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McGILL JOURNAL of EDUCATION

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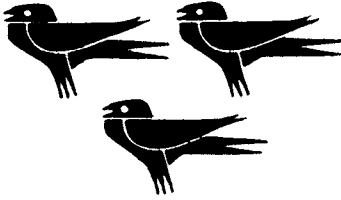
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McGILL JOURNAL of EDUCATION

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EDITORIAL

Regular readers may have noted that the *McGill Journal of Education* has had a face lift. Our cover has been modified by its original designer, James Watling, Assistant Professor in the Department of Art Instruction. We now have more space for our titles and more room for the McGill heraldic martlets to fly.

This issue also begins a new series — "The Author as Teacher." We are delighted to introduce the topic with an essay by Hugh MacLennan, Professor of English at McGill and one of Canada's most successful writers.

Since its founding in the Spring of 1966, the *McGill Journal* has received numerous letters of congratulation which we have read with pleasure, filed with care, and modestly refrained from publishing. Recently, however, a letter arrived which was hardly flattering. It was from Mr. A. S. Neill of the famous British school, Summerhill. This letter, plus some subsequent exchange with the editor, is reproduced in these pages. We also present a reaction to Mr. Neill from Joan Haines, Associate Professor of Education. We hope Mr. Neill's remarks and Miss Haine's comments will bring forth further reactions for publication in the next issue. We welcome readers' views.

In this number, most of our papers deal with the matter of evaluation. They range from statistically sophisticated studies by Eigil Pedersen and by Arthur Storey and Ronald Clark to A.S. Neill's query "Why Have Exams?" From still another point of view, William Lucow questions some of the standard practices involved in the conduct of examinations, while Muriel Tomkins and Robert Wilkinson consider, respectively, a number of the special difficulties associated with evaluation in English literature and physical education classes.

We also include here the second part of Franklin Parker's bibliography of doctoral dissertations on Canadian education and an account by Elsie Persson of the revolutionary Suzuki approach to violin instruction.

M. G.

Next Issue: *Urbanization and Education*

The Author As Teacher

Hugh MacLennan

Up to the outbreak of the Hitler War, creative writing and university teaching were considered almost incompatible. The university was still a protected environment, and that is bad for novelists and poets who usually thrive on turmoils, passions and recklessness, which "are things," wrote a Georgian poet, "that come not to the view of slippered dons who read a codex through." Nor did scholars have any desire to have writers around; they correctly assumed that the work of all living writers is still on trial and were apt to dismiss contemporary novelists as superficial romantics, as indeed many of them were.

I myself never studied English literature formally, and when I was working in Roman history in the Princeton Graduate College, I remember being appalled by the attitude of some scholars in the English Department. One of them, finding me reading Shakespeare, delivered himself of what for me was a lapidary sentence: "He's full of interesting problems, of course, but you're the first person I ever saw around here reading Shakespeare for pleasure!" When Macmillans, in 1931, wanted to use some extracts from Bernard Shaw in a text-book designed for use in India, they got this reply: "I have the strongest objection to the association of my name in

HUGH MACLENNAN was born at Glace Bay, Nova Scotia and attended Dalhousie University. He was a Rhodes Scholar for Canada-at-Large in 1928 then returned to this side of the Atlantic to take his Ph.D. (Roman History) at Princeton in 1935. He taught Latin and history at Lower Canada College, Montreal for ten years, held a Guggenheim Fellowship and, in 1951, after study in New York first joined the staff of McGill.

His novels — published between 1941 and 1967 — are BAROMETER RISING, TWO SOLITUDES, THE PRECIPICE, EACH MAN'S SON, THE WATCH THAT ENDS THE NIGHT, RETURN OF THE SPHINX. They are all still in print and have been translated into eight languages. THE WATCH alone has sold over 100,000 copies in Germany.

His other books are CROSS COUNTRY, THIRTY AND THREE, SCOTCHMAN'S RETURN AND OTHER ESSAYS, SEVEN RIVERS OF CANADA.

Hugh MacLennan and his work have been accorded many honours. He received the Lorne Pierce Medal for Canadian literature in 1952, was elected to the Royal Society of Canada the following year, has won the Governor-General's Award three times for fiction, twice for non-fiction. In 1966 he was awarded the Molson Prize of the Canada Council and in 1967 he was made a Companion of the Order of Canada.

the infant mind with school lessons. I have always refused to sanction the insertion of samples in school books. Why should I make my name loathed in India as Shakespeare's is loathed in secondarily-educated England?" Would-be writers who turned to teaching as an easier way out he dismissed with a famous sentence: "Those who can, do; those who can't, teach."

Of course there used to be plenty of would-be writers who taught in elementary schools in order to eat. Evelyn Waugh was one for a time, but his employment terminated with the publication of *Decline and Fall*, which owed its inspiration to the school in which he worked. During the depression I taught school myself, but as I liked boys better than Waugh did, this turned out to be a priceless experience, at least from my own point of view.

I soon learned that school is a much better place for an embryo writer than the lower echelons of a university English department, providing that English is not the subject you teach. Children are the raw material of society; they are barely if at all removed from savagery; they are very incompetent hypocrites, with the result that they often tell the truth without knowing it. I found them unparalleled instructors in the repetitive patterns of human motives. My school teaching years were exhausting and financially barely above the subsistence level, but at least they saved me from *la mystique de la gauche*, which in those days was the passport to intellectual respectability among young university instructors, and the doom of many a generous-hearted novelist during the 1930s. The schoolboys stripped bare the rock on which political idealism has always foundered: that simple law which asserts that men tend always to satisfy their desires with the minimum of exertion. (N.B. I didn't say "needs," because hardly any of us, myself included, can be relied upon to understand what our real needs are.)

But in those days the literary schoolmaster was wise if he concealed his extra-curricular activity. He was hired to teach, not subsidized to write literature, and the teaching load was assigned on the ancient principle of putting as much on the donkey's back as the donkey's back can carry without cracking. Your time was supposed to be the school's, not your own, and schools were most ingenious in finding extra little things for the staff to do. I was very careful to write in secret while at school, and considering how many hours I worked at my job, in retrospect I am amazed that I wrote as much as I did. I wrote two novels (which were never published) in vacations, on weekends and on evenings after a school day which began

at 8:30 a.m. and ended at 5:00 p.m. (not counting the duty when I slept in the school), began work at 7:30 and terminated it at 9:30 at night. Under these conditions I also wrote the whole of one novel and the half of another which found publishers. But I was not surprised, shortly after the appearance of the first of these, to be told by the parent of a pupil, "Well, I enjoyed your novel quite well, but I hope you realize you'll have to resign now." Though my employers never objected to me about the kind of book I had written, there were many others who did. I received dozens of letters from strangers expressing their horror that the author of a novel as immoral as *Barometer Rising* should be allowed in a place where he could contaminate the minds of the young.

This struck me as curious, for during all my time at Princeton I also had feared contamination, though of a subtler kind: the ruin of such literary style as I thought I might acquire, through association with the academic jargon I had to master in order to qualify for the Ph.D. degree. My professors made me dismantle the original text of my thesis because its style was "too popular" and re-write it in a prose "that met the dignity of scholarship." I dutifully made it as dull as I could and qualified for the degree, but it took me more than seven years to weed the last remnants of jargon out of my prose and to cease feeling guilty if I wrote something in three words which my Princeton master had insisted should be said in ten. Had my schoolwork involved the teaching of English, and not Latin and Greek, I know I would have finished myself as a writer. No beginner can help being affected by what he reads, and to have to read a hundred or more schoolboy compositions a week, to say nothing of trying to correct and improve them, would have been lethal even to Shakespeare.

This, I think, is not an unfair picture of the author-teacher relationship until very recently. But after the Hitler War a remarkable change occurred, for a new phenomenon appeared in a number of the better-heeled American universities — the writer in residence. Toward the end of the 1940s I was offered two such jobs, but I feared the Greeks, and still do, when they bear me gifts. I guessed, possibly without foundation, that being a writer in residence meant giving a course in creative writing and I wanted no part of that. I found it so hard to teach myself how to write that I did not expect to have any success in teaching somebody else to do the same. I remember that one prospective employer was so liberal that he told me that I would have no regular duties at all; I would

simply have to "talk about literature in an informal way with interested students." This didn't seem to me a job, but a place. The placeman was fine in the eighteenth century because usually he had nothing to do at all. But teaching is one of the most important jobs in the world, and if anyone attempts it, both he and his students will suffer if he doesn't do the best he can.

Why, then, did I join the McGill English staff in 1951 and stay there until now? Certainly not for financial reasons; it would be indelicate even to mention what I was paid in the 1950s while handling two courses on a part-time salary. No, I was driven to McGill by nothing more noble than the instinct of self-preservation, and if I have been allowed to stay there, it must be because I have done a full working job with students. But I went there originally, as I just said, in the hope of saving my life as a writer.

Toward the end of the 1940s most novelists suffered from the eerie sensation that prickles a man when he hears unseen footsteps crunching around a graveyard after dark. For a full century the established novelist had been the most secure man in the literary world; once he got going, he could generally keep on going until he was gathered. If he was lucky he could earn a good living, for even a moderate best-seller in the 1940s was worth 75,000 copies in cloth and had a one-to-three chance of being accepted by the movies. It is true that large sales came to very few Canadian writers in those years — they didn't come to Brazilians or Mexicans either — but I am not talking of Canadian literature here, I am talking of the relationship between authors and teachers in the whole English-speaking world.

Overnight, toward the end of the forties, both the prestige and sales of fiction tumbled, and there were several reasons for this. The most obvious (though not the most important) being the law of diminishing returns. The volume of junk sold as "great" literature had turned many a stomach in the palmy days of publishing when Nelson Doubleday spoke happily of selling books by the carload and not by such and such a number of copies. Suddenly a disgusted public demanded far higher standards from serious novelists than they had asked for in the past. If they read for the sake of the story (and a story is a human necessity), they no longer had to depend upon novelists. The new school of non-fiction writers had by this time learned all the story-telling tricks of the novelist's trade and applied them to the biographies of famous men and women, to inside tales of epic events like the sinking of the *Titanic* or the rise

and fall of fascist Italy and Nazi Germany, and later still to common crimes where every fact had been recorded in court and police records.

All of these factors began working against the novelist at the end of the 1940s, and all were formidable, but the most frightening of them was a sudden lack of confidence felt by novelists themselves. Most of the established reputations at the end of the 1940s had been founded in the atmosphere of the twenties and thirties. Now their possessors looked out on a new world in which most of their familiar landmarks and touchstones had become blurred or had faded out. Human perceptions and social values were changing and many a novelist felt lost and unable to believe in his own work any more.

If I speak for a moment exclusively of the novelist's predicament it is not to forget the other half of my subject. It is because what I am now going to say is sensed, but has seldom if ever been specifically described.

There is a mystery in the author-reader relationship hard to explain. The author who writes books which are read and which last must, while writing them, be in a state of extra-sensory perception with the life around him. When his work is published it is often derided by contemporary critics and rejected by most readers, but if it is good, it will ultimately be recognized because it was a true product of the time and place in which it was written. There is no better example of this than Conrad. Though he had a fairly good reputation in his lifetime, and his books sold to a certain extent, his true greatness was not apprehended until the 1960s. This year, for example, I discovered from an informal poll of my students that he was the most admired novelist on the modern novel course at McGill. This belated recognition has come about because the whole Western world is now living with the aftermaths of Conrad's main theme — the frightful results produced on the characters of Europeans and Americans when they blindly involve themselves in the lives of Africans and Asiatics. Though Conrad during his lifetime complained about being misunderstood, he never once suspected that he was out of touch with the real hidden *leitmotif* of his age.

Such has not been the case of many a famous writer of the twenties and thirties. Scott Fitzgerald lost his touch in the depression and died young soon afterwards. Hemingway committed suicide not long ago because he knew in his heart that his style and vision belonged to the past. This does not mean, of course, that his

best work is not as good as it always was; it means merely that at the time of his death, and for quite a few years leading up to it, he had been unable to write any more. I remember hearing Stephen Spender saying in the early 1950s that these days the styles of perception change so rapidly that a writer is lucky if he lasts for even a decade. So far as I was concerned, I got scared around 1950 and said to my wife, "I must get in touch with the young again."

Now I can return to my main theme and try to knit it together.

While I think it would have been enervating to a writer, and useless to a university, if he had worked in the academies before the Hitler War, I don't believe this need be the case any more. These days the university in North America is the focus of the greatest revolution, possibly, in the entire history of the world. It is a revolution almost unthinkable in every aspect of living, in business and communications, morals and sensibilities. There has been nothing like it since the break-up of the Medieval cosmology under the hammer blows of new knowledge, of a rising capitalism, of belief in the value of the individual, of Europe's discovery of America and the Far East.

Gone are the days when the university was an ivy-walled retreat for scholars, a club where an élite body of young people, most of them from the prosperous classes, might pick up a smattering of knowledge in lighthearted tranquillity while, if they were serious, they could also become masters of a difficult profession. If McGill is a good example, the modern university has become a microcosm of the modern world with all its chaos. It seethes with competing ideas and passions, its students come from all strata of society and from many different nations. Student politics show most of the paranoia of a so-called emergent state. Reverence, even respect, for an authority which may be unchallenged in the tough league of international science, has almost disappeared among today's students. The pill competes and combines with marijuana. An old order is gone, permissively-raised young people are frantic with frustration because they lack a solid anvil to beat against. Outside the professional faculties, today's students profess loathing for what they call "the system," and it is still too early to know whether they are harbingers of a new wave of freedom, or the death-rattle of a freedom all but strangled by a vast, impersonal technology. Today's McGill teacher reads the inscription on the library wall about the quiet air of delightful studies with an incredulous smile, and administrators who love their students are dismayed to see themselves

described in student newspapers as finks. The large university today, especially the large urban university, is the *schwerpunkt* of a world revolution, and today's university teacher is on the firing line. To speak personally, my problem is not to obtain new ideas and sensations, but to cope with even a fraction of those that inundate me.

So much for the teacher as a writer — but what of the writer as a teacher? This question seems to me to answer itself.

The writer can be a useful teacher only if he understands his second job and if his second job is worth doing. His position in an English department is generally, though not necessarily, somewhat different from that of his more scholarly colleagues. Usually he is required to deal with contemporary literature, and contemporary literature does not lend itself to the critical process developed in the study of classics. It cannot be "taught" in the sense that Chaucer can be taught, least of all can it be given any precise evaluation because it is still on trial. Personally, I regard contemporary literature as an experience to be shared with students. I don't see how it can be more than that, and for this reason I hesitate to call myself a "teacher" of English, though in the old days I never hesitated to call myself a teacher of Latin.

I believe, however, that if modern literature is to be handled in universities, it is probably better to turn it over to professional writers than to pure scholars, providing that professional writers are able to deal with course requirements. The practising author knows — how well he knows it! — that the conscious, critical mind has never been conspicuously successful in opening the soul to the artistic experience, though it has often proved itself all too competent in closing the soul to it. A contemporary poem or novel, if serious and true, always invites the conscious mind to resist it, and it is the conscious mind which formulates criticism. That may be why I have found the best students much more open to modern work than older people can be, and over the years I have taken the view that their true "teacher" is not myself, but the books on the course. The so-called teacher of modern literature can explain how novels are affected by the authors' technique; he can describe the social and historical backgrounds out of which their work emerged; he can share his own enthusiasm for their books. But in the long run it is the student and Faulkner, the student and Lawrence, the student and whoever the writer may be.

The final question is whether the job is worth doing at all. In

my first years at McGill I had serious doubts about this, and my principal course became contemporary only in the final month of the spring term. But now I know that contemporary literature does have a place on the curriculum of a modern university, if by "contemporary" we mean the literature of the twentieth century. There have been great writers in our time, and master craftsmen. They have been much more than recorders; they have been seismographs of change. But far more important than this, if they have written books which people still care to read, they have created, in Evelyn Waugh's words, "a few small patterns of order in the surrounding chaos" and have made men a little more understanding of themselves and of one another. The chief thing they offer the student is pure undisguised humanity; this the best of them have done, I believe, more honestly than any writers since the age of Shakespeare, and it is humanity that today's students long to embrace in this time of triumphant technology.

Measured IQ Related to Teacher-Estimated Intelligence:

An Exploration in Bias*

Eigil Pedersen

ABSTRACT

By comparing the teacher-estimated intelligence to the measured IQs of high school students, this study finds that teachers tend to overestimate the IQ of working class boys, and to underestimate the IQ of girls, regardless of their socio-economic status.

INTRODUCTION

It has often been observed that intelligence tests discriminate against children of lower socio-economic status (SES). Charters relates that intensive efforts have been made in attempts to produce culture-fair intelligence tests, but with only little success so far. However, "the work . . . helped to remove the bias, if not from tests, at least from the test-users in the education profession."¹ One assumption that may possibly be inherent in this statement is that although tests are culture-biased, teachers, being culture-fair, can make better, less biased estimates of intelligence. Such an assumption is open to question. Perhaps teachers are *also* culturally biased

* This paper reports findings of a preliminary analysis made with a sub-sample of data from a larger study which is nearing completion. For financial assistance in the research, the writer is indebted to the Province of Quebec, the Canada Council, the Milton Fund of Harvard University, and the Harvard University Center for Research and Development on Educational Differences. Technical assistance in the selection of the sample, which was provided by the Department of Planning of the Quebec Department of Education, is also gratefully acknowledged.

but their biases may be different from those of intelligence tests. To the writer's knowledge, this problem has not yet been investigated.

It has been argued that school work is better suited to the interests and abilities of girls than of boys. For example, Hall and McFarlane have concluded from some of their Canadian research that most school practices and programmes are arranged in favour of girls, and to the detriment of the educational and occupational careers of boys.² In this sense, sex is a cultural dimension, and appears to be subject to bias just as SES is.

Why is cultural bias in the measurement or estimation of intelligence important? Several reasons come to mind. For one thing, streaming and grouping practices often take into consideration the intelligence of the children involved, and if there is any positive value in streaming or grouping, then there must be negative value in being placed in the inappropriate stream or group through biased, and therefore inaccurate, measures or estimates of intelligence. But in the writer's opinion, a far more important issue is that the self-concept of the child is at stake. Brookover *et al.* have demonstrated that, even holding IQ constant in the analysis, where students have a high academic self-concept, their actual school performance as measured by grades is higher than that of students who have low self-concept.³ Pedersen has shown that, holding IQ constant, students with high academic self-concept have more ambitious plans for future education than students with low self-concept.⁴ Both investigators have presented evidence that the teacher has a significant impact on the level of academic self-concept of the student, and can depress or elevate the self-concept, probably through combinations of certain actions, gestures, verbal comments, or other cues through which the student perceives the teacher's opinion of his (the student's) ability to do school work. The impact of the teacher on the self-concept of the student is important because of the subsequent effect of the self-concept on levels of academic performance and of educational aspiration.

THE PROBLEM INVESTIGATED

The problem investigated in this paper is as follows: In making estimates of IQ, to what extent are teachers biased in favour of, or against, pupils of different SES, of different sex, and of different combinations of SES and sex?

PROCEDURE

In the spring of 1965, 6465 pupils and their teachers in the eighth and tenth grades of thirty-seven high schools in rural, suburban, and urban areas of the Province of Quebec answered questionnaires related in part to a study concerning social factors associated with the level of educational aspiration. Use was made of this opportunity to collect data relevant to other research problems as well, one of which is the subject of this paper.

The variables used in this paper — IQ (both measured and estimated), the sex of the student, the SES of the student — were all obtained from teacher-responses to the questionnaire.

The questions and response categories were as follows:

Sex The sex of this student is
 A. male
 B. female

IQ The IQ of the student. In answering this question, it is understood that where the actually measured IQ scores are missing, estimating scores will be hazardous at best. But since these scores or estimates will be used for group analysis only — no judgments about individuals will be made — they will still be very useful for the purposes of this research. So please, even if your estimate runs the risk of being very wild, please make your best guess. If a measured score is at hand, use it; if more than one is available, use the most recent. And if no score is convenient, use the adjective checklist below to help you to estimate.

A. 72 or lower	very dull
B. 73 – 80	dull
C. 81 – 88	below average
D. 89 – 96	slightly below average
E. 97 – 104	average
F. 105 – 112	slightly above average
G. 113 – 120	above average
H. 121 – 128	well above average
I. 129 – 136	much above average
J. 137 or higher	gifted

Give the source of your IQ score for this student.
 A. measured individual test

- B. measured group test
- C. measured nature of test not known
- D. estimated

SES Where would you rank this student's family in terms of social class level?

- A. upper class, or upper middle class
- B. middle class
- C. working class.

Of the entire sample, estimated IQs were obtained for 3159 students, and measured IQs for 3304 students. However, since preliminary analyses indicated that there were systematic differences in other pupil characteristics associated with whether measured IQs were available (they generally were for urban schools, but not for rural ones), this paper makes use of data only from the ten schools in which approximately half the IQs reported were estimated, and the other half measured, thus limiting variation in the two main subsamples with respect to other social variables that might be related to levels of intelligence. In addition, those few students for whom any data used in this analysis were missing were simply dropped from consideration in this paper. As a result, the sample in this paper includes 657 students for whom we have estimated IQs, and 681 students from the same schools for whom the teachers supplied measured IQs.

FINDINGS

Measured IQ compared to estimated IQ. Table I shows that, while by measurement, some 15 per cent of the students have IQs of 121 or higher, only about 4 per cent are estimated by the teachers to be in this IQ range. On the whole, it appears that teachers tend to underestimate the intelligence of their students. This difference between estimated and measured IQ is significant at the .001 level of confidence, using the standard contingency chi square test of significance.

The data in Table I also suggest that teachers tend to avoid extreme categories when estimating student intelligence, especially at the high end of the IQ range, and other tables in this paper bear this tendency out. On the whole, teachers seem to take a pessimistic view of student intelligence, at least by comparison of their estimates to measured IQ.

TABLE I
MEASURED IQ COMPARED TO ESTIMATED IQ

Source of IQ	IQ					Total
	96 and lower	97-104	105-112	113-120	121 and higher	
<i>Measured IQ</i>	19.2%	26.7%	24.1%	14.8%	15.1%	681
<i>Estimated IQ</i>	17.7%	33.2%	28.9%	16.1%	4.1%	657
$X^2 = 50.7; df = 4; p < .001$						

SES. Since we are concerned with bias in the estimation of intelligence, we now turn to the SES of the students. The measure of SES is the teacher-estimate, and although it may be inaccurate, if SES introduces bias in teacher-estimates of intelligence, then it is the SES that the teacher perceives that influences him, whether it is accurate or not. But because the measured IQ (as shown in Table II) is related to SES in the way usually reported in the literature, that is, discriminating against low SES students, the teacher-estimates of SES are probably reasonably accurate.

Table II presents the comparison of estimated to measured IQ for children at two SES levels — middle and upper class, and working class. At both high and low SES levels, the distributions of measured and estimated IQs are significantly different from each other; but their patterns are quite dissimilar. For middle and upper class students, the teacher seems to have a tendency to underestimate IQs whereas this is not the case with the students at the working class level, where the tendency appears to be to concentrate students near the mean IQ rather than at either the high or low end of the IQ spectrum.

There is another way to look at the data presented in Table II, and that is to compare *measured* IQ of middle and upper class students to *measured* IQ of working class students. When this is done, one finds that 61.4 per cent of middle and upper class students have IQs of 105 or over, as compared to only 50.0 per cent of working class children. Although this difference is statistically signif-

Sex. A basis of discrimination other than that of SES is sex. It seems that girls do better at school, at least in the early years, and we have already referred to the argument of Hall and McFarlane that the world of the school is really a girl's world. Be that as it may, if IQ tests require compliant, willing attention to paper-and-pencil tasks, then it is likely that in our society, girls will be more ready to offer it than boys, and hence achieve higher results on IQ tests.

TABLE III

MEASURED IQ COMPARED TO ESTIMATED IQ BY SEX

SEX	IQ						
	Source of IQ	96 and lower	97-104	105-112	113-120	121 and higher	Total
Boys							
Measured IQ	23.0%	31.8%	23.3%	12.3%	9.7%	318	
Estimated IQ	11.0%	33.6%	34.0%	17.2%	4.1%	435	
	X ² = 31.5; df = 4; p < .001						
GIRLS							
Measured IQ	16.0%	22.3%	24.8%	17.1%	19.8%	363	
Estimated IQ	30.6%	32.4%	18.9%	14.0%	4.1%	222	
	X ² = 47.1; df = 4; p < .001						

The data presented in Table III show that although the measured IQ is significantly different from the estimated IQ for *both* boys and girls, the *direction* of the discrepancy is different for each case. Apparently, teachers have a tendency to over-estimate the IQ of high school boys, but to under-estimate the IQ of high school girls. Or conversely, it could be argued that the teachers are realistic, and that it is the IQ tests which discriminate in favour of girls and against boys.

Again, if one makes the alternate comparison, it is clear that by *measurement*, girls have significantly higher IQs than boys ($X^2 = 24.1; df = 4; p < .001$); but by *teacher-estimate*, boys have

significantly higher IQs than girls ($X^2 = 43.9$; $df = 4$; $p < .001$). Since teachers have been shown to have an impact on the academic self-concept of students, and because academic self-concept is related to the level of educational aspiration, this might account to some extent for the fact that more boys continue with higher education than do girls of equal measured intelligence.

SES and Sex. To this point, it has been shown that although the teacher does not discriminate against the lower-class student, his estimate of the intelligence of middle and upper class students is significantly lower than the measured intelligence of these students. Also, we have presented evidence to support the view that high school teachers tend to discriminate against girls, but in favour of boys in the estimation of their intelligence. We now move to the examination of the combination of these two factors, SES and sex. The relevant data are presented in Table IV.

Although it appears from the comparative per cents in the first section of Table IV that teachers have a slight tendency to overestimate the IQ of middle and upper class boys, the differences between measured and estimated IQs are not statistically significant. However, where working class boys are concerned, the apparent tendency to overestimate is quite marked; for example, where IQs are measured, a total of 44.3 per cent of working class boys have IQs of 105 or higher, but where teachers estimate the intelligence, 56.8 per cent of working class boys have IQs or 105 or higher.

If the comparison for boys is made between the estimated per cents in the various IQ brackets at different SES levels, it will be noted that in estimating intelligence the teachers do not make very much distinction between middle and upper class boys on one hand, and working class boys on the other. The main difference seems to occur in the 97-104 IQ category, where teachers place 38.6 per cent of middle and upper class boys as opposed to only 30.9 per cent of working class boys. This difference, however, is partly made up for by the fact that the per cent of working class boys estimated to be in the 96 and lower IQ category exceeds that of middle and upper class boys. But these differences are not statistically significant ($X^2 = 2.2$; $df = 4$; $p < .70$). In fact, in no part of our analysis can it be shown that teachers discriminate between students at different SES levels, unless one accepts as a fact that working class boys (the working class boys in our sample, to be precise) are truly not as in-

telligent as middle class boys, as is suggested by the comparison of *measured* IQs for boys at the different SES levels ($X^2 = 9.5$; $df = 4$; $p < .05$); if one accepts this position, then it can be said that teachers discriminate in *favour* of lower class boys, but that they discriminate neither in favour of, nor against, middle class boys.

TABLE IV

MEASURED IQ COMPARED TO ESTIMATED IQ BY SES AND SEX

SES AND SEX	IQ					
	96 and lower	97-104	105-112	113-120	121 and higher	Total
MIDDLE AND UPPPER CLASS BOYS						
<i>Measured IQ</i>	11.8%	40.0%	28.2%	10.6%	9.4%	85
<i>Estimated IQ</i>	8.5%	38.6%	32.7%	17.0%	3.3%	153
$X^2 = 5.9$; $df = 4$; $p < .30$						
WORKING CLASS BOYS						
<i>Measured IQ</i>	27.0%	28.8%	21.5%	12.9%	9.9%	233
<i>Estimated IQ</i>	12.4%	30.9%	34.8%	17.4%	4.6%	282
$X^2 = 28.8$; $df = 4$; $p < .001$						
MIDDLE AND UPPER CLASS GIRLS						
<i>Measured IQ</i>	11.1%	20.3%	29.4%	19.0%	20.3%	153
<i>Estimated IQ</i>	29.0%	31.3%	20.6%	16.8%	2.3%	131
$X^2 = 38.2$; $df = 4$; $p < .001$						
WORKING CLASS GIRLS						
<i>Measured IQ</i>	19.5%	23.8%	21.4%	15.7%	19.5%	210
<i>Estimated IQ</i>	33.0%	34.1%	16.5%	9.9%	6.6%	91
$X^2 = 17.4$; $df = 4$; $p < .01$						

The lower half of Table IV presents comparisons between estimated and measured IQs for girls at the two SES levels. Here, the pattern is the same in both groups; regardless of SES, the teacher-estimates of IQ are significantly lower than the measured IQs.

Using the alternate comparison with these data, it appears that teachers tend to acknowledge that middle and upper class girls are more intelligent than working class girls, especially by reference to the per cents in the 105-112 and 113-120 IQ categories; however, the difference between the estimated IQs for girls at the two SES levels is not statistically significant ($X^2 = 4.3$; $df = 4$; $p < .50$). In fact, it can not even be demonstrated that measured IQs differ for the two groups ($X^2 = 6.7$; $df = 4$; $p < .20$). The only conclusion that can be drawn here is that, if one accepts measured IQ as the correct standard, teachers consistently underestimate the IQ of girls, regardless of their SES level.

CONCLUSIONS

If to this point our reasoning has occasionally seemed to be circular, it is because of a basic epistemological problem underlying the drawing of any conclusions from these data. The problem is this: To what extent is there any possibility of knowing whether or not teachers or tests underestimate or overestimate the intelligence of any of the groups of students? There is no satisfactory answer to this question, and it is doubtful whether there can ever be one. The only conclusion that we can state with any certainty is that *teachers and tests differ in the IQ they attach to students*. To draw any other conclusions than this, we must arbitrarily select IQ from one source and use it as the standard to which we will then compare IQ from the other source.

Summary. If we use measured IQ as a standard against which to compare the IQ of high school students as estimated by their teachers, our data lead us to the following conclusions:

1. High school teachers tend to underestimate the IQ of students as a group.
2. High school teachers tend to underestimate the IQ of middle and upper class students as a group.
3. High school teachers tend to estimate the IQ of working class students closer to average levels than they really are.
4. High school teachers tend to overestimate the IQ of working class boys.
5. High school teachers neither overestimate nor underestimate the IQ of middle and upper class boys.
6. High school teachers tend to underestimate the IQ of high school girls, regardless of their SES level.

Implications. IQ tests have been demonstrated to be culturally biased. It is possible that teachers, too, are biased in estimating the

intelligence of high school students, and if this is so, their biases are almost exactly opposite to those of the tests. Whereas IQ tests probably overestimate the intelligence of girls, teachers probably underestimate their IQs; and whereas IQ tests tend to underestimate the intelligence of boys — especially of working class boys — the teachers tend to overestimate it. Perhaps this is evidence of the removal “of bias . . . from the test-users in the education profession” as Charters has put it. It may be that teachers are compensating from their knowledge that tests tend to give inaccurate results. They may even be overcompensating, but we have no way of knowing this from these data.

Compensation is probably good, especially if it can be demonstrated that teachers do not merely select some different group to victimize by undermining their academic self-concept. Despite the assertion of Hall and McFarlane that school is a girl's world, this becomes less and less evident in the later stages of formal education. Boys catch up in performance, and attend college and university in larger numbers than girls. There are undoubtedly many social factors that contribute to this phenomenon of sexual differentiation in college-attendance rates, but the tendency of teachers to underestimate the intelligence of girls may find expression in their behavior, and thence into the girls' evaluation of their own abilities. This possibility should be explored by further research.

It is somewhat more difficult to suggest the implications of the teachers' tendency to overestimate the IQ of working class boys, especially in view of the known greater incidence of low self-concept among working class boys as compared to boys at higher SES levels. Perhaps without the teachers' overestimate, the academic self-concept of working class boys would be even lower, resulting in poorer school performance as well as a lower level of educational aspiration. But this, too, awaits investigation.

Suggestions for further study. The major methodological weakness of this study is that we have measured IQs for *one* group of students, and estimated IQs for *another* group. While we have taken every precaution to exclude data where there might be contaminating factors, it is possible that the two groups of students have certain differences in social characteristics other than intelligence that make their comparison to each other spurious. An improvement in method would be to obtain measured IQs for a group of

students, to withhold them from teachers and, after several months of teacher-student interaction, obtain teacher estimates of student intelligence. Then comparisons would be made on the same students, rather than on hopefully comparable groups of students from the same schools.

The fact that the subjects of this paper are Quebec students, and largely from rural areas, may limit the applicability of the findings. It is a distinct possibility that, at the time these data were collected (1965), the dropout rate of working class students, especially boys, was very much higher than that of middle and upper class students. If this is the case, then our findings may result largely from this fact, rather than from any widespread tendency of teachers in general to overestimate the intelligence of working class boys. This remains to be explored. In the meantime, this study should be replicated in different areas of the country to see if these are indeed universal trends, or merely local phenomena.

We would like to know how (or if) the sex of the teacher influences his tendency to overestimate or to underestimate the intelligence of girls and boys at different SES levels. It would also be useful to collect data from several grade levels to observe if there are any trends in tendencies to overestimate or to underestimate intelligence associated with increasing ages and grade levels of students. Religious differences, ethnic differences, rural differences, and regional differences should also be taken into account in future analyses of estimated intelligence.

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Correspondence with A. S. Neill

Last Fall, we wrote to Mr. A. S. Neill, founder of the famous Summerhill School and author of a number of works (including *Summerhill: A Radical Approach to Child Rearing*) which advocate greater freedom in education. We enclosed a copy of a recent issue of the *McGill Journal of Education*, (Vol. II, no. 1 which happened to be concerned with the theme "The Teacher and the Teaching Process") and invited Mr. Neill to contribute a paper.

His response was as vigorous and as uncompromising as his lifelong efforts at educational reform. It is printed here, along with subsequent correspondence with the editor of the *Journal* and some reactions from a teacher.

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4 Nov 67

Dear Margaret Gillett,

Your Journal is far too high brow for me. Not a single entry enticed me to read it, but then I have no interest in teaching and schemes of education and statistics. To me you are editing a magazine that is appealing to pedants and formalists . . . no personal offence; you have to give your readers what they seek, and to me they seek all that doesn't matter. I couldn't see the word child in the one you sent, couldn't see the word psychology. Nor the word freedom. I could not see anything dynamic in the pages. I really don't think that the readers of those articles would want to read anything I had to say. Again no offence; I said all this to my good friend the Editor of the Times Educ. Suppl. the other day. You are both purveying for teachers — the deadest people in the world.

Oh, by the way, do you pay for articles? I ask, not because I am a Scot, but because the Ministry will be unlikely to let me carry on unless I spend a few thousand pounds on my premises, money which I haven't got.

Yours sincerely,

A. S. Neill

Faculty of Education
McGill University
Montreal, P.Q.

December 13th, 1967

Mr. A. S. Neill
Summerhill School
Leiston, Suffolk, England

Dear Mr. Neill:

Had the time been right, Diogenes' search might well have taken him straight to your door; at any rate, he would have been pleased, as I am, to find someone who says what he truly thinks.

But you must give us some credit — we did ask you to contribute because we thought you would liven things up and give us a fresh perspective. We are certain our readers would relish your every word and welcome a plethora of down-to-earth "childs," "freedom's" and "psychologys" amid the esoteric studies and speculations. We still hope that you will agree to write for us.

We regret, however, that since we have a very limited budget, we are unable to pay our contributors and can reward them only with copies of the *Journal* and whatever satisfaction they may derive from having their work published and their ideas presented to a new audience.

If perchance you feel unable to write a special paper for us (or even if you do), I should like to request your permission to publish your recent letter to me and, in the same issue, some reactions from our readers. This surely should stir up interest and may even provoke sympathy for your financial difficulties.

What do you say? Shall we give it a try?

Best wishes for a Happy Christmas and another stimulating New Year.

Sincerely,

Margaret Gillett
Professor of Education and
Editor, *McGill Journal of Education*

23 Dec 67

Dear Margaret Gillett,

It's just that I am 84 and tired and over worked . . . the unanswered mail on my desk is inches high. I'd gladly write something for you but the most I can offer is to send you a few recent articles from the Times Educ. Supplt. which you can use if you want to. I've told the editor that I know he will give permission. I'm mailing them now.

I don't know what our future is. The Ministry measures with a yardstick that isn't mine . . . so many W.C.s, wash basins, so many cubic feet sleeping air. To satisfy them will cost a lot of money, but then the snag is this . . . will S'hill survive me? Will the Establishment allow a school where kids can play all day long? My wife is excellent in her work but has no official qualifications. In my pessimistic moments I wonder what chance pioneering has in a world of race hatred and napalm and sick crime. But it's Xmas and I'll park my pessimism until the next visit of Inspectors!

Yours,

A. S. Neill

January 10, 1968.

Mr. A. S. Neill
Summerhill School
Leiston, Suffolk
England

Dear Mr. Neill:

I do appreciate hearing from you again and thank you heartily for sending the clippings from the *Times Educational Supplement*. May we publish your article "Why Have Exams?" from the *T.E.S.* of May 8, 1959? I should also like to publish your letters to me. Is it safe for me to assume that, if I do not hear from you again by the end of this month, you have no objections?

We expect to go to press around the middle of February. Galleys will be ready about two weeks later.

I shall return your clippings in a few days (as soon as copies have been made) and shall also drop a line to the Editor of the

Times Educational Supplement.

I hope that the next visit of the H.M.I. will not prove as disastrous as you fear and I have every confidence that Summerhill will indeed survive.

Very best wishes.

Sincerely,
Margaret Gillett
Professor of Education and
Editor *McGill Journal of Education*

16 Jan'y 68

Dear Margaret,

But do send me copies of my letters before you print them. I forget what I wrote but if it were about Inspectors and the Ministry I don't want to say anything in public until we get our big inspection this Spring or Summer. Now that I am M.Ed. of Newcastle and soon LLD of Exeter I am a member of the Establishment . . . I should really side with the established Ministry and vote Tory. After all I am protected by Eton and Harrow; as long as the upper classes retain them I am under the Establishment wing.

*Good wishes,
A. S. Neill*

January 21, 1968

Dear Mr. Neill:

These are the letters I should like to print. May I? — along with "Why Have Exams?" from the *T.E.S.*

Bravo for Exeter and Newcastle! Don't you think that their honours to you show that the mountain can come to Mohammed rather than that you have joined the Establishment?

Congratulations and best wishes.

Sincerely,
Margaret Gillett, Editor
McGill Journal of Education

23 Jan'y 68

Dear Margaret,

Okay, nothing dangerous in my letters to you, so print em, bless you . . . paganly of course. And don't blame me if most of your subscribers take offence at my attack on their pedantry and call off.

Good luck anyway.

Yours,

Neill

• • •

Faculty of Education
McGill University
Montreal, P.Q.

1st February, 1968

Dear A. S. Neill:

It's a pretty sweeping statement ". . . teachers — the deadest people in the world." Yet when I look at us I am forced to agree that you shoot dangerously and excitingly near the mark. At the same time, when your pessimism is parked and the Inspectors are not counting your W.C.s., will you not concede that there are a few who are struggling to break through their cerements and to grope their way toward the dynamic experience of freeing children to learn?

In another context you once wrote: "I have a strong belief that what we need is fewer 'teachers,' for no one can 'teach' anything of deep importance, how to lessen the hate in humanity for instance. One can by living with children, but not by 'teaching children'. To some of us this speaks so deeply and with such immediacy that it is like hearing a well-loved folk song: it is hard to believe one did not write it oneself!

Will you not grant that there may be a few, still calling themselves teachers, who have not yet joined the majority or who may still have a chance of survival if they can break through the clods

and sods around them in time to live with children before the hatred and the napalm win out?

If you will, what will you call us? Obviously, not teachers. Educators? Educationists? Each label seems farther from your concept.

Perhaps the semantic problem is of less importance and the prime question I should ask you is: What should we be like? How should we 'be' in order to live with children?

In Canada and the U.S.A. we are grappling with the problem of changing our attitudes towards learning: trying to be more real, more totally present in the classroom, to accept each child more totally, as he is present in the classroom and to perceive and feel as the child perceives and feels — to stand in his shoes.

To some of us the struggle to acquire these attitudes has come to have deep meaning and is giving our lives a new dimension. Through it we have caught a glimpse of children who are free to be and to become and we feel a desire to share in that being and becoming.

Can you find time to continue your transatlantic dialogue with us and to share with us your answers to some of these questions and our attempts to answer them? We shall be watching the mail!*

Yours sincerely,

Joan Haines

Associate Professor of Education
and Former Kindergarten Teacher

*Mr. Neill's reply to this letter will be published in the next issue of the *McGill Journal*. Comments from other readers are welcomed. — Ed.

Why Have Exams?*

A. S. Neill

An H.M.I. said to me: "What would you teach if there were no G.C.E. exams?" I could not think of an answer, possibly because when one has been conditioned from infancy to accept school subjects as education, no one is free enough to answer.

That the products of schools are much more interested in things outside the school system . . . football pools, cheap press, television, sex, crime . . . than they are in all the subjects we teach suggests that our schools are never adapted to the life outside. This is primarily due to the fact that emotion is of infinitely more moment than is intellect; the above mentioned post-school interests are emotional ones, whereas G.C.E. subjects are all head subjects. We see the extreme result of this unbalance in books like *Blackboard Jungle* in the U.S.A. and *The Young Devils* at home. The raising of the leaving age has too often meant adolescents having to continue sitting at desks studying what has no appeal to their heads or senses. It is just nonsense to say that our schools give children culture . . . the sales of our most sensational newspapers prove this point; education precedes a national interest in the inferior and unessential.

* Reproduced from the *Times Educational Supplement*, London, by permission.

LA PLUME DE . . .

Culture! Thousands of our pupils learn French up to G.C.E. standard. Few ever will go to France, few will ever read French books; in two years most of what they learnt has gone. So with other subjects. Maths. What passer of the 0 level maths could do a quadratic equation five years later? English. What proportion of G.C.E. passers reads whodunnits instead of the cultured reading their grammar schools gave them . . . Lamb's Essays, Shakespeare, Milton, Coleridge? Geography. How do we apply what we learn after we leave school? When I motor to Scotland I cannot get rid of the notion that I am going uphill: the wall map had Scotland at the top. The only geography we use is of the place-on-the-map variety and that vaguely, to be sure. How many of us know exactly where these places are . . . Thursday Island, Vermont, Salzburg? Post-school life does not concern itself with the exports of Brazil or the climate of Timbuctu.

WHAT TO TEACH

I feel like replying to the H.M.I. by saying: "I'd scrap the lot," but then I would have the painful task of saying what my school would teach. Painful because it is so difficult to assess change of values. In my youth a university education was the criterion of an educated man; the scholar with his Latin and Greek and philosophy was the man to respect and emulate. To-day that is not so. The standard has altered, mainly because of the great and rapid advance in mechanical theory and practice. In terms of utility to-day the expert who can make or even repair a television set is of more importance than an M.A. who has specialized in — say — English, for the M.A. can only *teach* in a small circle while the other man can *do* in a large one. We see the same in music. Whatever a school may do to give pupils a love for classical music, the fact remains that (I am guessing here) the records of the rock'n'roll singers far exceed in volume and sale those of all the classics lumped together.

Given freedom from examinations I should aim at catching the children's interests and following them. Rock'n'roll? Good. The music of the school would start with Elvis Presley and Tommy Steele. Reading would be all the whodunnits the school could procure. I should reverse the process by which the school begins with Addison and goes on to the post-graduate *News of the World*,

feeling uneasily that my pupils' daily perusal of the *News of the World* might not automatically lead later to the reading of Addison.

But perhaps I should teach nothing at all on the ground that you cannot teach anything of importance. I know of no school that has been free enough to follow in its teaching the dictates of child nature; every school is to some extent divorced from outside life and interest that follows the pre-psychology period that treated children as small adults. Adults must work and therefore children must be taught to work. Since the importance of play in a child's life has been recognized, no fundamental alteration has been made to the timetable. I can fantasy a non-exam school which would be a large playground . . . not playing fields which are not really play at all. Play with books and tools and music and dance and — in Utopia — play with love. I doubt if the adage that tells that the hard way forms character has any validity in psychology. I see rock 'n' roll as a flight from the hard way of schooling with its insane demand for homework. Yet to be honest, I do not think that is the whole truth for my pupils who are as free as can be in a school today love rock 'n' roll records, but to be honest again, they do not seem to carry on the interest into the later teen age. Nor are my own pupils free from the G.C.E. obstacle to real education.

FORMING CHARACTER

I ask: What does it matter what we teach? The only importance in education lies in character formation, and here many a teacher will agree. But not many will agree that character formation must come from inside. No study will form a good character. Indeed character is seldom mentioned by teachers; the cry to-day is not for better character but for better science, better science in an era in which knowing has run far ahead of emotion, and science has almost become synonymous with keeping up with the Joneses.

This insistence on the importance of playhood may sound mad to many a teacher. Maybe it is mad, but it is at least a tentative suggestion for coping with a most dangerous situation, that of a sick world whose values have little or nothing to do with schooling, and I do not mean Britain alone; the news of anti-social rebellious youth in Sweden, America, Russia shows that schooling is failing in many lands. Personally I think that conscious or more probably unconscious fear is at the bottom of youth's revolt . . . Let us eat, drink, and be merry, for to-morrow we die. Sex repression is not enough to

account for it; we had sex repression long before the H-bomb appeared and it did not seem to go so far as flick knives and cycle chains.

REVOLT AGAINST SCHOOL

The question is this: Is youth rebelling because of its education or in spite of it? I suggest the former. I question if a lessonless school would produce any anti-social, any criminal products; I feel sure that most hateful coshings and stabbings are the result of unlived-out play, but again that cannot be the whole truth, for children of the upper and middle classes are not usually teddy boys. I am not wise enough to pose as an authority, but in the days when I had to deal with many anti-social adolescents, I saw most of them go out cured, not by lessons, not by my analyses, but cured because they had freedom to live out their playhood, cured because allowed to be themselves. And of moment, cured because relieved of guilt about sex. An odd thought to end up with: When any madman or fool of a statesman can press the button that could kill us all, why does such a small thing as sex retain its Victorian significance? Until the guilt complex of youth is relieved, all or nearly all of our school subjects, will remain useless and a matter of indifference to the young.

School Marks and Professional Integrity

What professional *savoir-faire* can a teacher display when something unusual happens during an examination? Should marks be deducted from the scores of children who disobey the teacher, or talk, or disturb the class, or even cheat? Should the reduced score be entered in the official record, or should some other action be taken? The following examples occur regularly in the lives of classroom teachers. Wherein lies professional duty?

EXAMPLE 1: Disobedience — A child left his seat to sharpen a pencil after the test had begun. This was contrary to regulations; the proper procedure was to raise one's hand and get permission to leave one's seat. After the test was over, the child's paper showed all correct for the ten items. How many marks should the teacher enter in the official record?

EXAMPLE 2: Talking — The child talked during the distribution of papers, after the teacher had distinctly cautioned him not to talk. Again, he had all items correct. What official record for him?

EXAMPLE 3: Disturbance — A boy finished early and pinched the girl in front of him. She shrieked briefly, and this disturbed the class. What score should the teacher enter in the record this time, even if the boy had all items correct?

EXAMPLE 4: Cheating — A child, sitting at the back of the room, kept peering at his neighbour's paper and was caught obviously cheating, an offence to which he readily pleaded guilty. His paper when marked revealed all items correct. What score for him?

A teacher dealing with *Example 1*, disobedience, might argue that, inasmuch as regulations were announced before the test, the regulations became part of the test, and he would be justified in deducting one or perhaps two marks. Or, he might decide to list the penalties for each possible offence before the examination begins, so that the children know exactly where they stand, much in the manner of a motorist knowing in advance the penalty for illegal parking.* Or, he might argue that some children are more sensitive or callous than others, and the number of marks he deducts for disobedience will depend on the child's "criminal" record.

In connection with *Example 2*, talking, the teacher might argue that, if the talking occurred before the pupil looked at the paper, it was a simple case of misbehavior, and it might be dealt with in the manner suggested for *Example 1*. However, if the talking occurred after the child saw the paper, potential cheating was there, and the record should show a "zero" in spite of a perfect paper.

For *Example 3*, pinching girls, the opinions of teachers vary from deducting one mark all the way to deducting all marks and entering "zero" in the record.

For *Example 4*, cheating, a score of "zero" seems inevitable.

All the foregoing courses of action are absolutely wrong!

If it is all right to deduct marks for purposes of discipline in school, is it all right for a nurse to alter entries in the medical records for the same reason? Or for a chemist to put wrong entries in his record book if he burns his finger? Consider the following examples.

EXAMPLE 5: The Naughty Boy in the Nurse's Office — It is "nurse's day" at school, and all the boys and girls are lined up to be weighed and measured, the data to be recorded on official medical cards. One naughty boy jostles those about him, creates a general disturbance, and ends by upsetting a tumbler of clinical thermometers which break

* If you are a teacher reading this, beware! *Don't do this*. The children will try every offence listed, most of which they would not have thought of by themselves!

as they strike the floor. The nurse seizes the offending boy and declares: "You are 48 inches tall and you weigh 87 pounds, but because you are naughty I am putting down 20 inches for your height and zero for your weight. Now let that be a lesson to you!"

EXAMPLE 6: The Clumsy Chemist — A chemist, after carefully weighing a sample of material, introduces the sample into a test tube that he has pre-heated. Forgetting that it is hot, he touches the test tube, recoils, utters unprintable language, and then dashes over to his record book to enter "zero" for the weight of the sample.

You may consider these examples funny, but they are no more ridiculous than deducting marks or awarding "zero" in the cases of the school children. The teacher should be as concerned with the accuracy of his estimate of a child's achievement as a real nurse would be with what she records on the medical cards, or with what a chemist records after carefully weighing a sample correct to four decimals of a gram. Unfortunately, the teacher's measuring instruments are not as accurate as the nurse's or the chemist's; but this is all the more reason not to permit extraneous factors to cloud the best estimate of pupil achievement that the teacher can make. This brings us to the Basic Principle of Educational Measurement:

Basic Principle — An official school mark should reflect how much of a subject a child knows as a percentage of what he should know at the time of the examination. The mark should not be affected by prejudice, the maintenance of discipline, administrative expediency, parental pressure, or political influence.

The teacher who estimates a child's achievement according to this Basic Principle is a real teacher and a professional person; the teacher who is sloppy about measurement and who allows himself to be swayed by extraneous factors is unprofessional.

What, then, SHOULD be done about the four examples if the Basic Principle is to be followed in awarding marks in school? The teacher need only be guided by the question: Does this mark tell how much the child knows?

This is what should be done — In the first three cases of disobedience, talking, and creating a disturbance (assuming that cheating was not involved in any of them), full marks should be entered in the record, simply because this indicates that the child has mastered the topic under examination.

What to do about the discipline aspect of the situation has absolutely nothing to do with the estimate of achievement. What should be done? By all means, the teacher should do *something* about a wayward child: scold him, strap him, spreadeagle him, make him walk the plank, or send him to the school psychologist! *But the teacher is unprofessional if he falsifies the records by entering scores that he knows are not estimates of a child's achievement.*

In the case of cheating, a score of "zero" is not right because it does not reflect what the child knows about the subject. There is only one thing for the teacher to do: enter NO MARK until he *does* know how much the child knows. A "no mark" entry is quite different from a "zero" entry. By withholding a score, the teacher acknowledges the truth — that he simply does not know how much the child knows. A "zero" would indicate that the child knows absolutely nothing of the subject, and while this may be true, it is most likely false. Apart from any punishment the teacher may apply in order to produce future good conduct, there remains the problem of finding out how much the child *does* know. This may be done by examining him with an alternate form of the original test.

Old practices die hard. Some teachers who read these words will find it difficult to change their thinking about how they measure achievement. It is so convenient to maintain discipline by threat of loss of marks, and it has been used universally for so long, that it has become a tradition. It *works*, so why change?

All the writer can say to such unprofessional teachers is that teaching is a way of life that promotes all the virtues. No one is more sensitive to honesty and fair play than is a school child. To alter test scores for purposes of discipline is to betray a great trust.

A movement to abolish tests and examinations appears occasionally in some communities. This is an anguished attempt on the part of frustrated people to cope with inaccurate and abused school measurement. A parallel protest movement exists in the realm of intelligence testing: because its determination and use are of questionable quality, the very concept of IQ has been undermined. But mark my words: achievement testing will endure, and the IQ will come back. In a civilization where the process of education must become increasingly scientific, accurate measurement of human traits and accomplishments is a necessity. The remedy for faulty assessment is not abolition of tests and examinations, but their application with greater validity and reliability.

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Marking and Reporting Pupil Progress in Physical Education

Robert Wilkinson

One of the most persistent and frustrating tasks that the physical educator faces today is that of marking and grading pupil progress. Most schools require marks in physical education and certainly pupils and parents are interested in grades. However, the matter of reporting value judgments regarding the status and progress of students at regular intervals throughout the year is fraught with many perplexing difficulties.

Very few educators question the desirability of a continuous program of evaluation in our schools. It is true that there are a certain number of teachers and pupils, and even parents, who cry that we should do away with all forms of examinations but as Stein points out, this "is as futile as the demand that do away with textbooks." We may wish to make drastic revisions in the present manner in which most teachers examine, mark and report but this is quite a different proposition from advocating elimination of marks and grades.

In recent years there has been widespread experimentation with many forms of marking and reporting practices within education. The degree of experimentation suggests that teachers, administrators, pupils and parents are dissatisfied with present methods and are continually seeking more effective ways to solve this vexing problem.

The task facing the new teacher is an enormous one. Although he may have been exposed to introductory courses in tests and

measurements which give him some insight into educational statistics, he still is heard to comment, "I really don't know how to grade my classes." This implied criticism requires an answer. Certainly no undergraduate course, book, or professor should attempt to describe how a teacher will grade his classes in physical education. A fundamental purpose of marking and grading in education is to interpret as accurately as possible the extent to which the student has achieved the educational objectives of the program. Students differ, their needs differ, schools differ, and their programs differ and under these many situations the methods used to determine and report marks also should differ. The problem then becomes one of examining the role of marks and forms of reporting in order to establish sound principles which will serve as effective guides for teachers charged with this unenviable task.

REASONS FOR MARKING AND GRADING

After careful analysis of the various uses made of marks, Wrinkle concluded that they could be classified according to four main functions: information, guidance, administration, and motivation and discipline.² Remmers, Gage and Rummel break down these four functions into the following purposes of marking systems (1) information for parents on pupil status or progress, (2) promotion and graduation, (3) motivation of school work, (4) guidance of learning, (5) guidance of educational and vocational planning, (6) guidance of personal development, (7) honors, (8) participation in many school activities, (9) reports and recommendations to future employers, (10) data for curriculum studies, (11) reports to a school the pupil may attend later.³

Most educators, including those in physical education, agree that the single most important function of marks is to provide a means of communication between the teacher, the pupil and the parent. Effective communication should provide both child and parent with tangible evidence of the student's status in terms of the objectives of physical education. In addition, good communication which results in improved understanding of student problems can do much to help physical educators enlist support of both parents and students in developing realistic and improved physical education programs in the schools. Both parent and child can be led to recognize, through improved marking and reporting techniques, the values and contributions of a sound physical education program.

PROBLEMS IN MARKING

Each of the above stated reasons for marking is important. Why then does so much controversy rage over this topic? The answer lies in the fact that, whereas most educators are agreed on the importance of reporting pupil progress, few are satisfied with present methods. Many reasons for this dissatisfaction can be found. Baron and Bernard include the following among the shortcomings of present grading systems:

1. Marks tend to become the end and aim of education.
2. Marks tend to emphasize subject matter.
3. Marks tend to discourage good teaching.
4. Marks tend to cause teachers to overlook individual differences.
5. Marks create a situation that is "unlike life."
6. Marks tend to penalize those pupils most in need of help.
7. Marks have little meaning in themselves.⁴

In addition, there are several problems which, while of concern to the classroom teacher, cause particular difficulties for the physical educator. In their desire to maintain academic respectability, physical educators have insisted that they follow the same marking and reporting system used in the other school subjects. This has resulted in a tremendous burden for the physical education teacher who may see as many as 300 pupils in class weekly and is required to submit grades for the report card three, four, and even six times per year. Mathews records a situation in which he attempted to submit five separate grades in physical education, six times per year for 400 students or a total of 12,000 individual marks in a school year.⁵ Some readers may question the need to submit five marks within physical education and yet to combine marks in aquatics, dance, gymnastics and tennis into one composite grade for physical education is like lumping English, history, chemistry and a foreign language into one classroom mark.

Controversy has existed for years in education regarding the degree of objectivity which should be required in educational testing programs. Physical education has not escaped the debate. For years physical educators have enunciated comprehensive lists of objectives and goals in their courses of study and yet the teacher, all too often, has carried on a testing program limited to the basic areas which are amenable to measurement by the stop watch, the tape measure and quantitative computation. Many of the most important stated goals of education such as development of sound

health habits, positive attitudes towards fair play, and quality of movement are neglected because they cannot be easily measured. Adams and Torgerson comment that the classroom teacher has been no less guilty in his concentration on the cognitive areas.⁶ Fowler summarizes this point very well when he states:

Since educational objectives range all the way from the highly tangible to the highly intangible, teachers must be prepared to make subjective judgments when completely objective measures are unavailable. Still they must strive to make their judgments as expert and objective as possible by obtaining necessary training and making full use of the most reliable and valid evidence available.⁷

Yet another problem centres around the grade and report card. Teachers acknowledge that grades help to motivate and control students. Some teachers use grades and report cards as a lever to control student behavior. A few teachers, especially in very large physical education classes, grade more on behavior qualities than on the extent to which the objectives of the program are realized. They contend that behavior and attitude reflect achievement (or the lack of it), when actually they use the grade as a whip to ensure class control. Other teachers use the grade in physical education as the basic motivating device with the result that many students become far too grade-conscious and "passing the course" becomes more important than the stated educational outcomes.

THE BASES OF MARKING

"The traditional basis for evaluating school achievement is mastery of content."⁸ Mastery of content in physical education may be interpreted as level of skill performance in physical activities. Many physical educators maintain that if physical education is to be consistent with other areas of the educational program, skill should be the sole basis for marking. Others contend that improvement should be a factor in marking. This proposal does not have much meaning unless the potential for improvement is considered. It must be clear that final achievement is not solely the result of what is learned in class. Students who have varying initial levels of ability and varying degrees of prior experience may be expected to show different amounts of gain. Lacour points out that research has shown that the intelligence quotient, when taken alone,

is not a perfect predictor of scholastic success. He states, however, that unless a reasonably high relationship is found between a student's ability as measured by the I.Q. and his overall achievement, he is usually assigned to special guidance and counselling.' Thus far in physical education it has not been possible to place even this degree of confidence in measures of motor fitness quotient. Yet, in terms of effective communication and guidance, information concerning the discrepancy between achievement and the child's potential may be extremely useful data.

PRINCIPLES FOR IMPROVED MARKING AND REPORTING

The foregoing should make it abundantly clear that there are many problems which confront the physical educator in marking. What can be said to help the teacher improve his basis of grading in this subject area? Certainly no single scheme or formula can be suggested. It remains to present certain guides which, when applied to most situations, will provide the basis for improved practices in reporting pupil progress.

1. Program objectives must be clearly defined so that marking and grading reflect progress toward specific goals.
2. The relative portion of the total mark or marks should correlate with the amount of emphasis placed upon each aspect of the program and reflect the degree to which that facet contributes to the overall objectives.
3. Various forms of reporting should be developed which contribute to the most effective communication possible between pupil, parent and teacher. These may include report card, letters to parents, home visits, teacher-parent and teacher-pupil conferences.
4. Students and parents should clearly understand the basis on which evaluation of the student is made.
5. Students must be given ample opportunity to develop the techniques of self-appraisal.
6. Greater emphasis should be placed on evaluation of the student in relation to his own potential and previous levels of achievement rather than inviting invidious comparisons with others.
7. Accurate and meaningful reporting requires continuous measurement throughout the school year.
8. Subjective assessments must be utilized in formulating grades in physical education if the extent to which achievement of desired outcomes of physical education are to be appraised.

However, judgments should be as expert and objective as presently available measures permit.

9. Test administration must be efficient. Careful planning can eliminate many of the wasteful practices of which physical educators have been guilty in the past.
10. Despite the contention that physical education reporting procedures should be consistent with those of the rest of the school, there are good reasons why physical educators should prepare a report card to meet the particular needs of their department in a given school.
11. Marks and grades must not be looked upon as ends in themselves but as means toward the development of sound citizens.

No universally acceptable practice of marking and reporting pupil progress has yet been devised. Certain weaknesses may be found in all systems which have thus far been reported in the literature. But this should not be reason for despair. Through intelligent, cooperative planning based on sound principles, procedures can be developed which will result in much more meaningful reporting and better educational practice in our schools of tomorrow.

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Testing in English Literature: Toward a Better Rationale

Muriel W. Tomkins

In September 1955, Edward J. Gordon presented in the *English Journal*, five useful "levels of teaching and testing" in English literature and thus helped to point the way toward a better rationale. His levels suggest a hierarchy of questions that place increasing demands on the student's talent for thinking in abstract terms. The abilities which they test are as follows:

(1) to remember a fact, (2) to prove a generalization that someone else has made, (3) to make one's own generalization, (4) to generalize from the book to its application in life, and, finally, (5) to carry over the generalization into one's own behavior.¹

Level 1 questions test only the student's memory, his ability to recall characters and events in a literary work he has studied, or to identify lines quoted from it. Level 2 questions require a degree of independent thinking, as this sample suggests: "If you were to judge by *Babbitt*, what attitudes are held by the 'typical' businessman?" Level 3 questions demand that the student arrive at his own interpretation — to speculate, for example, how in "Paul's Case," the short story by Willa Cather, the author makes use of symbols.

Level 4 questions, like the one below, compel the student to relate what he has read to real-life situations:

One of the greatneses of Thoreau is that he anticipated by many years some of the evils that would rise in American life. What were these evils? Did he propose any remedy? If so, what?²

Finally, we come to Level 5, which differs radically from Level 4 in requiring evidence of a change of *behaviour* on the part of the student. Consequently, Level 5 is at once the most important level and the most difficult one to evaluate, as Gordon indicates:

The last area of "testing" is the place to determine whether education has or has not taken place. Where there is no real change in attitude, "education" may well be dealing in mere verbalisms. It matters very little how much the pupil can say the "right" things in class, or on attitude tests; the real test is his behaviour. Where does he stand when a group is baiting an unpopular student? He may talk fluently about the dignity of the individual, but shout down others at a class meeting. He may intellectually recognize the fallacy of Emma Bovary's thinking, but live in his own world of unreality.³

To return to Level 1, it is, in Gordon's opinion, the lowest, or least "intellectual," form of testing because it merely calls for the student to reproduce something he has read or heard. Yet, according to some authorities, this form of testing is all too prevalent in English. As Clarence W. Hach asserts in the *Illinois English Bulletin* of February, 1965:

Too often we still give final tests that are almost entirely factual. If they go beyond the factual at all, they probably include a generalization that the teacher or someone else has made about the piece of literature and ask that the pupils discuss it. Such a question on *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* might be: "During the course of the story *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, Huck changed from a carefree boy to a thoughtful young adult. Mention three experiences he had and tell how each helped him gain a better understanding of life."⁴

Like Gordon, he points to the student's change of behaviour as the crucial evidence of successful teaching:

If the emphasis in modern education is to be on altering behavior patterns, not on memory and the acquisition of knowledge *per se*, then our major tests in literature must

be of the type that requires pupils to use knowledge and demonstrate their control over it. Our major tests in literature must help us to assess pupils' growth in reading; they must help them to grow in interpreting literature and in applying knowledge of literature to life and their own behavior, and enjoy literature, to prefer a really good poem to a poor one, to want to read, most of the time at least, novels and short stories that deal with the truth of human experiences. The phrase "altering behavior patterns" as a goal of modern education is not meant in the teaching of literature to be entirely utilitarian or moralistic or didactic, of course, for literature is important, too, on a purely esthetic level.⁵

As evidence of "bad" testing closer to home, we have the study directed last year by Professor Geoffrey Mason of the University of Victoria. He classified, according to six levels of testing, the questions appearing on the June 1966 high school examinations set by the British Columbia Department of Education. His levels, entitled Knowledge, Comprehension, Analysis, Application, Synthesis, and Evaluation, correspond roughly to Gordon's levels, except that Mason makes no reference to a change of behavior on the student's part.⁶ In classifying the questions thus, Mason's stated purpose was

to determine the extent to which simple knowledge and comprehension at the recall level, rather than objectives at the higher levels of cognition, were being measured.⁷

Here, in part, is his appraisal of the data he collected:

On the English 40 examination 50% of the literature marks was allocated to the compulsory questions. This 50% was divided between Levels 1, 2 and 3 — 49.1%, and Level 4 — 0.9%. The remaining 50% of the marks was given to questions for which alternatives were provided. For example, four questions representing 8.9% of the total marks had to be selected from six questions, four of which were at Level 3, and one each at Levels 4 and 6. *An inspection of the data reveals that no question above Level 3 need to have been selected in writing the examination . . .* The Table shows that English 91 relied heavily on the lowest level, the recall of specific facts. No question beyond Level 3 was found for this examination. English 100 utilized Levels 1, 2, and 3 extensively. There were no questions at Levels 4 or 5.⁸

Mason's sobering summary of his findings reads as follows:

The data from this study support to some degree the criticism that the Departmental examinations emphasize the

recall of specific information. While the level of analysis has also received considerable attention on the 1966 English examinations, the higher levels . . . have been almost uniformly ignored.⁹

Although conventional written tests are obviously inadequate tools for measuring behavioural change (Level 5) in a student, such tests can be employed to assess abilities at the other four levels. A fundamental requirement is that the teacher must first settle upon the specific objectives to be tested and then decide what kinds of questions he will pose to test those objectives. In his excellent pamphlet on testing in English, Carruthers suggests this procedure:

The teacher must first (1) review his objectives for the unit. The test should measure *all* of the important objectives of the unit. For example, for our sample unit for English 10, "Understanding Human Nature," the teacher may have for one of his objectives "To enable the students to become more aware of characters' motives." The teacher should review this objective and the steps he took to attain it. He should then (2) decide whether this objective can be effectively tested in a paper and pencil test, and (3) decide what kind of written evidence will reflect the student's having attained the objective. He decides that it can be tested and concludes that such specific evidence as this will suffice: "Awareness of the effect of a character's actions upon others"; "awareness of the implications of a character's conversations with others"; and "understanding of the inner conflict of a character." Thus, he has sharpened his *general* teaching objective ("To enable the students to become more aware of characters' motives") to the specific *testing* ones ("Awareness of the effect of a character's actions upon others . . .", etc.) He must then in the same manner point up and sharpen each of the other general objectives for the unit.¹⁰

The next step for the teacher is to determine whether the "weight" which he gave to certain objectives when teaching the unit is fairly reflected in the test:

In the interests of fairness and validity, he will make sure, for example, that if in our sample unit he spent about 50% of the time — and emphasis — of the unit on the study of literature and its outcomes, he will allocate on the test a like weight (50 per cent) for items in the area of literature and its outcomes.¹¹

He needs also to determine whether his questions are thoughtfully distributed over the four levels of intellectual activity referred to

above. Not until this point is the teacher ready to turn his attention to the actual questions, or test items, he will employ. The kinds of decisions he will face are illustrated as follows:

[In order] to "test the student's ability to spell words encountered in the unit," an item for correction, in which the student *corrects* a misspelled word, is probably more valid for the purpose than a four-choice item in which the student is required merely to *select* a misspelled word but not to spell it correctly. (He may know which one of the four choices is misspelled, but he may not be able to *spell* it correctly.) Or, to test the student's "ability to use a comma before (certain) coordinating conjunctions which join two independent clauses," a short exercise which reads "Punctuate correctly each of the following sentences" is probably more valid for the purpose than an item which reads, "Make a list of the uses of a comma."¹²

The teacher must also decide when to employ essay items or short-answer items, which include completion, true-false, and matching items, and a wide range of multiple choice items. In a lengthy and helpful discussion of the uses and limitations of short-answer items, Carruthers warns against completion items for testing in English, because they test chiefly the student's ability to recall facts (Level 1). True-false items are ruled out, except, possibly, when the teacher wishes "to test misconceptions which the student may have in a given area of English, particularly before the beginning of the study of that area." "Matching" items are criticized for their "limited flexibility." Multiple choice items, on the other hand, can be applied to a wide variety of testing situations, ranging from simple recall of facts to more complex intellectual operations like forming judgments, or responding to the author's techniques.¹³ A few literature items will serve as illustrations:

- (1) In *The Thread That Runs So True*, the author describes his experiences as a (1) young schoolteacher (2) minister's son (3) tailor's apprentice (4) track champion.
- (2) In *Julius Ceasar*, Brutus's inner conflict is shown in the line (1) "Speak, hands, for me!" (2) "Cowards die a thousand deaths . . ." (3) "Not that I loved Caesar less . . ." (4) "he doth bestride the narrow world like a Colossus."
- (3) In *Dear Brutus*, the experiences of the persons in the play suggest that (1) some men are influenced more by evil than by good (2) happiness can be too dearly bought (3) human nature is ever the same (4) patriotism is an ever present need of man.
- (4) The plays of Sir James M. Barrie are characterized by (1)

blank verse (2) "choruses" to accentuate action (3) unhappy ton took refuge in (1) drinking (2) eating excessively endings (4) humorous stage directions.¹⁴

That pitfalls abound for the unwary in the construction of such items is illustrated by the "poor" and "improved" examples quoted below:

Poor: His early career having been atrophied, Sydney Carton took refuge in (1) drinking (2) eating excessively endings (4) humorous stage directions. (5) fleeing to the country.

(This item presents two vocabulary problems: "atrophied" and "took refuge in." Such expressions may be too difficult for the student.)

Improved: A habit of Sydney Carton's was (1) drinking (2) eating excessively (3) stealing (4) hoarding money (5) fleeing to the country.

Poor: Robert Louis Stevenson was very well known as an author of (1) plays (2) novels (3) chronicles of King Arthur (4) literary criticism (5) poetry.

(Although the teacher intended that number 2 be the correct answer, number 5 is also correct.)¹⁵

Poor: (1) Stowe (2) Cabell (3) Cooper (4) Poe (5) Norris wrote *Uncle Tom's Cabin*.

(In the above item, a student must read through five alternatives before he knows what the item is about or exactly what the teacher wishes to know.)

Improved: Who wrote *Uncle Tom's Cabin*? (1) Stowe (2) Cabell (3) Cooper (4) Poe (5) Norris.¹⁶

Turning to essay items, Carruthers praises their appropriateness in situations where the teacher of English

wants to measure the student's ability to organize *his own* ideas, his ability to write, to analyze, to judge, to discriminate, to give his own reaction to a work of literature, to create his own literary work, to tell his own experience, all in *his own words*.¹⁷

The construction of essay items brings the teacher face to face with many of the same problems he confronts with short-answer items. For example, this essay item may pose a vocabulary problem for the student, if he does not know the meaning of "succinctly": "Show how the author succinctly gives his views on the subject."¹⁸ Or, an item may be poorly worded, failing to define the problem or to indicate its limits for the student, as in the following case:

Some of the selections we have read have given us an idea of America. Select two books and in each case show

what idea is presented about America.

(This question is subject to several interpretations because it is so general. It also probably lacks reliability; that is, individual students will interpret it in many ways. What phases of American life or ideals should the student discuss? To what extent?)

Here is an improved version of the question:

In some of the selections we have read during this past year, the authors have informed us about America: its ideals, its customs or traditions, its heroes, or its contributions to mankind. Basing your discussion upon one full length biography and one book of non-fiction, which you identify by author and title, show that you have been informed about one or more of the areas mentioned.

The "Improved" version is much more specific than the "Example." A vague generalization is narrowed to aspects with which the student can deal in the time allotted.¹⁹

Examples of good questions on literature can be found in sample tests prepared by the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB) for college-bound students and in sample Co-operative English Tests published by Educational Testing Service. The CEEB tests for grades nine through twelve are extremely useful to the teacher for two reasons. First, they indicate to him what college-bound students can be expected to achieve in each grade when asked to respond to complex literary works — poems, plays, novels, and essays. Second, the tests make it possible for the teacher to compare the standing of his students with that of other high school students. To give the greatest possible assistance to the teacher, the CEEB tests provide full-length sample answers submitted by students of varying abilities, the grades (from 1 to 5) assigned to those answers, and the examiners' explanations of how they arrived at the grades.

The following sample items from the CEEB grade eleven literature tests display the desirable characteristics of good essay-type questions: they are sharply limited in scope, and they furnish the student with directions that are clear and precise, yet brief. The first sample item, consisting of short essay-type questions, is taken from the section that requires the student to write an analysis of an unfamiliar literary passage, in this case a poem entitled "Late Rising":

1. What clues to the subject matter of the poem do you find in the first six lines?
2. What purpose do the following specific details serve?
 - (a) "at six o'clock in the morning" (line 9)
 - (b) "smart" (line 10)
 - (c) "a head the color of dust" (line 11)
3. In the light of the later development of the poem, what added significance do lines 14 and 15 have?
4. What relationship is there between the tempo and sound of words and their meaning in lines 43-54. What effect is the poet trying to create?
5. Why does the tempo change in line 55?
6. Why is it important that the reader be told how the twenty-five cents (two bits) was spent?
7. Why does the author repeat the first six lines of the poem at the end?²⁰

The second sample item, consisting of a long essay question, is taken from the section that requires the student to write an essay about a literary work he has studied:

A theme which writers have examined for centuries is the achievement of self-knowledge (a person's recognition of his own strengths and weaknesses, values and prejudices, aspirations and fears). Inevitably this self-knowledge is achieved only after the person has undergone an ordeal which has forced him to re-examine his own values and those of the world about him.

Directions:

Write an essay in which you show how an author has dealt with this theme in a major work (novel, drama, long narrative poem, or biography). Identify the work and the character you are writing about and be *specific* and *thorough* in your examination of the way the writer has developed this theme. You may need to refer to the action and setting, or to symbolic elements of the work, but you should concentrate on the changes in attitude which the character undergoes. *Show that you understand the nature of his new self-knowledge.*²¹

On the other hand, the Co-operative English tests in literature consist solely of multiple choice items. As mentioned earlier, Caruthers believes that the adaptability of these items makes them the most useful of all short-answer items to the teacher of English. This adaptability is suggested in sample Co-operative English tests measuring reading comprehension and consisting in part of passages accompanied by multiple choice items; for the items range

from those requiring the student to recall a fact to those requiring him to derive interpretations from what he reads. Reproduced below are a few of the items that follow upon a narrative beginning "The day of the Pony Derby was cloudless and still, a perfect day":

- (1) The weather on the day of the Derby was A. windy B. wet
C. cold D. fair
- (2) Mrs. Krug lined up beside Bozo to
A. urge him on.
B. get some exercise.
C. keep him on the track.
D. keep Maybelle from falling off.
- (3) One way this race differed from most horse races is that
A. the slowest pony was to be the winner.
B. all the entries came close to winning.
C. a foot runner accompanied one of the entries.
D. all the ponies went around in a walk.
- (4) The business manager's note probably said that
A. there was not enough money for two \$50 prizes.
B. prizes should be given to all eleven entries.
C. Sunny should get \$100 and Bozo \$50.
D. the race should be cancelled.²³

Incidentally, the CEEB tests are used by a few Canadian universities, and a move is underway at the present time to devise similar nationwide tests in Canada. The project is being financed by a group of Canadian colleges and universities and by the provincial departments of education. With more sophisticated knowledge about testing to guide them, and with material like the CEEB samples before them, the persons responsible for the English tests will no doubt be constantly seeking ways in which to improve the rationale. A better rationale will, of course, go far beyond the mere recall of facts to test, in the fullest sense, the student's responses to literature.

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6. "A Taxonomic Analysis of the English 40, English 91 and English 100 Departmental Examinations," *B.C. English Teacher*, 7 (March 1967), pp. 21-22.
7. *Ibid.*, p. 21.
8. *Ibid.*, p. 23. Italics added.
9. *Ibid.* It may or may not comfort teachers of English to know that much the same situation has been reported concerning testing in history. The tests set by the State Board of Regents of New York came under fire last Spring because they emphasize the recall of facts. After commenting that the tests "[foster] the type of educational emphases generally conceived to be most deadly to classroom interest and student improvement," the writer quotes Gilbert Highet's observation to the effect that the student is forced to see the subject "as a congeries of unrelated little facts . . ." (Henry M. Littlefield, "Who's Afraid of Regents Exams?" in *Teachers College Record*, 68, March 1967, 481).
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The Self-Image and Wish Patterns of the Underachiever

Arthur G. Storey and Ronald B. Clark

SUMMARY

This study set itself the task of investigating the self-image and wish patterns of Grade VII underachievers as compared to those of their achieving peers. The findings indicate that underachievers are significantly more assertive and socially oriented than achievers, and that the latter show greater hostility and affective involvement. Underachievers wish to change in the direction of less social involvement and greater effectiveness, while their achieving counterparts wish for less effectiveness and greater social involvement.

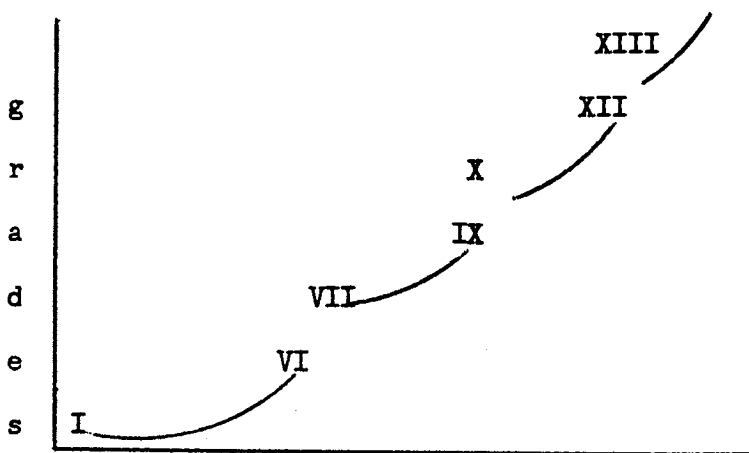
THE PROBLEM

Personality theorists writing both before and after the advent of Allport's extensive work of 1937¹ have maintained that human personality is in large measure a function of the individual's environment and his interaction with it. The role of motivation or endeavour in personality development probably reached its apogee with the work of McClelland² and his colleagues. Havighurst's concept of developmental tasks and the role they play in personality growth would seem to express the trend currently in vogue³. Certainly Maslow's⁴ general concept of the role of motivation and achievement in personality development would contain little to contradict Havighurst or McClelland. Coleman⁵ also stresses the importance of motivation and achievement in personality or, for him, self development.

To the extent that any such sample of personality theorists is right, one might expect to find some measurable correlates between

personality or self development and success and failure, or achievement and nonachievement. Following this reasoning and utilizing a Q-test created for the purpose, Storey investigated the effects of school acceleration and deceleration on some six areas of self and ideal-self development⁶. His findings indicated that when a task is slowed or speeded in a controlled, socially accepted manner to accommodate able and less able children who are motivated to perform that task, the results are beneficial in terms of self development. His more recent study,⁷ designed to investigate the effects of success and non-success in young adult male students, revealed that success is positively related to affective involvement while non-success relates to hostility. This study also revealed that one of the wish outcomes of long term school attendance, regardless of the degree of success, seems to be a desire for increased effectiveness achieved at the expense of social involvement.

Both of these studies were, however, concerned with the relatively long term effects of environment. The question investigated through the present study pertains to the effects of non-success over a much shorter period of time. This non-success phenomenon arises for a proportion of students largely because the gradient of progressive school tasks is neither linear nor continuous. Instead, it is best described as curvilinear in an anti-clockwise direction with breaks at the Grades VII, X and college entrance levels. Diagrammatically it might be represented as:



It is largely because of the nature of this gradient, then, that a given student may be achieving satisfactorily at one level but begins to exhibit underachievement in the early stages of the next. It may be either because he is unable to bridge the gap between the two levels and/or because he is unable to produce at the increased rate demanded at the higher level.

For the purpose of the present study it is assumed that, if there are any self development repercussions resulting from what may be a shock or minor trauma of this relatively sudden and unexpected failure to achieve, they will be most easily detected at the Grade VII level because the subjects are still in the formative stage of development and because their defences against adversities are not yet fully operative.

SUBJECTS AND TESTING

At the conclusion of the first reporting period after some ten weeks of the school year has elapsed it is customary in a number of Calgary, Alberta schools for a committee consisting of at least the principal, guidance counselor, and home room teacher to identify those students who are underachieving. Students so selected are referred to the counselor for interview and guidance. The total number of Grade VII students so referred in a representative Calgary Junior High School comprises the experimental subjects for the current study. The control group consists of a random sample of their peers who were not considered to be underachievers.

Both the i (I am) and w (I wish I were) forms of *The Q-Tags Personality Test*⁸ were administered to both experimental and control subjects as a non-segregated group. Form i was given first with form w following four days later in order to compromise between memory for card placement in the i sort and change in the phenomena measured before the w form was administered. TABLE I gives the results obtained from this testing.

TREATMENT OF DATA

An analysis of variance treatment of the data given in TABLE I indicated that there were significant intergroup differences ($P < .01$) in the mean i sort scores. The same technique indicated the presence of significant intragroup differences ($P < .01$) in mean w sort scores. t's or critical ratios of the differences were then calculated in order to locate specific areas and magnitude of these differences.

TABLE I
Q-TAGS SCORES OBTAINED ON BOTH GROUPS

TEST FORMS	Factor	GROUPS							
		<i>Experimental</i>				<i>Control</i>			
		Girls N = 20		Boys N = 20		Girls N = 35		Boys N = 31	
		$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
i	<i>Affective</i>	48.1	8.53	46.9	9.61	60.5	8.46	62.9	8.97
	<i>Assertive</i>	59.0	6.08	61.6	8.87	45.3	7.97	43.1	7.41
	<i>Effective</i>	52.5	7.27	53.1	7.25	53.5	8.62	55.1	8.19
	<i>Hostility</i>	48.1	8.31	47.2	9.77	61.9	10.10	63.9	7.89
	<i>Reverie</i>	54.9	10.35	52.9	8.46	57.5	9.18	52.7	7.34
	<i>Social</i>	63.5	6.02	63.6	6.88	44.7	9.39	45.7	7.94
w	<i>Affective</i>	49.9	5.66	46.9	8.66	59.1	7.17	61.6	8.25
	<i>Assertive</i>	64.3	8.22	63.2	8.17	45.1	8.68	44.4	7.73
	<i>Effective</i>	59.7	6.13	61.2	8.79	47.4	8.13	45.8	7.46
	<i>Hostility</i>	48.0	7.45	43.6	8.82	59.6	7.65	60.5	6.93
	<i>Reverie</i>	48.9	3.38	52.4	6.36	57.9	6.26	56.6	7.80
	<i>Social</i>	54.6	7.02	54.5	8.02	54.5	6.21	56.6	7.59

TABLE II
SIGNIFICANT INTERGROUP DIFFERENCES IN i
SCORE MEANS IN TERMS OF t

FACTOR	GIRLS		BOYS	
	Underachievers	Achievers	Underachievers	Achievers
<i>Affective</i>		5.14** ↑		5.97** ↑
<i>Assertive</i>	↑	6.92**	↑	7.74**
<i>Effective</i>		5.31** ↑		6.44** ↑
<i>Hostility</i>				
<i>Reverie</i>				
<i>Social</i>	↑	8.66**	↑	8.84**

↑ indicates group scoring significantly higher

** significant at or above .01

Since, as per the data given in TABLE II, the experimental and control subjects "wished" from different "I am" bases, it is not appropriate to compare the intergroup wish scores. However, a comparison of intragroup i and w scores might reveal some worthwhile insights.* TABLE III gives those intragroup mean differences which proved to be different from each other.

TABLE III

t's OF MEAN i VERSUS MEAN w SCORES FOR ALL SUBGROUPS

FACTOR	UNDERACHIEVERS		ACHIEVERS	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
<i>Affective</i>	—	—	—	—
<i>Assertive</i>	w 2.31	—	—	—
<i>Effective</i>	w 3.38	w 3.19	i 3.05	i 4.67
<i>Hostility</i>	—	—	—	—
<i>Reverie</i>	i 2.46	—	—	w 2.01
<i>Social</i>	i 4.30	i 4.36**	w 5.15	w 5.53**

i — difference favors i mean

w — difference favors w mean

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The data compiled in TABLE II indicates that both under-achieving girls and boys described themselves as more assertive and socially oriented than do their control peers. The controls describe themselves as more affective and hostile than do their under-achieving peers. These significant differences between the two groups would seem to suggest a difference in task orientation. The underachievers would seem to be concentrating on being assertively social while their achieving grademates' affective and hostile in-

* Since an assumption of equal intragroups i and w factor scores is not tenable, it is not appropriate to consider the score differences reported in TABLE III as statistically significant in spite of the fact that they are reported as t's. When norms for the Q-tags instrument have been established, one might test for significance of differences of various scores from such norms. In the meantime, the differences reported in TABLE III must be interpreted as differential points in a profile for which norms have not been established.

volvement was probably motivating them to greater academic effort. That is, the group that was to underachieve began junior high school with an effort to make friends, while their peers, driven by emotional involvement (affect and hostility), concentrated on their learning tasks.

The lack of satisfactions obtained from, or a change in the belief of the rightness of, this "I am" state of affairs would seem to be inherent in the wish changes expressed through the data contained in TABLE III. Here again the underachievers and achievers differentiate between their two groups to a high degree. Under-achievers of both sexes seem to wish for greater effectiveness and less social involvement; wishes that seem to indicate dissatisfaction with their concentration on being assertively social. The girls in this group also wish for still greater assertiveness (now probably in an academic direction) and less involvement in reverie.

In contrast to the underachievers, those who are achieving satisfactorily want to trade some of their effectiveness for greater social involvement which seems to suggest dissatisfaction with their concentration on academic work.

Boys in the achieving group wish for greater reverie involvement, while underachieving girls wish for less distractions of this nature.

It is interesting that members of neither group nor any of the sex subgroups wish to change their degree of affective or hostility involvement — the two areas that differentiated them through their i sort scores.

A logical conclusion for the school and its counselor to draw from the findings of the present study would seem to be that under-achieving Grade VII students might be profitably oriented in the direction of greater emotional involvement in academic tasks accompanied by a corresponding withdrawal from social pursuits. At the same time achievers might be cautioned against concentrating on the achievement of their wish for greater social involvement.

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Elsie Persson

The Suzuki Approach to Violin Playing

In recent years, serious concern over the shortage of rising young string players to fill orchestral chairs has frequently been expressed both in the United States and in Canada. However stringed instruments in general, and the violin in particular, have always presented a challenge to the enthusiast, both student and teacher. Early violin pedagogues such as John Playford (in seventeenth century England) and Michel Corrette (in early eighteenth century France), suggested various ways of playing the instrument. Gemianini was the first (1740) among the Italian violinists to publish a method of violin playing, most of which was concerned with his version of the correct way to hold the instrument and the bow.¹

But it was Leopold Mozart, better known as the father of the wonder child and genius composer, Wolfgang Mozart, who published in 1756 the delightful "Treatise on the Fundamental Principles of Violin Playing." Many of the ideas set forth in this treatise are still useful today, although the instrument and bow have changed somewhat. The elder Mozart insisted on a pupil's grasping the theory of the written score and understanding note values, terms and signs, before commencing to play.

It is necessary that the beginner, before the teacher puts the violin into his hands, should impress not only the present chapter, but also the following two on his memory, [these three early chapters on the theory of music] as otherwise, if the eager pupil stretches both hands out for the violin at the beginning, learns this piece or that quickly

by ear, surveys the foundations superficially, and rashly shuts his eyes to the first rules, he will certainly never make up for his neglect, and will therefore stand in his own path to the achievement of a perfect stage of musical knowledge... Time makes melody, therefore time is the soul of music. Time decides the moment when the various notes must be played, and is often that which is lacking in many who otherwise have advanced fairly far in music and have a good opinion of themselves.³

The work of lesser known eighteenth century teachers such as L'Abbe le Fils and Lochlein contributed towards the development of violin technique as we know it today, while the unconventional playing of Paganini holds a unique position in violin history.³ The nineteenth century schools of Dancla and of Charles deBeriot were closely related to old French method, yet they exerted a great influence upon the teaching methods of the twentieth century. The Leopold Auer Violin School⁴ has influenced the education of violinists in the United States since early in the twentieth century, and in Europe, the methods of Ottaker Sevcik⁵ and of Carl Flesch⁶ have dominated. Artists such as Elman and Heifetz, Francescatti and Milstein, to name but a few, are products of one or other of these schools.

It may be said of all the artists and master teachers mentioned above that, while they differed widely as to their techniques in playing the instrument, they all agreed with Leopold Mozart that the child should understand the written notation before beginning to play the instrument. (The child Mozart was the notable exception!)

Today, parents who wish their children to have a musical education no longer seem to favour the violin, for with conventional methods and graded drill studies, it simply takes too long for the child to attain mastery. The piano, the clarinet, or almost any instrument other than a stringed one, offers reasonably quick success in this fast-moving, do-it-yourself world. Indeed, the young violin student, has much to contend with. He has been lampooned for years by cartoonists so that his friends regard him as an object of pity, if not of ridicule. What is more, the frustration and boredom experienced by so many are enough to atrophy the talent of even the musically gifted child. The total effect has been to discourage all but the most devoted string enthusiasts.

Could there not be a musically intelligent and rewarding way to learn the violin? Dr. Shinichi Suzuki seems to think so.

SUZUKI AND HIS TEACHING PRINCIPLES

In Japan, over eight thousand children have learned to play the violin, thanks to the genius and leadership of Suzuki who, with a staff of one hundred and twenty teachers, has created a generation of string players. The children, at a phenomenally early age, play so well that it is a pleasure for themselves and a joy for their listeners. "The teaching of Shinichi Suzuki is perhaps the most significant contribution to music education in the first half of this century," states Paul Rolland, Professor of Music at the University of Illinois. "Here is creative teaching at its best, based on the love for children and an unshakable conviction as to their musical potential," comments Carl Schultz. "The concepts of child readiness, tonal beauty of string instruments, ear training and complete mastery combined with the joy of learning through discovery and creative repetition have been developed to a high degree."

Suzuki contends that all children are "educated" to speak their native language with the utmost fluency, acquiring this facility, this tremendous working vocabulary both voiced and understood, at a very early age simply by imitation. He claims that no child able to talk fluently is born tone deaf, or he would never learn his mother tongue with all its many intonations. Suzuki experimented by playing a fine recording to infants, day after day, and became convinced that, after a few months, the child had "learned" the melody — that is, that he had a tonal memory of it. These experiments conducted over many years led Suzuki to conclude that every child is born with musical aptitudes; that while some adjust to a superior degree, no child is born tone deaf though he may have been made to seem that way through improper training.

If the child, then, were caught early enough, could not his ear, so quick to pick up and select all of the words and phrases necessary to make himself understood, be also trained to listen for beautiful sounds? Could he not be taught to reproduce these sounds on a stringed instrument which he learned to handle by watching his teacher, his mother and his friends play? For reinforcement, could he not listen to the same pieces played each day on a fine recording, so that he might be encouraged to try to imitate the beautiful sounds that he hears?

Suzuki put these questions to the test, experimenting with groups of very young children, using rhythmic games and exercises designed to prepare the ears, eyes and hands for the skills to be acquired. Meantime he taught the children to play simple melodies. The children listened to the artist teacher and later at home, to recordings of the pieces they played. Each child was given individual lessons to ensure the correct techniques and his mother carried on the work between sessions. Just as she gently corrected mispronunciation, so she helped the teacher to mould the child's muscles until he had a fine posture and the bow and violin under control. Many of the lessons were given out-of-doors. Other children, at play, gathered around to listen and quickly learned from their peers how to handle the bow and violin.

Now Suzuki's pupils, and those of his colleagues, are trained from their earliest years to search continually for a refined expression of the stringed instrument tone. This search, in addition to awakening a desire to produce a beautiful sound, builds up an extraordinary awareness of accuracy of pitch. "Many six-year olds play with the accuracy, clarity and warmth that is rarely expected of students three times their age," writes Carl Schultz.⁹ The Japanese child who often begins violin lessons at the age of two and a half has been successful at all age levels with this new method. Dr. Suzuki's youngest pupil is eighteen months old; his oldest is seventy-six years!

A Talent Education Movement, called Project Super, is at present underway in the United States with Dr. Suzuki acting as supervisor. The country has been divided into zones with a coordinator for each area and string specialists recruited for summer workshop sessions. Many string teachers, including Americans and Canadians, have gone to Japan on study tours. Suzuki has visited and conducted workshop sessions in a number of American cities, illustrating his principles with a concert group of Japanese children. Anyone who was fortunate enough to have heard one of these groups from Japan who, with Dr. Suzuki, presented a concert in Montreal last October, can have no doubt as to the effectiveness of the Suzuki method.

A key factor in the progress of the Talent Education program is the insistence that the learner gains complete mastery of one piece or level of achievement before advancing to the next level, but always retaining, perfecting and polishing the material already

learned. Schultz explains:

This approach presents a great challenge to teachers, parents and students to discover new and interestingly effective forms of reinforcement through the use of creative repetition. Every lesson and practice period becomes an exciting venture, mutually beneficial to the child and to the teacher. With the understanding that the lesson will cover the music a student has memorized, the teacher is free to emphasize artistic interpretation, rather than purely technical matters.¹⁰

The ultimate success of the Suzuki method devolves, of course, upon the teacher. As Leopold Auer so wisely said, "There are no good methods; there are only good teachers." But Auer was dealing with putting a "fiendish polish" on already proficient artists, not with the pre-school child!

AN EXPERIMENT WITH THE SUZUKI METHOD

In September of 1966, the writer undertook to organize a pilot group of ten children at Macdonald College of McGill University. The children, from average suburban homes in the area, were tested for quickness of aural perception, ability to sing in tune, response to rhythm, and coordinative facility. The average age of the six boys and four girls was five years. Each child was given an instrument of the appropriate size (they are available in sizes as small as a thirty-second), as well as a recording of the first pieces he was to attempt. Lessons began in the late autumn although the instruments were not available until just before Christmas. Three lessons per week on an individual basis proved to be a good working schedule but there were also opportunities for ensemble playing every second week.

The early lessons, given to the group as a whole, called for responses to various rhythms, chanting and clapping, rhythmic games and adopting the correct stance and holding positions to numbers. Meanwhile, the mothers were taught to hold the violin correctly, and to draw the bow with confidence, producing a clear pleasant tone on open strings. Once a mother had achieved this — and often before — her child demanded that he be allowed to try. This involved his adopting the correct posture and his solving all the coordinating problems involved in bowing techniques. Meantime, he was hearing each day, at home, a recording of the folk songs that he was expected to learn. It was not long before he

was eager to "try to find the melody" on the strings. He soon learned that a certain finger on a certain string produced a specific note. His joy in discovering that he could play the melody with the bow as well was so infectious that others tried to emulate him.

Some children were more successful than others in mastering the necessary skills. The girls found it less difficult to acquire the playing techniques than did some of the small boys whose powers of coordination mature somewhat later. (Girls far outnumber boys in the Japanese classes.) The problems encountered were as varied as they were interesting. Bad habits were picked up very readily but were almost as readily dismissed and supplanted by better ones. Holding the instrument up for longer than thirty seconds proved difficult at first, but the time was stretched very gently until five minutes became practical. Drawing the bow at right angles to the string and at the desired distance from the bridge, absolutely essential in producing a pleasant tone, proved a real hurdle for most children and the writer was often hard put to it to devise new ways to encourage this result. Little fingers, lacking strength and individual control had to learn how to function independently and accurately and to seek out the sound that most closely resembled that provided by the model. The self-discipline acquired by these youngsters was so remarkable that they soon demanded a perfection, not only of their peers, but of themselves. Not the least reward was the improved performance, both in accuracy of pitch and in beauty of tone.

Once the initial difficulties of coordination, of bowing and left hand techniques, intonation and good tone were mastered, progress was very rapid. By spring, the children were able to play several folk songs in unison, in rounds, in "question and answer," in various rhythms and in various keys. They played for a number of elementary school assemblies in the area and at Expo'67 in May. Audience reaction varied from disbelief to tearful enthusiasm.

CONVENTIONAL VS THE SUZUKI APPROACH

Many violin teachers, trained in the schools of Sevcik, Auer, Flesch or Galamian, to name those whose influence affects most of today's artists and teachers, are frankly skeptical about the unconventional approach to violin teaching that Suzuki employs. Their chief objection lies in the fact that the child is not immediately concerned with learning to read music. Galamian says, "Among

the absolute values are (a) the necessity for total technical control and (b) the requisite of completely unqualified knowledge of the music to be played in all of its details, including a thorough understanding of its harmonic and formal structure."¹¹

However, since Suzuki understands the pre-school child's need to imitate his elders and peers both aurally and manually, he postpones the translation of the written symbol into sound until the child can read his own verbal language with facility. Those who follow conventional methods usually believe in waiting until a child is older before permitting him to handle the violin, arguing that he had neither the coordination nor the ability to concentrate successfully. They recall that attempts to train little children to play the violin have been made before this, but they have nearly always failed (except in cases like those of wonder children like Mozart, Heifetz or Menuhin), since the teachers were attempting to force the small child out of his natural depth, where he was incapable of coping with the complexities all served up to him at once. Yet Suzuki has conceived an approach to violin playing, where the child simply reflects the world of music around him. Thus by the time a student, starting later and trained by conventional methods, is playing reasonably well, the Suzuki-trained child is often capable of artistic performance at the concerto level.

Although it is too early to give a final estimate of the success of Project Super in the United States, the enthusiastic reception of the approach is undeniable. The writer has heard groups from Rochester, N.Y., from Long Island and Boston, whose results are most encouraging. Miss Yvonne Tait, 'cello teacher on the Faculty of Music of the University of Oregon, has adapted the Suzuki system to young students of the 'cello at the Grade Three level, and has found, in a class of one hundred and eighty children, a tremendous surge forward in interest and in musicianship. The system is being enthusiastically used at all grade levels of both elementary and high schools, right across the United States and in many cities throughout Canada. Jean Cousineau, for example, at the Cardinal Leger Institute in Montreal, has one hundred children varying in age from three to fourteen years studying the violin. Cousineau employs the psychological principles of Suzuki, but uses original materials.

In an era when leisure time is beginning to pose real problems, ought we not see to it that our children be given opportunities to

gain skills that will allow them to take pride in their accomplishments, to develop their musical potential, to cultivate their artistic leaning; "to graduate them," as Suzuki says, "as human beings!" And he adds, "Teach a child to play in a Mozart quartet and he will never go to jail!"

Suzuki is not alone in this faith in music. When Pablo Casals visited Japan some three years ago, on the occasion of a great violin festival in which hundreds of children played an astonishingly beautiful program, he was heard to exclaim, "It may very well be that music will save the world!"¹²

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BOOK REVIEWS

Jonathan Kozol. *Death at an Early Age: The Destruction of the Hearts and Minds of Negro Children in the Boston Public Schools.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1967. 240 pp.

When, untrained and inexperienced, Jonathan Kozol became a substitute teacher in the Boston Public Schools, his classroom was the corner of an auditorium between two broken windows and a torn stage curtain. The other Fourth Grade used the opposite corner, and the middle was occupied by the Glee Club, the play rehearsals, and the various remedial classes. When a pane of glass blew out in a storm, that window remained open all winter, but it was replaced when a TV company came to visit.

The pupils were mainly colored children. In Boston. In 1967.

The school cellar smelled of urine. That was where emotional and troublesome children were whipped. The stick was flexible, light and quick. "When you do it, you want to snap it abruptly or else you are not going to get the kind of effect you want," one teacher advised.

Worse, far worse, than peeling paint and urine smell was the false learning the children acquired: their own inferiority. When they entered school, their achievement levels were about normal; with each year of schooling they dropped lower. The school itself killed its children.

Jonathan Kozol is an angry teacher who had the courage to make a stand against the system, lose his job because of it, but bring the issues to public attention. In his book pupils, teachers, parents, and school administrators stand out vividly alive, and each significant incident is documented with precise date and place and published account.

Have you wondered why there were riots in the cities in 1967?

Have you wondered about our own Indian and Eskimo schools?

In Boston. In 1967.

Daisy MacNeill

D. K. Wheeler. *Curriculum Process*. London: University of London Press, 1967. 314 pp. \$8.

In his preface, Dr. Wheeler describes the purpose of his book as "an attempt to lay out guidelines for a first approximation to a rationale whereby curriculum problems may be systematically considered." He suggests that the two major influences in producing it were his contacts with Professor Hilda Taba during his 1956 research as Fulbright Scholar, and the need made clear during two years as professor of Curriculum Development (at the Regional Centre for Advanced Training of Superior Educational Personnel in Arab States) in Beirut "to elucidate, across barriers of language and culture, tentative principles and procedures which might be adopted by countries in the process of building up, enlarging or changing educational systems" (p. 5).

Curriculum Process certainly presents a systematic analysis and some synthesis of major theories and models of curriculum building proposed by American and British workers in the field over the last fifty years. How far the "tentative principles" derived from these sources can "cross barriers of language and culture," and might offer valid guidelines to areas such as the Arab States must be left to a critic with a broader knowl-

edge than the reviewer of sociological and educational conditions in these areas.

In his opening chapters, Wheeler examines first the standard cyclic model of simple curriculum process, moving from aims, goals and objectives, through selection of learning experiences, selection of content and organization of learning experiences to evaluation, which in turn leads to refinement of original aims and objectives. He then presents and compares some of the broad schemata offered as foundations for curricular development, including Bloom's *Taxonomy*, Tykociner's zetetic principles, and Phenix's *Realms of Meaning* approach.

The bulk of the book consists of detailed development of each of the phases of the original curriculum process model. Chapter Eight illustrates the development of one of these phases, "Selection of Content." Forty-nine pages explore the relationship of behavioural goals to content, three suggested levels or stages in selection, and criteria of selection. The discussion is liberally illustrated with approaches and points of view from curriculum theory and current practice, and the thesis is based heavily on Bloom and Taba.

M. F. L. Horton

John Holt. *How Children Learn*. New York: Pitman Publishing Corporation, 1967. 189 pp. \$US 4.95.

John Holt states that his aim in writing this book is to persuade educators and psychologists "... to look at children patiently, repeatedly, respectfully, and to hold off making theories and judgments about them until they have in their minds what most of them do not now have — a reasonably accurate knowledge of what children are like" (p. 178). It seems to this reviewer, at least, that he has achieved his purpose, i.e. he has enabled his readers to look at some of the children *he* has observed, both in and out of school, and thereby to form judgments based, perhaps, on more reasonably accurate knowledge of children than is possible from the mere study of theories about them.

The perennial problem for those who are engaged in teacher education is how to relate theory and practice. It is becoming increasingly evident that in order to understand children and how they learn and are motivated to learn, student teachers must have time to *observe* children. This is not often possible for the hundreds of students in a college of education, but John Holt makes it possible through his books — this, and his earlier one entitled *How Children Fail*.

There is the added obvious advantage that his observations are permanently recorded, so that one can return again and again to look at what a certain child did in a given situation, and possibly gain new insights into how children do, in fact, learn.

A first reaction to this book, especially after *How Children Fail*, might be one of impatience — the author does not appear to be saying anything new. In a sense this is true. The theme of Holt's second book is little more than a repetition, or a re-emphasis of that expressed in his earlier book — that children fail, or that *education fails them*, for "they are afraid, bored and confused" (p. xiii); that they learn when they are allowed "to use their natural desire to explore the new and unknown and to gain some control over it" (p. 127), without being forced to go faster than they are ready to go.

It could be argued that this apparent weakness in writing a second book to affirm what has been stated rather forcefully in the first one is, in fact, a strength. For what Holt has done since the 1963 publication is to continue to observe, teach and work with children, and to

record the results of this observation. His earlier work was centred primarily on fifth grade children, but here attention is focused equally on pre-schoolers, and he has come to the same conclusions about teaching and learning. He reveals through his own attempts to achieve "results" with children how easy it is to fall into the instruction trap: to have a specific goal in mind, "to think we know the best way to get there; but the child knows and will tell us if we but let him."

Allan Fromme, who wrote the introduction to *How Children Fail*, made the statement, "We cannot legislate sensitivity into existence . . . only by specific, concrete examples can we encourage teachers to learn to see their pupils, not their subject matter" (p. x). This is the service that John Holt renders — he helps us to *see* children, and hopefully, to continue to question some of our practices which impede, rather than aid the learning process.

Ruth M. Duncan

The Scottish Council for Research in Education. *The Scottish Standardisation of WISC*. London: University of London Press, 1967. 72 pp. \$2.30.

We are rapidly getting used to the idea that large scale, worthwhile research in education is very expensive, but for many years the Scottish Council for Research in Education has been showing that in certain circumstances this is not necessarily so. This little book describes a piece of work carried out with a high degree of sophistication by competent researchers and with very little cost for professional labour.

For some time the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children has been widely used in Scotland both as a clinical tool and for the assessment of general intelligence. For this latter purpose, however, some anxiety has been

felt over the adequacy of the American norms, so that the Council was urged to undertake a Scottish standardisation. This it did through a committee consisting of university and college of education teachers, practicing psychologists, the Director of the Council and one Research Officer.

With the encouragement of its author, the WISC was administered to a one-day sample of the total population of Scottish school children between the ages of five and twelve years. This comprised about 200 children per age group and some 2000 in all. Testers were all volunteers. They were mainly educational psy-

chologists working for local education authorities, supplemented by university and college of education teachers and by a number of students who were given special training and experience and were drafted to areas where there were insufficient qualified testers. Such is the status of the Council and relationship between it and educational practitioners in Scotland, that there was complete cooperation, not only from directors of education and heads of schools in the public section, but also from the grant-aided and independent schools.

The main finding of the enquiry is that Scottish norms are not, in general, substantially different from American ones. There are small differences in individual sub-tests which may reflect cultural differences or differences in teaching method:

Scottish children are, for example, superior at arithmetic, American at object assembly, but these differences tend to disappear at about twelve years. The findings are in line with those of Kennedy Fraser's Scottish standardisation of the Terman-Merrill revision of the Stanford-Binet Test in 1945 and will give no comfort to extreme environmentalists who might have predicted considerable discrepancies between the norms in the two countries.

The Scottish Council for Research is to be congratulated on this publication, but one cannot help wondering whether it was shortage of funds which caused the gap of five years between completion of the testing and publication of the Report. If it was, this is a great pity.

L. B. Birch

K. A. MacKirdy, J. S. Moir and Y. F. Zoltvany. *Changing Perspectives In Canadian History*. Don Mills, Ontario: J. M. Dent & Sons (Canada) Ltd., 1967. 373 pp. \$3.85.

This collection of twenty-one study units, ranging from the nature of freedom in New France to the Quiet Revolution, is designed to supplement, rather than replace, a basic text. The number of units is arranged to provide one per week during the average academic year. Each unit identifies problems and

presents the student with evidence from primary sources to substantiate conflicting judgments of past historians. The selection of problems, based on historical importance, the editors' personal areas of interest and research, and current relevance, is generally satisfactory. A select bibliographical note at

the conclusion of each unit adds to the value of this book for the student and teacher of Canadian history.

Y. F. Zoltvany's preparation of the first four problems on New France sets a standard of excellence difficult to match. His capacity for clear exposition and careful selection is further demonstrated in his presentation of two units in the post-Confederation era. The contrasting responses to "The Struggle for La Survivance" are expressed through the thoughts and writings of H. Mercier, J.-P. Tardivel, and H. Bourassa. The responses of these three men in turn are placed against those of two contemporary "chers ennemis," Michael Brunet and Pierre Elliot Trudeau. Professor Zoltvany's rational approach to Duplessis and the formation of L'Union Nationale gives a needed historical perspective to the "Quiet Revolution." A passage from the program of L'Action Liberale Nationale suggests that the economic aspirations of the revolution pre-date 1960 considerably. A comparison of the writings of St. Denys Garneau and Pierre Elliot Trudeau underlines the admirable humanist element in the revolution.

J. S. Moir's success in the difficult task of selecting and presenting problems during the

British regime common to the various British North American colonies results in a well-documented clash of opinion far from dull. Unfortunately we have to wait until the post-Confederation era to benefit from Professor Moir's valuable knowledge and research of the relationship between church and state, a subject deserving attention in the pre-Confederation period as well. Mention of the peculiar New Brunswick experience may have added depth to the unit on "Responsible Government."

Perhaps the paucity of Canadian historiography in the post-Confederation era accounts for K. A. MacKirdy's failure to maintain the standard set by Professors Zoltvany and Moir. However, neither Confederation nor the National Policy have suffered a dearth of scholarship or failed to generate debate and diversity of opinion. Professor MacKirdy's failure to consider seriously R. Craig Brown's challenging thesis on the National Policy detracts from the value of this unit. The author's narrative of that rather tiresome story of "Colony to Kingdom" adds little to our understanding, nor does it bring any new perspective. Finally, Professor MacKirdy's treatment of sectional conflict in the inter-war period leaves much to be desired. His failure to see

this period as one of general revolt, social and moral, as well as economic and political, rebellion in the centre (Quebec: L'Action Française and L'Union Nationale; Ontario: United Farmers of Ontario and Hepburn's Liberals) as well as in the extremities,

ignores the complexity of this era. In short, Professor MacKirdy's work gives this otherwise excellent collection an unfortunate and undeserving weakness.

Carman Miller
Dept. of History

James J. Shields, Jr. *Education in Community Development — Its Function In Technical Assistance*. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, Inc., 1967. 150 pp. \$10.

Education in Community Development is one of the Praeger Special Studies, a series of specialized research monographs on U.S. and international affairs. The purpose of this particular volume is "to analyze the philosophy, the functions, and the operations of the United States technical assistance activities in the field of community development in order to discover the role education plays in intergovernmental programs in community development" (p. 114). In compiling the work, the author, who is Assistant Professor at the City College of the University of New York, has drawn upon his doctoral research studies, including a vast literature on international development, U.S. government reports and departmental files, as well as his own experience in East Africa during 1961-62. His competent treatment of this comprehensive data

helps bring much-needed order to a burgeoning field of educational endeavour.

The first part of the book gives some historical background to U.S. aid programs and deals with their overseas staff; the second half includes an analysis of community development as an educational process, a description of the training programs, and a discussion of the educational aspects of advisory assistance. A touchstone for the first part is the "Guidelines" developed by the International Cooperation Agency in 1956 which established the U.S. approach to community development. "The 'Guidelines' contain in one form or another the principles of national support, the training of community development workers, the self-help concept, and the commitment to democratic values and processes" (p. 13). The basis for the second part of this

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work is the broad approach to education which is defined not as schooling but as "the transference of skills, knowledge, and attitudes." Dr. Shields writes:

In most developing countries, there are vast areas where schools do not exist, or if they do exist, they are totally inadequate. The important question in these areas is not how to relate the school to community development, but rather how the educational process can be set in motion without benefit of a school. A distinction between the meaning of education and schooling has to be made before the problem this latter question presents can be solved (p. 55).

Underlying the whole work is

the premise that human development is the important thing, and that when people develop, other forms of social improvement follow.

Though it does not attempt to evaluate the U.S. efforts in community development, this book provides a neat summary of both ideals and programs and should prove useful to Canadian authorities engaged in overseas educational aid. It might have had appeal for wider audiences if it had had the benefit of more perceptive editing — doctoral studies, even in hard covers, rarely make for elegant prose.

Margaret Gillett

James A. Smith. *Creative Teaching of the Language Arts in the Elementary School*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1964. 304 pp., paper.

Iris M. Tiedt and Sidney W. Tiedt. *Contemporary English in the Elementary School*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967. 376 pp. \$US 7.50.

Lillian M. Logan and Virgil G. Logan. *A Dynamic Approach to Language Arts*. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Company of Canada, 1967. 551 pp.

One salutary aspect of the McLuhanizing of North America is that it has brought into clear focus all the communication arts, and has provoked a fresh concept of their interrelatedness — an emphasis which was conspicuously absent during the long years of a subject oriented

curriculum.

In the three books under review, there is a heartening integration of the language arts, a perception of the totality necessary to produce the creativity which is the central aim of all the authors — that is, the need "to develop divergency of think-

work is the broad approach to education which is defined not as schooling but as "the transference of skills, knowledge, and attitudes." Dr. Shields writes:

In most developing countries, there are vast areas where schools do not exist, or if they do exist, they are totally inadequate. The important question in these areas is not how to relate the school to community development, but rather how the educational process can be set in motion without benefit of a school. A distinction between the meaning of education and schooling has to be made before the problem this latter question presents can be solved (p. 55).

Underlying the whole work is

the premise that human development is the important thing, and that when people develop, other forms of social improvement follow.

Though it does not attempt to evaluate the U.S. efforts in community development, this book provides a neat summary of both ideals and programs and should prove useful to Canadian authorities engaged in overseas educational aid. It might have had appeal for wider audiences if it had had the benefit of more perceptive editing — doctoral studies, even in hard covers, rarely make for elegant prose.

Margaret Gillett

James A. Smith. *Creative Teaching of the Language Arts in the Elementary School*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1964. 304 pp., paper.

Iris M. Tiedt and Sidney W. Tiedt. *Contemporary English in the Elementary School*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967. 376 pp. \$US 7.50.

Lillian M. Logan and Virgil G. Logan. *A Dynamic Approach to Language Arts*. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Company of Canada, 1967. 551 pp.

One salutary aspect of the McLuhanizing of North America is that it has brought into clear focus all the communication arts, and has provoked a fresh concept of their interrelatedness — an emphasis which was conspicuously absent during the long years of a subject oriented

curriculum.

In the three books under review, there is a heartening integration of the language arts, a perception of the totality necessary to produce the creativity which is the central aim of all the authors — that is, the need "to develop divergency of think-

ing in children" which will result in "originality, perceptive thinking and inventiveness" (Tiedt, p. 68).

By what specific methods do the writers translate the ideal into realistic classroom techniques? Implicit in all three books is Jerome Bruner's assertion that "we begin with the hypothesis that any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest forms to a child at any stage of development" (Tiedt, p. 8), and that "creativity is the integrating thread the teacher employs to weave the strands of the curriculum areas into a harmonious design for the self-realization of the children he teaches" (Logan, p. 26). A spiral curriculum which evolves so as to permit pupils the "opportunity to develop increasingly complex skills in language growth," and "provides, too, for individual differences" (Logan, p. 36) is the foundation for the program. This demands variability and flexibility in both pupils and teachers, or as Tiedt puts it, "Don't be afraid to be different. There are too many conformists and not enough non-conformists in the teaching ranks" (p. 82).

Smith's book is a paperback and, rather unfortunately, is one of a series. Since it does not treat reading, it is not as inclusive as the other two. It is frankly a text book, with illus-

trations of the various concepts, followed at the end of each chapter by questions and discussion for students, and finally by a selected bibliography. Even to the cartoons, it is predictable and popular. In contrast to the Tiedts' book, it seems to lack professionalism and imagination for, despite the author's almost exaggerated definition of creativity, it is overly prescriptive and, at times, trite.

The Tiedts' book is impressive in scope and forward-looking in attitude. It covers all the language arts, including an excellent chapter on "Reading as a Language Skill" in which the authors declare that "it is time that we acknowledge the value of provocative material in exciting the student about reading" (p. 288). A sentiment with which many a *Dick and Jane* sated teacher and parent would agree. A chapter on "English for the Disadvantaged Child" and one on "Innovation in English" look into the future of the language arts program and examine the relevance of linguistics and the communications media in the teaching of English.

More conservative in style than Tiedts', the Logans' work has, nevertheless, commendable scope and linguistic orientation. "Central to this book is the concept that creative communication, the goal of the language

arts, is attained best through the nurture of each child's creative potential melded with the linguistic skills essential to his purpose" (p. viii). They assert that "all too frequently language arts texts lead to drill and mechanics of grammar [and] the child is propelled into writing long before his eyes are filled with print and his ears with words" (p. v). Their approach is a carefully planned sequence of language skills from listening and speech, to an excellent chap-

ter on reading and finally to the more mechanical aspects of language teaching such as spelling, punctuation and handwriting. Despite its scholarship and carefully documented research, however, I find the presentation somewhat heavy-handed. It lacks the spark and innovation of the Tiedts' and I found, also, the location of footnotes at the end of the chapter more frustrating than helpful.

Mary Bews

Garth J. Blackman. *The Deviant Child in the Classroom.* Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1967. 191 pp.

This book is addressed to the classroom teacher, and its content is meaningful for the teacher who is attempting to understand and deal with deviant children within the normal class situation. Dr. Blackham has drawn upon his extensive experience in working with children and teachers as a psychological consultant for public schools, and upon his role as a university professor in Teacher and Counselor Education.

While the book is focused upon maladaptive behavior of children, the school as a therapeutic agent, and techniques applicable to specific types of problems, the first portion is di-

rected to a discussion of psychosocial development generally. The author's bias is toward a psychoanalytic approach, but he utilizes the notion of the self concept and Maslow's hierarchy of needs to great advantage. In his analysis of maladaptive behavior, Dr. Blackham presents a typology of disorders. He describes primary behavior disorders, psychoneurotic disorders, psychosomatic disorders, and psychotic disorders. While the typology is standard, the discussion is unique in that it relates these classifications to the behavior of children and thus enables the reader to use the typology as a practical framework for study-

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ing and identifying children with problems.

Blackham shows that the school functions as a therapeutic agent. The principal sets the tone of human relationships likely to be found in the school. His contacts with parents, but especially with teachers, tend to set a pattern or model for the rapport that develops with children. The teacher's relationships with children are an extension of the teacher's personality and needs, and as such can be therapeutic and helpful, or they can be harmful.

The last section of the book offers specific suggestions about children with problems of aggression, stealing, withdrawal,

and school phobia. The author describes the dimensions and dynamics of such behavior, relates these to psychological principles of development, and then offers some specific methods and techniques found helpful through actual practice and research investigation. The reviewer feels that this section will be especially meaningful for teachers.

In summary, the book is very readable and will serve as a good introduction to those who have yet to study child development theory or maladaptive behavior extensively and as a helpful review to those who already have.

E. T. Hallberg

Morris Marples. *Romantics at School*. London: Faber and Faber, 1967. 206 pp., illus.

Romantics at School, written by a man more schoolmaster than critic is more about boys than about poets. In one section for each, Morris Marples investigates the childhood and adolescent school days of Woodsworth, Coleridge, Southey, Byron, Shelley and Keats, revealing each poet so sensitively that they emerge as live boys, as much like other people as they are different from each other. The surprises are

delightful: Byron as a belligerent sometimes homosexual, writing "sweet, dearest Charles" to one of his "favourites," and fighting Lord Calthorpe for having written "damned atheist" under his name; Keats setting out deliberately to win yearly prizes awarded on a sort of Brownie point system for "voluntary work," the translation of immense quantities of French and Latin; Coleridge accused of being a pickpocket when, on a

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day-dreaming walk down the Strand, he caught his flailing hand in the coat of a passerby — the young poet explained with such obvious sincerity that he was merely swimming the Hellespont that his accuser released him.

The book is neither true biography, nor is it a treatise on education. In the first instance, we mutter a small curse at the end of each section that it doesn't go on, that there is no "Man" of whom this "Child" has been father. The sensation is something akin to the old soap opera come-on's: "Had the poet's wildness at last been tamed, his rebelliousness reduced to Etonian orthodoxy? The story of the next ten years . . . supplies the answer" (p. 171). But instead, the serial shifts and we lose Shelley in favor of Keats. Though he didn't satisfy the hunger, we must compliment the writer for having so whetted the appetite.

Nor will classroom oriented educators be satiated if they are reading *Romantics at School* for facts about nineteenth century school practices. There is little here of class sizes, curriculum, pedagogy (except for mention of

punitive practices, which is plentiful), examinations, or the pupil-to-WC ratio. What there is, rather, is evidence of that suspicion which haunts us all: that the most resonating education takes place, not at desks and blackboards, but in walks along Esthwaite lake, in evenings spent in London pubs with an indulgent uncle, and on horseback over Devon hills. Even the books read by the schoolboy poets usually came from places other than school libraries. And the reading lists of the young writers seem unorthodox to the point of confirming Virginia Woolf's idea, that people develop a taste for good literature by reading bad books. And bad books aren't usually found in school libraries. One wonders whether we're so avant-garde in proposing individualised reading programs!

What the book is, rather than what it is not, forms the basis of judgment. *Romantics at School* is an extremely readable collection of miscellaneous information so organized that it provides both immediate illumination and enduring impressions of the early lives of six significant poets.

Maureen Ursenbach

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