did Dick get the shadow to come to him?
 What did the shadow tell Dick? 33

The answer to the first question is not given but is implied in the context. The same is true of the second and third questions. A similar plan has been followed in the questioning through the third reader, only the questions are longer, greater in number, and involve more thought in answering them.

A few years later, without doubt as a result of the testing movement, new types of questions began to appear in the readers. In 1927 the Child-Story Readers appeared. At the ends of the sections there are review tests given in objective form. The pupil is directed to read silently and answer "Yes," or "No." Such exercises as these follow the section entitled "Children at Play":

A rat was going up a hill.
 He had a pretty cap.
 He thought he was fine.
 He saw Terry coming. 34

The reader will recognize at once the false and true kind of testing so familiar to other groups of students. Still another type of the objective test is found in the same book:

Once a cat was very
 sick, hungry, happy.
 The mice kept in their
 jars, shoes, holes.

33. Searson, Martin, and Harris, op. cit., First Reader, pp. 107-09.

34. Freeman, Storm, Johnson, and French, op. cit., First Reader, p. 35.

The cat climbed up on a
 gate, shelf, tree.
 He hung from a
 shelf, window, slide.³⁵

The instructions in this case were to find the right word in each sentence. This is very evidently a form of the multiple choice test.

In the third reader of the same series the exercises still show the same objective trends, but have become longer and more complicated. One of these tests is labeled "Crossing Out Game," and the text consists of fifteen lists of four words each, three of which are related, the test being to cross out the word which does not belong. One list is given as an example:

dwarfs
 fairy
 corner
 ogre 36

Another form of the multiple choice type appears in this test:

1. Why was the little man called the wise little bowman?
 - a. Because he knew everything.
 - b. Because he used his bow and arrow so well.
 - c. Because he was the king's chief man. 37

The student was asked to place the letter representing the correct answer before the figure, and told that the score equalled the number right. The three other recent series examined, True Story, New Path to Reading, and Elson Basic Readers, contain exercises very definitely based on the objective type tests. Since this particular kind of test did not

35. Ibid., p. 59.

36. Ibid., Third Reader, p. 86.

37. Ibid., p. 84.

appear in the readers until after it had been used extensively in other fields of educational effort, the conclusion seems justifiable that it is one of the phases of the scientific trend in education that has been expressed through the readers.

NATURE STUDY

And Nature, the old nurse, took
The child upon her knee,
Saying, "Here is a story-book
Thy father has written for thee."

"Come, wander with me," she said,
"Into regions yet untrod;
And read what is still unread
In the manuscripts of God."³⁸

The author of these lines is not known, but they are expressive of the great emphasis put upon nature-study in the elementary schools.

One of the important outgrowths of the scientific movement in general was the introduction into the schools of the study of science during the latter half of the nineteenth century. Cubberley, in a foot-note in his History of Education says:

In 1871, Dr. William T. Harris, then Superintendent of City Schools in Saint Louis, published a well-organized course for the orderly study of the different sciences. This attracted wide attention, and was in time substituted for the scattered lessons on objects which had preceded it. This, in turn, has largely given way, in the lower grades, to nature study. ³⁹

38. Dallas Lore Sharp, Education in a Democracy, p. 150, Author not found.

39. Cubberley, History of Education, note, p. 774.

While nature study as a science in the elementary grades did not begin in the twentieth century, it is a phase of educational development which is prominent in the earlier readers of the century. In the later books, it is interesting to note that there is a nature study, but that it is presented differently -- more indirectly and interestingly, as a part of the units of work into which the books are divided. As evidence of the fact that the makers of readers believed that nature study should be very definitely stressed as a part of science education, a few preface statements are cited:

Nature study has received due attention. The lessons about scientific subjects, though necessarily simple at first, preserve always a strict accuracy. The careful drawings of plants and animals, and the illustrations in color ... will be attractive to the pupil and helpful in connection with nature study. 40

The nature stories and poems are chosen in the hope that pupils may be lead to a closer observation of outdoor life and a realization of the beauty of that life. 41

Nature study should be given from the real objects if possible, such as leaves, seeds, fruit, etc., and not from pictures. Artistic color work is given in this book with leaves, flowers, fruit, etc., and it will aid in the Nature Study work. 42

These quotations stress the idea of nature study as a means, largely of acquiring knowledge -- again a purpose in accord with the knowledge aim of education. The element of the conscious effort toward appreciation that enters into the later selections is not found in the readers of 1900. The earlier books would teach the child of nature by picturing

40. Judson and Bender, op. cit., Second Book, p. 3.

41. Lights to Literature, Book Three, p. 5.

42. Wooster, Primer, p. 6.

two boys watching a spider, or a fly, or a bee, and recording their remarks, always "scientifically accurate" -- or by having a wasp meet a bee and allowing them to discuss their food and their homes. There might be a picture of a frog, or a bird, with a few accompanying statements relative to habits. The question of just how interesting all this was might well be asked.

In the later readers there is an effort to make the nature study more definitely a part of the child's experiences; to draw upon his interests in order to inculcate an appreciation of nature along with a knowledge of it.

The third book of the Child-Story Readers (1927) has a section entitled "Our Out-of-Door Friends." Some of the selections in that group are: "How George the Tadpole Lost his Tail," "Jackie, a Little Wild Rabbit," and "Fairy Gardens of the Sea," -- all very obviously designed to attract and hold the child's interest, and to make him appreciate nature as a part of his environment.

There is a growing feeling that education has become too detached and far-removed from life and from nature. These new approaches to the study of nature indicate that thought has been put upon the matter and that this effort to study education and make it mean more has found its way into the readers. Thus, the scientific movement was responsible in the first place for the introduction of nature study into the schools, and another phase of the same movement is now evidently re-directing the approach.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This study has had for its objective the tracing of the trends of twentieth century American education through the school readers published during that period. The trends have been discussed under three headings:

- (1) Social
- (2) Psychological
- (3) Scientific

The study shows that:

1. The readers of 1924-30 are different from those of 1900 in many ways.
2. The content of the later readers tends more toward the realistic stories of real children and their activities than toward the fables and folk lore characteristic of 1900-10.
3. The material in the later readers has been carefully graded according to scientific determination of children's interests.
4. The vocabularies show the influence of the scientific movement in that they have been checked with word lists which are based on scientific investigations.
5. Attention has been centered on the phrasing of the sentences and on the position of new words within the sentences.

6. The objective testing movement has found its way into the readers and is shown by the type of questions found at the ends of the stories, these questions being often given in the form of the various objective tests.
7. The recognition of individual differences appears in the readers, through statements in various prefaces to the effect that the readers had been placed on an "individual progress" basis.
8. A recognition of Dewey's principle of learning by doing is apparent through the provision in the later readers of things for the children to do which really contribute to their adjustment to their social environment.
9. Interest in other children and in other lands is being aroused by stories concerning them -- stories in which the theme is that the foreign children are similar to American children in many ways.
10. The later readers show a decided trend away from didacticism and moralizing. Mention of a moral obviously placed in a story is almost as obnoxious to a present day educator as is reference to instinct to a behaviorist.
11. There is practically no poetry in the first readers of the past two years, and the selections in the second and third readers are very carefully chosen. When poems are included, they show a difference from those in older books in that they are longer and are about subjects concerning which the child knows.

12. The later readers include more modern poetry than the early ones. The older books contained poetry which was not modern even then, the idea apparently having been that it was more desirable to stay with the so-called classics.

13. Some of the poems in the later readers are modern in form.

14. The readers since about 1920 do not have memory gems scattered through their pages; and if the stanzas are put in from time to time, the preface often states that they are not to be memorized.

15. The later readers differ from the older ones in the matter of illustrations. Scientific research has found that little children do not appreciate much background in pictures; hence, the illustrators have tried to keep the pictures simple enough in the first readers for the first graders, the illustrations increasing in complexity with each grade.

16. The interests of all the children have been considered through the inclusion of situations which occur both in the city and on the farm.

17. Nature study definitely designated as such in the prefaces of the readers does not occupy much space after about 1924. Nature study is still a part of the child's instruction, but it is given in connection with the stories and not by itself.

18. The stories differ in construction from the early ones in that the latter have definite plots and depend for interest on the elements of surprise and plot instead of on mere routine incident as formerly.

19. According to the preface statements, the aims of the readers up to about 1917 were literary in character. The stories were selected to cultivate a lofty literary taste. The later readers, in addition to teaching what to read, are trying to teach how to live.

20. The form of the later stories is different in that more conversation has been used; and, in some cases, the dramatic form has been employed.

The general conclusion of the whole study is that the trends in general educational practise have been very apparent in the readers. Usually these trends have appeared in the readers several years later than in books and periodicals on education, a further evidence that they are in the readers because they have come to be a part of educational practise.

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