GUIDANCE PRACTICES IN THE CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA 1955

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GUIDANCE PRACTICES IN THE CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA 1955

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The guidance program can be no better than the understanding, special skills, facilities, vision, and leadership to be found in the school. But, even so, the all-important point to be kept in mind is that guidance services in any school can start from humble beginnings.

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the problem. The purpose of this field report was to determine the educational and vocational guidance practices being used in the Class "B" (enrollment under one hundred) secondary schools of Iowa.

Importance of the study. The American Negro vocalized his inability to cope with his status in the famous old spiritual "Standin' in the Need of Pray'r." His plight was no different than that of thousands of youth and adults today. Technologically, the United States has advanced farther than any country in the world today; yet, society's handling and management of social problems border on a national disgrace. The American people are truly people in quandries. They need only to look at the population of prisons, mental hospitals, and sanitariums to realize that they are unwilling to release many dollars to work on the intangibles;
yet, they are willing to spend millions to develop a hydrogen bomb, or a new type hybrid corn.

The acceptance of guidance as an integral part of the educative process has been accelerated to the extent that it is necessary to the successful function of the program to have qualified professional help, as evidenced by the guidance certification requirements set forth by the Iowa State Department of Public Instruction. The realization that guidance is a part of, not apart from the total educational program has permeated schools and communities.

The school is being looked to more and more to take over problems that heretofore were either the responsibility of the home or the church. The increasing complexity of modern life is doing away with home life in the old sense. Children are no longer of the "seen, but not heard" variety.

Great initiative is allowed the child. With this initiative comes greater responsibility on the part of the child, and in too many cases, the child is not ready for it. The use of leisure time and moral and religious issues are constantly presenting problems. Changing beliefs, lack of beliefs, and conflicting beliefs in the family unit set up conflicts in the minds of the children, so they are completely befuddled, and, as a consequence, are open and ready for any type of "ism." The extension of the school program upward to the community college and adult education, downward to the preschool and kindergarten, and horizontally to provide specialized
services to learners with special needs, are additional conditions which require central direction and coordination.

Guidance is not new to education, but it has received increased emphasis in recent years. Education has advanced to the place where the primary interest has shifted from a consideration of isolated segments of the pupil and subject matter, to problems centering around the whole individual, his environment, his development, and his well-being. Educators are seeing the pupil as a living human being, faced with real problems of adjustment. It is in this setting, primarily, that guidance has come to the fore as an important part of modern education. This development is but the natural outgrowth of the trend in a society committed to the democratic way of life, in which adequate educational opportunity is considered an inalienable right of every American.

Method of investigation. In any educational and vocational guidance program there are certain basic services which should be provided. These services, which will be discussed in the following chapters are:

1. Individual record inventory.
2. Guidance testing program.
3. Counseling service.
4. Occupational information and training activities.
5. Group guidance activities.
6. Placement services.
7. Follow-up of graduates and/or drop-outs.
9. Evaluation of the local guidance program.

In order to determine the extent to which these educational and vocational guidance practices were being used in Iowa, the questionnaire method was used. A copy of the questionnaire, accompanied by a personal letter, was sent in February, 1955, to the superintendents of the 520 Class "B" secondary schools in Iowa, as listed in the 1954-1955 *Iowa School Directory*. A follow-up letter was sent out in March, 1955, in an attempt to secure more replies. Two hundred ninety-eight, or 57.3 per cent, of the schools responded to the inquiry and returned the questionnaires. Ten returned blank questionnaires.

Using the questionnaire method to discover guidance practices creates certain limitations. In the first place, the questionnaire must be short in order to insure replies. It forces the composer to leave out some of the pertinent, but relatively less important questions. In the second place,

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1See Appendix B for sample copy
2See Appendix A for sample copy
3See Appendix C for sample copy
4See Appendix D for alphabetical listing of schools that responded to the inquiry.
the questionnaire must be thoroughly objective, and yet, not all guidance practices and the degree to which they are used can be described in objective terms. And, lastly, this method may put too much of a strain upon the integrity of the person who answers it.

The data obtained were analyzed to determine the nature and scope of the practices of educational and vocational guidance. In some sections of the study, the replies to certain questions would not permit tabulation. However, many respondents wrote comments on the margins and/or on the back of the questionnaire.

On the basis of the data obtained, it would appear that there is much variability in the adequacy of the educational and vocational guidance programs in the Class "B" secondary schools of Iowa. It is important to realize however, that data obtained in an investigation of this kind are generally more informative and quantitative than qualitative in nature. The latter would be much more desirable, but it is difficult to judge the scope of the effectiveness of any guidance program solely through stated practices. How well the existing program meets the needs of the students is the criterion which must be employed in evaluating the guidance program. Such evaluation should not be based entirely on subjective evidence, but rather on research which has been specifically designed to determine the adequacy or effectiveness of the existing guidance program.
CHAPTER II

THE MEANING AND NEED FOR GUIDANCE

"Guidance" has become one of the more common words in the vocabulary of the educator. However, there seems to be considerable confusion as to the exact connotation of the word. To some, guidance pertains to the educational, moral, religious, financial, and occupational aspects of adjustment. Others feel that guidance should be limited, at least in the public schools, to the vocational and educational fields. There also appears to be considerable disagreement as to the exact purpose of guidance. Some are of the opinion that guidance is as big as the whole school program, and that the entire program should be built around it; others feel that guidance should be concerned with the selection of courses to reduce the possibility of failure; still others stress the need for therapy, particularly for those students who fall into the program category. As a result of the discrepancies in opinions, it appears necessary to use carefully defined terms.

I. THE MEANING OF GUIDANCE

Interpretation of the term. The guidance process consists of a group of services to individuals to assist them in securing the knowledge and skills needed in making adequate choices, plans, and interpretations essential to satisfactory
adjustment in a variety of areas. These services are designed to result in efficiency in areas which require that the individual make adjustments in order that he may be an effective member of society.

Guidance services include providing the individual with cumulative evidence about his abilities, interests, growth, development, and limitations. They provide also, comprehensive information about educational and occupational opportunities and requirements, personality development, effective studying and learning, and other areas in which he needs information not usually provided through the instructional program. They set up means for aiding his placement and adjustment in classrooms, co-curricular, and community activities, and in an occupational area. They provide adequate personnel, teachers, teacher-counselors, and administrators, who are not only competent in performing and supervising the tasks involved in the foregoing services, but also in aiding the individual personally to interpret the facts, and use them continually in making choices, plans, decisions, and adjustments throughout his life.

The United States Office of Education has adopted the following definition of guidance:

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Guidance is a process of acquainting the individual with various ways in which he may discover and use his natural endowment, in addition to special training available from any source, so that he may live and make a living to the best advantage to himself, and to society.¹

The concept of guidance is further illustrated in the following quotations from Education for All American Youth.

Guidance is no mechanical process whereby counselors and teachers sort out boys and girls as a grading machine sorts apples. This one to stay on the farm, this one to work in an airplane factory, this one to be a teacher, and that one to run a garage. Guidance is rather the high art of helping boys and girls to plan their own actions wisely in the full light of all the facts that can be mustered about themselves, and about the world in which they will be working and living.

Guidance is not the work of a few specialists; it is rather a service from the entire school staff which will require some people with special knowledge of skills, but enlists the cooperation of all.

Guidance is not limited to vocational matters; it includes the whole gamut of youth problems. Guidance, moreover, is not peculiar to the secondary school. Good education from the earliest grades forward includes guidance from the understanding teachers, principals, and counselors.²

Guidance services, like other aspects of education, cannot function most effectively, and adequately, when left to


mere chance, based on the assumption that "everyone does it". Incidental guidance is as inadequate as accidental education. Lack of organization in guidance services results in omission of important aspects, over-lapping of activities, duplication or lack of effort, general confusion, and an inadequate and ineffective program. Because of the extent of the services included and the wide variety of persons involved, it is essential that there be a well-planned and effectively implemented organization of guidance services. If guidance services are not organized, if they are hit-and-miss, they are not to be available to a pupil when he needs them.

The nature of guidance services requires that early foundations be laid, even in the beginning of school experiences. Out of the training and experience the individual gets in meeting and solving his problems while in school, guidance aims to develop in him, insight and a creative initiative whereby he will, throughout his life, be able to meet and solve his own problems adequately.

Guidance is based on the assumption that the individual has a place in the social world, a place in the world of education, a place in the civic life, and a place in the vocational world. This assumption is one of the concepts of a society where all men are created equal and free. Thus, guidance seeks to help the individual discover his own talents in comparison to the opportunities of the world and help him prepare himself so that he can find, or develop a place in which
he can live a well-balanced life, and contribute his part to the welfare of his fellow man.

II. THE NEED FOR GUIDANCE

When the secondary school was a more selective institution than it is now, the need for guidance was not so great as it is at the present. Before 1900, and in many schools even at present, the typical high school curriculum was a single type. There were few electives, and in small high schools often there were no electives. Pupils pursued the prescribed and only course, and if they could not profit by it, they were eliminated. The majority were intending to pursue their schooling into institutions of higher learning, and the usual high-school curriculum was of the college preparatory type. Gradually, high schools began adding other curricula, such as the general, commercial, technical, and trade. This expansion attracted more pupils, and added to the schools problem of helping pupils select courses of study best fitted to their interests and abilities.

As the high school became popular and began serving the masses, rather than the classes, the curriculum expanded further to meet their needs, and the student body became more heterogeneous until the composition approached a cross section

of the total population. This means that one will find persons in high schools who will serve in every capacity and engage in every occupation and profession found in the United States. These two expansions in population and curriculum have created a need for guiding students in the right direction.

Evidences of a need for more intelligent direction of student activities are:

1. Changes in schedules. The increases in the number of courses offered in the high school, and the meager knowledge of pupils regarding the content and applications of the courses are responsible for many pupils electing courses which they later drop, or in which they fail.¹

2. Failures. If the American ideal of making the curriculum fit the pupil, rather than the converse is upheld, there should be no failures because of a lack of ability or interest. It is, of course, impossible in the small high school to offer sufficient courses to meet the needs of all those attending. If the school is large enough to justify a multiple curriculum, adequate guidance would not merely obviate, but would prevent many failures because of maladjustment.²

3. Lack of motivation. Motivation is a concern of the entire school. Regardless of the skill of individual teachers in the classroom, if pupils are not well adjusted they cannot be more than temporarily stimulated to learn. On the other hand, if one is motivated by worthy goals, rather than artificial goals, such as prizes, rewards, marks, and punishment, and is directed into a curriculum in which he pursues courses in which


²Ibid., p. 5.
he is interested and for which he recognizes a need, artificial stimulii are not needed.¹

4. Poor adjustment in college. Not all, but at least some of the maladjustment in college can be traced to a lack of guidance in secondary schools. When matriculating freshmen in colleges on being asked, 'In what college do you intend to enroll?' reply by asking, 'What colleges are there?' someone along the line has been guilty of neglect. Failures, eliminations, changes in schedules, and transfers from one college to another, are all evidence that college students are still faced with the problem of learning how to direct their own lives.²

5. Elimination. One can make a good case for the claim that failures, retardations, and eliminations are due to maladjustment, and to a lack of guidance. However, a guidance program will never operate so perfectly that it will correct all these evils, but it will greatly reduce them.³

6. Vocational misfits. It would be an impossibility to determine, with any degree of accuracy, the extent and number of persons who are not fitted physically, mentally, or socially, for the work they are doing. This is evidenced by the turnover in industry, unemployment, ill-health caused by the nature of one's work, and lack of interest, skill, and aptitude of those following various vocations, and by those who are unhappy in their occupations. This problem is further accentuated by the large number of fields of work and the difficulty of becoming acquainted with them.⁴

²Ibid., p. 518.
'It would be a bold statement indeed, and one which could neither be defended nor demonstrated, to say that since a lack of guidance causes these maladjustments, a good guidance program will eliminate all of them. Ideally, such a program is not out of the realm of possibility, and the prevention of all these evils is a worthy goal; but with present knowledge, measuring instruments, and secondary school systems, the most that can be hoped for is to bring about as much improvement as possible. However, if efforts are to be continued toward the goal of universal secondary education, it will be necessary to construct a curriculum which will benefit all who attend and guide students into them.'
CHAPTER III

THE GUIDANCE ASSETS OF SMALL SCHOOLS

A small school is not just a little large school. The small school differs from the large in many respects in addition to size. On occasion, smaller schools have tried to ape the practices of larger schools. Usually the results have not been satisfactory because the practice could not be successfully transplanted; or the practice became the principal service of the school, overpowering and curtailing other essential services.

Guidance programs have been organized more frequently by large than by small schools. Providing full-time counselors has been easy in many large schools, but impossible in most smaller ones. The provision of workers and services may be easier in large than in small schools, but the responsibility and need for guidance services is the same in any school. This is an essential part of democratic faith. Every child should have access to an appropriate educational program. The opportunity to get the kind of education he needs is the birthright of each child. To provide for less is to deny the equality of youth. The child living in an area served by a small school should be able to secure just as appropriate an education as one attending a large school. This is the American dream.
What kind of education should all youth have? The essential elements have been succinctly stated by the Implementation Commission of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. They list the following as the "Imperative Needs of Youth":

1. All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.

2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.

3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performances of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.

4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.

5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.

6. All youth need to understand the methods of science on the human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and man.

7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music and nature.

8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.

9. All youth need to develop respect for other
persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others.

10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.¹

There is no need to discuss here each of the items. The important points to be considered are their implications for guidance work. First, the school that seriously tries to provide for these needs must have a knowledge of the present status of its students. It must know their strengths, their achievements, and their limitations. The guidance program provides this information. Second, the student must be helped in his choices so that he selects the kind of educational experiences which will meet his needs. Schools cannot expect all youth, unaided, to choose a well-balanced educational diet. Like most humans, they choose the most interesting, the easiest, or the traditional. A guidance program, by counseling and other procedures, should assist all youth in making wise educational choices. A third responsibility that a guidance program can help a school to discharge is that of evaluation. Implicit in this statement is the necessity for the school to determine the extent to which it is helping young people meet their needs. Through follow-up

studies and other techniques the guidance program collects the data upon which a school can judge its effectiveness.

Small schools cannot pass off their responsibility by glib statements about the lack of money, staff, or other resources. Nor can they escape the task of providing for the needs by claiming smallness as an insurmountable obstacle.

At present, many people believe that the smaller school cannot provide adequate educational opportunities. The truth is that many smaller schools do not claim to provide more than minimal education. They add up their liabilities and enviously eye the resources available to large schools. Being a small school is not a complete liability guidance-wise. True, small schools usually have less money for guidance purposes. From this lack of resources spring many other unfavorable conditions, such as lack of staff, time, or guidance trained personnel. But the assets are the important items for our consideration.

Because small schools enroll few students, faculty members can get to know them well. The corridors are not filled with students who are unknown to teachers. Nor is knowing the name and something about the background of one or two hundred students an impossible task. Teachers in smaller schools have the opportunity really to know the students. The first requisite for a successful guidance program is a knowledge of each student.

Students in small schools know their teachers. A few
teachers object to teaching in small schools for this reason. They desire to live a life which is not a matter of public record. They do not enjoy the many personal contacts in small schools. But these personal contacts can well be used in guidance programs. Because youth tend to mimic age, teachers have an excellent opportunity to set examples of personal behavior and adjustment. Much can be done through this medium that would otherwise have to be done through more time-consuming means. When students know their teachers there is another advantage. Valuable interview time that would ordinarily be devoted to getting acquainted can be saved. Rapport can be more easily established if the hurdle of strangeness does not need to be jumped. In many cases, students will feel free to seek the help of persons they know, while they might avoid contacts with a person unknown to them.

A small school usually has close ties with the community. In many communities, the school is the center of social and civic, as well as educational activities. The guidance program can benefit by utilizing this community relationship to advance its cause. When the community knows about the school and its program, support can be obtained for improving the guidance services. Putting it another way, the public relations program is easy because the community has at least a partial knowledge of the school.
There is another advantage in close community ties. Much of the success of a guidance program depends upon the knowledge a school has of its community. When school-community relationships are well established, the information channel is open. The community learns about the school, and the school learns about the community.

Many of the teachers in small schools are young. Merely being young or old does not make a person a liability or an asset in the guidance program. But, generally speaking, young teachers are more flexible than older ones. A guidance program in a small school must call upon teachers to perform a multiplicity of jobs. The ability and willingness to adopt readily to new situations and tasks is, therefore, an asset. Other assets can be found in a young faculty. Colleges are expending their guidance programs. Thus, the recent graduate is more likely to have had some guidance courses. Since young faculty members have recently been students, they are acutely aware of many of the kinds of problems their students have. The curve of forgetting has not yet had time to dull their sympathy for the seriousness of the problem from the students point of view.

One of the principles of group dynamics definitely favors the small school. A small group can function more efficiently than a large one. The faculty group of most smaller schools is of a size for efficient functioning as a committee of the whole. The administrator can use the entire faculty as
a working group for the planning and evaluation of the program. This makes for real understanding, and the guidance program can develop the support that it needs. Teachers who understand guidance services are not only willing to make their contributions, but they also make use of these services because they help them do a better job of teaching.

The student population of a small school is relatively stable. Schools in many metropolitan areas are handicapped by the transient nature of their population. Not only do they have to contend with the student who moves into the city, but they also have to deal with those who move about within the city. This latter source of new students is not present in a small school since it usually serves the entire community. Studies of population shifts indicate that the major trend is movement into cities. Since most small schools are located in rural or semi-urban areas, more students can be expected to be leaving the schools service area than move into it. These conditions are favorable for guidance activities in many respects the most important being a lightening of the task of orientation and reduction in the number of students whose cumulative records must be originated and maintained.

The preceding pages have presented the advantages that a small school has in the organization and operation of a guidance program. The point of presenting these advantages is not to overshadow the limitations of a small school. But too often educational writers, administrators, and teachers
have decried the inadequacies of smaller schools. They have continued by pointing out the desirability of the comprehensive high school, of consolidation of school districts, or of good roads for bus transportation of pupils. Few valid arguments exist in opposition to their point of view. But the real problem is now, not in the future. The most ardent advocate for elimination of small schools cannot predict when they will pass from the American scene. As long as there are small schools, they must strive to make them effective in meeting the imperative needs of youth. To do this, schools must make maximum use of their resources and capitalize upon any advantage they may possess. To do less is to betray the belief that every child should have equal opportunity to secure the kind of education best suited to his needs.  

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

I. INDIVIDUAL RECORD INVENTORY

The guidance program serves individual students by helping them to learn more about themselves. In the process of assisting them, the guidance program makes use of a variety of procedures. Some are appropriate for group use, others can be applied to one student at a time. In either case, the same objective remains to assist each student to gain a knowledge of himself. This objective requires that first of all, the guidance program acquire an understanding of the student. This can be done only if procedures are organized to study the individual student. A knowledge of a student's strengths and weaknesses does not often result from chance happenings, or activities incidental to usual school routine. Definite provisions must be made for the study of each student.

The study process yields many data. Some means of organizing and preserving these data must be used. Most schools make use of a cumulative record for this purpose. The cumulative record is constructed and interpreted differently in different schools, but it usually represents an attempt to begin with certain basic information to which data are added as they are accumulated. Allen defines the cumulative
A record of information concerned with the appraisal of the individual pupil, kept in one place, usually on a card, sheet, folder, or some combination of these.¹

The United States Office of Education states clearly the need for cumulative records in the following statement:

It is obvious that the individual characteristics and differences of students must be ascertained and recorded before they can be made to serve as a basis upon which meaningful and purposeful learning experiences for pupils may be planned. Records are essential to a constantly evolving curriculum. Individual differences in the needs, interests, and abilities of pupils, as revealed through participation in the school program, should be recorded. Such differences indicate the nature and amount of guidance needed by individual pupils at various stages of their development.²

What is the best type of cumulative record? For each school, the best record is the one that meets its needs. Ordinarily, the best record provides for getting maximum information in a minimum space, and at the same time displaying significant facts for quick interpretations. As a minimum, the cumulative record for a student should include the following information: courses taken and the marks received; test


³ Froehlich, op. cit., p. 152.
data, including scores and ages, grade, or percentile equivalents; information concerning personal qualities, home background, extracurricular activities, work experience, health and physical development; vocational and other interests; summaries of interviews; and over-all appraisals by counselors and teachers.

The student's cumulative record should be kept up-to-date, both by occasional entries and by regular entries, annually or semiannually. Thus the record presents the student's status at each successive stage of his development; also, it portrays the student's growth during the school year. Such a record gives the teacher, or the counselor, a valuable basis for predicting the student's future development, including his probable success in academic work.

In the selection or construction, of a cumulative record form, a school's staff should have in mind such important points as the following:

1. The cumulative record form for a pupil should agree with the objectives of the local school.

2. The form should be the result of the group thinking of a faculty committee.

3. The form should provide for a continuous record of the development of the student from the first grade, to the end of his formal education.

4. The form should be organized according to the customary sequence of academic years; for each year, the same, or a similar kind of information should be recorded for the student.
5. The form should contain carefully planned spaces in which to record the results of standardized tests, including date of test, title of test, students score, his standing in terms of norms, and the like.

6. The form should provide for the annual recording of the personality ratings or behavior descriptions that represent the consensus of the student's teachers.

7. The form should be as comprehensive as possible, but it should not overburden the clerical or teaching staff of the school.

8. The form should be accessible to the teachers, as well as to the principal and counselors. If a counselor has recorded highly confidential information about a student, this record should be filed outside the regular form.

9. The form should be re-evaluated periodically; it should be revised as needed to take account of educational developments.\(^1\)

Two hundred fifty-eight, or 86.5 per cent of the Class "B" schools responding to the questionnaire, stated they maintained cumulative records. The kind of data that comprises these records is set forth in Table I.

Before the school can carry on a program of counseling, or before guidance officials can diagnose pupil needs, they must have enough of the right kind of information about the individual pupil. Before the advisor, or counselors, can give any fundamental advice to the individual pupil, he must be familiar with him, his personality, his previous experiences and accomplishments, his habits, interests, and

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# TABLE I

**TYPES OF INFORMATION ENTERED ON CUMULATIVE RECORDS IN 258 CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA, 1955**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Type of Information</th>
<th>Entered on student personal record</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Record of schools attention</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Achievement test</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Extracurricular activities</td>
<td>248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Health examination report</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Scholastic aptitude</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Physical handicaps</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Interests</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Anecdotal records</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Special talents</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Special aptitudes</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Socio-economic background</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Personality ratings</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Educational plans</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Occupational experience</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Occupational plans</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Community activities</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>School marks</td>
<td>273*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Fifteen additional schools record school marks, but not on cumulative records.

the like. Much has been said in the past, and properly so, about accurate accounting of supplies and equipment, long-time financial planning, and planning the school building program to meet present and future needs. But these fade in significance when compared to the charting of the personal growth of the individual as he develops from early childhood, through later childhood, adolescence, and on, until he finds his place in the adult world as a happy, successful person.
Therefore, guidance should be based on a careful consideration of all significant information concerning the student, his problems, and his previous personal experiences in meeting his problems. If guidance aims at helping the individual make wise decisions concerning the solution of his problems, it should be based on the essentials of intelligent judgment, namely, a well-rounded array of information having a direct bearing on the solution of individual problems.

Traditionally, the smaller secondary schools of Iowa have done no more than offer the bare essentials of a high school education, with emphasis upon the presentation of subject matter handed down by past generations. The records kept by man, if not by most, of the smaller educational institutions of the state also reflect this same theme of educational offerings. This, in part, is brought out by the evidence presented in Table I. School marks are the most frequently mentioned type of information entered on the records which schools keep for their students. Even the schools that don't keep cumulative records have a place where they record the grades students receive in their classes. But educators continue to assault the fallacies of the American system of grading. What, they ask, can, or does a single letter tell of the students progress, his development mentally, socially, emotionally, and physically? Parents desire to know the growth their children are making. They also find fault with the present form of grading, but when asked if they would
like to have it changed, and if they would be willing to work for the development of a more adequate method, they hastily say, "no." At the present time they accept the system of grading, partly because they can read into the grades sent home to them the growth they want their children to have, even if this growth isn't evident in any other way.

Studies of this type made in the past have indicated that Iowa secondary school administrators were more interested in obtaining information about such things as educational background, school marks, educational achievement, scholastic aptitude, and health reports, than in gathering information about personality, special aptitudes, emotional stability, study habits, family relationships, and physical handicaps. This is in keeping with the traditional methods of judging the individual's development and adjustment on the basis of report cards and promotion to the next higher grade. The information collected by schools, as presented in Table I, substantiates this philosophy of education to some extent. But it is encouraging to note that even if school marks, educational achievement, and scholastic aptitude hold this position, other aspects of the students' growth and development are beginning to find their place in the smaller schools program. Records of participation in extra-curricular activities, health examination reports, physical handicaps, interests, anecdotal comments, special talents and aptitudes, personality ratings, and community
activities, are becoming more common place with the passage of each school year. Part of this change is due to the increased emphasis upon the need for guidance in public schools by the educational training institutions, and the acceptance by many teachers and administrators that much more guidance can be given in our smaller high schools than was thought possible a few years ago. This acceptance by the small schools themselves, and their progressive leaders, has stimulated the growth of guidance programs in other communities which face similar problems.

As these guidance programs become better organized, and as more teachers and administrators acquire the guidance point of view and recognize the importance of securing adequate information from all students on such points as personality, emotional stability, and social development, one can expect more attention to be given to the factors which will become so vital in the individual's adjustment in the world of work. Endicott is of the opinion that an individual will find plenty of opportunities to apply some of the knowledge gained in school subject, but ultimately, success will depend largely upon his ability to get along with other people.

1Frank S. Endicott, "Counseling Prospective Workers," Counselors at Work, (Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University, 1947), p. 64. (Mimeographed.).
II. GUIDANCE TESTING PROGRAM

One of the greatest needs in all forms of guidance, as well as in other phases of education, is that of obtaining reliable information that can be tested, and acted upon with confidence. The past twenty-five years have witnessed a marked development in the effort to obtain data that are objective and fairly reliable. Authors have not yet succeeded in removing all subjective factors from measurements; and it is quite possible that they never shall be able to do this. Nor have they devised entirely accurate tests and standards. But the significant thing is that much progress toward these ends has already been made, and the way opened for further developments.

In his discussion of the uses of tests, "Chisholm says they may be used by the classroom teacher, as they were frequently used in the past, and in many instances in the present, for the purpose of flunking or passing students. That is, tests may be used for the purpose of assigning marks to students, or for the purpose of classifying them. A more defensible use of tests and measurements by the classroom teacher is for the purpose of understanding more thoroughly the individual pupil, and thereby being able to adapt the classroom materials and methods to individual needs. In the

second place, tests and measurements may be used for administrative purposes. The administration may sponsor a testing program for the purpose of determining the relative achievement of the school of the community, or for comparison with the schools of other communities. In the third place, tests and measurements may be used for purposes of guidance. During recent years this has become one of the more frequent uses of tests, as well as one of the most legitimate. The guidance point of view concerning tests and measurements has helped revive and redirect, or vitalize interest in tests and measurements.

When one works with a student, he draws on many sources of information about him. He studies his grades, and talks with his teachers. He looks at his health records, and his extra-school activities. Often he talks to his parents and others who know what he is like when away from school. Finally, he talks to the student, and with all the skill he possesses, tries to get him to talk to him.

Somewhere in the total process, test scores can be useful items of information, and that is why schools turn to tests so hopefully as a solution to the problems of the individual student. Yet, tests are really only tools for the skilled worker in human relations; they cannot help alone, or in themselves, but only in relation to all other information obtainable.

What is more, tests are tools which can be harmful as
well as useful in their application to the student, depending upon the person who uses or interprets the tests. Like another tool, the hammer, the test is an effective instrument for craftsmanship in the proper hands, but in other hands, it may play a part in the most wanton destruction.

The tests to be used in a testing plan cannot be prescribed in blanket fashion. Each school will need to select tests in accordance with such conditioning factors as funds available for purchasing tests, staff time, facilities for administering and scoring, skill of staff members for interpreting tests results, and the kinds of test data needed about pupils. However, the observance of a few simple principles will contribute to the effectiveness and economy of the testing plan:

1. Tests should be selected on the basis of valid criteria.

2. The testing plan should be coordinated throughout the school system to avoid duplication, to provide comparable results, and to obtain the most comprehensive coverage possible.

3. Group tests should be used whenever applicable for reasons of economy.

4. Tests should be used to supplement other pupil data.

5. Obtain enough measures in each area and about each pupil to provide a reasonable degree of reliability.

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6. Provide for tests of special aptitudes, abilities, and interests to meet the needs of individuals.

7. Plan the testing program cooperatively with all grades or levels represented.

8. Keep the testing plan within the limits of staff time and professional skill in interpreting and using the results.¹

Assuming the tests have been wisely selected, well administered, and duly recorded - what then? It is saying the obvious to insist that tests are important only when their results are used, but schools need to be constantly aware of this fact. The following common uses of tests are for the purpose of emphasizing their possibilities and of directing thought toward this phase of the testing program:

1. Tests reveal strengths and weaknesses of the individual and of the group. This information is useful for educational and vocational guidance.

2. Tests may indicate discrepancies between capacity and achievement.

3. Tests may be used as an aid in counseling concerning college attendance.

4. The results of intelligence and achievement tests may be used as partial criteria in helping a student select his course in high school or elective subjects within his course.

5. Tests may be used in determining requirements for those who wish to pursue studies which require specialized abilities.

6. Tests are useful in sectioning classes.

7. Tests help the classroom teacher determine the range of capacity within the group.

8. Tests may be used to determine the status of any group, or individual, in respect to the materials to be used in class instruction.

9. Tests can be useful to point out the exceptional pupil who receives no challenge from his school work, or the slow pupil whose capacity will never allow him to reach the standards required of the group. Each of the types may present different behavior problems.

10. Standardized tests tend to show instructional weaknesses.¹

A well-rounded testing program should include an inquiry into interests, general ability, academic achievement, personality traits, and aptitudes.

Table II shows the extent and methods of objective appraisal in these areas used by the Class "B" secondary schools of Iowa. Two hundred eleven, or 70.8 per cent of the reporting schools indicated they administered intelligence tests as a part of their school program. Two hundred seventy-eight, or 93.2 per cent of the participating schools used achievement batteries. One hundred eight, or 36.2 per cent of the schools returning questionnaires stated they made provisions to administer personal-social adjustment tests. One hundred sixty-three, or 54.7 per cent of the schools stated they administered occupational interest inventories. One hundred twenty, or 40.3 per cent of the schools stated they are using tests to measure specific aptitude.

¹Froehlich, op. cit., pp. 197-198.
TABLE II

PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS AND INVENTORIES USED BY 298 CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA IN OBJECTIVE APPRAISAL OF THE INDIVIDUAL STUDENT, 1955

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method of Appraisal</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>70.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>93.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal-Social Adjustment</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Interest</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>54.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aptitude</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>49.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some guidance personnel refer to intelligence tests as tests of scholastic aptitude. There should be no quarrel with that position, since the concern is with what is done with the index of intelligence after it has been determined, not with what name the test may bear.

The use of mental tests in guidance grew out of the knowledge of individual differences. Individuals differ in mental ability, that is, in the facility and the depth with which new ideas are grasped, the ability to learn, and the ease with which adjustments to new conditions are made, as well as in several other ways. The aim in mental testing is to measure the individual's ability to perform intellectual tasks successfully. Though this capacity may be predicted with reasonable accuracy, the degree to which the individual

1Chisholm, op. cit., p. 215.
will achieve in relation to capacity can best be predicted through knowledge of his past achievement in school. The value of measuring scholastic aptitude lies in discovering capacity and making comparisons with actual performance. The generalization that the best prediction of future scholastic achievement is the pupil's past record need not always be true if the school knows that a discrepancy exists between capacity and achievement. Motivating and assisting pupils to narrow the gap between capacity and level of accomplishment is a responsibility of the school.

Table III shows the methods used to obtain objective appraisal of the students intelligence in the Class "B" secondary schools of Iowa. The Otis Quick Scoring Mental Ability test was the most frequently mentioned test, probably because it is easy to administer, doesn't take up a great deal of time, and is easily scored. One hundred eight, or 51.1 per cent of the schools administering intelligence tests gave the Otis test. The Kuhlman-Anderson Intelligence Test was given by seventy-two, or 34.2 per cent of the schools administering mental ability tests. Fifty-three, or 25.1 per cent of the schools giving intelligence tests gave the California Mental Maturity Test. Other intelligence tests were administered by various schools, but in greatly reduced

\[\text{Smith, op. cit., p. 145.}\]
TABLE III

INTELLIGENCE TESTS USED BY 211 CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA IN OBJECTIVE APPRAISAL OF THE INDIVIDUAL STUDENT, 1955

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method of Appraisal</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Otis Quick Scoring.</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuhlman-Anderson.</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>34.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California Mental Maturity.</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henman-Nelson</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuhlman-Finch</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stanford-Binet.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California Short Form.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pintner-Cunningham.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brown Chicago (Non-verbal)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clapp-Young Self-marking.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohio Psychological.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thorndyke</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thurstone</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

reduced numbers. It can be said that the administrators of the Class "B" secondary schools of Iowa select intelligence tests of high quality to be administered to their students, but there are not enough administrators giving these tests over the state.

Because administrators, teachers, and parents are constantly seeking information to discover how much students are learning, the task of measuring achievement effectively becomes tremendously important. One of the main purposes for measuring the achievement of pupils is to ascertain the degree to which the educational objectives of the school are being realized. The results of measurement in achievement,
taken at intervals over a period of years, will provide a continuous means of evaluating the student's growth, and will help to determine the effectiveness of the curriculum in meeting individual needs. A second purpose of measurement may be described as "diagnostic," that is, to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the student. Recognizing these strengths and weaknesses, the school can assist a student to make wise choices leading to success. The primary purpose, however, of any diagnostic measurement should be the improvement of learning. Assistance in the prediction of future success in learning is a third general purpose of achievement measurement. When judged in relation to the length and character of the training or experience which has preceded them, past accomplishments, both in and out of school, they provide the key for estimating possibilities of future progress. It becomes very important, therefore, to use the most reliable achievement measurements available, and to maintain a cumulative record of the scores. Prediction scales can provide a clue for placing students in those classes in which they have the greatest probability of success. These prediction scales can also be used in assisting the student to make a decision concerning any college, or additional training he may need for his chosen work.

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Table IV shows the achievement batteries used by the Class "B" secondary schools of Iowa in obtaining objective information concerning the individual student.

**TABLE IV**

**ACHIEVEMENT TESTS USED BY 278 CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA IN OBJECTIVE APPRAISAL OF THE INDIVIDUAL STUDENT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method of Appraisal</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iowa Every Pupil Test of Basic Skills</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>44.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iowa Test of Educational Development</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>34.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stanford Achievement</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California Achievement</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iowa Silent Reading</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohio State</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lee-Clark</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durrell-Sullivan</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement Examination for Secondary Schools</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Education Development</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minnesota</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spitzer Study</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One hundred twenty-three, or 44.2 per cent of the schools administering achievement tests used the *Iowa Every Pupil Test of Basic Skills*. The *Iowa Test of Educational Development* was administered in ninety-five, or 37.3 per cent of the schools giving achievement tests. Other achievement batteries were given, but the number administered was almost negligible.
Traditionally, the symbol of school achievement has been the teacher's mark. The numerous studies made of teacher's marks indicate that marks are many times neither very reliable, nor valid. Nevertheless, they will probably continue to be the most frequently used symbols of achievement because they represent the best judgment of teachers who supposedly know the student's ability, effort, interest, attitude, and neatness, as well as what he has learned. Two hundred seventy-three, or 91.6 per cent of the participating schools recorded school marks somewhere in the records, probably for the purpose of recording the student's achievement.

Personality is dynamic, integrated behavior expressed through the interaction between inherited potentialities and environmental influences. It is the sum total of an individual's behavior, including his overt acts and the inner feelings he experiences in any given situation.

It is well known that factors of personality play a great part in job adjustment and worker satisfaction. To be successful requires more than the possession of the skill necessary to do the job. The worker must be able to get along with his employer, his co-workers, and his family. All possible help should be given an individual to help him avoid facing an adjustment crisis caused by incipient personality maladjustment.

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The significance of the measurement of personal adjustment comes to focus when we consider the general objectives of guidance. The guidance worker's task is to help the student to see the issues of his problems more clearly, to accept their implications, and to make decisions on what to do. The measure of adjustment can be used to help the student identify what the problems are, and the degree to which these problems are causing distress. Neither student, nor counselor, is always aware of relevant information, attitudes, and experiences that influence adjustment, either because of lack of knowledge, inability to recall, or repression. Measurement may give better insight into the nature of the problem, abilities, interests, motivation, aptitudes, and capacities; in brief, it can enlarge the student's understanding of himself.

It is believed by the writer that no clear demarcation can be made between the diagnostic and treatment process. Measuring the degree of personal adjustment of a student borders on diagnosis, but the experiences of being measured may, in itself, be therapeutic to the individual. The process of assisting a student to clarify his conception of his problem, to develop insights into his own role in the treatment process, or of giving the student an opportunity to release his feelings, may alternate between diagnosis and treatment. However, the gathering of information concerning personal adjustment of the individual is valueless unless it points to some
possible solution to the problem. Too often, time is spent with measurement and diagnosis, and little time with treatment.

Measures of personal adjustment are not tests as one ordinarily thinks of them; they are inventories of the feelings and attitudes of students toward themselves, other people, and other aspects of their environment. Inventories of adjustment, or personality, vary from simply constructed and easily administered pencil-and-paper types to those involving projective techniques. Most schools do not have staff members qualified to administer and score the latter tests.

The pencil-and-paper personality inventories are instruments for indirect measurement of personal and social adjustment. The nature of the items frequently works against a true measure of personality traits. Some of the items are likely to be considered quite personal by the pupil. Again, the conscientious pupil may find it difficult to make an unqualified response to many of the items. On the other hand, the counselor, or teacher, who has well-established rapport with the pupil may obtain valuable clues to emotional, social, or other problems affecting individual adjustment. As is the case with other parts of the guidance program, the results of

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adjustment inventories become increasingly significant as confirming evidence from other sources multiplies. Generally, adjustment inventories should not be administered indiscriminately to all pupils in the manner common to scholastic aptitude tests. They are diagnostic in character and should be administered, and interpreted, with caution, especially in the absence of other confirming evidence which tends to substantiate their results.

Table V shows the methods used to secure objective appraisal of the personal-social adjustment of the individual student.

Thirty-nine, or 36.1 per cent of the schools giving personal-social tests listed the California Test of Personality as the test most frequently administered. This test attempts to measure self-adjustment and social adjustment, and is diagnostic in nature. The Bell Adjustment Inventory, which gives measure on home background, health, social adjustment, and emotional adjustment, was used in nine, or 8.3 per cent of the schools administering personal-social tests. The Science Research Associates Youth Inventory was given in six, or 5.6 per cent of the schools administering personal-social inventories. The Bernreuter Personality Inventory provides measure for neuroticism, self-sufficiency, dominance,

Smith, op. cit., pp. 146-147.
TABLE V
PERSONAL-SOCIAL TESTS AND INVENTORIES USED BY 108 CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA IN OBJECTIVE APPRAISAL OF THE INDIVIDUAL STUDENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method of Appraisal</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>California Personality</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bell Adjustment Inventory</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRA Youth Inventory</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bernrueeter Personality Inventory</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mooney Problem Check-list</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minnesota Multiphasic</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Index Test</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minnesota TSE Inventory</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbia Teachers College</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Johnson Temperamental Analysis</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snellen</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No specific tests listed.</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

self-confidence, and solitariness. It was administered in four, or 3.7 per cent of the schools obtaining objective appraisal in the area of personal-social adjustment. Other personal-social inventories were reported; however, the number of schools using these tests is very small. These personal-social adjustment inventories are held in high esteem by guidance workers, so again it can be seen that administrators of the Class "B" schools who do make provisions for giving different varieties of tests, select tests of high quality. The trouble seems to be that not enough schools make the provisions for administering the tests.

Interests are developed according to the same laws and
principles that condition other modifications of behavior. They have their origin in successful adjustment to a situation which creates the desire to obtain similar satisfactions from similar situations. An individual is interested in those things which will satisfy his needs; thus interests pertain directly to goals. Building learning experiences around these expressed, or known interests of students, has long been considered good educational practice. Likewise, interests, whether expressed, manifested, tested, or inventoried, offer important contributions in the guidance of youth in making educational, vocational, and avocational choices. Interests are important factors and represent an intrinsic approach to motivation. Interest patterns, because of the complexity of the individual, are difficult to analyze; consequently, the use of them in the guidance of youth needs implementation.

Interest in an activity, or area of experience, is not synonymous with satisfactory progress. The factor of aptitude must be taken into consideration also. Interest without aptitude may lead to frustration. If interest and aptitude are both present, achievement in the task, and satisfaction for the student are likely to be present. However, it should not be assumed that a person cannot attain success

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1Willey and Andrew, op. cit., p. 229.
in an area of experience without interest. A person may apply himself to a task for other reasons. For example, a person who dislikes science may succeed in medical school, perhaps because of the attraction of the financial security and social status one enjoys in a community in the role of a doctor.

The teacher is readily aware of the fluctuations in many of the interests of students. Skinner illustrates this fluctuation with this statement:

The percentage of girls who wish to become movie actresses drops from twenty per cent at eight years of age to three per cent at seventeen; the percentage of boys who wish to become cowboys drops from thirty-eight per cent at eight, to zero at sixteen.

Most authorities tend to agree, however, that the basic interest pattern of individuals is fairly well stabilized at ages from fifteen to eighteen years. Strong concludes that:

The persistence of interests is due to the fact that the normal person, on the whole, changes very little with years in his chief characteristics. The interests of boys and girls at fifteen years of age are differentiated by the same activities to about the same degree as are the interests of adult men and women.

It should not be inferred that changes in interests do not occur after eighteen years of age. There are exceptions.

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1Knapp, op. cit., pp. 16-17.


Interests in specific areas may fluctuate to some extent. For example, a person may lose interest in tennis, but is unlikely to lose interest in all games. A complete changes in basic-interest patterns would be the exception to the rule.

The expression of an interest in some area of experience, or some tangible thing, is certainly a measure of interest. It has value for the teacher who would like to use known interests in planning learning experiences. Interests of this type may be gathered through an interview, or a personal contact with the student.

Evidence of actual participation in an activity, or area of experience, could have real meaning as a measure of interest. Super warns: "It is generally appreciated that manifest interests are sometimes the result of interest in the concomitants, or by-products of the activity, rather than the activity itself." If it is known that a student is participating in an activity, or an area of experience, because of an interest in the activity itself, then greater significance can be attached to it as a measure of interest.

Tested interest refer to the objective measurement of the amount of information which an individual has acquired about a vocation, or area of experience. The greatest effort in the measurement of interests has taken place in the development

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of interest and preference inventories. Through a system of weighing the responses made by the individual to the inventory, a pattern of interest evolves which obviously serves as a much better basis for guidance than any single measure of interest.

Table VI shows the occupational interest tests and inventories administered to the students in the Class "B" secondary schools of Iowa.

One hundred thirty, or 79.7 per cent of the schools administering interest inventories gave the Kuder Preference Record. This test measures interests in the following ten general areas: outdoor, mechanical, computational, scientific, persuasive, literary, musical, artistic, social service, and clerical. The test may be scored and percentiles placed on profile sheets by the student. The ease of administering and scoring the Kuder Preference Record probably accounts for much of its widespread use. Other specific occupational interest tests were listed by the respondents, but they fade into insignificance when compared with the number who use the Kuder Preference.

The score the individual gets on a test of general mental ability is a general, or overall, single score. Common observation, as well as research, indicates that two

1Knapp, op. cit., p. 18.
TABLE VI

OCCUPATIONAL INTEREST INVENTORIES USED BY 163 CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA IN OBJECTIVE APPRAISAL OF THE INDIVIDUAL STUDENT, 1955

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods of Appraisal</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kuder Preference Record</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>79.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California Occupational Interest Inventory</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleeton Vocational Interest Inventory</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science Research Associates</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Vocational Interest</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brainard Occupational Preference Inventory</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lee-Thorpe</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gentry Vocational Preference Record</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minnesota</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Individuals may differ in certain mental abilities, although they have the same general ability. One individual, for example, may have a high degree of linguistic ability while another has a high degree of ability in qualitative thinking, and both have the same total score. For that reason, the general mental test score should be supplemented with scores of special ability.

Before taking up the discussion of aptitude testing, it seems well to indicate briefly the nature of aptitudes. To quote Bingham:

Aptitude is a condition symptomatic of a person's relative fitness, of which one essential aspect is his readiness to acquire proficiency, his potential ability, and another to his readiness to develop an interest in
exercising that ability...Aptitude is a present condition, yes, but with a forward reference...Aptitude tests do not directly measure future accomplishments. They make no such pretense. They measure present performance. Then, insofar as behavior, past and present, is known to be symptomatic of future potentialities, the test data supply a means of estimating those potentialities.¹

A similar emphasis upon the predictive function of the presence of an aptitude is given by Traxler in his definition of aptitude:

Aptitude is a condition, a quality, or a set of qualities in an individual which is indicative of the probable extent to which he will be able to acquire under suitable training, some knowledge, skill, or composite of knowledge and skill, such as ability to contribute to art or music, mechanical ability, mathematical ability, or ability to read and speak a foreign language. Aptitude is a present condition which is indicative of an individual's potentialities for the future.²

Aptitudes are not wholly innate in character, but may be influenced by training. A pupil who scores high on most mechanical aptitude tests reveals the ability to perform mechanical tasks, and the fact that the score earned is partially the result of experience is unimportant. The very fact that the individual has profited from this past experience is primary evidence of mechanical aptitude. So the counselor should not be concerned with attempting to separate innate and experiential influences which enter into test of special aptitudes.

Counselors sometimes fall into errors of interpretations with respect to special aptitudes. First, it is sometimes assumed that pupils who have low scholastic aptitude are certain to have compensating special aptitudes in mechanical, or manipulative areas. This fallacy leads to the placement of pupils who fail in academic subjects in vocational courses. This practice is based on the assumption that scholastic ineptitude implies ability to successfully work with the hands. While certain special aptitudes have been shown to be not highly related to general scholastic aptitude, one cannot safely resort to generalizations in this connection in dealing with individuals. Special aptitude tests are designed to provide a means for discovering a wide range of aptitudes for pupils who have general scholastic ability, as well as for those who do not.

A second fallacy is the assumption that the existence of a special aptitude is evidence that the individual has an interest in exploiting that aptitude. Though aptitude and interest tests are, in a sense, complementary instruments, the order of use should be reversed. Once a significant interest has been established, tests may be used to determine whether the individual has corresponding aptitudes. Frequently pupils may be aided to develop interests consonant with their aptitudes. The information service of the guidance program should be prepared to make available to pupils, facts about jobs which require one degree, or another, of
the aptitudes which they possess. Failure of many individuals to capitalize on their special aptitudes stems from ignorance of how to exploit them. Appropriate use of interest and aptitude tests, followed by pupil exploration through try-out experiences and perusal of prepared materials, will contribute to the educational, occupational, and personal adjustment of many pupils.

Table VII shows the extent and methods of aptitude testing in the Class "B" secondary schools of Iowa.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method of Appraisal</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Science Research Associates Mechanical</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California Vocational Aptitude</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Differential aptitude</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bennett Differential</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minnesota Clerical</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iowa Aptitude</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detroit Mechanical</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flanagan</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detroit Clerical</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roeder-Graham Aptitude for Occupations</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case Space</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Entrance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detroit General Aptitude</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miller Mechanical</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Academic Aptitude</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohio</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No specific tests listed</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1Smith, op. cit., pp. 147-148.
Nine, or 7.5 per cent of the schools giving aptitude tests, state they gave the Science Research Associates Mechanical Aptitude Test. Eight, or 6.7 per cent of the schools administering aptitude tests indicated they use the California Vocational Aptitude Test. Other aptitude tests were reported as being used, but the number of schools is very small. Judging from the data obtained it would appear that relatively little attention is being given to the discovery of specific aptitudes among the individual students.

In view of the results obtained from this section of the study, it appears that the major portion of the testing program pertains to the measurement of achievement, intelligence, and occupational interest. Measurement of personal adjustment and specific aptitudes are receiving some attention, but not nearly as much as their importance warrants.

III. COUNSELING SERVICES

The events of educational history show growing concern for the individual and for the services provided him by the school. While there is some disagreement as to just what emphasis should be given to counseling, whether it be in small or large school systems, its importance is well recognized. If the emphasis upon individual differences has taught workers in education any one thing, it is that such differences must, by their very nature, require many different kinds of individual adjustments. Since effective counseling
involves a close relationship between individual pupils and particular staff representatives, it is important that these staff representatives, be persons who understand pupil personnel work, that they be skillful in working with people, and that provisions be made for them to give adequate time to pupil adjustment.

Professional literature contains many definitions of counseling, and although no two definitions are the same, there is much similarity among them. Therefore, the following definition by Jones is presented as expressing quite clearly the meaning of counseling:

Counseling is the activity where all the facts are gathered together and all the experiences of the student are focused upon the particular problem to be solved by him, where he is given direct and personal help in solving the problem. It is not solving the problem for him. Counseling should be aimed at the progressive development of the individual to solve his own problems unassisted. It is help, keyed to the ability of each student; giving him just enough help to enable him to solve his own problems, but not enough to make him dependent upon the counselor; just enough help to develop his ability to do his own thinking, so that he can solve it with less help than he had before. 1

From this it can be seen that counseling is also a means to an end, having as its goal the development of mature thinking. Solving the immediate problem is one step in the progressive development of the individual in order that he may be better equipped to solve other problems.

It has already been pointed out that guidance is necessary because every individual needs help at one time or another. These needs create problem situations to which adjustment must be made, and counseling, as has been said, aims to assist in making that adjustment. Individuals always make an adjustment of some kind to situations as they arise, but the processes to which they resort are too often what the psychologist calls escapes, rather than rational solutions to the problem. Psychologists refer to these processes as rationalization, compensation, and daydreaming.

By means of rationalization, the individual attempts to justify his behavior, rather than to adjust that behavior to acceptable social standards. If compensation is resorted to, the individual attempts to bolster some weakness in his personality by overemphasis on some other trait. Daydreaming is often resorted to as a means of escaping reality. If the satisfactory place in the group cannot be realized by the individual, he then creates one of his own. These escape processes are usually unsuspected. The individual does not resort to them consciously, which makes it very necessary for the counselor, or teacher, to be alert to their symptoms so that he can help to avoid the tendency to use them as a means of solving problems. The counselor needs to help the individual realize that good judgment is based on reality, and that he must be courageous if he is going to build firm
foundations for real personal happiness.

Administrators and teachers in many schools regularly carry on guidance of an incidental nature. A notable weakness of incidental guidance lies in the fact that counseling is frequently not recognized as the medium through which the several activities of a guidance nature are brought to bear upon the individual pupil's peculiar abilities, interests, and needs. While group methods frequently serve to provide pupils with general information related to their needs, the ultimate solution of personal problems can be achieved only through personalized assistance. Counseling alone, with an atmosphere conducive to a close scrutiny of personal assets and limitations, adapts itself to the needs of the individual as he is confronted with and as he weighs possible courses of action.

Counseling is characterized by certain features that mark it as the focal point of the guidance program: (1) it is a purposeful learning experience for the counselee; (2) it is a private interview between the counselor and the counselee; and (3) it is a one-to-one relationship, a relationship predicated upon the mutual confidence of the parties concerned, and growing out of the counselee's recognition of an

existing need for assistance, and the presence in the school of an adult who is prepared to provide the desired assistance. Froehlich stresses this point of view concerning counseling. He says counseling provides a situation in which the individual is stimulated: (1) to evaluate himself and his opportunities; (2) to choose a feasible course of action; (3) to accept responsibility for his choice; and (4) to initiate a course of action in line with his choice.

Obviously no other function of the guidance program can serve as an acceptable substitute for counseling. Frequently pupils require skilled aid in evaluating personal potentialities against a background of knowledge about the requirements and opportunities inherent in an area of choice. Moreover, personal qualities are unique to the individual and the relationship between them and possible areas of choice, or problems are considered on an individual basis. Counseling alone provides a medium through which the pupil may be assisted to recognize and evaluate the many factors upon which decisive and intelligent action hinges.

The question as to who should do the counseling is answered in various ways. The broadest answer, no doubt, is


2Froehlich, op. cit., p. 201.
that anyone who teaches, also counsels. Any successful teacher is, by the very nature of his work, familiar with the problems of youth, and is in an excellent position to counsel with them. The actual assignment of counseling duties depends on the personnel of each school. Many schools in Iowa cannot have the services of so-called specialists and must depend on the teachers for counselors. If certain ones are assigned special counseling duties, then they should be freed from other duties for at least two periods each day. If a specialist is a part of the staff, he probably will have more time available for counseling than the average classroom teacher. He should also have other guidance responsibilities, such as administration of the program and direction of group guidance activities. All counselors, whether specialists or classroom teachers, should remember that even though the personal interview is an important part of the counseling program, it is not always necessary to have a formal interview in order to do counseling. Some of it can be done whenever the occasion develops, in the hall, at a ball game, in the library, and any time it seems wise for a student and teacher to talk things over.

The personal characteristics which counselors should possess are the same as those which most successful teachers

1Department of Public Instruction, op. cit., p. 124.
have. The counselor should be a person who has experienced success in life and success in teaching. A well-adjusted, mature personality is a prerequisite for anyone working as a counselor.

While every school system cannot expect to have a specialist or psychiatrist on its staff to do the counseling, it must be realized that many people now teaching school are hardly qualified to act as counselors on all types of pupil problems. Just as one would not think of having an inexperienced, untrained person perform a surgical operation, or attempt to fix an intricate machine, neither should one expect inexperienced and unprepared teachers to counsel with students about problems which are beyond their realm of understanding and training.

Successful teachers do not need to wait until they can call themselves specialists before they should begin counseling, but all counselors should get training as soon as possible in the following areas: (1) tests and measurements; (2) techniques and psychology of counseling; (3) mental hygiene and psychology dealing with individual growth and development; and (4) guidance and special personnel services.

Preparation in the areas listed above will provide the teacher with adequate background and training to work successfully as a counselor. Schools must not wait until expertly trained counselors are available before attacking some of the pupil problems prevalent in nearly every school.
system and before providing some counselor service. Counselors must grow in the service. Advanced training through summer school work, extension courses, professional literature, et cetera, will need to be a part of every counselor's professional training.

As Table VIII indicates, the major portion of individual counseling rests with the superintendents and principals. One hundred nineteen, or 46.1 per cent of the schools with counseling personnel stated the superintendents did the counseling in the school; eighty, or 31.0 per cent of the schools with counseling personnel indicated the principals did the counseling. Fifty-five, or 21.3 per cent of the schools with counseling listed various teachers as the school counselors. Only four, or 1.6 per cent of the schools with counseling had a school official listed as the guidance director.

Fifty-three, or 44.5 per cent of the superintendents designated as counselors stated they were given assigned time for counseling. Thirty-seven, or 46.3 per cent of the principals indicated as counselors were given assigned time for guidance work. Thirty-eight, or 69.0 per cent of the schools have assigned time for teachers designated as counselors. All four, or 100 per cent of the schools with guidance directors appointed as counselors were assigned time for counseling.

\[^1\text{Ibid.}, \text{p. 125.}\]
In each school that has set aside time for counseling, it is less than half the number of periods each day. It is generally accepted that counselors who have two or more consecutive hours for counseling are more effective than are a greater number with a single hour. The activities involved in preparing for a counseling interview, and the time consumed in closing the interview in preparation for a class which follows, seriously restricts the coverage provided by the single-hour counselor. It has been estimated by practicing counselors that in a two-hour period, three or four times as much can be accomplished as in a one-hour period. This experience suggests that several part-time counselors with one hour daily each for counseling purposes accomplish markedly less than half that number with two consecutive hours of counseling time. In general, the practice of assigning counselors with half-day counseling periods as a minimum seems to be desirable.

Most of the administrators and teachers have had little, or no training in guidance or counseling techniques. Forty-eight, or 40.3 per cent of the superintendents assigned as counselors meet the state guidance certification requirements. Thirteen, or 16.2 per cent of the principals, designated as counselors meet the requirements. Seven, or 12.7 per cent of the teachers assigned counseling duties fulfill the requirements, while two, or 50.0 per cent of the guidance directors acting as counselor are certified. There were numerous notations by superintendents that they were not familiar with
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
<th>Number Given Assigned Time</th>
<th>Per Cent*</th>
<th>Number meeting Iowa State Certification Requirements</th>
<th>Per Cent**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Superintendent</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>69.0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidance Director</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Based on number reporting in left-hand column
**Based on number reporting in left-hand column
the Iowa State requirements for guidance certification.

If counseling is important, then it should be carried on during regularly scheduled school periods. The different times when counseling interviews are scheduled in the Class "B" schools of Iowa are shown in Table IX.

**TABLE IX**

**SCHEDULE FOR COUNSELING INTERVIEWS IN 298 CLASS "B" SCHOOLS OF IOWA, 1955**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Free period</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>61.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After school</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before school</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Room</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noon Hour</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One hundred eighty-two, or 61.0 per cent of the schools indicated they utilize the students free periods for counseling interviews. Sixty, or 20.1 per cent, utilize the time after school for interviewing. Forty-seven, or 15.7 per cent of the schools schedule interviews before school takes up in the morning. Forty-three, or 14.4 per cent of the schools make provisions during home room for counseling. Thirty-four, or 11.4 per cent provide individual interviews during the noon hour.

The counseling service depends in a large measure upon the several supporting services which make it functional. There can be no counseling in most schools in the absence of
adequate information about pupils. Records require certain physical facilities and equipment. Provision needs to be made for collecting information about jobs, opportunities for further education, guidance materials related to the developmental needs of pupils, and other information related to the interests of pupils. The counseling process cannot be carried on effectively in the absence of private quarters for counseling interviews. The placement and follow-up functions which are essential to effective counseling demand space, supplies, equipment, and clerical assistance. Other supporting activities require that provisions be made for appropriate facilities, supplies, and materials. While physical needs in the counseling service may seem to be of minor importance as compared with such factors as competent counselors and enthusiastic administrative leadership, actually they have considerable bearing upon the efficacy of counseling. Information about pupils may be of relatively little value to counselors and teachers in the absence of adequate filing space and individual folders for pupils, which are accessible to the teachers. Certainly attempting to counsel with pupils in halls and crowded offices is virtually useless. It should be clearly understood then that counseling

1Smith, op. cit., pp. 257-258.
techniques should be adapted to the various needs of the student. The counselor should work with the whole person in all different aspects of his life. For this reason, the schools should not set up separate counseling programs, for instance, programs of vocational counseling, educational counseling, and adjustment counseling. Instead, the school should have one counseling program, a program that includes counseling in all the areas just cited. The competent counselor works with a student in all these important areas of the latter's life. He rarely deals with a specific vocational problem, or a specific educational problem, in isolation. Rather, he considers that problem in its relationships to the other problems or adjustments that the student is facing, or will face.

The response dealing with this section of the questionnaire seems to indicate that although not much is being done as far as organized counseling is concerned, incidental guidance must occupy a considerable amount of school time. One hundred seventy-five, or 58.7 per cent of the superintendents stated they referred students to other persons capable of counseling in a particular area. Two hundred twenty-one, or 74.1 per cent, have free access to the personal data concerning the student. One hundred twenty-three or 41.3 per cent of the schools reported that students were given counseling as a pre-registration aid. One hundred eighteen, or 95.9 per cent of the cases followed the
pre-registration suggestions in registration.

One hundred ninety-two, or 64.4 per cent of the superintendents indicated, counseling was given as an aid in understanding the nature of various occupational opportunities.

One hundred eighty-nine, or 63.4 per cent of the schools provide counseling relative to adjustment to common social problems. One hundred ninety-six, or 65.7 per cent, counsel personal problems. And 143, or 47.9 per cent of the schools make counseling available for leisure time problems.

From the data presented, it appears that the programs of counseling in the Class "B" schools of Iowa are organized, more or less, around administrators who have had little, or no formal training in counseling techniques. Also, they have little assigned time in which to use what guidance knowledge they do possess. Even though the conscientious superintendent, or principal, may try hard to establish the necessary rapport for effective counseling, the fact remains that in most cases these administrators are the same persons who handle the disciplinary problems. Consequently, it would appear that much of the counseling is not as effective as it should, or could be, if favorable conditions for its success were present.

IV. OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION AND GUIDANCE

Guidance without information is nearly akin to quackery. The major functions of a guidance program consists of helping
the pupil to understand himself; helping him to secure adequate educational, occupational, and personal information; and the putting together the facts about the individual with those secured through the informational service.

Many pupils make unwise vocational choices because of a lack of information, faulty information, or because of the high social and economic status of various vocations. Likewise, faulty information or a lack of information about themselves may lead to unwise solution of problems. If one is not acquainted with his own abilities with respect to those persons engaged in a particular vocation, he will not know his chances of success or failure. It is not unusual for those of low abilities to elect a major profession, and one of high ability to choose one requiring less ability than he possesses. Some young people are graduated from high school, or even college, before they decide upon their field of occupational activity. Nevertheless, much of the student learning on the elementary and secondary level, and the guidance that he receives there affects his future career. Attitudes, modes of thinking, and behavior patterns developed throughout his years of schooling have a potent influence upon his competence as an adult worker. Somewhere along the line, he needs guidance directed at wise vocational choice, adequate occupational

1Bent and Kronenberg, op. cit., p. 528.
preparation, and satisfying adjustment.

The need of pupils for information designed to help them in making appropriate choices, plans, and decisions, becomes more acute as they become increasingly self-directive. The process of social, educational, vocational, physical, and emotional maturation tends to open for students new vistas of interests and activities. As their activities increase in number and scope, the process of selecting and rejecting courses of action becomes more varied and complex. Many decisions which they make emphasize the need for appropriate information upon which to decide between alternative courses of action. In addition, they need certain information concerning the physical and social settings in which they move. It is a responsibility of the school to provide needed information for pupils directly or through referral to available sources outside the school.

The task of furnishing accurate up-to-date occupational information for its students is a challenge for every school. The job scene is constantly shifting and information that is accurate today, may be inaccurate tomorrow. One of the requirements for happiness in living is worthwhile work. An individual should plan his educational program in relationship to something he wants to do. This means that he must


2Roeber, Smith, and Erickson, op. cit., pp. 14-16.
have some ideas about the work of the world. Many people are unhappy in their own work because they do not understand the work of other people.

It is estimated that there are between 30,000 and 50,000 different types of jobs available and that this number is constantly growing. Needless to say, undertaking the study of even 30,000 jobs would be an impossible task in any high school. Such a program would only lead to confusion and finally discord. However, it is possible to divide the work of the world into eleven major occupational areas as follows: (1) professional and semi-professional workers; (2) farmers and farm managers; (3) proprietors, managers, and officials except farm; (4) clerical, sales, and kindred work; (5) craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers; (6) operatives and kindred workers; (7) domestic service workers; (8) protective service workers; (9) service workers except domestic and protective; (10) farm laborers and foremen; and (11) laborers except farm and mine.

The school should provide adequate opportunity for the pupils to study the types of jobs available under each division, the general and specific educational requirements, physical, mental, and personal characteristics required, 

present opportunities and future trends, and other general information about each occupational division.

The vocational courses offered in the Class "B" secondary schools of Iowa are presented in Table X.

**TABLE X**

VOCATIONAL COURSES OFFERED IN 298 CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA, 1955

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Courses</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Arts</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>75.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupations</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational agriculture</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive education</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational home economics</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two hundred twenty-four, or 75.1 per cent of the schools stated they offered a course in industrial arts. Ninety-eight, or 32.8 per cent of the schools provide their students with the opportunity to take a course in occupations. Thirty-three, or 11.0 per cent indicated their agriculture courses were vocationally approved by the Iowa State Department of Public Instruction. Twenty-three, or 7.7 per cent indicated they offer a course in distributive education. Twelve, or 4.4 per cent of the schools have vocational home economics.

1Department of Public Instruction, op. cit., pp. 77-82.
Twenty-two, or 7.4 per cent indicated they made a careful selection, through tests, et cetera, of the students who enter these vocational courses.

The methods most commonly used to present occupational information and guidance to the students of the Class "B" schools of Iowa is shown in Table XI.

**TABLE XI**

**METHODS OF IMPARTING OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION AND GUIDANCE TO STUDENTS AS REPORTED BY 298 CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA, 1955**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedures Followed</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career day</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>62.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational information combined with courses</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>53.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual aids</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lectures by outside personnel</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A good many of the schools seem to rely on the annual "career day" programs to convey occupational information to their students. Two hundred twenty-seven, or 76.1 per cent indicated they used this method. One hundred eighty-six, or 62.4 per cent of the schools depend upon the library facilities to provide students with occupational information. The adequacy of these facilities is not discernible through the questionnaire. The number and types of pamphlets, bulletins
occupational briefs, monographs, and books would depend upon the organization of the library and the information service. One hundred sixty, or 53.6 per cent of the schools state they try to incorporate occupational information into their course material. One hundred nine, or 36.5 per cent of the schools make use of movies, film strips, and other visual aids. Ninety-seven, or 32.5 per cent of the schools call in outside personnel to lecture to the students.

The discovery of the interests, the aptitudes, and the abilities of an individual are of very little use unless the individual is able to match these interests, aptitudes, and abilities with suitable information.

V. GROUP GUIDANCE

To some workers in the field, counseling in individual situations represents the essence of guidance or personnel work. Regardless of the truth of this concept of guidance, so-called individual guidance is costly and must be supplemented by guidance provided in group situations. Also, there are certain aspects of guidance activities that are impossible of achievement in any but group situations.¹

Some maintain that the term "group guidance" is a misnomer; that what is called group guidance is teaching. The

¹Crow and Crow, op. cit., p. 155.
line of thought leading to this conclusion is something like this: "Guidance is a personal service given to the individual, therefore it must be given to him alone; it cannot be given to him in a group." It is true that guidance is a service to individuals, but it does not follow that it cannot be given in a group. There is no one who does not, at sometime, receive valuable help from another person in a small, or a large group. Restriction of the help called guidance to a situation in which there are only two persons, the one who comes for help, and the one to whom he comes, is quite arbitrary and incorrect. This would make guidance and counseling synonymous, and would be far too restrictive. If the accuracy of the term "group guidance" is denied, then the terms "group instruction" and "group testing," must also be rejected. Group instruction means help given to pupils in a group; it is opposed to individual instruction, but it may still be individualized instruction. Group tests are tests given to individuals in a group; but the tests are none the less, tests of each individual, not of the group. The term "group therapy" is used in which the group itself helps each individual in the group to overcome difficulties and to remove maladjustments. The term "group guidance" is not only justifiable, but has a very important and significant meaning. The distinction between teaching and guidance is, at best, rather nebulous. If teaching is helping the individual to secure facts, to develop habits, interests, and attitudes that are useful, then even
the counselor teaches when he counsels. It is difficult to determine just where group guidance ends and group instruction begins. Perhaps the best statement of group guidance is:

"Group guidance is any group enterprise, or activity, in which the primary purpose is to assist each individual in the group to solve his problems and to make his adjustments."\(^1\)

An adequate guidance service that meets the needs of all students cannot be performed through counseling and individual contacts alone. As schools are now organized, counseling will continue to be largely remedial and deal with problems after they have arisen. No matter how well planned the counseling program is, there is need for the organization of group aspects of it. Group guidance, or guidance through group activities, includes all those forms of guidance activities that are undertaken in groups, or in classes. It assumes, with reason, that there are not enough qualified counselors to provide adequate individual counseling for every pupil, and that some other means must be provided for reaching every pupil. It is also believed that certain forms of assistance can be given in groups more effectively than individually. Well-directed group study of common problems helps to develop perspective and wholesome objectivity in respect to the problem of the individual. It aids in the development of wholesome and helpful awareness of unrecognized

\(^1\)Jones, _op. cit._, pp. 302-303.
needs and problems, and thus lays the foundation, develops
the need, and prepares the way for individual counseling.
Group discussion of common problems enables each individual
to understand how others feel about his own problems, and to
learn how others have met and solved the problem that now
confronts him. It focuses collective judgment on problems
that are common to the group. Students are willing to discuss
in a group problems that they are unwilling to discuss in pri-
vate interviews. It gives them an opportunity to express
their anxieties and relieve their pent-up feelings. Students
may often accept ideas and suggestions that have been given
by adults, but rejected by them, if they are offered again
by members of their own group.

The groups utilized for this form of guidance are ex-
tremely varied. Among the more common ones are the following:
(1) home room; (2) regular subject classes; (3) special
groups organized for the consideration of special topics;
(4) school assemblies; (5) conferences, such as career day
or college night; and (6) clubs or other groups organized
around common interests.

The problems taken up in these group conferences are
naturally, extremely varied, covering all types of situations
that have common elements, or that may profitable be dis-
cussed in groups. Among these are problems relating to edu-
cational plans, adjustment to home and school, social situa-
tions, choice of life work, getting a job, personality problems
economic and occupational problems, and many others.

Whatever is attempted in the way of guidance through group activities should center around the vital interests of the participants. Programs of guidance that are superimposed by adult leaders, and are directed by adults, rarely fulfill the purposes for which they are inaugurated. This is a fundamental principle of guidance in group situations that should be adhered to strictly.

Table XII shows the group guidance activities as reported by the administrators responding to this portion of the questionnaire. Receiving library instruction heads the list of group guidance activities. Getting acquainted with the library is important because the school library is the center for most of the informational materials available in the school. The student should have access to a wide range of informational materials in the field of educational, occupational, and personal problems. If he is to make effective use of the library, he must know types of materials it contains and where they are located. In addition, he must know how to evaluate and use the information he finds. As part of his orientation to the school, the pupil should visit the library as a member of a class and learn through personal contact the various activities of the library. Library problems

1Jones, op. cit., pp. 303-304
TABLE XII

GROUP GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES IN 298 CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA, 1955

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Library instruction.</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>66.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study habits instruction.</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remedial reading</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home room</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation.</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and activities should be provided through class assignments in order to give each pupil practical knowledge and skill in library techniques. Such techniques and skills are necessary if the pupil is to make an independent approach to the gathering of information for the solution of his problems. One hundred ninety-seven, or 66.1 per cent of the schools instruct their students in the use of the library.

Developing effective study habits becomes increasingly important as one is given more freedom in selecting the activities in which he wishes to participate. One common complaint among high school students, and often given as a reason for poor scholarship, is "not enough time." Each student, through some class activity, should be assisted in preparing a time schedule budgeting his time through each school day. Such a schedule will permit the pupil to develop a systematic approach to the many varied activities in which he wishes to participate. The schedule should permit adequate
time for study, and this time should be set aside first. The remainder of the time should be distributed among the other activities. Care must be taken that the pupil develops a time schedule that has proper balance. The knowledge and understanding necessary for the successful scheduling of time may be secured through group activities. However, the application to each pupil is an individual problem.

The ability to concentrate is lacking in many high school students. They look upon concentration as some magic situation which comes about through some unknown manner, and enables them to remember what they have read or thought. The power to concentrate is not a gift, but consists of a large number of specific habits. Among these habits are the following: (1) regularity in habits of work; (2) setting a definite goal; (3) think about the material you are reading: check the author's opinion with your own thoughts; (4) do not wait for inspiration - apply yourself; (5) develop pride in your ability to ignore petty annoyances; (6) discover most effective length of study period for yourself; and (7) select and mark important parts of the lesson, noting new words and their meaning. While much of the work in developing adequate skills in concentration is of an individual nature, the task of developing proper attitudes, isolating the specific skills needed, and the development of a program of action can properly be conducted and developed through group activities.

The inability to pay attention at the proper time
causes a great deal of difficulty in high school. Pupils are constantly failing to get the specific assignments and often accept a too general idea of the assignment to be of benefit in preparing the lesson. Much energy is wasted through misdirection. The attention of the group should be directed to the importance of getting the specific assignment, locating exact references, attending to emphasis placed on various points, and evaluating the summary as given by the teacher. Ninety-seven, or 32.5 per cent of the schools provide for this instruction in their program.

Fifty-nine, or 19.8 per cent, of the schools made provisions for remedial reading. Improving reading ability is important because one of the important causes of poor study habits is lack of adequate reading ability. Many educational misfits in high school lack adequate skill in reading. Some of the most common faults in reading are lack of adequate speed, poor comprehension, vocalization, poor eye movements, and insufficient vocabulary. Group attention can be focused upon these various reading skills. For some students this would be a review, for others it would be an initial learning situation.

The homeroom plan of organization was developed to help the schools establish a closer relationship with the pupils. In the general organization of instruction on the departmental basis, there was no provision by which any one teacher had definite responsibility for any student for his
entire work. A student comes in contact with many different teachers, each of whom knows him only from the point of view of the subject and the classroom. There is great need for providing someone who will take a definite responsibility for each student, whose duty it will be to study him, learn all about him, and assist him in his adjustments to school. The homeroom sponsor is the only one who has the student every day, whose duty it is to know all about his work, study his characteristics, and exercise a general oversight of him. The homeroom sponsor has the opportunity of knowing the members of his room more intimately and accurately than the classroom teacher can ever know them, especially in the permanent homeroom plan in which each sponsor stays with the same class throughout high school. The relationships thus established are cumulative in their effects and provide the best possible basis for certain forms of assistance. Not only does the homeroom sponsor know each student more intimately, but he can be of greater assistance to the classroom teachers in many ways. Discouragement and failure of pupils may often be prevented by information regarding home conditions, health, etc., such as only the homeroom sponsor may have. Knowledge of outside interests of students may often be of great help to the classroom teacher in planning her work and in utilizing special interests. All such information enables the classroom teacher to make more effective the
assistance she give to her pupils. Forty-seven, or 15.7 per cent, administrators stated they used the homeroom plan of organization.

Starting in a new school is not a happy experience for all students. Were not social pressures in operation, many freshmen would behave as kindergarten children do on the first day of school. They would cling tightly to mama's hand for support and comfort in this strange and perplexing school. But our mores make the freshmen go to school alone, and many feel alone for a long time. They have fears, too. It is common for new students to fear the teachers, to be afraid of not finding their way around the building, and to fear the upperclassmen. Problems of getting adjusted to the new school are not confined to the shy, or to less intelligent students. They are common problems, and it is for this reason that group methods are effective means of dealing with them. The service which is given to students to help them adjust to the new school is called orientation.

Orientation programs should reach all students in new school situations. It is not enough to plan an orientation program for freshmen. The transfer student is as much in need of assistance, even though he comes in the middle of the year, as is the freshman. A second principle is that orientation is a continuing process. This is one of the most

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1Jones, op. cit., pp. 527-529.
frequently ignored principles. The orientation program is confined to the first day of school in most schools. The persons who plan such a program must have remarkable faith in the efficacy of their orientation process. To expect that in one day students can gain the necessary knowledge and appreciation to make a satisfactory adjustment to the new school is foolhardy. As a minimum, the students should have specialized help for the first term. The first day may cover such items as a knowledge of the school building and rules. But during the semester, they need to make decisions regarding such things as attendance at school functions, participation in activity programs, and utilization of sources of help on problems. Satisfactory adjustment in these and other areas does not come from being told. It comes only from an understanding in terms which are consonant with personal attitudes and motivations. Some students will require individual counseling before they can make these adjustments; for most students, group procedures will be sufficient.

Orientation programs should be planned to assist students in a wide variety of areas. A new student needs to make many adjustments. He must develop a satisfying place for himself in the classroom and out. New friendships must be made, and the feeling of belonging to the group established. The rules and mores of the school must be understood. The list could be extended indefinitely for each student has his own special adjustments to make. Some students will make
poor adjustments despite an orientation program, for it is not a panacea for all adjustment problems of all students.

In organizing a program, as many student problems as possible should be anticipated. Students failure to make satisfactory adjustments may furnish valuable clues for anticipating student problems. But they should not be the only source. Program planners can profit by thinking through from the students angle, the adjustments which must be made, because not all failures will be serious enough to detect. Once the list of anticipated student problems is compiled, those which hold promise of being prevented by group procedures should be selected as the core of the orientation program. Such a procedure will result in a program designed to assist students make a wide variety of adjustments to the school. Of the schools reporting, forty-one, or 10.4 percent, indicated they had an orientation program to help the incoming students adjust to their new surroundings and situations.

The importance of, and the place of, the homeroom in the guidance program has already been pointed out. What use do the forty-seven schools, who indicated they had homerooms, make of them? That information is presented in Table XIII.

Traditionally, the principal purpose of the homeroom

1Froehlich, op. cit., pp. 81-84.
TABLE XIII
PURPOSES SERVED BY THE HOMEROOMS IN 47 CLASS "B"
SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOW, 1955

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administrative</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>91.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planned guidance program</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

has been to serve administrative ends. This concept of the homeroom still has a strong grip on the schools of Iowa as evidenced by forty-three, or 91.5 per cent of the schools with homeroom organization. Today, administration should be only one of the functions of the homeroom, because it can become one of the instruments of guidance, particularly group guidance. Roberts states that the homeroom organization should serve the following ends: (1) helpful, friendly, personal interest in every pupil; (2) orientation in school life and routine; (3) records, reports, and attendance; (4) development of school citizenship, leadership, and personality; and (5) cooperation with the director of guidance in assisting pupils with their adjustment problems. However, only four, or 8.5 per cent of the schools having homerooms stated they used the homeroom periods for planned guidance activities.

The administrators who stated they had an orientation program for their students entering high school were asked to briefly describe it. The results are shown in Table XIV.

Each school should have a well-planned program of ways to welcome students and help develop an attitude of interest in the school. There are various ways of doing this. The principal can meet with the newcomers and explain the school program to them. This method was used in fourteen, or 34.1 per cent of the schools having orientation programs. The student handbook, used by nine, or 22.0 per cent of the reporting schools, with orientation programs, serves two major purposes. One is administration, that is, the bringing of the office closer to the student; and the other is guidance. Eight, or 19.5 per cent of the schools with an orientation program, have an eighteen period course for orientation purposes. No provision was made to determine what these courses encompass. Some schools find that the big-sister and big-brother approach is helpful for personal and individual adjustment. Four, or 9.8 per cent of the schools with orientation programs use this technique for helping new students to high school make the transition with the greatest ease and satisfaction. Two, or 4.9 per cent of the schools with orientation stated it was one of the duties of the teachers to orient freshmen to high school. One school, or 2.4 per cent of the schools with orientation programs used parental visitation as a part of their orientation program.
TABLE XIV
ORIENTATION PROGRAMS FOR STUDENTS ENTERING CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA, 1955

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principal orients freshmen</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>34.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handbook</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eighteen period course</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upperclassmen orient freshmen</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers orient freshmen</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent visitation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Didn't describe programs</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Successful participation in a school club, as a group experience, provides an excellent opportunity for the development of student potentialities. The school club offers opportunities to develop useful skills, to learn to live and work successfully in a group, to affect others and be affected, to respect the viewpoints of others, and to practice leadership and fellowship. The development of inter-personal competencies must receive prime consideration in education. They constitute the real basis for democratic understanding, and unless the individual student is given an opportunity to learn them in school, his successful adjustment in adulthood may be impeded.

The administrators were asked to list the club activities in their respective schools. The results to that request are shown in Table XV.
### Table XV

**CLUB ACTIVITIES IN 298 CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA, 1955**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Club</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Letterman</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.F.A.</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pep</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Council</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driver Safety</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drama</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.H.A.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.T.A.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Paper</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photography</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hi-Y.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.A.A.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rifle</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thirty-eight, or 12.7 per cent, of the schools have an athletic letter winners club. Twenty-seven, or 9.0 per cent listed a Future Farmers of America organization. Twenty-four, or 8.0 per cent of the schools have a pep club. Twenty-four, or 8.0 per cent of the schools maintain a music club. Twenty-two, or 7.3 per cent sponsor student councils. Twenty-one, or 7.0 per cent of the schools have a driver safety club in conjunction with driver education courses. Twelve, or 3.6 per cent of the schools have a Future Homemakers of America activity. Eleven, or 3.6 per cent of the schools maintain a
science club. Nine, or 3.0 per cent of the schools have a
Future Teachers of America club. Eight, or 2.6 per cent,
of the schools have the school paper operated as a club func-
tion. Eight, or 2.6 per cent of the schools list speech as
one of their club activities. Five, or 1.6 per cent of the
schools make provisions for a photography club. Four school,
or 1.3 per cent, operate a Hi-Y organization. Two, or .5 per
cent of the schools gave the Girls Athletic Association as one
of their club activities. Conservation was listed in one, or
.3 per cent of the schools. A rifle club was formed in one,
or .3 per cent of the responding schools.

VI. PLACEMENT SERVICE

The guidance program has often been defined in terms
of the services it provides. Included within the program is
the placement service without which the guidance program would
be incomplete. It would be illogical to gather information
about the pupil, provide occupational and educational informa-
tion for him, assist him the selection and achieving of educa-
tional and vocational goals and then stop without aiding him
to select and obtain employment. This lack of articulation
would defeat the purpose for which the guidance program is es-

tablished; that is, the development and adjustment of the
student to the maximum of his abilities. The placement service
assumes a logical sequence in the guidance program by providing
the student with an opportunity to utilize the development he
has achieved. The placement service embraces all those activities which assist the student in his post-high school adjustment, whether it be full-time employment, part-time work, or additional educational training. An organized and systematic program is necessary if the needs of the students are going to be met.

The determination of the responsibility for the placement service for school youth is debatable. On one side of the question is that group of authorities who say that placement is the concern of the school. On the other side of the question are those administrators who feel that placement is not a responsibility of the school. They argue that the counselor is already overburdened without the additional duties required by the placement service. With state and public agencies available, placement by the school would be a duplication of effort and money. Furthermore, community agencies are much better equipped to do an effective job of placement.1

Myers, among others, takes issue with those who believe that placement is not properly a function of the school, that other guidance services adequately prepare students to exercise their own initiative and ingenuity in finding a job.

1Roy D. Willey and Dean C. Andrew, Modern Methods and Techniques in Guidance, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955), pp. 397-398.
He points out that, "The transfer of youth from school to occupational activities is an educational service and thus is a proper function of society's chosen educational agency, the school system."  

The American Association of School Administrators has taken cognizance of the school's responsibility for job placement by pointing out some factors which contribute to the school's preparation for providing such services. It is obvious that some agency must take the initiative in coordinating all efforts toward the occupational adjustment of youth. The school, for many reasons, is in the most strategic position to effect such a coordination. Having worked out and maintained a system of cumulative records for its pupils, the school usually has the largest and most effective stock of pertinent information. Being the closest to its pupils, it is naturally able to collect the greatest amount of usable knowledge about them. Use of these records will avoid much duplication and wasteful expenditure of energy and effort. Information about boys and girls discovered by community agencies may well be added to school records where it will serve as

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helpful and important supplementation. With the school as the
clearinghouse of information, there will be avoided that un-
fortunate condition which permits government agencies, and
local agencies, to attempt to render services, each in appar-
ent ignorance of what the other one is doing.

There are many variations of the above points of
view, but the writer feels that the schools do have an ines-
capable responsibility to see that every student has the op-
portunity for placement service. The extent to which high
schools will engage in actual placement procedures will de-
pend upon many factors. The size of the high school, avail-
ability of state and public employment agencies, and the
number of school personnel available are a few of the factors
that should be considered. From this procedure, the guidance
program would be invariably linked with the community.

Thirteen schools, of 4.4 per cent of those returning
questionnaires stated they maintained an organized placement
service. Superintendents directed seven, or 53.9 per cent of
these placement services, commercial teacher one, or 7.6 per
cent, and no director was listed for the other five. No de-
scription was given, so it is impossible to give the type of
organization employed.

An important part of the placement service is a usable
record system. These records should show information concern-
ing the student's qualifications, as well as the jobs which are
available. A minimum record system for such a service might
be as follows: the student's name, address, telephone, father's occupation, experience, first and second choices of work, two references, average grade, attendance and health record, and space for referrals, placement, and dates. The records about the job should contain the employer's name and address, kind of job, where, and when to apply.

There is a sharp contrast between these two aspects of the placement service as practiced by the Class "B" schools of Iowa. One hundred ninety-six, or 65.7 per cent of the reporting schools provide prospective employers, when asked to do so, personal information about the student, such as, results of tests, grades, extra-curricular activities, personality traits, and so forth. However, only twenty-seven, or 9.1 per cent of the reporting schools had an active, up-to-date file of occupational opportunities in their community.

There are other methods beside the information accumulated on permanent records by which the school can help students in applying for jobs. Writing letters of application, preparing for interviews, and obtaining information about the company and its employment practices are techniques which should be familiar to the student.

Table XVI displays the extent to which these instructions are provided for the student.

Two hundred twenty-four, or 75.1 per cent of the schools reporting, indicated they gave students assistance in writing letters of application. One hundred ninety-four, or
TABLE XVI
STUDENT PLACEMENT AIDS USED BY 298 CLASS "B"
SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA, 1955

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aids</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing letters of appreciation</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>75.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparing for the interview</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>65.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obtaining information about the company and its employment practices</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>47.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

65.1 per cent, made provisions for helping students learn how to prepare for an interview. One hundred forty-two, or 47.6 per cent of the schools assisted students in obtaining information about the company and its employment practices.

VII. FOLLOW-UP RECORD OF GRADUATES AND DROP-OUTS

It has already been pointed out that guidance aims to assist the individual in making the successive adjustments from one situation to another, whether in school or out. It naturally follows then that some follow-up should be made to determine if the adjustment which was made brought satisfaction. While the student is still in school this is comparatively easy. It is important for many reasons, however, that the school continue its contacts with students even after they leave school, whether through graduation, or the drop-out process. There are many values which can accrue, both to
the student and to the school, from a follow-up study of this kind. Brewster and Zeran aptly described these values thus:

The follow-up may well be utilized as the focal point in the development of a guidance program, since the study of the problems and experiences of former pupils will provide pertinent data relative to the number of pupils entering and pursuing higher education, the occupational distribution of those who entered employment, the number employed, the approximate beginning salaries, of workers, the types of training pursued, the type and amount of supplementary training needed to hold, or progress in the present position, or training needed to secure a job. The information thus secured is both objective and factual - as such its implications for guidance activities and the curriculum are practical and effective.1

There are a number of important reasons why a high school should gather information about its former students, both graduates and drop-outs.

A manufacturer, if he wants to stay in business, does not lose interest in his product as soon as it is sold. He follows the product into the consumer's hands to learn how it is working out under actual operating conditions. A manufacturer of washing machines wants to know, for example, if the newly designed wringer on his machine is satisfactory. He may actually spend thousands of dollars in discovering the consumer's reactions to relatively minor changes in design. If he finds that his product needs to be changed to meet consumer demands, he immediately makes necessary revisions in the manufacturing process. From such manufacturers the schools can take a lead. They, too, should follow their products to discover needed revisions of the schools program.
A wag once remarked of medical doctors, "Their successes are walking around; they bury their mistakes." Not so in guidance work. The unsuccessful cases live to tell the tale. And it is fortunate that they do, for from them, guidance workers can learn a great deal. The follow-up study can provide information of value to the school in planning its guidance program and curricular offerings, for it should be designed to furnish information which can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of the student's educational, vocational, and personal adjustment.

The school has a continuing responsibility for its students. No longer is the concept acceptable that the school is done with them once they leave, either by the front door on graduation day, or the back door because of failure or economic circumstances. Whether or not the student is still in school should not determine the guidance programs interest in offering him further services. Rather, his need for services the guidance program can give him should be the determining factor.

The section of the questionnaire dealing with the follow-up phase of guidance, received one of the poorest responses. If this is indicative of the status in the Class "B"

\[1\]Smith, *op. cit.*, pp. 309-311.
schools of this type of guidance, then one questions the effectiveness of the rest of the program. The results to the follow-up questions are shown in Table XVII.

TABLE XVII
FOLLOW-UP STUDIES AS CONDUCTED BY 89 CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF IOWA, 1955

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Follow-up</th>
<th>Number Reporting</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
<th>Usable Data</th>
<th>Per Cent*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Graduates</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>61.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop-outs</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both graduates and drop-outs</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>52.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Based on number reporting in left-hand column.

Thirty-one, or 34.8 per cent of the schools conducting follow-up studies stated they made follow-up studies only of their graduates. Fourteen, or 15.7 per cent of the schools making follow-up studies made follow-up studies only of their drop-outs. Forty-four, or 49.5 per cent of the schools conducting follow-up studies stated they made follow-up studies of both graduates and drop-outs.

It has already been pointed out that one of the values resulting from the returns of follow-up surveys is the implications these results carry for revision of various parts of the school program, primarily that of curriculum and guidance services. Nineteen, or 61.2 per cent of the school administrators conducting follow-up studies of graduates stated
that the results they received revealed data that was usable in curriculum development. Four, or 28.5 per cent of the schools conducting follow-up studies only of drop-outs indicated the follow-up materials received from drop-outs contained information of enough significance to be used for the improvement of the curriculum. Twenty-three, or 52.2 per cent of the schools who make follow-up studies of both graduates and drop-outs, were of the opinion that the data returned to them could be used for curriculum development.

To gather the various kinds of significant information concerning its former students, a high school can employ one or more techniques, such as the following: questionnaires; letters; telephone conversations; interviews; visits to their places of work; interviews with employers or present counselors; and other contacts with persons and organizations who know these former students.

The methods used by the Class "B" secondary schools of Iowa for conducting follow-up surveys are presented in Table XVIII.

Parents, employers, college officials, various community workers and recreational leaders, and ministers frequently can furnish much valuable information about former students and their problems of adjustment in particular areas.

\[1\] Humphreys and Traxler, *op. cit.*, p. 217.
In fact, if these sources are neglected, the information is not so complete, and frequently not so reliable as it could be. Of the 133 schools reporting, sixty-one, or 45.9 per cent secure information about former students through coming in contact with the students' parents.

Each high school will, of course, want to design its own follow-up letter or questionnaire to its former students, both graduates and non-graduates. This questionnaire, however, should have these two general purposes; first, to find out what further education these former students had; and second, to find out where these former students were or are employed, and what positions they held or hold. In order to secure the maximum cooperation of former students, the questionnaire should contain a statement of its general purpose and of the proposed uses to be made of the returns. Thirty-
seven, or 27.7 per cent of the schools answering this portion of the questionnaire, indicated they used this method for obtaining information from the graduates. Fourteen, or 10.6 per cent, used this method to obtain data about the former students from their employers or training institutions.

The school may employ the telephone in a follow-up study of former students. The school should, however, recognize that this technique has its limitations. At best, the telephone can serve as a means for securing only the more routine kinds of information from former students, or about them from employers and others. Ten, or 7.5 per cent of these schools incorporate the use of the telephone for securing guidance information from former students. Four, or 3.1 per cent used this technique for contacting the former students employer or training institution.

The interview is one of the most valuable methods to use in the follow-up of former students. If the proper spirit of cooperation exists between the individual and the school, the interview can well be used as the initial and most accurate means of securing information. It can also be used to supplement other techniques, or to secure information of a more personal nature. Seven, or 5.2 per cent of the schools had the opportunity to conduct personal interviews with their former students.
VIII. RESEARCH IN GUIDANCE

The emphasis upon research in most guidance programs is focused on follow-up studies and evaluation. There is a need to extend the facilities of the guidance program for accomplishing additional research. Some research-minded individuals may question the use of the term "research" for some of the studies suggested under this title, but more effort is needed on the studies themselves and less on quibbling over terminology. Research, for example, can include a survey of general needs in terms of recognized problems or problem areas; a study of referral resources; compilation of local test norms; or a survey of the spread of pupil participation in school activities. Research is concerned with the study of pupil needs and how the school services and activities are meeting these needs. It is designed to provide the kind of information necessary for the improvement of guidance services as well as any portion of the educational program; in other words, this type of research strives to improve, indirectly, the psychological climate for each pupil.

The evidence returned for the extent of any guidance research in the Class "B" secondary schools of Iowa substantiates the pattern set by the responses to the follow-up

1Roeber, Smith, and Erickson, op. cit., p. 247.
2Froehlich, op. cit., p. 329.
portion of the questionnaire. Only ten, or 3.3 per cent of the reporting schools indicated they did anything with guidance research. The types of investigation for these schools were not given.

IX. EVALUATION

Guidance programs have been developing rapidly in the last few years. Many schools have adopted some plan for guidance. Various claims have been made as to benefits which have been realized as a result of these programs, but too few of them have based those claims on carefully collected scientific evidence. This is understandable, since the idea of guidance as an important part of a school is relatively new. Consequently, administrators have been occupied with such matters as organization, personnel, and techniques of procedure. However, if guidance expects to maintain a place of leadership, and to progress toward greater effectiveness, it must prove its worth by substantial evidence of the truth of its claims of success. It is only on the basis of such evidence that administrators can know how well it is functioning, and if parts of the program should be expanded or eliminated.

1Department of Public Instruction, op. cit., pp. 144-145.
The concept of evaluating guidance services is somewhat ambiguous and confused in the guidance literature. Does it refer to the evaluation of the services themselves in terms of the types and quality of services existing in any given school? Or does it refer to the effect of the guidance services upon the lives of boys and girls? Evaluating the existence of a guidance program is relatively simple, and is actually a "status" study. Once specifications have been developed for adequate guidance services, it is not difficult to examine services in terms of these specifications. Evaluating the actual effect of guidance services upon the lives of pupils is a much more difficult problem because it deals with factors which are difficult to measure. It is hard to know how well one has built right attitudes, or made for better adjusted personalities. Sachs summarized these difficulties as follows:

1. Guidance is a very complex process. Many results of guidance are intangible and exceedingly difficult to appraise.

2. The results of guidance in the lives of individuals are often long delayed. In many areas of guidance, only intermediate outcomes can be checked.

3. The inadequacy of available techniques makes it difficult.

4. It is difficult to isolate the effects of guidance from those of other aspects of the school program.

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1Reober, Smith and Erickson, op. cit., p. 261.
Guidance services, as in the case of many educational services, have been evaluated in many ways, but no one seems to have found the answer to evaluating them individually or collectively. But despite its complexity, careful evaluation should be provided by every guidance program. No one can argue that, like it or not, every guidance program is evaluated to some extent. The teachers judge its effectiveness in working with certain students. Parents value it to the extent that it helps their sons or daughters. The principal evaluates the program in terms of its services which come to his attention. The counselor judges its worth from his feelings of satisfaction with the program. An athletic coach can measure the effectiveness of his coaching by the number of games his team wins or the acceptable performance of members of that team. A mathematics teacher can test to discover quite quickly how well the class has mastered the material he has presented. The success or failure of the guidance activities is not so obvious. It can be measured only in the lives of the people with whom it deals, and it is often necessary to wait for long periods of time before those results can be seen. It is possible, also, that guidance workers will never know some of the results of their work.

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1Froehlich, op. cit., p. 331.
Nevertheless, if a school operates a guidance program, it should systematically apply some evaluative criteria to determine as nearly as possible its effectiveness in the program of the school.

A satisfactory definition is necessary to any guidance program. An evaluation of that program, then, should start with an examination of the definition. Is it meaningful to all who use it? Is it broad enough to include the sum total of all phases of guidance? Is it functioning in the lives of those for whom it was written? Likewise, a working guidance program has established its objectives in order that it may proceed toward a definite goal in a more effective manner. These objectives need to be studied occasionally and attention given to the extent to which they are being realized. As has been emphasized in foregoing chapters, guidance is not the work of a few people who have been specially designated as guidance directors or counselors. The whole school should be permeated with the philosophy on which guidance is based, and everyone connected with the school should see himself as a valuable part of the program.

If the guidance program is functioning effectively, it will be evident in several areas. To begin with, it should be evident in the students, since the existence of a guidance program can be justified only by the assistance it brings to

1Department of Public Instruction, op. cit., p. 144.
students. In order to do this, the guidance program should have sufficient information concerning every phase of the student's development. Seventy-three, or 24.5 per cent of the participating schools stated they believed their records provided a complete picture of the individual.

An evaluative study should also show the extent to which each individual student is developing toward better personal adjustment. Wilson made this point clear when she said:

While it is important for every student to feel that there is someone to whom he can turn for help, for the greater portion of the student body the most important contribution that the school can make is to train its students in the ability to recognize the significance in their experiences, and make such synthesis that they are able to achieve the adjustments required of them with maturity and independence.¹

This adjustment could very well manifest itself in the reduction of the number of failing students and the number of drop-outs in a school system. Eighty-nine, or 29.8 per cent of the schools reported that their number of failures and drop-outs had decreased since the provision of organized guidance services in their schools.

Reference has been made several times to the fact that all teachers are invaluable to an effective guidance

program. It is important then, to examine the understanding of, and attitude toward the concepts of guidance on the part of all staff members. An effort should be made to discover if they see it as a vital functioning part of the school, or if it is relegated to the realm of eloquent pedagogy only. If they see themselves as a part of the program, it will be evident in the amount of responsibility they are willing to accept as their personal contribution, and in the success with which they accomplish their share. If guidance is really functioning within the school, it will also be evident in the "esprit de corps" within the staff. This is very valuable, as students are extremely sensitive to its absence. One hundred eighty-five, or 62.0 per cent of the schools responding to this part of the questionnaire, felt the educational philosophy of their faculty was pupil-centered. Twenty-three, or 7.7 per cent said their faculties philosophy was subject-mattered centered. Twenty-four, or 8.0 per cent of the schools felt their philosophy incorporated both. To the question as to whether or not the faculty was gaining insight into the personal difficulties of the students, and taking corrective action, one hundred seventy-two, or 57.7 per cent of the participating schools answered in the affirmative.

Much has been written recently as to the best curriculum to be offered in high schools. No matter what the curriculum is called, its real value will be evident in the manner
in which it meets the needs of students. One hundred nine, or 36.5 per cent of the schools returning questionnaires, stated their curriculum provided enough "real experiences" to make school seem a vital part of the "outside world." One hundred fourteen, or 36.2 per cent of the schools indicated their curriculum was designed to meet the individual needs of the students.

Another big area in which an effective guidance program will be evident is in the amount of interrelationship between the school and the community of which it is a part. An alert school staff will use the resources of the community in enriching the training of students. Likewise, the school makes its contribution to the community by training its future citizens to accept their community responsibilities. One hundred seven, or 35.9 per cent of the schools stated the agencies of the community were being fully utilized.

The attitude of the administration toward the value of guidance will be evident in the provision which it makes for its inclusion in the school program. Present-day schools have very full schedules, and it often results in the need on the part of the administration to make a choice as to what is going to be included and in what proportion. If the administrator is genuinely interested in caring for the welfare of his students, however, he will find a way of releasing teachers from other duties for enough time to give some attention to guidance. Ninety-one, or 30.5 per cent of the
schools stated they had an in-service training program to enable faculty members to make the best use of the records kept on file. Two hundred seventeen, or 72.8 per cent of the schools have the students' records, or copies of them, travel with them from grade to grade and school to school.

Because of the wide diversity in the type and degree of development of guidance programs cooperating in this study, it seems advisable to present some typical statements made by the administrators who returned their questionnaires. All enrollment figures are taken from the Iowa Educational Directory, 1954-1955.

The superintendent of a secondary school with an enrollment of seventy-one stated:

Your survey is a commendable undertaking, but I found it extremely difficult to answer most questions with either a yes or no without wondering if I might be a colossal liar.

Most of us are well aware that most of your questions should be answered with a yes answer. However, with the limited number of faculty members in class B schools and the high school turnover rate, I doubt that it will ever be possible to do the kind of job most of us would like to do.

As I see it, many large schools are forced into a detailed guidance program in order to know the student at all. This is not a problem in class B schools. In most class B schools we do not have time or an adequate staff to provide such services. I might point out that little is to be gained from a situation where your guidance services indicates that a particular student should be in General Mathematics instead of Algebra when no General Mathematics class is provided. In a fairly stable class B school, you teachers are probably aware of the students abilities without tests.
I feel that guidance programs will grow and will become effective in direct relation to the growth of more efficient administrative districts.

It would be interesting to pursue the subject, but time does not permit.

A principal of a secondary school with an enrollment of eighty-five stated:

I think this is an excellent questionnaire, but I fear I haven't been able to answer it so it will be usable in your study.

Our school is small, a typical high school in a rural community. We are crowded. In fact, this week the residents vote a second time on a reorganization plan. We sincerely hope it passes for we need room badly.

We do not have the room or faculty to do the things we'd like in a guidance way. There are few opportunities for employment here except on farms. We do supply the two local banks and the Central Popcorn Company with clerical help. Many of our students can afford to, and do go to college.

While we have no guidance program, we do try to help and advise. Right now I'm trying to help the seniors with scholarships, etc.

I fear this won't be of much help to you. Perhaps my superintendent could have done better, but he gave the questionnaire to me.

Another superintendent of a secondary school with an enrollment of fifty-five reported:

Our guidance is aimed, I said aimed as some of us miss, at the pupil always: in class, in study, and in play. Our job is to help him become an A-1 person in this social world of today.

A superintendent of a secondary school with an enrollment of ninety stated:

This is my first year as a superintendent and my first year in this school. We are attempting to set
up a cumulative record system and make some beginnings in establishing a proper guidance viewpoint on the part of the faculty members.

The greatest hindrance to guidance programs is the small enrollments in our typical Iowa Schools. We have close, friendly, relations with our students, but we are definitely lacking in the type of service we are able to provide in an incidental fashion.

A superintendent of a secondary school with an enrollment of thirty-three had this to say:

Our curriculum is set up only after we hire our teachers. The needs of students are considered if there is any chance - usually our teachers are limited in their qualifications so that limits offerings.

This same superintendent also said their small plant limits what they can offer, and that guidance in his school was of the incidental variety.

Another superintendent of a secondary school with an enrollment of fifty reported:

No definite program. We are in close contact with our pupils and try to aid our students through suggestions and advice. At our faculty meetings we discuss slow, gifted, irresponsible students and try to help them in whatever way we can.

Another superintendent of a secondary school with an enrollment of seventy-seven stated:

Four-fifths of our students come from farms, and a majority of them stay there after graduation. They have nothing else in mind.

This same superintendent noted later in the questionnaire that six out of ten graduated in 1955 went to college, and a guidance counselor would be very apt to gloat over a record like that. This same superintendent said they have no
guidance program or counselor—they just teach school.

Other candid remarks written by the administrators of Class "B" schools in the margins of the questionnaires returned are as follows:

We do not have a guidance program as such but much is integrated in our everyday experiences with the students. We are small and come in contact with each pupil many times each day, and are in a position to offer him service of a guidance nature without difficulty since we know each pupil thoroughly.

We help our pupils individually and in groups as the need arises. The small schools are so crowded with activities and the teachers are so overloaded that organized guidance is next to impossible.

We have had no drop-outs since I have come here. Pupils come to school for one purpose, to learn. We have had no serious disciplinary problems. Whether it is the home training I do not know. However, I can feel free to let youngsters work by themselves without danger of misbehavior.

The small school guides its students better than the large school because of closer, personal contact.

In many instances, where a no answer is indicated now, the answer will be yes by next fall.

We just grab time between ball games to counsel.

Each teacher teaches guidance, and we get incidental guidance.

We can't raise a crocodile in a frog pond.

Follow-ups have influenced our curriculum and thus aided our kids.

All teachers serve as counselors. Of course, vocational teacher does most of it.

I think each teacher should be a counselor, or they have no business in the field. No teacher is given special time for counseling during school hours. That doesn't mean no time isn't taken.
Each teacher is expected to do his or her share.

I think this could be more useful to you if answered by a larger school.

This report is fine for a larger city school, but in a small community with a limited course many of the questions do not apply. Much counseling is done on a personal basis that is not covered in the report. We are much closer to the pupils and know much about them and can help a great deal in this manner.

High schools must have teachers who can be induced to remain longer than one year to make progress in this field.

A review of the philosophies of those people responsible for guidance in the Class "B" schools of Iowa indicates considerable variation. The school administrator who says, "Yes, we carry on many incidental guidance activities," is sometimes seeking refuge in a generality because he does not care to admit that his school is out of step with sound educational practice. It is encouraging to note though, that 129, or 43.2 per cent of the administrators stated their school had requested and/or received guidance assistance from the Iowa State Department of Vocational Education. This would seem to indicate that many administrators are seeking help, and trying to provide educational experiences which will be of benefit to the students in their respective schools.
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the data obtained in this investigation, the following conditions appear to exist in the guidance programs of the Class "B" secondary schools of Iowa.

1. Cumulative records need to be brought up-to-date with adequate, pertinent information about the student

2. The provisions made for objective appraisal of the student are inadequate.

3. The testing program, which does exist, is devoted primarily, to measurement of intelligence and achievement.

4. Few formal, organized counseling services exist.

5. Counseling is largely remedial and deals with problems after they arise.

6. Inadequate provisions are made for educational, vocational, and personal counseling.

7. The counseling and guidance services, as they exist, depend primarily, upon sources other than objective appraisal for the information.

8. There is a need for better organized orientation activities.

9. Career day, one day a year programs for graduating seniors, dominate provisions made for occupational guidance.

10. Inadequate assistance is given for placement, both during high school and after graduation.
11. Evaluation of the guidance program is meager because of the failure to make use of follow-up techniques.

12. Guidance research activities have not developed to any appreciable extent.

13. Too few schools have an adequate guidance program, if any at all.

14. Most of the responsibility for the guidance program rests with administrators.

15. School personnel have had little, or no training in guidance.

16. Very little time is allotted during school hours for guidance functions.

17. There appears to be considerable discrepancy between stated practices and the educational philosophies of the administrators supplying data.

18. The philosophy of the majority of the schools appears to be subject-matter centered.

19. The curriculum does not provide enough real experiences to make school seem a vital part of the world of work.

20. The majority of schools are not utilizing community agencies and resources.

21. There is an acute shortage of guidance materials available to the student.

22. There is a lack of cooperative, democratic interaction of students and teachers in planning school and/or
23. Many administrators are attempting to initiate guidance practices which will enable them to be of more assistance to the individual student.

No public high school, regardless of size, can disregard its guidance obligations to its pupils. The modern high school cannot trust to luck, or chance, that the pupils will receive the necessary guidance services at the proper time. It must organize all of its resources into a well-planned guidance program, so that each pupil is assured of receiving at least a minimum amount of guidance. Ways and means must be discovered to overcome the handicaps, such as the overcrowded schedule, lack of time, lack of teacher preparation, lack of funds, and lack of proper attitudes on the part of faculty members. Administrators, teachers, and parents can do much to overcome these handicaps if they will agree on the objectives of secondary education and then put first things first.

The outline presented here contains the basic guidance services which a school should maintain to meet its guidance obligations.

A. The Cumulative Record

1. The collection of information about the individual student is the first essential of a guidance program. A folder should be started for each student when he enters the first grade
and continued throughout his school career. The folder should include records of the student's home background, health, school attendance, grades, extra-curricular activities, and the results of standardized tests. It should also contain reports of any incidents involving the student which may contribute to a better understanding of the individual.

B. The Testing Program.

1. Scholastic aptitude tests should be given when a pupil enters the first grade and at intervals as he progresses through school.

2. Achievement tests are an indication of a student's progress in mastery of the skills. They should be given whenever it seems likely that the results will be used in diagnosing student difficulties, in planning remedial treatment, and in understanding students better for guidance purposes.

3. Personality tests may be given at any grade level. In the hands of a teacher or counselor with enough knowledge of basic psychology to interpret and use their results, these tests offer much assistance in understanding and guiding the student.
4. Vocational interest tests should be given at the junior and senior high school levels. They indicate broad occupational fields in which the student's interests seem to be. These tests offer the student a point of departure for the intensive study of the occupations within his interest areas. They also offer the teacher valuable information about the student to be used in counseling.

5. Aptitude tests are often of considerable value in helping a student to make his occupational selection.

C. Information - Educational, Occupational, Personal

1. Each school should provide a wide range of materials of an informational nature to assist each student to plan his educational program effectively.

2. Each school should provide adequate reference materials concerning the work of the world. Plans should be developed for its effective work.

3. Each school should provide the student with essential information for the solution of his own personal problems.

4. Group guidance activities should be developed to care for as much of the informational service as possible.
D. Counseling

1. Each student should have some adult in the school who is responsible for knowing him as a person. This adult must have the necessary understanding and interest, as well as sufficient time and a suitable place, for helping the student with whatever problems he may have in the areas of education, occupational choice, or personal affairs.

E. Provisions for Experiences and Training

1. Pupil planning should be an outgrowth of counseling. Facilities should be made available for students to secure the experiences and training indicated and desired as an outgrowth of the guidance activities.

F. Placement

1. The high school must assume responsibility for those finishing or leaving school. This necessitates close relationships with agencies for further training and with industry. Effective placement activities will give meaning to training activities.

G. Follow-up

1. Schools should be concerned with the problems of how well their students get along when they leave school. This should include their
progress in other schools as well as their
close and progress in industry. The evalu-
ation of the experiences of its former students
is one of the best ways for a high school to
evaluate the effectiveness of its program.
BIBLIOGRAPHY
BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. BOOKS


Super, Donald E. **Appraising Vocational Fitness.** New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949.


**B. PUBLICATIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT, LEARNED SOCIETIES, AND OTHER ORGANIZATIONS**


C. PERIODICALS


Copy of the Letter
Which Accompanied the Questionnaire

Melcher, Iowa
February 8, 1955

Superintendent of Schools:

Guidance is not new to education, but it has received increased emphasis in recent years. Education has advanced to the place where our primary interest has shifted from a consideration of isolated segments of the pupil and subject matter to problems centering around the whole individual, his development, and his well-being. We are seeing the pupil as a living human being faced with real problems of adjustment. It is in this setting, primarily, that guidance has come to the fore as an important part of modern education. This development is but the natural outgrowth of the trend in a society committed to the democratic way of life, in which adequate educational opportunity is considered an inalienable right of every American.

Since it is essential that the school of today help students face and solve their problems, every school, regardless of size, should provide adequate guidance services as a regular part of its program.

The accompanying questionnaire was designed to determine how far the Class "B" high schools of Iowa have advanced their guidance services to meet this evolving change in our philosophy of education.

Your cooperation is wholeheartedly solicited in making this study accurate and valid. A stamped, self-addressed envelope is provided for your convenience in returning this questionnaire.

Sincerely yours,

Glen A. Johnson

GAJ:jw
Enc. 2
APPENDIX B

The Questionnaire

GUIDANCE RECORD SHEET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High School</th>
<th>Location</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position of Person Answering This Questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

SURVEY CHECK LIST OF HIGH SCHOOL GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES

A. Individual Record Inventory

1. Does your school maintain a cumulative record form for each student? Yes No

2. Does your school make the following data a part of the cumulative record?
   a. Achievement tests Yes No
   b. Scholastic aptitude tests Yes No
   c. Special aptitude tests Yes No
   d. Interests tests Yes No
   e. Personality tests or check list Yes No
   f. Anecdotal material supplied by the teaching staff Yes No
   g. Grades or marks Yes No
   h. Record of schools attended Yes No
   i. Socio-economic background Yes No
   j. Occupational experience Yes No
   k. Occupational plans Yes No
   l. Educational plans Yes No
   m. Health examination records Yes No
   n. Physical handicaps Yes No
   o. Participation in extra-curricular activities Yes No
   p. Participation in community activities Yes No
   q. Special talents Yes No
   r. Others: (Specify |

B. Guidance Testing Program

List name(s) of test(s) used under each of the following sub-heads.

1. Intelligence:  
2. Achievement:  

3. Personal-Social Adjustment:  
4. Occupational Interests:
B. Guidance Testing Program (continued)

5. Aptitude:

6. Others:

C. Counseling Services

1. List title(s) or position(s) of persons who serve as counselor(s) in your school. Check the amount of time each designated person devotes to counseling, and the highest academic degree each holds:

AMOUNT OF TIME DEVOTED TO COUNSELING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title or Position</th>
<th>Highest Academic Degree</th>
<th>Is this person given assigned time for counseling</th>
<th>More than</th>
<th>Less than</th>
<th>No. of Periods per wk.</th>
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<td></td>
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<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Full Time</td>
<td>half</td>
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</table>

2. For each person listed in item 1 above, indicate his (her) training and experience:

TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE

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<tr>
<th>Title or Position</th>
<th>Academic Major</th>
<th>Teaching</th>
<th>Counseling</th>
<th>Does he (she) meet state certification requirements for counselors</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Undergrad Grad</td>
<td>Exp.</td>
<td>Exp.</td>
<td>Years</td>
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</table>

3. Do advisors often refer students to other persons capable of counseling in a particular field? Yes No

4. Do all teachers have free access to personal counseling data? Yes No
C. Counseling Services (continued)

5. Is counseling given as a pre-registration aid? Yes No
6. Are the advisers pre-registration suggestions followed in registration? Yes No
7. Is counseling given as an aid in understanding the nature of various occupational opportunities? Yes No
8. Is counseling given relative to adjustment to common social problems? Yes No
9. Is counseling given relative to personal problems? Yes No
10. Is counseling given relative to leisure time problems? Yes No
11. Does the counselor have a special office for counseling purposes? Yes No
12. Are counseling interviews scheduled: 
   a) During students free periods? Yes No
   b) Before school? Yes No
   c) After school? Yes No
   d) At noon? Yes No
   e) During homeroom period? Yes No
13. Has your school requested or received guidance assistance from the Iowa State Department of Vocational Education? Yes No

14. Other:

D. Occupational Information and Guidance

1. Does your school offer courses in:
   a) Distributive Education Yes No
   b) Industrial Arts Yes No
   c) Occupations Yes No
   d) Vocational Home Economics Yes No
   e) Agriculture Yes No
2. Is a careful selection (through tests, etc.) made of the students who enter these vocational courses? Yes No
3. Has occupational information been emphasized in your assemblies and classes? Yes No
4. Are occupational exhibits, slides, films, radio or other audio-visual materials used as teaching aids in your classes? Yes No
5. Do you have an occupational file or shelf in your library? Yes No
6. Is information relative to further training beyond high school opportunities provided? Yes No
7. Do you hold occupational conferences, using outside persons? Yes No
8. Does your school take part in "Career Day" activities? Yes No
9. Other:

E. Group Guidance Activities

1. Do you have a home room program?.......................... Yes No
   If yes, check the primary purpose(s):
   a. Administrative (attendance, announcements, etc.)........................ Yes No
   b. Planned guidance program:............................................. Yes No
      Student planned. Cooperatively planned
      Faculty planned
   
2. Do you provide an orientation program for students entering your high school?............ Yes No
   If yes, describe it briefly:

3. Do you provide instruction in the use of the school library?............................. Yes No

4. Do you have an organized program for assistance in the development of good study habits?........ Yes No

5. Do you have an organized program in remedial reading?......................................... Yes No

6. List the names of the club activities in your school:

7. Other:

F. Placement Services

1. Does your school maintain an organized placement service?.................................... Yes No
   If yes, who directs it? (title)

2. Do you provide the prospective employer with personal information about the student, i.e., activities, personality, etc.?......................... Yes No

3. Do you maintain an active, up-to-date file of occupational opportunities in your community?.. Yes No

4. Do you provide assistance on such points as:
   a. Writing letters of application?.................. Yes No
   b. Preparing for the interview?.................. Yes No
   c. Obtaining information about the company and its employment practices?.................. Yes No

5. Do you attempt to help students in obtaining additional education or training after high school?........................................ Yes No
G. Follow-up Record of Graduates or Drop-out Students

1. Does your school make follow-up studies of graduates?................................. Yes No

2. Does your school make follow-up studies of drop-outs?................................. Yes No

3. Check method(s) used:
   a. Letter or check sheet to the graduate.....................
   b. Letter or check sheet to the employer or institution..........................
   c. Telephone calls to graduates..............................
   d. Telephone calls to employer or institution
   e. Contact with student's parents..........................
   f. Other:

4. Do these follow-up records reveal usable data for curriculum development?............ Yes No

5. Do you provide for a terminal interview with drop-outs?................................. Yes No

H. Research in Guidance

1. Does your school carry on an active program in guidance research?...................... Yes No
   If yes, indicate the type of investigation:

I. Evaluation

1. Is the philosophy of the faculty pupil-centered ______, subject-matter centered ______? (check)

2. Do your records provide a complete picture of the individual?.......................... Yes No

3. Do student records or copies of them travel with the student from grade to grade and school to school?.......................... Yes No

4. Do you have an in-service training program to enable faculty members to make the best use of the records?.......................... Yes No

5. Is your guidance program primarily preventive ______, or remedial ______. (check)

6. Has the number of failures and drop-outs decreased since you provided organized guidance services in your school?...................... Yes No
I. Evaluation (continued)

7. Is the faculty gaining insight in the personal difficulties of the students and taking corrective action?.................... Yes No

8. Is your curriculum designed to meet individual needs of students?................................. Yes No

9. Does the curriculum provide enough "real experiences" to make school seem a vital part of the "outside world?"......................... Yes No

10. Are agencies of the community being fully utilized?................................. Yes No

11. Would you be interested in receiving a summary of this study? ................................. Yes No
Superintendent of Schools:

I have no record of having received the questionnaire concerning the guidance services offered by the Class "B" Schools of Iowa which I sent to you. I realize you are busy, but the more returns I receive, the more complete and accurate my field study will be.

I would greatly appreciate your cooperation in returning the questionnaire, completed if possible.

Thank you.

Respectfully yours,

Glen A. Johnson

P.S. Disregard this if the questionnaire has already been returned.
### APPENDIX D

**ALPHABETICAL LISTING OF CLASS "B" SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE STATE OF IOWA PARTICIPATING IN THIS REPORT**

<table>
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APPENDIX D (continued)

Douds-Leando
Dunbar
Dundee
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Edgewood
Elkhart
Elliot
Elma
Elvira
Elwood
Emerson
Everly
Fairview
Farley
Farnhamville
Fergusen
Floyd
Fort Atkinson
Frederika
Fremont
Galva
Garden Grove
Garrison
Geneva
Gibson

Gilbert
Gilman
Gilmore City
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Highview
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Hudson

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Yale
Yarmouth
Zion