PROMOTING MORALE IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

A Thesis Presented for the Degree of Master of Arts

by

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CHAPTER I

THE TERM "MORALE"

In American life morale is a word which has come into general use only within the last several years. The word first appeared in titles of American periodical literature in 1918 toward the close of the first World War. In that year Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature listed two titles on morale, and in 1919 two more were listed. Then in the period from 1920 to 1940 only ten articles on morale were listed. It can thus be seen that for the two decades following World War I the term was almost forgotten.

With the outbreak of World War II, and especially in connection with the fall of France, morale became an important word in American thinking, writing, and discussion. It appeared on billboard posters, in the daily papers, in all kinds of advertising, in educational periodicals, in connection with industry, and in describing the condition of our armed forces at home and overseas, as well as conditions on the home front. Many committees were organized to promote morale in one form or another. In 1942 alone, over 150 articles were listed under the heading of "morale" in Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.

This new emphasis on morale is indicative of a new trend in the thinking of many countries of the world. It
emphasizes the fact that, whether we are at peace or at war, all of the people are participants, and that how they feel, powerfully affects what they do.

THE PROBLEM

Overview. How pupils in school feel about their work has a tremendous effect on how they work and on how they conduct themselves in school. How the teachers feel about their work will have an important bearing on the kind of work they do. In turn, the attitude of the faculty will be reflected in the work of the pupils. If, for one reason or another, the morale of the faculty is low, the same attitude will without fail make itself shown in the student group. Affecting both students and faculty is the attitude of the community toward its schools.

Statement of the Problem. Within recent years much has been written concerning the task of the school in promoting national morale. It was the purpose of this study (1) to determine the factors which influence student, faculty, and community morale; (2) to discover means of promoting morale in these three areas; and (3) to study techniques and devices which can be used in morale measurement.

Scope and Delimitation. The problem of morale is one which vitally affects each individual, each group, each
each organization, industry, and the nation as a whole. The number of factors which affect morale is large, and those factors influencing one person or group may in no wise affect another. Nevertheless, there are certain factors which more or less affect all individuals, and there are other factors which peculiarly affect students, teachers, and community. This study has been limited largely to (1) a consideration of those elements which affect morale in the public schools, and (2) ways and means of promoting morale in the public schools. While frequent reference is made to areas outside of education, this is done only because significant advances in the study of morale-building have been made in those areas.

**Treatment of the Problem.** In chapter II are given definitions of morale as they have been developed in various fields of endeavor. An effort has been made to give briefly the psychology underlying morale. Also set forth in this chapter are certain essentials for high group morale and a discussion of techniques and devices for achieving it. Chapter III is a study of the problems having to do with the promotion of student morale. Chapter IV is a consideration of common conditions which are inimical to good teacher morale, with an emphasis on the role of the administrator in the correction of such conditions. Promotion of commun-
ity morale through school-community interaction is taken up in chapter V. Chapter VI is a study of morale-measuring methods. A suggested test for measuring teacher morale is also presented in this chapter.

Sources of Information. Sources of information for this study have been confined to:

1. Pertinent literature in the fields of morale building and attitude measurement.
2. The experiences of this writer.
CHAPTER II

MORALE AND ITS ACHIEVEMENT

America is not anything if it consists of each of us. It is something only if it consists of all of us—and it can consist of all of us only as our spirits are banded together in a common enterprise.—Woodrow Wilson.

In writing of the importance of morale, Pope, as Chairman of the Committee for National Morale in World War II said:

Morale wins wars, solves crises, is an indispensable condition of a vigorous national life and equally essential to the maximum achievement of the individual.¹

In war it is a well known fact that the outnumbered, ill-equipped, or even outmaneuvered army may triumph if their morale is markedly superior. The triumphant armies of Joan of Arc found their strength in a morale of maximum intensity. In the American Revolution, Valley Forge was largely a victory of morale.

The recent war demonstrated, even more forcibly, the tremendous power which morale may have. The British recovery after Dunkirk was a triumph of such magnitude that even the Germans, expert as they were in psychological

warfare, could not conceive it. The magnificent resistance of Russia to the powerful German war machine was in no small part due to the unwavering morale of the Russian people. Again, the unity of purpose witnessed in Holland during the German invasion can be accounted for only by morale of the highest degree. On the other hand, the collapse of France was, as every one knows, a morale collapse.

The greatest secret weapon which the Germans had during the war was their thorough and comprehensive use of psychological factors. The fact that they made no effort to keep it secret turned out to be one of the best methods of concealing it. The last shot of the First World War had hardly been fired before the Germans began a systematic study to determine why they were defeated. This revealed to them that their morale and propaganda service had not sufficiently penetrated the home front. Psychological resources had not been fully mobilized and exploited.

Evidently the German High Command was convinced that morale and propaganda forces would play no small part in the next war, and psychological preparation began almost at once. Thus, when the Second World War began, the German people were prepared for it in a way never before seen in history. Lacking their great morale and propaganda preparation they could never have gone as far as they did.
DEFINITIONS OF MORALE

Getting a task accomplished successfully depends, among other things, upon the skill of the person or group working at the task. But skill in itself is not enough to bring the utmost out of the group or out of the individual. There is required that something else which is called morale. Webster defines it as "condition as affected by, or dependent upon, such moral or mental factors as zeal, spirit, hope, confidence, etc.; mental state, as of an army."

It can be seen from this definition that morale is not a thing but a condition. The achieving of this condition is dependent upon certain mental factors which in turn are affected by psychological, physical, and economic factors. The influence of these factors on morale will be discussed later in this chapter.

Tead, in writing about morale for the field of industry, has this to say about it:

There is that zeal of whole-hearted and single minded activity which makes the difference between an organization that merely operates and one that cooperates. That quality, that attitude and spirit, are what we mean by morale.²

Again he says:

Morale is that attitude which results from the mobilizing of energy, interest and initiative in

the enthusiastic and effective pursuit of a group's purposes.\(^3\)

As implied in the first of Tead's definitions, morale is more than a condition of interest. It is possible for each worker in a group to be intensely interested in his part of the work, and still have a group morale that is miserably low. The morale factor begins to develop only as the individual is interested in his relation to the organization. An effective getting together of human wills, and the development of a singleness of purpose, which is the purpose of the organization, are necessary for cultivating high morale. Where such getting together of human wills has taken place, the working power of the organization is considerable greater than the sum of the working powers of an equal number of individuals which have not been so involved.

As a general rule it is not necessary to prove the value of teamwork in American life. It has been so well proved and so widely recognized that it does not require proof. The need is rather in studying out the factors which prevent its development, and in finding the combination of policies and methods which will induce it.

Tead says:

Morale further implies performance which is self-

\(^3\)Ibid. p. 173
sustained, enthusiastic and in a measure self-directed. Under good morale, activity generates naturally from within, because a true identity of self-purposes and organization purposes has been attained. There has come about a change from a relationship of contract to one of willing and voluntary cooperation.

From this we see that wherever high morale obtains in a group, it is not necessary to continuously prod the individual members to action. The desire for action is generated within them, and in addition they have the quality of sustaining that desire. They are no longer interested in doing only that which their contract requires them to do, but instead have that inner drive which causes them to do many things over and above what is actually required.

Following is a list of lay definitions which sum up what the public thinks morale is. Despite their diversity and the down-to-earth way in which they are expressed, they convey a common idea.

Morale is the backbone of the soul.
Morale is the will to carry thru all obstacles what the heart approves.
Morale is faith plus courage plus discipline.
Morale is the factor which enables people as individuals or as groups to live up to their highest possibilities; it is the catalyzing agent which stirs the soul to work out and to keep on working out its purpose.
Morale is what makes us continue to fight on when courage is gone and faith is only something remembered.
Morale is knowing where you want to go and going there.

Morale is purpose with vitamins in it. 
Morale is living your faith gladly or at least relentlessly. 
Morale is the determination not to let yourself or your comrades down. 
Morale is sticking to the job for the job's sake. 
Morale is damning the torpedoes. 
Morale is being a man. 
Morale is what keeps you going after your knees give out. 
Morale is Browning's "Prospice."
Morale is the spirit of Valley Forge, Gettysburg, and Chateau-Thierry. It is the spirit of Winston Churchill when he announced to his cabinet that France was out of the war and Britain stood alone: "Gentlemen, to tell the truth, I find it rather exhilarating."
Morale is not knowing when you're licked--and then you aren't.
Morale is one for all and all for one--right thru to the end. 5

As expressed in these definitions, there are at least two factors which are common to high morale. Wherever high morale obtains there is purpose and there is a sustaining urge and drive. Furthermore, it is implied that the sustaining drive comes from within and is not imposed on the individual from the outside. Tead, in one of his later books expresses somewhat the same idea as follows:

In short, organizations, if they are not to rely solely on fear or intimidation to compel their members' efforts, have to operate through the power and desire generated in the members. They must have morale. For morale is that pervasive attitude of voluntary, enthusiastic and effective mobilization of a group's efforts for the accomplishment of some purpose. And that attitude is called out and sustained

5"Morale for a Free World," Twenty-Second Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, p. 27.
by a good leader. Without him it rarely appears.6

Lewis and Williams point out that:

The term is closely akin in meaning to *esprit de corps*, which implies the degree of regard which a group holds for the honor of the corps, a genuine and jealous devotion to the interests of the entire body, an effective sympathy toward the purposes and objectives of the organization.7

The term morale is frequently used in describing the condition of an individual, inasmuch as we say that his morale is high, or his morale is low, as the case may be. More generally it is thought of as being a condition which can be used in describing the attitude of a group, large or small. It is in this connection that the emphasis will be placed in this writing.

From an analysis of the foregoing definitions of morale, it is apparent that it is a condition or an attitude; that it is caused by something, or by the lack of it; and that the presence of this condition or attitude is capable of producing certain results. Therefore, morale, from the viewpoint of the group, may be defined as follows: Morale is that desire within a group for sustained, vigorous, cooperative action which occurs when the wills and purposes of the individuals in the group are in complete harmony with

7Lewis and Williams, *Creative Management for Teachers*, p. 225.
the will and purpose of the group.

THE PSYCHOLOGY UNDERLYING MORALE

Morale is a condition which determines, to a large extent, what a person's or group's response to a given situation will be. One's conduct is governed by or influenced by his purposes, ideals, and desires, and of these desire is considered most influential. It follows, then, that a person's morale is very closely related to his desires. Dunlap says:

Life, in fact, is organized about the desires. The conduct of the individual cannot be understood except through reference to his desires. Group life and group organization are explicable only in so far as we understand the desires of the individuals comprised in the group, and group life can be bettered, group organization made more efficient, only by so modifying the organization and the life as to give more scope and more satisfaction to the desires of the members of the group. Groups, in fact, are organized for the satisfaction of desires.8

The number of desires which affects human life is large and of infinite variety. For convenience, Dunlap lists them under nine headings as follows:

1. Alimentary desire. The desire for food and drink.

2. Excretory desire. Riddance. The desire to be rid of annoying or inconvenient materials or processes.

3. Protection desire. Desire for shelter from adverse external forces.

8Knight Dunlap, Civilized Life, p. 62.

5. Desire for rest and relaxation.

6. Amorous or erotic desire. Desire for stimulation by, and association with, an individual of the opposite sex.

7. Parental or philopedeic desire. Desire for the possession of children.

8. Desire of preeminence. Desire to be a leader, or a focus of attention and interest.

9. Desire of conformity. Desire to belong to a group, and to participate in the group characteristics.

It will be observed that the first five of these desires are individual in that their satisfaction does not depend on the activity or presence of other persons. While the satisfaction of these desires does not depend on other persons, yet all five are important for group life and group organization. The last four desires listed are even more social inasmuch as their satisfaction requires social relations.

Dunlap classifies desires as primary and secondary. Primary desires are those which are important everywhere and have stayed very much the same through the ages. Secondary desires are more in the nature of derived or acquired desires. Secondary desires are also important to the living processes of man, but they do not correspond to needs

9Ibid., p. 64.

10Ibid., p. 64.
and are not as permanent as the primary desires.

A discussion of each of the nine desires listed above is beyond the scope of this paper. Such a discussion would include (1) the organic basis for the desire; (2) relative degrees of importance, including insufficiency and excess of desire; (3) perversions, or direction of desires to substitutes for the normal objects; and (4) the relation of primary desires to secondary desires.

Of importance here is the extent to which the satisfaction of these desires, or the lack of it, influences morale. Psychologists agree\(^\text{11}\) that a certain minimum satisfaction of maintenance needs is necessary for morale. The degree of satisfaction necessary depends to a large extent on the tolerance of the individual to deprivation. Uncertainty as to the satisfaction of maintenance needs is one of the principle sources of anxiety, and anxiety is an obstruction to high morale.

Dollard defines frustration as "that condition which exists when a goal-response suffers interference."\(^\text{12}\) Hence, failure to achieve satisfaction of a desire tends to produce frustration. Concerning frustration, Dollard says:

\(^{11}\text{John Dollard and others, Frustration and Aggression, p. 32.}\)

\(^{12}\text{Ibid., p. 11.}\)
The basic hypothesis which has been presented is that aggression is always a consequence of frustration. It is clear from common observation...that aggressive behavior may take many forms. Sometimes aggression is directed at the frustrating agent; at other times it seems to be aimed at innocent bystanders. Some forms of aggression are vigorous and undisguised; others are weak or subtle and roundabout.13

Psychologists of the National Research Council say:

Morale is a function of the displacement of diffuse aggression onto an out-group; in the absence of a hostile out-group the focusing of aggression upon a subversive minority within the society is least disruptive of collective morale. Frustration is the most important factor in producing in-group aggression. The most demoralizing form of in-group aggression is that directed toward the leaders.14

To summarize, then, man's life processes are largely controlled by certain fundamental desires. The satisfaction of these desires brings happiness, a sense of well-being, and consequently high morale. Failure to achieve a certain minimum satisfaction of these desires brings frustration, which leads to aggression. Aggressive behavior may take many forms which are detrimental to good morale.

IMPORTANCE OF MORALE

The importance of morale is directly related to the difficulty of the task to be performed. That is, the more

13Ibid., p. 27.

14"Psychological Factors in Morale," National Research Council, p. 32.
difficult the task, the more it requires the utmost use of all capacities, the more important morale is. It is natural, therefore, that this topic receives greater emphasis in time of war or crisis, when the obstacles to be overcome are greater and unusual hardships must be endured. At such times, too, internal rivalries and conflicts are much more dangerous to the effort of the group, even to being fatal. But morale is an important factor in all social life, and should receive considerable more attention in normal times than has heretofore been the case.

One reason for the greater emphasis on morale in times of great crisis is that the need for it in such times is much more evident than in normal times. In time of war the consequences of low morale are more immediately felt and more easily traceable to this cause. The slow disintegration of French political life might have been disastrous to France even if there had been no war, but the war hastened and dramatized this consequence. Not only are the effects of morale more evident in time of war, but it is also easier to direct attention to it and persuade men of its importance. The goal of defeating the enemy becomes the common goal and the need for great exertion and intense cooperative effort is plainly seen by all. But peace also has its common tasks, tasks of great difficulty, and requiring the concentrated effort of large groups. There is need
for high morale in peace just as truly as in war.

ESSENTIALS OF HIGH GROUP MORALE

Various writers have presented in some detail what they regard as essentials of high morale in a group. While they do not all name the same factors, there seems to be sufficient agreement to warrant the selection of the following six.

1. **Something to Strive for.** As stated before, the topic "morale" always becomes more important in times of crisis and when unusual obstacles must be surmounted. In a similar way, morale can not be high unless there is something to strive for—a clear-cut goal. The more important this goal is to the individual or to the group, the stronger will be its influence on morale. Certainly, if the members of a group do not know what they want individually or collectively, if there is uncertainty and confusion, then the integrative force which is morale is entirely lacking.

A word might be said here about the nature of objectives. It is important that objectives be attainable. The greater the powers and skills of an individual are, the higher the goal he may set for himself. But in all cases the means should be adequate for attaining the goal which has been set. The guidance services of a school should aid the student not only in reaching his goal, but should
also help him to set goals which are possible for him to reach.

2. A Sense of Mutual Support. A second fundamental factor in morale is togetherness. Morale is stronger in those persons who feel themselves a part of a larger group, sharing a common goal. Convictions are firmer when it is felt that other people join in them. An individual who alone might easily become discouraged or intimidated, can sustain his faith and keep on fighting if he is with his gang. One's own beliefs are strengthened and one's doubts are lessened by joining with a group of similar tastes, goals and interests.

Mutual support in a group also implies that each member looks to others of the group to supply him strength to struggle toward the achievement of the common goal; to give him those skills which he himself does not possess. Thus, in a quartet the tenor not only accepts the bass, but appreciates him as an equally essential part of the group. The individual not only shares in the satisfaction of the combined performance but also has a feeling of identification with all members in it. In short, we have the American concept of teamwork which provides an effective means toward accomplishment and which fosters the spirit of cooperation.

The status of the group, through its past as well as
its present achievements, becomes an asset to the individual member. He acquires a sense of pride and even of ownership in the group. The quartet becomes his quartet or the team his team. When this is the case, it is certain that the purposes and goals of the individual are the same as those of the group. If it were not so the group would not be for him. A group cannot succeed if many of its members claim "membership with reservation."

3. Progress Toward the Goal. If morale is to be high the individual and the group must be convinced that progress toward the goal is possible and that there are means of achieving it. If a goal, no matter how desirable it may be, is always out of reach and no progress is apparent in attaining it, interest wanes and a sense of frustration begins to develop. Frequent failure and lack of progress tend to undermine individual morale and finally cause disintegration of the group. Adults, as well as children, get the feeling that no matter what they do, no benefit results. They are much like the old fellow who refused to vote on the grounds that he had voted once some years ago and had never been able to see any improvement in the condition of the nation as a result of it.

Many times the effect of this apparent lack of progress can be offset by setting up subgoals or by the use of progress charts which show that progress is actually
being made and the goal is attainable. Report cards in school are often reassuring to the pupil, especially when they tell him that he is making satisfactory progress.

4. Something Each Can Do. Very closely allied to the preceding essential is the conviction that each individual can do something to improve matters. To quote:

Clinical experience often demonstrates the transformation of demoralizing fear into a vigorous drive for action, once a promising course of action against the danger has been discovered. One counselor taught shy, anxious clients who were afraid of social encounters, some simple tricks of magic. With these devices for making a contribution to social affairs, the subjects became willing and eager to join in group life. Highschool and college counselors report similarly that when boys have learned techniques of calling for dates on the telephone, greeting the girl's family, dancing, ordering in a restaurant, and making introductions, some students who were afraid to "go out" became enthusiastic in the pursuit.15

Morale in a time of crisis depends largely upon the ability of leaders to show us how we can help, and to carry to us the conviction that if we work hard enough we may win out. This is true whether the crisis is one of national scope or whether it is a crisis on the football field. This introduces our next psychological factor essential to high morale--leadership.

5. Leadership. The connection between leadership and group morale is obvious. It can hardly be overlooked in the

15"Morale for a Free World," op. cit., p. 50.
observation of any type of group life or cooperative endeavor. It is a well known fact that the establishing of any efficient community program depends largely on finding the proper leadership and the winning over of all leaders in the community. In fact the success of any endeavor, be it national, state, church, school or community is largely dependent on the leadership supplied.

The character and value of the true leader is well expressed in the following paragraph from Morale for a Free World:

The true leader never loses touch with the group. His followers know that thru the leader's initiative and direction as well as his statement of their cause they are helped to fulfill their own purposes. Thus he builds a prestige by which he may strengthen and even enlarge those purposes. However great his authority may become he does not lose but improves his standing as a member of the group. He combines the power of command with companionship. He is our Washington, our Nelson, our Teddy.16

One of the important functions of the leader is giving approval. Praise, wisely given, is highly prized by individuals in the group. And one of the greatest assets of a good leader is the ability to give praise wisely.

6. A Sense of Humor. Perhaps a good sense of humor may not rightly be regarded as essential to high morale, but it is certainly helpful. It is rather difficult to say

16Ibid., p. 50
whether a sense of humor is a cause of high morale or whether it is a result of it. Whichever may be the case, we know that high morale and a sense of humor frequently go hand in hand. Quoting again from Morale for a Free World:

What is called a sense of humor is a sort of plus quality, too, but it is basically intellectual. It has been described as a sense of proportion, an ability to perceive likeness and unlikeness, with a special delight in the incongruous. It has been explained as an escape mechanism. But as displayed by the shrewd Yankee farmer and cowboy, as well as by the shrewd Yankee doughboy, wisecracking about the crops or the critters or the Japs, it seems more like sheer mental resilience. It is a playfulness of the mind proceeding, as physical play proceeds, from abundance of energy. Those who have more than one idea to bless themselves with can rub them together and generate others. They can even be fascinated by the process, and they can fascinate others. Young people say they like teachers who have a sense of humor, but they want it to be good humor too. They abhor nothing so much as the twisted forms which they call sarcasm.17

TECHNIQUES AND DEVICES FOR BUILDING MORALE

Earlier in the chapter it was pointed out that singleness of purpose is one of the great morale-building factors of organizations. However, there are probably few organizations which rely solely on singleness of purpose to keep their members united and to increase their membership. Just as there are many organizations with many purposes, so too the number of different morale-building

17 Ibid., pp. 52-53.
devices and techniques which they employ is legion. Pageantry, parades, crusades, symbols, uniforms, badges, conventions, secrecy, titles, etc., as used in various organizations are not meant to be ends in themselves, but as techniques and devices for fostering and retaining the interest of the members. No doubt there are occasions when these devices tend to obscure the real purpose of the organization. It is important, therefore, in the employment of any morale-building device, that it does not become emphasized to the point of hiding the real goal, and finally come to be considered as an end in itself.

1. Codes, Rituals, and Songs. It is not unusual for the ideals of an organization to be expressed in a creed, a code, a ritual, or a song. The familiar words come to have a sensory appeal which grows with the years and helps the individual to retain his faith and his interest. Songs especially, present an emotional appeal which is a strong force in moving one to action.

Young people are often greatly impressed by the use of codes and rituals. This is true especially when they are seeking standards by which they can be lifted to a higher plane. The National Honor Society for Secondary Schools makes elaborate use of ritual in the initiation of new members and it proves very effective.

Someone has said, "Let me write the music of a nation
and I care not who writes its laws." This statement em­
phasizes the fact that music has a great power to stir one
from the inside. Many organizations make use of this fact.
Colleges have their Alma Mater; the Army Air Corps has its
stirring song; the Marine stirs himself from the halls of
Montezuma to the shores of Tripoli; the nation has "The
Star-Spangled Banner," "America," and "America the Beauti­
ful"; the National Grange has its song, the Future Farmers
of America theirs, and so on ad infinitum.

2. Badges and Uniforms. How children, and grown-ups
too, love badges and uniforms! Manufacturers of prepared
cereals have taken advantage of this trait, and very ef­
fectively too. The symbolic value of badges must not be
overlooked. Frequently the badge of an organization is
made up of a number of symbols which are associated with
the origin and purposes of the organization. The badge
may also serve a double duty by not only designating mem­
bership but also status within the organization.

The armed forces have probably never found a better
morale-building device than the uniform. During the last
war our G. I.'s were the best dressed soldiers in the
world, a fact which helped to keep their morale high.

The idea can well be carried further. It is not
only a well-fitting uniform that gives pride and confi­
dence, but the assurance that one is looking his best.
The various branches of the service strongly believed in this. Men were required to keep shaved, shoes polished, buttons on, in short, to appear their best, even under adverse conditions.

3. Exclusiveness and Secrecy. One of the older and more common devices is that of exclusiveness. The members of an organization are made to feel their importance by the knowledge that it is not possible for just any one to become a member of the group. This attitude makes the beginner feel that he really has what it takes, else he could not get into the organization.

The standards for the selection of members may be based on achievement, on physical well-being, on similarity of purpose, on intellect, or even on wealth. A boys' gang was recently brought to light in which the requirement for admission was the committing of a major crime, and to remain in the organization a member had to commit other crimes periodically. While this does not illustrate a high type of morale, it does show how the idea of exclusiveness functions as a morale-builder.

Where selection is based on a high type of achievement or on sincerity of purpose, a great deal may be said for its value. The high morale of the Marine Corps, since the time of its inception to the present, has been due in no small measure to the rigid standards imposed in the
selection of its members. An individual so selected usually feels more keenly a sense of obligation to the group than one where standards for admission are low.

Many of our so-called secret organizations or lodges lend further importance to exclusiveness by an attitude of secrecy. At one time, in the history of some organizations, this attitude was necessary for the survival of the group. Even though that time has long since passed, such organizations presume that they can still carry out their purposes better if they are surrounded with mystery.

4. Titles and Promotions. In one form or another, the use of this device has permeated practically every phase of our social life. It is not just a matter of conferring distinction, but a method by which organizations recognize degrees of skill, service, worth, and achievement. In high schools our classes are designated freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior; athletes are awarded letters and service stripes; colleges award degrees--A.B., A.M., Ph.D.; the boy scouts have tenderfoot, scout, eagle scout; the military uses a host of titles and marks. The list could become lengthy indeed. All of these are meant to show evidences of progress, of growth, and of achievement.

5. Meetings and Conventions. In any organization it is imperative that members be kept informed if they are to put forth their best in working toward the common goal.
Some large organizations have realized this for some time and have made wide use of employee meetings and conventions. Pep meetings for salesmen or high school students, the social hour, the business meeting, community singing, refreshments—all make use of the stirring force which can come from group gatherings.

Other groups take advantage of man's desire for physical activity and organize bowling teams, golf teams, soft ball teams, and so on. To some this gives new opportunities for leadership. Still others are thrown into new roles as followers.

The foregoing techniques and devices have been briefly described because they are somewhat representative of the numerous and devious means organizations and groups employ in an effort to retain the interest of their members, and also to stir them to greater effort in contributing to the common goal. Too, they have been used by a variety of organizations and found to be successful. They may be regarded as somewhat fundamental, and may, with variations, find wide application in the field of educational morale.

It is not to be inferred here that there are not other factors which influence morale. There are various other factors, physical, mental, social, psychological, and economic which have a tremendous bearing on the vigor and zeal with which individuals and groups attack their
work. These will be discussed in succeeding chapters on student, faculty, and community morale.
Morale has been defined as a sense of well-being and effective functioning; an affirmative, happy, tone-giving energy-releasing mood; a capacity to sustain effort toward a given end in spite of obstacles, hardship and severe opposition. But morale is not achieved, and it cannot be generated, by merely defining it, or wishing for it, or by being told to "keep one's chin up." It is true that a "pep talk" may cause an upsurge in one's mood, but it can be only temporary, for the genuine thing must be generated from within.

In striving for any goal, one of the essentials would seem to be the ability to recognize that which is being sought. If one is interested in promoting and building student morale, then certainly he must be able to recognize those attitudes and conditions which are thought of as constituting good student morale. Some of these are discussed in succeeding paragraphs.

1. Confidence. The student, or the student group, with high morale displays confidence that he is engaged in a worthwhile enterprise. He is confident in his ability, both mental and physical. He is in school not because the law says he must be, or because his parents say so, but
because he feels that school for him is really worthwhile.

2. Optimism. Students with high morale will show a noticeable attitude of optimism. They are sure that the future holds for them possibilities which are significant. They are so sure of this that they are able to create within themselves the spirit which enables them to endure drudgery even in the face of temporary setbacks. They are possessed of that same something which tells the team that the game can still be won and keeps them fighting till the final gun. They have that spirit which tells them that "they may be down but never out." Even though they have suffered defeat once or several times, they have that inner drive which compels them to try again. Like the gallant Scottish king, Robert Bruce, they have "learned their lesson from the spider."

3. Respect. One of the good indications of high morale in a group is the respect with which the members regard themselves, others within their group, and also those outside. This is just as true with students as with other groups. Where high morale prevails, the students will respect each other, their teachers, the principal, the non-teaching staff, and the community. This will be evidenced by showing due regard for the rights, property, responsibility, and authority of others. Courtesy will come naturally, because pupils have learned that it is not prac-
ticing a set of hard and fast rules, but rather just taking the other person's welfare into consideration.

It might also be added that where school spirit runs high, there will be in evidence a sincere respect of the teachers for the pupils. It is trite to say that teachers cannot expect to receive respect unless they merit it, and they will not merit respect if they do not give it.

4. The Habit of Realism. The person whose morale is high is capable of facing each day's problems with an attitude of realism. He has the habit of facing the facts as they really are. Refusing to do this, to merely daydream instead of facing the situation, is itself a sign of weakness. To do something to help with the work in hand, and to do it persistently, is basic in the formation of high morale and is a good indication of it.

5. Success. The fact that pupils succeed in their endeavors is indicative of a good school spirit. There is much truth in the old adage which says that "nothing succeeds like success." This is not to say that it is necessary to win in every undertaking in order to preserve high morale. Pupils, as well as every one else, must learn that in every contest there is a loser, and they must learn to lose graciously. But there must not be constant defeat in all endeavors. The school who never or seldom wins is bound to develop a sense of frustration.
AGENCIES OF MORALE

The question which next arises relates to the achievement of the conditions as described in the above related indicators of good school morale. What are the factors which are most important in bringing such attitudes into being? Some of the factors which are foremost in building morale in the individual school are the teacher, the principal and the non-teaching staff, and the community itself.

It has often been said that "as the teacher, so is the school." Without a doubt, the teacher is the most important morale-building factor in the individual school. He is in daily contact with the child and takes up approximately 15 per cent of the child's 24-hour day. Next to the parent he probably spends most time with the child and most profoundly affects the habits and thinking of the child.

Student morale varies almost directly with teacher morale. An apathetic, lifeless, spiritless teacher who lacks enterprise and the joy of life, who cannot enter energetically and enthusiastically into common projects or enterprises, dampens the ardor of his pupils. But the teacher's enthusiasm and morale must be sincere. Mere hectic fidgeting about only serves to create nervousness; it becomes a distraction.

If the teacher is to remain worthy of the pupil's
confidence, he must never lose sight of his own need for growth. During the current emergency schools have had to get along with too many teachers who were interested only in what time school took up, what time it dismissed, and what their pay would be. There are teachers today who arrive just ahead of the children, expect to be off-duty for the entire noon hour, and leave ahead of their pupils in the evening. They never read a professional magazine, never attend summer school or summer workshops, and when they go to a teachers' meeting wonder only how soon it will be over. Surely such a teacher cannot inspire much interest.

The good teacher is well trained and remains interested in professional growth. He believes that his is a high calling, and is convinced that there are intangible rewards beyond the financial. He believes that to do the job well requires many more hours than just those spent in the classroom. He likes children and knows them as individuals, no two alike. He knows that if he allows a child to do less than his best, or if he allows the child to conduct himself in a manner less than the best of which he is capable, the child is being done an injustice. Because he is so, children trust him.

The teacher who sees his profession in this light can do much toward cultivating high morale in the schools.
Foster expresses about the same idea as follows:

The teacher, as frequently as the soldier, needs to burnish his ideals. He must begin his career with a wide horizon. He must know exactly what he is about when he sacrifices personal comfort and the prospect of material rewards for the hope of inspiring a new generation with a passion for service, freedom, righteousness.

Adapting a verse from Kipling someone has said—

If teaching were what teaching seems,
And not the teaching of our dreams,
But only putty, brass, and paint,
How quick we'd drop her—but she ain't.

Reports, records, schedules, examinations, filing systems, test tubes, themes—all the putty, brass, and paint of the teacher's job—soon become insufferable to one who has never had a vision.¹

The principal of the school can do much in the way of contributing to high morale of students if he has the proper qualifications. A principal must be professionally trained for all aspects of his work, and he must have the ability to act and to demonstrate when necessary that he is the educational authority of the school. To gain this position he must have self-control, physical vitality, and endurance. He must lead the kind of life he would have his pupils and teachers lead and he will be surprised at the number who will imitate him. The principal must be sympathetic, he must do all he can to see that the pupils in

his school make the best progress, attend the most suitable classes, and get into the most beneficial activities. He must be interested in the personal and physical welfare of his teachers and pupils. When a pupil makes a definite contribution to the school, or has accomplished an especially creditable piece of work, he should receive recognition for it. There is nothing like proper recognition to give the morale of a pupil a real boost.

Other attributes of the principal which are conducive to promoting morale in his students include initiative, decision, dignity, and courage. A good principal must be ready with the solutions for problems before they arrive. He must start things. He must be a thinker.

The indecision of leaders is always hard on morale and no less so in the public schools. It is better to decide one way or another and not be one hundred per cent right than to hesitate and fumble around looking for the right thing and end up by doing nothing at all.

The principal should be a friend to his pupils, but he should not become their intimate. He can be friendly with his teachers and pupils without becoming their common property. He must keep a certain amount of dignity or reserve.

Once the principal has determined a course of action to be followed which in his judgment will produce the best
results, he must have the courage to adhere to it. This may not harmonize entirely with present day ideas, but the leader of a school will be in few situations where it is not advisable for him to have some ideas of his own and to stick by them. Teachers and pupils will respect him for it.

The Community. It has been a general observation that the school takes its spirit from the community in which it is located. While this is probably not always true, it is a factor worthy of consideration. If enough people are interested, they get just about the kind of schools they want for their community, and they get from those schools just about what they want.

It should be said, however, that in many communities professional people have no one but themselves to blame for the lack of parent interest in their schools. If the members of the teaching profession are sympathetic with good community movements, make their school patrons feel welcome in the school, and cooperate with them in every manner possible, then good community contacts will come as a matter of course. The community will become interested in the needs of the school and its members will give their support in providing health services, buildings, supplies, better trained teachers, and leaders with vision.
THE PLACE OF THE SCHOOL IN PROMOTING MORALE

There are many factors which influence the morale of our children, and the school is only one of these. There are such other agencies as the home, the church, the Y.M.C.A. or Y.W.C.A., Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, summer camps, and many others.

The actual time which the school has the child under its influence is, after all, quite limited. If we consider that the average ten year old child is in school six hours a day for 180 days in a year, then he is in school 1080 hours out of the total 8760 hours in the year. This means that the school must do an enormous number of things to build morale within a small fraction of a total year's time.

The picture in regard to the use of a pupil's time is not complete without taking into account the hours not taken up by sleep and school. The average pupil has approximately one-third of his time left for other pursuits after time for eating, sleeping, dressing, and school requirements is allowed. The use of this time is not nearly so great a problem in rural communities as in urban centers, since there the average child has much more to do in the way of chores.

In many communities there is such a number and variety of school and community activities that the pupil's left-
over time is almost completely absorbed. Parents complain that the only time they see their children is at breakfast and at the evening meal. Some families like to see their children take part in everything going on in the school, church and community. This often brings conflicts, and sometimes the school is accused by other community organizations of taking up the pupil's time so completely that nothing is left for them. Churches can find no time for choir practice, there is no time left for Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. activities, not to mention numerous other organizations which sponsor activities laying a claim to some of the pupil's time. This problem has been partly solved in some places by the establishing of interactivity councils which attempt to coordinate activities and make as wise as possible a distribution of time to the various organizations competing for the use of the same hours.

Then there are other communities in which practically nothing constructive is offered to take up the child's out-of-school time. Such conditions are conducive to juvenile delinquency and detrimental to the building of good morale. If children are left without guidance, they will most certainly find their own activities. The school and community are wise indeed, if they make some provision for the guidance of their children during these hours.

Conditions as described in the two preceding para-
Graphs are obviously extremes, but nevertheless are so in a large number of communities. Each school and community should make an effort to provide some facilities, but nowhere should a child's time be taken up so completely by school and community activities that he does not have some time left which he can call his own and in which he can pursue his own interests or just do nothing if he so wishes. Adults must strike a wise balance between too little and too much planning for the child.

GOOD PRACTICES IN PROMOTING SCHOOL MORALE

In a more specific way, what are some of the things which a school can do to promote good morale? In *Morale for a Free World* such practices are discussed under three headings. These are:

1. The school must recognize and strive to meet for each child his human needs for physical health and well-being.

2. The school must recognize and strive to meet for each child his psychological needs for social status and the sense of security and *esprit de corps* that comes thru being a needed and valuable member of his society.

3. The school must recognize and strive to meet for each child his need for a unifying element in life that will integrate his activities toward a common cause that he can share with others. For our society and the better future we hope to build, that common cause will be the *ideals of democracy*. Our children should understand and earnestly desire for themselves and for all other people to live
Providing for Health and Physical Well-Being. The responsibilities of the school in providing for the health and physical well-being of the pupil are several:

1. A healthful environment must be provided.
2. A health guidance program is essential.
3. Emergency health conditions demand immediate care.
4. Accurate health information should be taught.
5. Sound health habits and attitudes need to be established.
6. The exceptional child requires a modified school program.

The first essential in any functioning health program for the schools is providing a healthful environment. This must take into consideration such things as the health of the teachers, the control of communicable diseases, the elimination of the causes of accidents, the avoidance of conditions harmful to health, and the use of teaching methods which are effective without causing worry or fear.

There are a great many things which schools may do to make pupils conscious of the healthfulness of their environ-

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In urban centers and towns definite standards have been set up for safeguarding the health of individuals. Schools may profitably examine their communities in the light of these standards. This would include the study of such aspects as water supply, sewage disposal, fire protection, food inspection, disease control, street safety, slum clearance, and recreational facilities. Rural schools could equally profitably consider such things as typhoid control, water supply, toilet sanitation, and other rural health problems.

Other important factors in the total school environment include the care and maintenance of the school plant. An untidy, unclean, neglected school building provides a poor environment in which to teach habits of personal cleanliness and respect for public property. But if the school custodian is to keep the plant in order, the pupils must be taught to do their part. The influence of the teacher is tremendous here. The untidy, careless teacher will automatically encourage the same traits in her pupils, and conversely, an orderly teacher sets the stage for an orderly classroom and provides an atmosphere for establishing good habits of cleanliness and conduct.

To protect the health of the school and community, it is essential that facilities be provided for discovering children who have conditions detrimental to themselves
and others. Teachers can do much by being alert in their
day-by-day observations. In addition to this, schools
should be able to provide the services of a school nurse
or physician for periodic health examinations and the
maintaining of health histories.

Regardless of how good the school environment may be,
ilnesses and accidents requiring emergency treatment will
arise. Not only the school staff but also the pupils should
know what to do in situations like this. They should be
able to recognize an emergency and know the procedures to
follow. The following recommendation is made:

In all schools, whether doctors or nurses are present
or readily available on call, there should be as many
persons as possible of both sexes trained in emergency
first aid, especially in the control of hemorrhage, the
safe handling of patients who are unconscious or who
have fractured or apparently fractured bones, and the
giving of artificial respiration to those apparently
drowned, electrically shocked, or suffering from ath-
letic injuries which temporarily suspend respiration,
a condition commonly known as "having the wind knocked
out." The ideal is to have every principal and
teacher trained in first aid. In any school there
should be an adequate supply of first-aid materials
and satisfactory directions as to how to use them.4

It is the responsibility of the school to teach the
child a great deal of what he needs to know about health.
He needs to be instructed on the development of good health
for himself, on how to avoid illness and accidents, and on

4Ibid. p. 216.
how to protect the health of others. He must be taught concerning an adequate diet and on the effects of drugs and stimulants.

The child today is exposed to much misinformation by way of the radio, newspapers and magazines. He has quite often learned a great deal about health, but the trouble is that so much of it "ain't so." It is largely up to the school to correct this situation.

Again quoting from the Twentieth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators:

Health teaching aims at more than mastery of facts. It is concerned with the improvement of human living. So conceived, much that is called education is in reality health education, and that which is termed health instruction becomes important in every school. The goal of intelligent self-direction of health behavior by every person in our society is an ideal toward which to strive. Organization of the curriculum to provide experiences and instruction for children which will help them to develop acceptable health practices, scientific and wholesome attitudes, and understanding of sound health principles constitutes the desirable program of health instruction in the schools.5

Merely knowing what is good for one's health is far from being adequate, and the school's responsibility does not stop with just teaching health facts. It is important to see that sound health habits are established. The program of the school must be designed to develop habits of

5Ibid., p. 59
cleanliness, proper eating, regular elimination, recreation, adequate rest, and the securing of medical advice when needed. If, as a result of its efforts, these habits are carried out into daily life by the pupils, then the school has been successful in its health program.

To meet health needs also requires that those children who are physically handicapped in one way or another be given an opportunity to receive an education as good as that of normal children. Anything less would not be compatible with our democratic aims.

Meeting the Need for the Child's Social Status.
Meeting the need for the child's social status has reference to those means and activities by which the child can be established as a needed and appreciated member of his society. To meet this need schools must develop in every person in the school the feeling that he is a necessary, appreciated, and significant member of the organization. For his own good, and for the common good, each pupil must learn that no rights come to any one without accompanying responsibilities, and he must learn to evaluate himself in terms of the rights of others.

The essential elements for the developing of group morale have already been briefly discussed in chapter II. As stated there, group morale will be high when all members of the group (1) know what they are trying to do through
their organization; (2) are making progress toward the
goal which has been set; (3) have a sense of togetherness;
(4) feel and realize their own importance to the
group; and (5) have the stimulus which comes from strong
leadership.

It will be noted that the key of the above five elements is participation—participation under the influence of a good leader. Let us give an example to show how the morale of a school was raised by making what had been considered an administrative problem become a problem for the school group.

In a school of the writer's acquaintance, school began in the fall with a school yard that had been well kept through the summer. By the end of the first week of school the grounds were littered with papers, sacks, apple cores, and candy bar wrappers. The custodians were making an effort to keep the place clean but the students were irresponsible and made no endeavor to cooperate. It was not a new problem, as this had been about the usual occurrence in years past. The principal had tried instilling pride in the students by calling their attention to the littered condition of the grounds. He had tried punishing those caught strewing papers on the lawn. Neither method had ever brought satisfactory results.

At a faculty meeting it was decided to turn the
solution of the problem over to the pupils themselves. A series of assembly programs centered on the theme of keeping the grounds and building clean were planned with each class in charge of one program. The general plan was announced in an assembly program.

The seniors took the initiative by cleaning the debris from the school premises and then posting a set of rules for all to observe. Those seen breaking the rules were brought to trial before a jury at the senior assembly program, and if found guilty, were given suitable punishments. In this program the senior public speaking class gave a short original play which stressed the responsibility of each student for keeping the place clean.

Each of the other classes down to and including the seventh grade, in turn gave similar programs. The juniors made offenders participate in a Truth or Consequences program. The sophomores made guilty culprits draw a punishment from a hat, and the freshmen put offenders in the spotlight to make their carelessness outstanding. The seventh grade, as a part of their program, summarized the effects of the campaign. The animation of the school premises was characterized by members of the class holding plaques depicting what they represented. Gratitude was expressed in turn by the Front Lawn, Back Lawn, Front Walk, Bus Drivers, Hedges, Neighbors, Waste Paper Baskets, Flag
Pole, and Janitors.

The net result was that the student body was made conscious of and accepted responsibility for the solution of a problem simply because they were made participants under good leadership. In the words of their guidance director, "The series of programs left imbedded in each student a pride in his school and a feeling of responsibility gained from a painless solution to a perplexing problem."

If students are to learn how to accept responsibility, they must be placed in situations which will make it possible for them to do so. The same may be said of self-reliance.

A student is self-reliant only if he has achievements back of him which give him courage and if he can look back at those successes and act accordingly in the future. If this is true then naturally the way to promote self-reliance is to set up situations which make it possible for the student to succeed in many different ways. Self-reliance is brought about mainly by our extra-curricular activities.6

This gives to extra-curricular activities a responsibility which many schools fail to recognize. Also it makes it imperative that the school's activities reach a large percentage of the student body. Too often this is

not the case. Schools are inclined to cater only to a select few, and usually they are the ones who are least in need of developing social status within the group. A greater emphasis on intra-mural activities and a greater variety of activities would seem to be at least a partial answer to the problem. This would provide participation for a much larger majority of students and naturally lead to many more desired achievements which are essential to good school morale. Activities should be made to include all kinds of games, intra-mural as well as inter-scholastic events, forensic events, good scholarship, punctuality, perfect attendance, good sportsmanship, and others according to the school and community. Goals for recognition should not be too high, and should vary according to the ability of the students participating. Great care should be taken to stress success instead of failures. In promoting school morale through self-reliance, there must always be a consciousness of the fact that confidence comes from achievement, and that failure or the threat of failure will not bring results.

Meeting the Need for a Common Cause. In chapter II it was stated that one of the essentials of group morale was loyalty to a common cause or purpose, and that when the members of the group identified their own purposes with the purpose of the group, then could group morale begin to grow
and develop. What is this common purpose for which all must strive? The Educational Policies Commission says that "Our common purpose is to defend and extend democracy." What are the means by which loyalty to this common purpose can be brought about? The Educational Policies Commission gives the following four ways:

1. Loyalty requires an understanding of rights and duties. This means that the school must give the clearest possible understanding of just what democracy is, of the origin of our ideals, and of the application of these ideals to situations here and now. There must be a clear understanding that while democracy gives precious privileges, so too it imposes vigorous duties on its citizens.

2. Loyalty requires systematic practice in democratic behavior. The school must provide situations which will develop skills and habits in the practice of various democratic procedures such as the conduct of discussions, choosing leaders, following leaders, serving as leaders, and other processes related to democratic institutions.

3. Loyalty is often expressed in ritual and music. The schools should give ample opportunity for the expres-

sion of loyalty to American democracy through pageantry, ritual, flag salutes, singing or playing the national anthem, and other patriotic exercises. To be effective such demonstrations must always be well done, must be given in an atmosphere of dignity and sincerity, and must avoid the commonplace.

4. Loyalty grows out of honest teaching. The advantages which grow out of living in a democracy should be taught enthusiastically. Teachers should avoid stressing the defects in the character of great men and women in history when no purpose can be served by it. On the other hand, national heroes should not be held up as gods when doing so clouds the facts necessary for a full understanding of our history. Neither must teachers hold up democracy as something accomplished, but rather as an ideal toward which all must strive.8

In summarizing, if we are to promote morale in our student groups, we must know what constitutes good morale. We must realize that the teacher, the principal and the non-teaching staff, and the community are important factors in building school morale. We must know too that there are other community agencies with which the school must cooperate to achieve best results. And finally, if the school is

8Ibid., p. 186.
to build morale it must (1) provide for the health and physical well-being of the child; (2) meet the need for the child's social status; and (3) build an *esprit de corps* by working for a common cause--the defense and extension of democracy.
CHAPTER IV

PROMOTING TEACHER MORALE

In chapter III it was pointed out that the teacher is a very important factor in promoting school spirit of a high type, and that if the teacher's own morale is low he cannot do much in the way of inspiring pupils to higher levels of achievement. In view of this it must be evident that teacher-teacher relationships and teacher-administrator relationships have an important bearing on school life. Sometimes pupils are not to blame for the morale of the school, but rather the fault lies in the lack of organization, the misunderstanding or the mistrust among the school staff itself. There can be little hope for a school which permits the morale of its staff to affect adversely the well-being of its pupils.

Occasionally the morale of a staff is formulated and maintained by the members themselves, but more often it originates with the educational leader who is foresighted enough to realize the importance of cooperative and wholesome relationships. The good school administrator will realize the importance of his position as coordinator and will make an effort to provide conditions under which a staff can best progress.

The leader must take into account a wide variety of
influences in coordinating the collective efforts of a staff. He must see and deal with the causes and effects of staff members' actions. Each member must be seen and dealt with in the light of his entire personality, and with a realization of all the forces, both good and bad, which influence his actions.

In order to attain a realization of the forces affecting a teacher's personality, his joys, sorrows, achievements, satisfactions, and grievances, the administrator must make frequent contacts with his teachers possible. They must want to come to him and to confide in him. Quoting from an article by E. B. Whitcraft:

Above all, the staff must feel free to contact the administrator, be he a superintendent, a supervising principal, or a principal, at all times without fear or timidity. The leader must create the attitude through his amenity, approachability, and common sense. The staff must have faith and confidence in the program sponsored and begun by the principal. Aloftness on the part of any administrator will break down the essential rapport needed in building friendly cooperative relations. Staff members will develop confidential attitudes and familiarity with respect and engendered by the principal.¹

If the administrator is to be a leader in morale building he must be able to recognize poor morale and good morale. He must know what actions and attitudes

are characteristic of poor morale. William H. Burton
gives the following attitudes as being characteristic of
poor morale in industrial workers:

1. They lack enthusiasm and self confidence. They
avoid decisions or responsibility, always attempting
to pass the decision and responsibility to those over
them, even preferring to accept their snap judgment,
and to proceed on a course they know to be wrong rather
than to act on their own initiative. They feel they
will obtain little credit for correct action, but
know they will be highly censured for mistakes, and
even fear the loss of their positions.

2. They dislike and do not respect their superiors
or fellow workers, with the exception of a few in a
clique formed defensively for their mutual protection.
They feel that the blame for all mistakes is shifted
to their shoulders by their superiors or fellow workers
for the purpose of advancing their cause and discrediting
them in the eyes of the management.

3. They dislike their work and take little pride in
it, for it is seldom commended. They think the managers
fail to appreciate their ability, they dislike to
tackle anything which may result in criticism and the
further jeopardy of their positions, and they concentrate their energies in avoiding or concealing those matters which have been the subject of past censure.

4. They are sure they lack standing with the manage ment and are constantly in danger of losing their positions. They are worried, depressed, pessimistic, and unhappy. Their leisure is clouded by worry about the uncertainty of their future.2

While the above was written for an industrial situa tion, it will apply equally well to a teacher. By
using the preceding description as a basis, and thinking

in terms of educational organization, we can describe a teacher whose morale is high.

She has the ability to make decisions for herself, but when she is uncertain about a course of action, she will not hesitate to confer with those in authority. Work is well done, not for the praise expected from the administrator, but because the teacher herself gets a satisfaction out of doing her work well. She knows that if work is well done there is little chance of her losing her position. She is willing to accept blame for her mistakes and does not berate the administrator when a criticism is given. No job is too difficult for her to tackle. She is constantly trying to improve herself in matters that have been unsatisfactory in the past. She does not worry about whether she has a "stand-in" with the administrator because she feels no need to do so. She is confident. She has the ability to leave her troubles behind when the day's work is done.

By reading the above description of a teacher with high morale, one may get the idea that developing the right attitudes and enthusiasms about her work is a job for the teacher to solve for herself. Undoubtedly this is true to a large extent, but let us examine the factors unfavorable to producing a high morale and then see if there is any way in which the school administrator can help.
FACTORS UNFAVORABLE TO GOOD MORALE

The following list of factors unfavorable to cultivating and maintaining a high morale is taken from Burton's article previously referred to:

I. Factors in community life.
   1. Lack of community respect and cooperation.
   2. Lack of opportunity for desirable social life.
   3. Lack of desirable living quarters.
   4. Lack of personal freedom: i.e., presence of unnecessary restraints, prohibitions, and interferences with private lives.

II. Factors in unintelligent administration and supervision.
   1. Failure to orient new staff members socially or professionally.
   2. Failure to invite participation in policy or plan making; failure to recognize contributions to good teaching.
   3. Failure to maintain consistently a sound, defensible policy of administration and supervision.
   4. Failure to maintain a sound employment situation.
      a. Selection, appointment, promotion on capricious, personal or political bases. Undeserved appointments and promotions, political interference with technical fitness.
      b. Last minute assignments and transfers.
      c. Maladjustment of salaries.
      d. Insecurity of tenure.
      e. Rapid turnover of both administrative staff and teaching group.
      f. Absence of retirement or pension plan.
      g. Restriction of absence or sick leave; of sabbaticals for travel or study.
   5. Failure to supply good working conditions: properly equipped rooms, laboratories and
playgrounds; proper sanitary facilities; adequate and comfortable retiring rooms for relaxation.

6. Failure to supply ambitious, enthusiastic, leadership.

It will be noted that the above analysis of factors in no way takes into account the teacher as an individual. There are "problem teachers" as well as "problem pupils." Factors which may have an adverse influence on one teacher may in no wise lower the morale of another. Many times the depressives are not even known to the individual herself. Such cases are for the investigation of psychiatrists. But, by and large, the competent administrator can do much to correct the conditions noted above.

THE ADMINISTRATOR'S PART IN CORRECTING THESE CONDITIONS

Increasing Community Respect and Cooperation. Someone has well said, "A mule cannot pull when he is kicking, and he cannot kick when he is pulling." To get the community to pull for the school, they must know what the school is doing. The superintendent and faculty of a small school can go a long way in creating respect for their work by getting acquainted with the people of the community and creating respect for themselves. The small town offers many

3Ibid., p. 224.
opportunities to do this. Even good old-fashioned visiting is not outmoded. In fact it is an essential ingredient in successful administration.

Then, too, people must have something to talk about. If they must talk, let them get acquainted with the facts so that their talk will not be idle gossip. The local paper, school paper, parent organizations, and even the pupils themselves can help in disseminating facts which will increase the respect and cooperation of the community for and with the school.

**Increasing Opportunities for Social Life and Removing Restrictions on Personal Freedom.**

I am a schoolteacher in a small town in the Middle West. I admit this rather reluctantly because I know from past experience that the moment I make this confession an invisible wall of reserve will rise between us. I am no longer a human being to you, a person who loves, thinks, hopes, and fears. Instead, I become a dull person, a paragon of virtue, a member of the third sex; in short—a school teacher! 3

In many communities, especially smaller ones, the people of the community are concerned not nearly so much with how the teacher conducts her classes as they are with how she conducts herself outside of class. She must not keep company with young men in the community, dance, play cards, or be out late on week-day nights. In some places

the teacher is expected to spend at least three out of four week-ends in town and at the same time is denied the privilege of enjoying many of the opportunities for recreation which exist in the community. For many years teachers rather took their lot for granted, but more recently there has been a growing resentment among the teachers toward unreasonable regulations and petty tyrannies forced upon them. Many thoughtful citizens outside of the teaching profession are beginning to share this resentment with the teachers.

What is the cause of these restrictions and what can be done in removing them? Anderson says:

Obstinate conservatism is a prominent cause, especially in smaller communities, where all must rub elbows, where community knowledge and discussion of one's private affairs put everyone under surveillance, and where narrowness and prejudice, while not necessarily more common than in the country at large, are more likely to exert strong influence. Power to dominate the lives of others is an active human desire, sometimes fulfilled through activity in public school affairs. A position on the school board or as superintendent of schools gives power to prohibit certain acts of others.

From the above quotation it is obvious that the superintendent is in many cases directly responsible for the restrictions on the personal lives of teachers. It is the responsibility of the administrator to know that teachers are normal human beings and as such have a desire

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and a right to lead normal human lives. If the superintendent is really a leader he should be able to educate the board, and through them the community, to the fact that if the schools want active, alert, enthusiastic teachers who enjoy life and who can stimulate enjoyable activities through their personal magnetism, they must remove silly restrictions which now make teaching less attractive than other professions.

**Improving Board and Room Arrangements.** The selection of a suitable boarding and rooming place is one of the important problems facing practically every new teacher. It is often quite difficult for the teacher who is a stranger in the community to make the proper selection from outward appearances alone. Quite often the place which apparently offers the best accommodations is not the place to stay for various reasons. The superintendent can be of help to the incoming teacher by providing a list of places which meet the standards of the community and school, and, at the same time, will prove suitable to her. A committee of local teachers, appointed by the superintendent or the local teachers' organization, could help the new teacher in finding proper accommodations. Another way would be for the superintendent to personally escort each new teacher about town in search of a suitable place. This of course would not be feasible in a large city, but it could be done in
villages and small towns.

**Orienting the New Staff Member.** Quite often the new teacher in a system must gather important information about the school bit by bit in a catch-as-catch-can manner. There are so many details, slightly different for every school, about which a new teacher must learn, that superintendents should have some adequate program for inducting new teachers into service. The suggestions given below are based on those given by Saylor.

1. **New teacher's sponsor.** Some schools follow the policy of appointing one of the old teachers as sort of an advisor or sponsor to the new teacher to help her through difficulties encountered in the first few months.

2. **Teacher get-together.** A faculty mixer, steak fry, corn roast, or what-have-you can hardly be equaled as a means of getting new teachers better acquainted with the other members of the staff. Occasional teacher gatherings throughout the year can be a big help in the way of providing relaxation and informality.

3. **Professional relationships.** The new teacher can hardly be expected to have attained full growth professionally when she begins her career. The superintendent has a definite responsibility in guiding new teachers into the proper professional relationships with the organized profession. Part of a teachers' meeting might well be devoted
to a discussion of professional obligations and what professional organizations do for their members.

4. Administrative jurisdiction. At the beginning of the year the teacher should understand clearly what are the duties and responsibilities of the teachers, principal, janitors, and superintendent.

5. Information about the school. It is well for every teacher to know something about the history of the school, its financial support, problems peculiar to the school, enrollment, achievements, etc. These items could easily be made part of a teacher's handbook or a manual of administration. Such a manual would be a ready reference for all teachers.

6. Adjustments to community life. Over and above the unreasonable restrictions which some communities impose on teachers, there are some reasonable adjustments which every teacher should be expected to make. The superintendent should advise new teachers about such matters as getting acquainted with local history and traditions, recreational and cultural opportunities, community activities and enterprises, and civic organizations.

7. Working philosophy of the school. Every school system worthy of the name is guided by a philosophy of education of some sort. This philosophy should be clearly stated, brought out into the open, and discussed with new
members of the staff early in the year. The new teacher should know, among other things, what are the guiding principles of the school, what are the responsibilities of each department, what is the school's conception of extra-curricular activities, and what is the philosophy underlying the discipline of the school.5

The Teacher's Handbook. In number 5 above, it was mentioned that the teacher's handbook was a good way to make available to the teacher much of the necessary information concerning the school. Since every situation is different, there can be no set list of things to be included in the handbook. Duffy gives the following as a suggestive list:

1. Directory of school personnel.
2. Opening and closing hours of school.
3. Teacher's hours for arriving at school and leaving.
4. Staff meeting dates.
5. Regulations and instructions on fire drills.
6. Dates on which reports are due.
7. Scholarship and social adjustment reports.
8. Playground assignments and playground supervision.
10. What to do when a substitute is needed.
11. Physical education teachers and their relation to the school.
12. Music and art supervisors and their work with the teachers.
13. Teachers' magazines.
14. Conditions that must be observed when a child is

is to be sent home for any reason.
15. Agents and salespeople in or around the building.
16. Visitors (particularly parents).
17. Teachers' pay days.
18. Getting supplies from the office or stock room.
19. Relation of teachers to custodians and janitors.
20. The secretary's time and her work.
21. The balopticon and the movie projectors.
22. Radio receiving sets and their use.
23. Use of school stationery.
24. How to receive newly enrolled pupils.
25. Transferring pupils.
26. Care of maps and other apparatus.
27. The teaching of safety.
28. The teachers' library.
29. Club work in the school.
30. Caring for bicycles, wagons, and scooters.
31. Cooperation with police department.
32. Cooperation with school physician, nurse, and dental hygienist.
33. What to do in case of accidents and injured children.
34. List of source materials.

Selection, Appointment, and Placement of Teachers.

The way teachers are selected, appointed, and placed in their particular jobs within the system may help to build or destroy good morale. If high professional standards are to be maintained, teachers should be selected with the greatest care. To do this by professional methods requires intelligent cooperation of the superintendent, the principal, and the board of education. New teachers should be nominated by the superintendent after careful consideration of the talent available and their nomination confirmed by the

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board. The credentials of all candidates should be a part of the official records of the superintendent's office and should be open to the inspection of all members of the board. The bases for the superintendent's recommendations should be clearly defined and well supported.

A number of factors should be taken into consideration in the selection of teachers. Too frequently the only basis for recommendation is an opinion arrived at from looking at a photograph of the applicant, examining a specimen of handwriting, and reading the applicant's letters of recommendations. While these may have some value, they alone do not give a sound basis for selecting a teacher.

Other factors in making selection should include reliable evidence of general intelligence and broad scholarship. If possible there should be observation of the actual teaching of the candidate. Regardless of what factors are considered, the process of selection should include a personal interview conducted according to approved procedures.

Very detrimental to good teacher and community morale is the suspicion that teaching positions or particular assignments within a system may be obtained by personal friendship, or by the wish of a prominent citizen, or because of membership in a certain political party. The selection of teachers based on factors having no relation to teaching ability will help to destroy the confidence of
teachers in their school administrator.

Another problem which the administrator must meet fairly is the employment of the local teacher. This is particularly true in periods of industrial unemployment. Frequently a great deal of pressure is brought on the superintendent to give the local taxpayer's daughter first consideration, regardless of what her qualifications might be. A good policy for the administrator to follow here is to recommend local talent for employment only when it is talent, the prime consideration is the children who are to be taught, not the taxpayer's daughter.

The same principles that apply in the selection of teachers should also apply in their placement within the system. The merit and ability of a teacher should be deciding factors, not the personal whims of the administrator.

It is inconsistent to maintain high standards in filling teaching positions and not to do so in employing non-teaching personnel. Sound methods of personnel selection should exist in all parts of the school.

The Teaching Load. During World War II, and still at present, it has been necessary for many schools to get along without a full staff. This has necessitated giving teachers in those schools even heavier teaching loads than before. Ordinarily teachers do not complain of their heavy loads if they feel that there is an equitable distribution of
duties. What the administrator must keep in mind is that "teaching load" means more than just teaching. Besides the number of periods a day spent at teaching it includes such things as (1) number of preparations daily, (2) average size of class, (3) assigned special periods per week, (4) committee assignments, (5) activities after school hours, (6) reports of all kinds, (7) conferences with individual students, and (8) assigned public activities.

The administrator can help the situation by dividing classwork as equitably as possible; by seeing that the work of extracurricular activities does not always fall on the shoulders of the same teacher just because she is willing; and by passing the responsibility for committee work around so that all can share.

Another factor in the teacher load which the administrator can often be influential in easing is the matter of reports and routine clerical work. A teacher should not be forced to use time for copying reports and duplicating papers which could more profitably be used for increasing professional growth, or for some much needed recreation. Frequently the administrator can help by convincing the schoolboard of the necessity for hiring additional clerical help.

Security in Employment. In former years it was not uncommon to use the teaching profession as a "stepping
stone" in the preparation for some other profession. Greater training demands and longer periods of preparation make this much less profitable today, but it also increases the teacher's need to be protected in the profession.

It is difficult to have high morale in a group of teachers if they are in constant danger of losing their jobs. This does not argue that teachers should never be dismissed, but there should be definite professional reasons for dismissing them.

It is true that a large number of the states offer tenure protection to teachers in city systems, but only about one-half of the states offer any kind of protection to rural teachers.

However, tenure systems have not wholly solved the problem. In some cities tenure protection serves to protect the weak teacher and make it practically impossible to get rid of her. Boards of education should have the right to terminate a teacher's employment when reasons are good and sufficient.

Economic Security. Lack of economic security in the teaching profession has kept many capable people from becoming teachers and has forced good teachers out of the profession. Too frequently salary schedules are based on what would be an adequate income for a young unmarried woman who has no one but herself to support. Such incomes are inade-
quate for a young married man who is trying to raise a family.

The adoption of a sound and adequate salary scale is an important morale-building factor. Teachers should be allowed to participate in the construction of such a schedule in order to help give them a better understanding of the problems of education. The administrator's obligation is to make such participation possible.

**Participation in Forming School Policies.** With better training of teachers has come an increased desire on their part to be recognized in matters which concern the welfare of the entire school. This is inevitable and should not be disregarded by school administrators. The following fourteen points listed by Carpenter and Rufi present not only the administrator's but also the teacher's obligations in teacher participation:

1. Participation is essentially an attitude of mind, and not a form of organization.
2. Participation should not be compulsory but all teachers should be stimulated to participate and their contributions should be welcome.
3. Participation must be based upon cooperation in the pursuit of a common aim cooperatively arrived at.
4. Each teacher should be guaranteed an easy, officially recognized channel through which he may bring facts and suggestions to the administration for the good of the service.
5. The voice of those participating must really count, not merely be heard and then disregarded.
6. The effect of participation upon the education of the pupils, not the effect upon the teachers or the principal, is the prime consideration.
7. While participation is primarily local in nature,
it should, however, result in frequent contributions to education at large.

8. Participation is a duty and obligation as well as an inherent privilege.

9. Participation makes absolutely necessary the knowledge by all concerned of a clear-cut analysis of the functions of the school board, the principal, and the teacher.

10. The practice of participation must not violate the law of unity of organization. The principal is responsible, no matter how many of the teachers take part in administration.

11. Participation must not be used as a substitute for expert advice and service.

12. The proper legal authorities must retain the authority to compel where the welfare of children demands it.

13. No effort should be spared to give full recognition and show ample appreciation for all contributions by teachers.

14. Participation must not be put onto a system, as a person puts on a robe, but it should grow gradually as a result of an intensified desire on the part of the teacher to render greater educational service.7

It can be seen from several of the above fundamentals that the administrator does have an important role in making participation possible. What are the means by which it becomes possible for teachers to participate? One device which is rather commonly used is the advisory committee, or in some systems, a group of advisory committees. Whenever a question of policy comes up in which teachers should have a voice, a committee is formed to study the question carefully and then advise with the superintendent. Such committees are frequently used in helping with preliminary

building plans, in considering and constructing salary schedules, in forming a sick-leave policy, and in many other policy-forming questions of a similar nature.

Some systems, both large and small, have a somewhat more permanent advisory group usually known as the teachers' advisory council. Members to this council are elected from all ranks of the teaching staff, including supervisors and assistant principals. Such organizations have definite plans by which they can make recommendations to the proper authorities.

**Better Working Conditions for Teachers.** Most school buildings have been planned with little reference to the notions of classroom teachers as to what those buildings should be like. As a general rule, teachers do not complain so much about conditions which affect their own comfort as they do about those which more directly affect the efficiency of their instruction and the welfare of their pupils. Following is a list of complaints frequently heard from classroom teachers:

1. No bulletin board space.
2. Lack of storage space--cupboards and shelves.
3. Window shades that don't work.
4. Blackboards with low visibility.
5. Poor lighting.
6. Poor ventilation.
7. Lack of functional program--equipment on hand not available.

8. Inefficient bell systems.

9. Inefficient janitor service.

10. Lack of teacher's restrooms.

Sometimes the reason teachers do not have these facilities is simply because they do not ask for them. Frequently the reason they do not ask for them is that their administrator usually ignores such requests, probably because of financial reasons. Not all, but some, of these facilities can be supplied at low cost. Shelves, cupboards, bulletin boards, etc. can be made in the school shop. Only the materials need to be bought. Blackboards can be improved with proper care. Window shades, like other things used daily, get out of adjustment and require some care.

In many cases what is most needed is a good janitor or some help for the one who is already there. The problem of providing teachers' restrooms is not so easily solved. Reconstruction of buildings which did not plan for them is not easy to obtain.

Recognition and Promotion. It has been stated before in this writing that high morale in a group requires common purposes and understandings. In school it is therefore necessary for the leader to know what is going on in the classrooms in order to ascertain the extent to which the purposes are being realized.
The good leader will never fail to give proper recognition for an excellent piece of work. The professional growth of teachers depends largely on such recognition. There are various ways in which the administrator can show his appreciation for a teacher's good work and extra effort. Superior teachers can be given assignments in keeping with their achievements. When vacancies occur and promotions are to be made in the faculty, achievements should be heavily considered. In larger systems the administrator may be able to grant sabbatical leaves for study and travel.

**A Sound Supervisory Policy.** Too many administrators who do their own supervising, supervise with the idea of finding out something about the teacher which will help them to decide whether she should be retained or dismissed at the end of the year. The chief aim of supervision should be the improvement of teaching, and one of the final outcomes should be teacher growth. The person responsible for supervision should learn to become the kind of supervisor pictured in this short poem of Kipling's:

'E learns to do his watchin'
Without it showin' plain.
'E learns to save a dummy
And shove him straight again.
'E learns to check a ranker
That's beggin' leave to shirk,
An' 'E learns to make men like him
So they'll learn to like their work.\(^8\)

\(^8\)Quoted from *Air Service Command Leadership Leaflet*, III (July, 1943), p. 3.
The following set of suggestions for use of the supervisor in morale work is based on a set given by Barr and Burton, and printed in Burton's article previously referred to:

Supervisors will contribute to morale:

1. Through manifesting faith and confidence in all their co-workers.
2. Through expertness in professional leadership displayed. (Teachers will have confidence in and give allegiance to supervisors who are known to be experts.)
3. Through a willing and unselfish expenditure of time and energy in meeting problems and in rendering service.
4. Through maintaining a policy of cooperative attack in the solution of all problems and tasks.
5. Through inviting the cooperation of given individuals and groups in the terms of the training, abilities, and attitudes of those individuals and groups. Thus tasks and problems will be entered upon with reasonable assurance of success with resultant affect upon morale.
6. Through giving full public credit to all contributions.
7. Through judging contributions, suggestions, and results achieved in terms of the persons concerned and the conditions involved, instead of by some arbitrary standard; through objective data and standards, however fragmentary, instead of by personal or capricious standards.
8. Through leadership and administration which is kindly, sympathetic, and cooperative, and at the same time firm, objective, and impartial.
9. Through providing every opportunity and facility for the exercise of freedom, initiative, and experimental attack upon problems and tasks.9

During World War II, a survey was made in the twelve Air Service Commands to determine what were the required qualities in a supervisor as seen by the employees. The

results of this survey were printed in *Air Service Command Leadership Leaflet* and are given below:

**QUALITIES OF A SUPERVISOR THAT MAKE AN EMPLOYEE ENTHUSIASTIC ABOUT HIS JOB**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description of Supervisor</th>
<th>Percent of employees checking this item.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Gives you a chance to work things out on your own initiative.</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Has high standards of work and performance and stimulates you to do your best.</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Shares with you the credit, praise, and recognition for good work done in his department.</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Can make suggestions without making you feel angry.</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Asks you for suggestions and makes you feel like your ideas are worth something.</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Knows his stuff about the work.</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Plans the work so that everyone knows just what his duties are.</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. He shows that he trusts employees with responsibility and never spies on them.</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Is always courteous in his treatment of employees</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. He makes you feel like he is one with the rest of you.</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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10 *Air Service Command Leadership Leaflet, III (July, 1943)* p. 4.
Without a single change, the above list of qualities could be used by those responsible for the supervision of teaching.

**Democratic Administration.** In the March 12, 1939 issue of *Time* appeared this statement: "No U. S. citizens are fonder of praising democracy than the heads of the most authoritarian institution--the U. S. school." If one of the purposes of our schools is to produce "democrats," then surely our schools should be democratic in administration. However, it is rather difficult to believe, in the light of present day school administration, that our schools are entirely authoritarian. Many schools can be found today in which the faculty has a definite part in administration. Such procedure should be a great aid to the public relations program of the school because there will be a more comprehensive and intelligent interpretation of what is being done in the school. This goes back to increasing community respect and cooperation, one of the factors favorable to the cultivation and maintenance of good morale. Obviously, school administration can be just about as authoritarian or as democratic as the superintendent wishes it to be.

O. C. Pratt suggests that if administrators will take the attitude of co-workers rather than overlords, they will show it by taking an active interest in advancing the welfare of their teachers. He states further:
The trouble with both teachers and administrators, wherever serious misunderstanding exists between them, grows out of an erroneous conception of their relationship. It is the same mistake which townspeople and the people in the country around a town frequently make in supposing that their interests are antagonistic. As a matter of fact, the real unit, whose welfare is at stake, is neither the town nor the surrounding countryside, but the town and the supporting trade territory....

In a similar way the real unit consists of administrators and teachers. If, for any reason, teachers in appreciable numbers lose faith in their legal leaders, the power and prestige of those leaders correspondingly decreases.11

What can the administrator do about it? His contacts with teachers are continuous. He can make these as friendly and enthusiastic as he wishes. Lewis and Williams summarize it very nicely in the following short paragraph:

The basic problem in administration is personnel guidance, and the basic element in personnel guidance is the stimulation and maintenance of the wholehearted interest of the individual. This means that the individual must be treated as a human personality. This can best be done on the basis of wholesome fellowship.12


12Lewis and Williams, Creative Management for Teachers, p. 224.
CHAPTER V

PROMOTING COMMUNITY MORALE

The problem of community morale is largely a problem of engaging the interest, enthusiasm, and cooperation of the members of the community for the welfare of its children as well as for the betterment of all of its members. A school is a social institution organized for and serving the community in which it is located. It is evident that its proper functioning can take place only where there is intelligent interest on the part of the school in the community and on the part of the community in the school. The importance of this reciprocal interest has become a recognized principle in education. While it is reasonable to assume that school-community interest is always present, in practice the extent to which it exists and functions in an effective way is dependent largely on objective efforts made for its realization.

There are various and devious means by which the interest of the community in the school may be aroused and by which the school may enlist the cooperation of the community for the support of its program. Some of these will be discussed in this chapter under the following headings:

1. Community morale will be promoted through proper interpretation of the school to the community.
2. Community morale will be promoted through school services to the community.

3. Community morale will be promoted through school-community cooperation.

4. Community morale will be promoted by making adequate provision for community cooperation in the educational program.

INTERPRETING THE SCHOOL TO THE COMMUNITY

Through Parent-Teacher Organizations. The purposes of parent-teacher associations, as stated in the By-laws, Article II, of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, are as follows:

First, to promote child welfare in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of home life; to secure more adequate laws for the care and protection of children.

Second, to bring into closer relation the home and the school that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child; and to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, moral, and spiritual education.

In writing of the purposes of the parent-teacher association, Williams states:

The purpose of the parent-teacher association is essentially one of integration. The organization sprang in the beginning from a need of understanding between home and school. Its primary object as given in the parent-teacher Creed is "to interest all children and to link in common purpose the home,
the school, and all other educative forces in the life of the child, to work for his highest good.¹

In discharging this function of integration, one of the chief obligations of the parent-teacher association is to understand. As a promoter of understanding, it must encourage the school to learn about the home and the home to learn more about the school.

To the well-trained teacher of today, each child is a challenge. In so far as time and the organization of the school permit, she will endeavor to do as much as possible for each individual child with which she is entrusted. Modern education realizes that the teacher cannot meet this challenge unless she knows the child, and she cannot know the child unless she knows the home. The parent-teacher association helps to provide the contacts with parents and teachers which make it possible for the teacher to know the home on a friendly, social basis as well as on a professional basis.

The school of today has very little in common with the school with which many of today's parents are acquainted. New methods, new techniques, new procedures have thrust themselves upon the population in all walks of life. The

school is no exception with its changed curriculum, new emphases, and new techniques.

Many parents are hard-put to understand the school today. They cannot understand why Latin is no longer required, why spelling is taught as it is, or why social science replaces history and geography in the junior high school. New methods of procedure have been equally difficult to understand.

To understand the schools parents should comprehend the influence of changing social conditions on the needs of the school. School equipment and rules and regulations for pupils are not the same as they were in the school life of the parents. And that is as it should be, because social conditions are vastly changed from the days when our parents learned the 3 R's.

How is such understanding to come about? If the parent can be brought into the parent-teacher organization, encouraged to serve on various committees, and given opportunities to participate in the program, some understanding should come as a matter of course. Many parent-teacher organizations for one of their annual programs sponsor a "go to school night." If it is carefully planned and executed it proves to be not only interesting to the parent but enlightening as well.

Given below is a set of questions to be used by
parent-teacher organizations as a means of evaluating their organization and its activities. An examination of the list reveals the important part this organization should play in increasing community understanding in school affairs.

1. Has our program resulted in material benefit to the children of the community?
2. Has it increased the members' understanding?
3. Has it tended to raise the standards of home life?
4. Has it stimulated an interest in parent education?
5. Has it brought about any change in parent-child relations?
6. Has it interpreted the school program to the public?
7. Has it helped to develop high standards of public education?
8. Has it promoted public support for an adequate program of education?
9. Has it stimulated a desire to improve community conditions or to provide a more wholesome environment for child growth and development?
10. Has it brought to the community a better understanding of the values and responsibilities of a better way of life?
11. Has it contributed to the development of responsible citizenship?
12. Has the work of the organization been carried on in a democratic manner, with all elements of the community assuming a fair share of the responsibility and sharing in the benefits.2

Interpreting the School through Student Publications.

There are found in most secondary schools today, four types of student publications. These are the school newspaper, school magazines, school yearbooks, and student handbooks. Besides these there are issued from time to time in some

schools, bulletins which are intended to discuss a pertinent question or some particular phase of the school's work.

Of the publications named above, the school newspaper is by far the most common and probably the most important. Since it appears regularly, it has the advantage of bringing to the reader up-to-date news concerning the school. School magazines are not intended to be newspapers, but rather are meant to be an outlet for some of the worthwhile literary productions of the school. The yearbook or annual is meant largely to be a keepsake or a memory book. The student handbook is a ready reference for students and answers many questions concerning their particular school.

Among the purposes of the school newspaper, Reeder gives the following:

To bring students and parents in closer cooperation with the school. It gives students and parents a greater interest in the work of the school and makes them cooperative with the school. After or before they have read it, students usually carry the school newspaper home where it is read by other members of the family. Parents and other adult members of the family who peruse the columns of the school paper are more likely to vote favorably on school questions which are submitted to the electorate; moreover, students who read the school newspaper over a period of years are more likely to support school issues when they become voters.3

McKown lists as values of student publications the following:

3W. G. Reeder, An Introduction to Public School Relations. p. 59.
1. They unify the school and foster school spirit.
2. They encourage desirable school enterprises and activities.
3. They mold and influence public opinion.
4. They give authentic news of the school to students, parents, patrons, and other schools.
5. They serve as a medium for the expression of student opinion.
6. They give opportunity for the development of self-expression and creative ability.
7. They develop qualities of cooperation, tact, accuracy, tolerance, responsibility, initiative, and leadership.
8. They foster cordial relations among schools.
9. They record the history of the school.
10. They advertise the school.\(^4\)

Not so much can be said for the school magazine. Since it deals largely with imaginative materials, and not school facts, it ranks much lower than the school newspaper as a promoter of understanding.

No doubt the yearbook makes some contributions to the promotion of school and community morale, but not to the extent in which the school newspaper does. The main value of the yearbook is to be found in its appeal to the student years after he has bought it.

The chief purpose of the student handbook is to give

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the new student necessary information about the school. It provides information which will help him to become a real member of the school; it puts in written form for him the rules and regulations of the school; it explains the purpose and organization of the school; it describes the school's program, both curricular and extra-curricular; it offers counsel and advice and tells the student what is expected of him.

Besides the aforementioned purposes, the handbook has some distinct values. It offers some educational opportunities to those students who develop it and helps to clarify the ideals and principles of the school and of the various organizations within the school. But above all, the handbook also helps to educate the parents of the students and the patrons of the school. It becomes a short, concise interpreter of the school's program to a large share of the public.

Press Relations. Maintaining effective press relationships is a part of every schoolman's job and is one of the effective ways of interpreting the schools to the public. What happens in and to the schools is of vital concern to the people whose children are entrusted to the schools. Through an enlightened conduct of its press relations the schools can facilitate a full, honest, and rounded presentation of their problems and achievements.
The terms "publicity" and "public relations" are frequently used synonymously, but this should not be. As Shiebler points out:

There is a vast difference between public relations and publicity. Public relations is what you do. Publicity is what you get. Public relations is your character; publicity your reputation.5

The key to good public relations is doing things for other people, recognizing how they want it done and then going out of the way to do it. It means being helpful, courteous, patient, and efficient. Failure to show hospitality to a visitor, a curt letter, an impolite conversation on the telephone, or an uncooperative person on the school staff can do more harm to good public relations in five minutes than a good press agent could build up in five months.

While the local newspaper has great potentialities as an interpreter of the schools to the public, it has not always been able to mirror fairly the activities of the school. An examination of school news from day to day in most local papers reveals that athletics and other extracurricular activities receive a disproportionate share of the space devoted to school items. The school cannot be fairly interpreted to the public through these items alone.

The results of an investigation by Farley\(^6\) revealed that of thirteen topics of school news, extra-curricular activities were receiving the greatest amount of space, but ranked last in the list of topics about the school in which the patrons expressed interest. His study revealed further that parents would like to see more topics concerning pupil progress and achievement, methods of instruction, health of pupils, course of study, and value of education.

The question which often confronts the one responsible for giving the news to the paper is what to include. It should be born in mind that the newspaper and the readers are interested in news and so the question becomes "What is news?" Reeder lists the following guiding principles on what news is:

1. Write news, not propaganda—news is something happening, an event of some sort, not an argument to prove or disprove some theory or proposition. Give information rather than advice or instruction.

2. Be accurate, truthful, meticulously exact as to facts, names, and details.

3. Write news for the public and not for the purpose of personal exploitation.

4. Names have great news value. A story about an individual is always better than a group of facts.

5. Eliminate inconsequential details, trivial

\(^6\)B. M. Farley, *What to Tell the People about the Public Schools*, pp. 16 and 49.
happenings, commonplaces in general. Don't over emphasize non-essentials.

6. Run in a humorous phrase when it doesn't hurt anybody and when it does not spoil the text.

7. Make the story appeal to the average reader--more human stuff.

8. News should be written from the standpoint of the school.

9. In general, avoid submitting the achievements of precocious children unless the newspaper invites such contributions. Remember that every parent imagines his child to be a marvel.

10. Give the news about exceptional pupils, the latest experiments in education, and the like.\(^7\)

**Interpreting the School through School Visitation.**

To interpret the school to the community must mean to make the community acquainted with what the school actually is and with what it is trying to do. Probably one of the most effective ways of accomplishing this is through school visitation. To actually see what is going on and what is being accomplished is better than reading about it in the paper or hearing it second-handed. Parents should be encouraged to visit school more and thereby become acquainted not only with the work of the school, but also with its teachers, officials, and employees.

As mentioned in the preceding topic, publicity is what you get as a result of what you are. If the work of

\(^7\)Reeder, *op. cit.*, p. 47.
the school is poor, no amount of "ballyhoo" in the newspapers is going to make it good. On the other hand, if parents come to visit the school and see an excellent piece of work being done, the publicity for the school will take care of itself automatically.

To make it possible for more parents to visit the school, some schools have adopted the policy of having an annual night session or open house. This makes it possible for fathers who work during the day to attend, and also to secure a larger attendance of mothers who have small children, especially if some preparation is made for the care of these children.

It is not uncommon for schools to hold special programs in observance of such days as Armistice Day, Thanksgiving, Christmas, Lincoln's Birthday, Washington's Birthday, Arbor Day, and others. Parents are always interested in seeing their children perform, and such occasions usually bring a considerable number of parents to the school. This gives the parents an opportunity, while at school, to visit other classes in which they are interested.

Interpreting the School through School Exhibits. A very valuable means of acquainting the public with what is being done in various departments of the school is the school exhibit. By actually seeing the work which has been turned out by one department or another, school patrons and parents
are better able to appraise the value of the program in that department and to be sympathetic toward it. Displays of the work turned out be school shops, home economics departments, fine arts, and other special departments have gone a long way in changing the attitude of the public toward school work which was at first commonly spoken of as "fads and frills."

Other Means. In addition to the parent-teacher association, student publications, the local newspaper, school visitation, and school exhibits, there are also other ways by which the public may become acquainted with its schools. In a number of larger communities the open forum has become popular again during the last decade as an agency for educating the public in civic and educational affairs. America's Town Meeting of the Air and the Chicago University Round Table are examples. Smaller communities find it difficult to finance forum programs, partly because of the cost of obtaining good forum leaders. Some schools are successfully sponsoring Junior Town Meetings. In these, student groups, under the leadership of a guest forum leader, discuss current problems.

There are places where the work of the school comes to the attention of the public almost solely through extra-curricular activities. Student publications have already been mentioned in this connection. There are also the
athletic program, the music program, the literary program, the activities of school clubs, and commencement programs. The emphasis of the school has not been good in some of these, particularly athletics. If the director of an activity is judged solely on whether or not he wins in competition, and the more important values of the activity to the participants are not at all considered, then the emphasis must be wrong.

PROMOTING COMMUNITY MORALE THROUGH SCHOOL SERVICE

Until recently schools have tended to build walls around themselves; in general, while they have been in the community, they have not been of the community. This is understandable if we remember that originally the schools were set up to perform a specific task—the imparting of academic knowledge and skills. The purpose of the school was to prepare the child for life. In our more complex society of today, the narrow concepts of the function of the school have had to be expanded to include interaction of the school and community. The purpose of the school is no longer to prepare the child for life, but rather to have him serve an apprenticeship in the actual life of the community. The pupil is living life here and now and hence should be interested in community problems and community service.
Because the importance of the school to the community and the importance of the community to the school are gradually coming to be realized, it is no longer tolerable to think of the child as living in two worlds—the world of school and the world to which he goes after school hours.

Several methods of bringing about the proper school-community interaction have been tried. The more common one is to have the school children make excursions to various places of interest in the community. Another method commonly used is to have local people come into the school to discuss problems of community interest with the pupils. Still another, and probably more effective than either of the other two, is the attack on and solution of actual community problems by classes or groups within the school.

Several instances of this type of school-community interaction are discussed in the succeeding paragraphs.

Community Clean-Up. The following is a description of a community clean-up sponsored by the school in Smoky Lake, Alberta.8

Smoky Lake is a village in Alberta, Canada. In October of 1941 the pupils of the school, under the direction of their teachers, decided that much could be done to im-

prove unsightly and unsanitary conditions in the village. Cows, pigs, and chickens were being allowed to meander through the streets at will. There were no periodic garbage collections. Kitchen refuse was simply thrown out the back door. Manure heaps were a common sight. And, worst of all, citizens were simply accepting conditions as they were.

The school began its campaign by taking photos of every unsightly refuse pile and unsanitary condition, and using these photos as the basis for a publicity campaign to arouse the villagers. Every class in school drew and painted posters directed toward making the village health conscious. Pupils were instructed to carry out health regulations in their own homes. Talks were given to parents whenever the opportunity presented itself.

One of the greatest difficulties to be overcome was the attitude of the village council. While the village had health ordinances against the unsanitary practices which were flourishing, they were never enforced for fear of the ill-feeling which might be engendered. A committee of teachers and students meeting with the council finally got the council to agree to prosecute a single offender--if the school apprehended him. But this was enough for purposes of the campaign.

Senior pupils in the high school began policing the community after announcement that offenders would be pros-
ecuted. There was noted improvement within a week and the village council became so heartened by the results that they banned all cattle, pigs, and chickens from the village. Furthermore, the edict was observed.

In the spring every pupil in the school was enlisted to assist in cleaning up his own yard at home. There was a village clean-up day and all trash, litter, and tin cans were hauled away in trucks. By May the community was a cleaner place in which to live and the school had been of real service to the community in the solution of an aggravating problem.

Biology Class Leads Fight Against Mosquitoes. For many years the community of Robersonville, North Carolina had been plagued with mosquitoes and malaria. To sit out on the lawn on summer evenings was next to impossible. At the time this campaign was inaugurated, 38 per cent of the biology class responsible for it had been afflicted with malaria at one time or another during the five years previous.

The whole thing started when the class was studying a unit on communicable diseases and more particularly when they got to the subject of malaria fever. Naturally the

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class was intrigued by a study of malaria, and through proper leadership there emerged a unit of work entitled "Prevention and Control of Malaria in the Robersonville Community."

The class was divided into various committees, and each committee took up the study of one or more aspects of the problem. When fact-finding had reached a proper stage, and a great deal of publicity given to the work of the class in the local newspaper, a request was made to the town commissioners that the class be permitted to appear before them. The request was granted, and on the appointed day the class, with the backing of parents and friends, presented their case.

The result was that the commissioners decided to furnish the labor and materials to give the class's plan a trial. Where practicable, mosquito breeding ponds were drained. Where this was not feasible, oiling was employed. Citizens were required to keep weeds mowed on their lots and get rid of all containers and trash in which mosquitoes might propagate.

During the first year of this campaign, Robersonville had fewer mosquitoes than in any year during their history, while surrounding towns were plagued with them. The biology class had been successful not only in bringing the community into the school but also in bringing the school into the
While the two preceding examples of school-community interaction are specific, they are by no means limiting. There is practically no end to the number of actual community problems on which the school could profitably work. It is true that we live in a scientific age, yet we do not always live scientifically. Many things are inefficiently done. People suffer not only for lack of knowledge but for failure to apply that which they already know. Other community problems which schools are attacking the country over include preventable sickness, conservation, sanitation, and a host of problems concerning human needs.

Making the School a Community Center. There are at least three different philosophies in regard to the use of the school building by the community. There are those administrators who maintain that the school is for the education of the child only, and hence discourage, as much as possible, the use of the school building for community purposes. A second practice is to make the building available to such pressure groups as are able to exert enough influence to get it. Thirdly, there are those who believe that the school should be the center of everything in the community except the religious activities, and it should even be a vital contributing factor to these.

Needless to say, ideas in regard to the use of school
buildings have changed greatly within the last two decades. Boards of education and administrators are more and more coming to realize that a school building is a community investment, and an investment so great that it cannot afford to lie idle so much of the time.

In writing of community use of the school building, Fite says:

Every community has the right to expect and demand that schools supported at public expense for public ends shall serve community uses as widely as possible. Giving the people of the community a real share in activities centered in school buildings and employing school equipment, is one of the surest ways of giving them a more intelligent public spirit and a greater interest in the right education of the youth of the land. Instead of criticizing our schools, parents will praise and support them.10

A variety of services can be made available to the community if school-community cooperation of this sort can be brought about. Most commonly thought of is the use of the school auditorium for community gatherings. While this practice is becoming more and more prevalent, there are still too many communities in which it is discouraged. Other community uses of the school's facilities include the community leisure-time center, community library, community playground, community shop, community canning, and community music groups.

It must be remembered that the school plant already belongs to the people. It is proper, then, to use it for any cause which benefits the people.

PROMOTING COMMUNITY MORALE THROUGH COOPERATION

For Health. Present day educational developments which bring together large groups of adults to study problems of common interest can do much to improve school and community health. Furthermore, inasmuch as health is basic for individual happiness and community progress, there is probably nothing that will so readily unite the interests and efforts of all as will this challenge of working for the common welfare by a cooperative group in which each member gives of his energy and ability. Schools are more apt to become community-minded if the health problems of the community are made vital through the participation of many individuals.

Just what is meant by cooperation for health? It refers to the coordinated effort of various community health agencies and the public schools. It means that school administrators and boards of education must recognize that health is a community problem; it is not merely a responsibility of the health department, or the tuberculosis association or any one of the other community agencies interested in health problems.
There is no doubt that much can be accomplished without cooperative health planning, but such a program has grave weaknesses. The program which is not based on cooperative planning is likely to be one of special interests. Certain phases of health education are likely to be stressed while others are totally ignored.

The following paragraph from a publication of the American Association of School Administrators stresses the need for and gives the advantage of cooperative health planning which originates in the community:

It is sound democratic, self-reliant procedure for a group of people, with the help of specially qualified leaders, to find their own health problems and seek the needed information thru which they can solve these problems. Those who expect the government to do everything for them complain of its inadequacies and look for its imperfections. This develops disrespect for democracy and actually weakens it. The group which starts to solve its own problems learns to appreciate the assistance which governmental and social agencies can give. This develops understanding of the democratic process and strengthens it.11

For Vocational Guidance. Of paramount interest to the people of a community is the adjustment of its youth from school to employment. An underlying concept of vocational guidance is that the community as a whole is responsible in part for this adjustment. To make it possible for the members of a community to accept this responsibility

is an important morale-building factor.

Aside from the fact that such practice is a good morale booster for the community, it is also sound educational practice. One of the great weaknesses of academic education has been its detachment from community life. What better way could there be to bring the school to the life of the community than to call on the collective wisdom of the productive members of the community for aid in the solution of vocational guidance problems? These members have had experience, they know what life is, and they know what it takes to become a productive community member.

One of the common ways of attaining a vital and direct relationship between school and community in regard to vocational guidance is through the organization of community committees or advisory councils. Such councils are composed of community workers, both employees and employers. They are made up of representative members from business, industry, labor, social and civic organizations, racial and religious groups, and school people.

These advisory councils are in no way to be considered as usurpers of the power of the board of education. The school board is still the final authority. It should be emphasized that advisory boards are entirely advisory, and are in no sense administrators. A wise school administrator will accept and do his best to put into practice the recom-
mendations of a good advisory council. On the other side of the ledger, well-informed and responsible employers and employees will be glad to give their services, if the school administration makes appropriate use of them.

Even though the work of the council is entirely advisory in nature, the scope of their services is large enough to tax the energy and ability of the most faithful members. Voorhees lists and discusses the following services as those on which the advice and recommendations of council members should appropriately be sought:

1. Selection of trades to be taught.
2. Courses of study.
3. Teacher selection and training.
4. Equipment and supplies.
5. Pupil personnel.
6. Placement.
7. Day-to-day counsel.
8. Publicity.
10. Labor.12

A close relationship between community and vocational education is not a new thing. Certain types of vocational education have always employed close community ties. When boys learn to farm from their fathers and girls to keep house from their mothers, their vocational education is closely tied up with the home and the community. Not so long ago, the apprentice lived with the master during his

period of apprenticeship and received his moral as well as his vocational education from the same person. The master was a member of his guild and the guild pretty much controlled the community. Hence, there too, vocational education and community had close ties. In our more complex economy, these ties have become considerably loosened. Community participation in vocational guidance will help to re-establish fundamental relationships between vocational education and the community, and at the same time boost the morale of the community by recognizing its members as essential contributors to a common cause.

For Recreational Programs. Local communities are more and more coming to the realization that the change from the long agricultural workday to the shorter industrial workday is presenting problems which it is their duty to solve. Schools have long accepted worthy use of leisure time as one of their major objectives, but too often they have done mere lip-service in the way of making its functioning possible. Now that the entire nation is interested in doing something about our ever-rising juvenile delinquency, there has come renewed interest in school-community cooperation for recreation.

The problem of a community recreation program is not entirely one of getting communities convinced of its worthwhileness. As a general rule, where recreation programs
have been implemented, the communities have been enthusiastic over the results. In towns, and cities too, the chief problem has often been how to finance the program. School authorities have been hesitant to accept the increased financial burden.

How, then, is it possible for communities which can see the benefits to be derived from a cooperative recreation program, to put such a program into operation? Since schools, in many cases, already have the required facilities in the way of playgrounds and equipment, it is only logical that such facilities be made available for the program. Milwaukee and Newark, New Jersey are two cities in which the major part of the responsibility for public recreation is carried by the board of education, and these two cities are regarded as having strong programs. There the program is administered by the school board, and its facilities are used, but some civic and financial support are given by the citizens.

In other places the cost of the program is born in other ways. In one situation of which the writer has knowledge, the city furnishes the playgrounds and the school administers the program. The director of recreation is

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employed jointly by the municipality and the board of education. The cost of the program is shared by the board of education, the municipality, and local civic organizations. This plan has operated quite successfully.

The question now arises: Is there a model pattern recommended for community recreation? In answer to this question, a statement from the National Recreation Association is herewith quoted:

Because there are so many variable factors in the different cities, there is no single organization plan or pattern which the Association would recommend. All factors in a given city would need to be studied and appraised before one of several organizations could be recommended for that city.14

Whether or not a community will support a recreation program depends largely on the enthusiasm which can be created for its necessity. If the citizens become "convinced enough" that there is a community need toward which all should contribute, then a cooperative recreation plan is possible. School authorities should take the initiative in creating such enthusiasm.

For Fire Prevention. Each year the President of the United States sets aside the week of October 9 as Fire Prevention Week. Many community organizations work together during this week on the plans for a fire prevention program.

14Ibid. p. 18.
Special exhibits are given by the fire department, the schools, and various other groups. Newspapers and radio stations present facts about fire prevention in a dramatic way. The National Fire Protection Association gives an award for the city with the best program. It has been noticed that most communities have fewer fires during Fire Prevention Week. But the chief need is for a program which will be effective all year.

An effective fire prevention program in the community cannot be attained through the work of the fire department alone, nor even by the passing of fire laws by community authorities. It is a job which requires the cooperative effort of each individual, the home, the community, and the school.

One of the real needs is to make every one conscious of what constitutes fire hazards. Needless to say, a large percentage of the fires which occur in our homes is due to hazards which could easily be removed. If every family could be made aware of the fire traps which exist about their own home, our annual fire loss would surely be lowered.

It is in this respect that school-community cooperation can play an important part. The school must not just be made aware through class study that fire prevention is a problem. The problem must be vitalized by actually letting the school take part in its solution. Pupils must be made fire-hazard
conscious and they must carry this consciousness back to their homes.

That this actually can be done is reported by W. S. Boardman,15 Superintendent of Schools at Oceanside, New York. He reports that as a result of a fire-prevention program which was carried out cooperatively by the school, fire department, and community, fire losses were reduced considerably over a three-month period. Grass fires, started through the carelessness of children, had been a constant source of annoyance and danger in the community. During the autumn in which the campaign was initiated, not one grass fire was attributed to this cause. In fact children were responsible for stopping several such fires caused by the carelessness of adults.

Certainly not one of the least outcomes of a program of this kind is that the community learns to think of the school not simply as a childhood activity, but as a living part of the community which is interested in the solution of its problems. Community morale can be raised through school-community cooperation in the solution of civic problems.

In the discussion of morale presented in chapter II, it was pointed out that the morale of an individual in a group could be high only as he was given opportunity to contribute of his effort, energy, and ability toward the achievement of a common goal. This is no less true of groups than it is of individuals. A group cannot become enthusiastic over a task to which it is allowed to contribute nothing. A community cannot become enthusiastic over an educational program of which it knows nothing, in which it has no responsibility, and in which there is no provision for participation.

The topics immediately preceding have emphasized the promotion of community morale through school-community cooperation. The line of demarcation between school-community cooperation and community participation in the educational program is not clear-cut, since cooperation must involve a certain amount of participation. However, in the preceding sections the emphasis has been on the help which the school can give in the solution of community problems, while here help of the community to the school will be stressed.

Citizens Advisory Committees. Up to the present time, school superintendents and boards of education have
been reluctant, for various reasons, to favor aid from voluntary workers in the administration of the local public schools. In taking this position they have deprived themselves of a potentially rich source of good ideas, of a good means of acquaintance with community sentiment, and of a significant medium of interpretation.

Judging from what has been written in educational periodicals, there never has been a time when educators have been so conscious of the need for using all community resources as now. Yet, illogical as it may seem, the most valuable resources, i.e., human interests and abilities, in educational administration are being sadly neglected.

In our educational institutions there is much emphasis on encouraging the growth of civic responsibility. In spite of this our schools as leaders have often been rather slow in helping to make provision for community members to accept civic responsibility.

Educators, generally, have felt the need for a better understanding between the school and the community. The community needs to understand better just what the school is trying to do, and at the same time, the school needs a more adequate understanding of the needs and interests of the community. In writing of this situation, Grieder says:

Friends of public education feel that a crucial need exists for a more adequate interpretation of the school to the community and also a need for constantly
revealing the community's needs and interests to the school authorities. On the theory that interest and sympathy are based on understanding, any group in charge of the direction of an enterprise should be willing to explore all available avenues of understanding. Nor should it be overlooked that in the "recovery of citizenship," capitalization of community interests in the administration of local schools may well play a leading role.16

The use of the advisory committee in vocational guidance was mentioned earlier in this chapter. Its practicability has been well proved. The feasibility of advisory groups at state and national levels of government has also been demonstrated. Until very recently, advisory committees at the community level have been few and far between. Since World War II, a large number of communities have organized citizens' planning committees to serve in an advisory capacity to city councils in the planning of community improvements.

Since 1938, Glencoe, Illinois has had the Glencoe Community Coordinating Council.17 Membership in the Council is made up of individuals and representatives. Any person in the community is entitled to membership in the Council and to vote as an individual. Besides this there are rep-

16Calvin Grieder, "Citizens' Advisory Committees," The Nation's Schools, XXVIII (September, 1941), p. 29.

representative members who are appointed or elected by participating community organizations.

The broad objectives of the Council and its potentialities as a community morale builder are suggested in the following statements of its functions:

1. To provide an agency through which all community groups can coordinate their activities and achieve more effectively their common objectives.

2. To promote community cooperation by providing the means whereby the activities of each community group are more clearly understood by all other community groups.

3. To increase the effectiveness of all community activities through planning that is designed to eliminate duplication of effort, conflicts of schedules, and overlapping of functions.

4. To promote the achievement of community-wide projects that would be too large for any single group or agency to attempt.

5. To provide a representative community group for the study of community problems and to make recommendations in regard thereto to the proper authorities for consideration.

6. To foster community spirit.

7. To hear and discuss the suggestions of any individual citizen or group of citizens that may be presented in the interest of the community as a whole.

8. To investigate and inventory the social, physical cultural, and spiritual resources of the community, and to promote a more general utilization of such resources.\textsuperscript{18}

\textsuperscript{18}Ibid., p. 31.
In this chapter an attempt has been made to show how community morale can be fostered through the creation of better understanding. This involves a better interpretation of the schools to the community, increased school service to the community in the way of solving actual community problems, increased school-community cooperation, and a greater community share in educational planning.
CHAPTER VI

EVALUATING MORALE

The preceding three chapters are concerned with ways and means of building higher morale in the school, the faculty, and the community. By what method is one who is interested in promoting morale to know whether he is getting results? Is it possible to tell whether morale has changed? Is there any way in which morale can be measured? Can we determine which school experiences are most effective in promoting morale?

Reasonable as these questions may be, they cannot be answered easily. The effects of the school's work in morale building will not all show up immediately, nor even during the school life of the child. In fact, returns on such an investment may be coming in long after the pupil is out of school. Another reason why it will not be easy is that the school is only one of several agencies influencing morale. This makes it difficult to tell if any evident improvement is the result of the work of the school or of some other agency. Still another difficulty lies in the fact that methods of measuring morale are far from being perfected. It is not only difficult to evaluate morale, but also difficult to evaluate education for morale.

Just because it is difficult is not to say that it
should not be tried. Evaluation of results should be one of the basic parts of any undertaking. The process of evaluating results in the light of one's aims is in itself a great aid in making those aims clearer. Studying the results of the evaluation has the advantage of suggesting new ways in which the program might be improved.

Any program of evaluation would seem to involve essentially three steps. First, the general goal and the specific subgoals will have to be well known and well defined. Progress cannot be measured if it is not known what is being sought. Secondly, it will require that there be some way of observing and measuring the morale of pupils, teachers, and community with respect to the realization of the goals which have been defined. Third, if the results of observations and measurements show that satisfactory progress is not being made, then it may be necessary to change the processes used for fostering morale.

What are the Goals? It has been stated before that high group morale requires, on the part of its members, an unswerving loyalty and devotion to the ideals of the group. To evaluate the morale of the individual in the group, then, requires that there be some way of measuring this devotion.

It is rather generally agreed among educators that the schools are striving to develop a citizenry which is
mature, well-rounded, and prepared at any time to render service and share sacrifices for the common good of the group. This means that the schools must develop in the pupils habits of thinking, feeling, and acting which will be the basis for high morale not only in school, but also in the years to come.

MEASURING ATTITUDES BY WRITTEN TESTS

To measure an attitude has proved to be rather difficult. It is possible, by various means, to determine how a person feels toward certain social issues. Tests have been devised for measuring attitudes toward various public issues and practices. Included in these are such issues as internationalism, capital punishment, public ownership of utilities. There are tests to measure attitudes toward such practices as lynching, birth control, drinking, going to church, and so on.

Types of tests for measuring attitudes are varied. One type calls for the ranking of a series of statements which express an attitude on an issue. An example of this kind of test is found in Bogardus' measurement of social distance. He listed forty groups, such as Negroes, Chinese, Jews, and asked those taking the test to indicate the degree to which they would accept members of each group by using the following scale:
1. Would admit them to close kinship by marriage.
2. Would admit them to my club as personal chums.
3. Would admit them to my street as neighbors.
4. Would admit them to employment in my occupation.
5. Would admit them to citizenship in my country.
6. Would admit them as visitors only to my country.
7. Would exclude them from my country.¹

A test of this type could be used in determining attitudes toward tolerance, social practices, or even to determine how pupils feel toward their classmates.

Another type of test is that developed by Thurstone for the measurement of social attitudes. In these tests, series of about twenty statements are given on which the person being examined will either agree or disagree. The statements are so weighted that the intervals between them are approximately equal.

The technique which Thurstone² has developed for the construction of scales used to measure attitude is as follows: The first step is to obtain a list of statements concerning the attitude which is to be measured. If the

test is to measure attitude toward war, then a list of one hundred or more statements expressing attitudes toward war are obtained. This list may be built up from attitudes expressed in editorials, magazines, lectures, or everyday conversations. Attitudes expressed will vary from strongly militaristic, to neutral, to strongly pacifistic.

These statements are then put on slips of paper, one statement to a slip. They are now given to a selected group of judges, each judge receiving the complete list, to be ranked from high to low, from strongly for to strongly against. This is done by dividing the statements into eleven piles which represent the entire range of the attitude to be tested. From these results twenty-two statements are chosen for the test and given weighted values from zero to eleven, with approximately equal intervals between statements. When the twenty-two statements are put on the test, their order is changed so they do not appear from high to low or vice versa.

In taking the test, the statements are marked by one symbol for agreement and by another symbol for disagreement. To determine a person's score, the median of the weighted values of the statements with which he agreed is determined. To determine his attitude on the issue, this score is applied to a rating scale which gives seven different degrees of the attitude to be tested.
An example of twenty-two statements used in one of these tests is given below. It will be noted that they are not given in any particular order. Each statement has been assigned a value between zero and eleven, low values for militaristic attitude and high values for pacifistic attitude.

1. The benefits of war outweigh its attendant evils.
2. War in the modern world is as needless as it is suicidal.
3. War is ennobling and stimulating of our highest and best qualities.
4. An organization of all nations is imperative to establish peace.
5. Compulsory military training in all countries should be reduced but not eliminated.
6. The misery and suffering of war are not worth its benefits.
7. War brings misery to millions who have no voice in its declaration.
8. Because right may be more important than peace, war may be the lesser of two evils.
9. There is no progress without war.
10. Only in a war in which moral issues are clearly at stake is the individual under obligation to serve.
11. Those military units should be retained which afford training to body and mind.
12. In the supreme offer of his life on the battlefield a man attains to the greatest heights of glory.
13. Nations should agree not to intervene with military force in purely commercial or financial disputes.
14. If a man's country enters a war which he does not consider justified, he should nevertheless serve at the front or wherever needed.

15. It is almost impossible to have a large military force without being tempted to use it.

16. It is difficult to imagine any situation in which we should be justified in sanctioning or participating in another war.

17. A host of young men entered the war in a spirit of idealism and unselfish devotion to a great cause only to return disillusioned and cynical as to the value of ideals.

18. It is our duty to serve in a defensive war.

19. We should pledge ourselves never to aid in any future war.

20. He who refuses to fight is a true hero.

21. Militarism is necessary for the proper defense and protection of the individuals of a country.

22. It is the moral duty of the individual to refuse to participate in any war, no matter what the cause.3

Before the test is taken, persons taking it are cautioned that the statements are neither right nor wrong, but are simply representative of the attitudes held by different people on this particular issue. It is also pointed out that high score has no significance as far as the desirability of the attitude is concerned. High values in this test could just as well have been used for strongly pacifistic attitudes as for the strongly militaristic.

3D. D. Droba, "Attitude Toward War," Form A. One of a series of tests for measuring social attitudes, edited by L. L. Thurstone, the University of Chicago.
The rating scale for the above given test is given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Range</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.0 - 2.9</td>
<td>extremely militaristic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.0 - 3.9</td>
<td>strongly militaristic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.0 - 4.9</td>
<td>mildly militaristic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.0 - 5.9</td>
<td>neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.0 - 6.9</td>
<td>mildly pacifistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.0 - 7.9</td>
<td>strongly pacifistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.0 - 11.0</td>
<td>extremely pacifistic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tests of this type claim the advantage of not only telling that a person is favorable or unfavorable to a given issue, but also telling how favorable or unfavorable as compared with others.

The validity for the test given above is claimed to be about 83 per cent.

Thurstone's method, as described above, has the disadvantage of being extremely laborious. Also, the construction of the scale requires the work of judges, and it is quite possible that their own attitudes might have an effect on the work done by them.

Likert, in his work on attitude measurement, developed a method of scoring which gave a reliability equal to the method of Thurstone, but which did not require the use of judges. By applying his method to the Thurstone-Droba war test, Likert was able to secure results nearly

4Ibid.
those of Thurstone. 

Essentially, the method is to assign to each statement numerical values from one to five, by the use of which subjects can express the extent of their agreement or disagreement. The following statements from his Negro Scale will illustrate:

All negroes belong in one class and should be treated in about the same way.

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\text{strongly approve} & \text{approve} & \text{undecided} & \text{disapprove} & \text{strongly disapprove} \\
(1) & (2) & (3) & (4) & (5)
\end{array}
\]

Where there is segregation, the negro section should have the same equipment in paving, water, and electric light facilities as are found in white districts.

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\text{strongly approve} & \text{approve} & \text{undecided} & \text{disapprove} & \text{strongly disapprove} \\
(5) & (4) & (3) & (2) & (1)
\end{array}
\]

It will be noted that low numbers indicate an attitude favorable to the negro. Hence, either the mean value or the total value of the responses could be used as the subject's score for the particular attitude being tested.

**MEASURING MORALE THROUGH STUDENT WRITING**

Student writing has been used to some extent in the determination of personal attitudes in secondary and college

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work. This has been done by having students to write on topics of their own choosing or by assigning topics. Generally, better results can be secured from assigned topics in which students all respond to the same general problem.

One method that can be used is to have pupils write a paragraph of which the opening sentence is supplied. For example, a paragraph written for the purpose of determining attitudes toward racial prejudice might be introduced by a sentence such as "The racial problem will always be with us."

Another type of written assignment which is similar in nature is to select socially significant quotations from current newspapers and ask pupils to list their thoughts which might be of social importance concerning these quotations.

In all methods involving student writing, it is obvious that the teacher will need some practice in interpreting the reports before she can become skilled in determining what attitudes are set forth.

Probably greater efforts have been made toward morale measurement in the field of industry than in some other fields. The following shows what is being done by commercial firms in the way of measuring industrial morale:

Answering 38 simple, direct questions, 200,000 workers have told the boss what they think of him, their jobs and their working conditions. No one
can trace replies back to individuals, so the comments are often brutally frank. But invariably these morale surveys result in better relations all around.

Charles C. Stech, a psychologist, is the originator of this method of finding out what really is on the worker's chest. He prepares the questionnaires and has a workers' committee collect them from secret-ballot boxes and mail them to him unsigned. Then he prepares a summary for the employer.

Before a Stech Morale Survey, the employer tells his employees, "You are not being tested—I am. I want you to answer these questions honestly, no matter how hard you hit me."

According to this article each survey has been successful, not only in detecting low morale, but also in pointing out its cause. Discovering the cause points to the cure.

Other Written Methods. Such materials as letters to the editor, letters to government officials, and editorials can well be studied as indicators of civilian and community morale. Federal agencies have used such methods for surveying attitudes on selective service, compulsory military training, foreign policy, and numerous other topics. During the war the Office of War Information enlisted the help of correspondence panels which included editors, businessmen, clergymen, social workers, and farm leaders. These people were asked to send letters on national problems. Such

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7T. E. Murphy, "They Tell the Boss What's Wrong," Reader's Digest, (July, 1942), pp. 102-103.
letters were found helpful in determining the causes back of popular sentiment.

In regard to all written methods of determining attitudes, the question frequently arises whether what is written has any correlation with what is actually done. That is, are the social attitudes in practice and the social attitudes as expressed through tests in agreement? Several studies reviewed by Watson\(^8\) report that there is fair agreement.

**Difficulties Encountered in the Use of Written Tests.**

However, many difficulties are encountered in the construction and administering of attitude tests. Six of these, as experienced by men engaged in attitude studies are given below:

1. Administrators were afraid to permit the use of tests which even suggested markedly unconventional positions.

2. Pupils did not understand the terms and concepts. It was impossible to know from their checked response what they had really understood by the proposition.

3. Attitudes vary in depth, stability, and permanence, and the scale responses give no clues to these differences.

4. Most people are reluctant to tell what they think about important issues except under rare conditions of exceptional confidence. "Only the most rabid partisans are willing to divulge their attitudes

freely, and for such no test is necessary." Children in school are apt to protect themselves by answering what they think is expected; adults by refusing to answer the questionnaires.

5. There is sometimes a tendency toward compensation. The person lax in conduct may try, consciously or unconsciously, to make up for this by extreme verbal condemnation of such behavior.

6. Many of the answers were superficial snap-judgments, given rather to oblige the questioner than because of any independent attitude on the part of the subject tested.9

MEASURING ATTITUDES BY STUDYING EXTERNAL BEHAVIOR

United States Army officers have made considerable use of behavior as an index of morale. The number of soldiers in the guardhouse, absences without leave, courts-martial, soldier arrests, and cases of insubordination all have been used in charting the morale of the army. Also used in determining the level of morale were such things as complaints, amount of fighting between soldiers, lack of comradeship, gambling cliques, and night prowling.10

Probably civilian morale could be measured roughly in much the same way. There are certain types of behavior on which records are kept which may have possibilities of

9Ibid., p. 260.

being used to give an index of morale. These would include such things as crime statistics, convictions for drunkenness, convictions for drunken driving, cases of housebreaking, and the like.

A very interesting use of studies of external behavior for purposes of determining morale occurred during the first World War. Newton D. Baker, then secretary of war, insisted that all the varied information being received in the United States concerning the state of morale in Germany be reduced to quantitative form. This work was undertaken by the War Department and resulted in the plotting of the first morale curve.

The main curve represented the state of civilian morale in Germany. Subsidiary curves on the chart represented (1) variations in Germany's military position, (2) sinkings of U-boats, (3) the food situation in northern Germany, (4) the degree of political unity, and (5) the state of Austria-Hungary.

To arrive at a scale for the chart, Germany's morale was arbitrarily put at 100 per cent as of August, 1914. The zero point on the scale represented the point in civilian morale at which the German people would no longer support the war.

The results of this experiment were considered highly successful, since the curve was very near to zero
when revolutions began in Austria and Germany and the war was brought to a close.\textsuperscript{11}

To what extent can studies of external behavior be used by teachers to determine the level of morale of the pupils, and what methods shall be used in making these studies? First, there is what may be called the impressionistic appraisal of morale. Some teachers seem to have the ability to sense directly the attitudes of the members of the group. While this method is good, and should be encouraged, it should be supplemented with more organized efforts to study attitudes.

One of the more common methods of morale measurement through external behavior study is the use of anecdotal records. These are brief, written-on-the-spot notes describing the pupils' conduct in various situations. To keep records of this kind requires keen interest on the part of the teacher and a great deal of time. If the records are to be of any value, it is necessary that they be cumulative, and that a good many different observations be made. Both desirable and undesirable actions and attitudes should be recorded. To be most useful, all teachers should keep such records, and periodically they should be

centralized and summarized.

It has been pointed out elsewhere that success in achieving goals is one of the important factors for good morale. Evaluation of morale should include an effort on the part of a teacher to appraise the levels of aspiration at which pupils are working. One of the greatest opportunities in the field of morale building which comes to the teacher is in making it possible for the pupil to achieve success in reaching the goals which he has set for himself. Full acceptance of this opportunity should also include aid to the pupil in setting these goals. If such aid is not given, pupils frequently set goals so low that they are not challenging or so high that they cannot possibly achieve them.

MEASURING MORALE THROUGH INTERVIEWS

In considering the interview as a method of determining attitudes, mention should be made of its large scale use in the study of public opinion. Within recent years the results of opinion polls have come to carry much weight in the United States. Probably the best known of these is the poll conducted by the American Institute of Public Opinion, better known as the Gallup Poll. Fortune has a regular department called "The Fortune Survey" which is based on research conducted by Elmo Roper. Crossley
Incorporated makes nationwide surveys of public opinion, especially in the field of marketing.

Basically the technique of these firms is to secure the opinions of a relatively small number of people, usually less than 5,000, through the work of well trained interviewers. The people interviewed are carefully selected to sample proportionately all representative groups in the nation. Questions used are not limited to one type. Some require simply a "yes" or "no" answer, while others make use of attitude scales. Still other questions are such that they do not restrict the respondent's answer in any way.

The interview, as used by these commercial organizations, has given results with a high degree of reliability. Strang points out that the interview is a valuable method for the study of attitudes but not so good as a research method for securing objective facts.12

Another type of interview which has been increasingly used is known as the non-directive interview. In this the counselor or interviewer does as little talking as possible and the pupil or subject is given the fullest opportunity possible to release his own feelings and express them. This method is often used by psychiatrists in an effort to discover what are the depressives afflicting their

clients. It was successfully used by interviewers in Western Electric's Hawthorne studies. In this case the interviewers were outside men, and by assuring the employees that their conversations would not be reported to the management, were able to secure from them frank statements of attitude concerning their jobs.

During these studies the following suggestions for this type of interview were developed:

1. The interviewer should listen to the speaker in a patient and friendly, but intelligently critical manner.

2. The interviewer should not display any kind of authority.

3. The interviewer should not give advice or moral admonition.

4. The interviewer should not argue with the speaker.

5. The interviewer should talk or ask questions only under certain conditions.

   a. To help the person talk.

   b. To remove any fears or anxieties on the part of the speaker which may be affecting his relation to the interviewer.

   c. To praise the interviewee for reporting his thoughts and feelings accurately.

   d. To veer the discussion to some topic which has been omitted or neglected.

   e. To discuss implicit assumptions if it is advisable.13

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13F. J. Roethlisberger, William J. Dickson, and Harold A. Wright, Management and the Worker. p. 287.
In our schools the interview need not be confined to the formal directive type nor to the non-directive type. Daily conversations in the classroom and friendly discussions with pupils elsewhere in the school give the teacher many opportunities to learn attitudes and appraise pupil morale. Bits of information secured in this manner should be helpful to the teacher in securing more accurate impressions of student activities. It is true that what people say does not always correspond to what they do or how they feel, but yet the relationship is great enough not to be ignored.

### A TEST FOR MEASURING TEACHER MORALE

The following test was constructed by this writer after the method developed by Likert.\(^\text{14}\)

1. The teaching profession offers little or no chance for advancement.

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2. Professional organizations have done little to improve the welfare of teachers.

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\(^{14}\)Likert, *op. cit.*, pp. 33-35
3. A teacher should spend a great deal of time aside from regular school duties with the intention of improving his professional service.

- 5 strongly approve
- 4 undecided
- 3 disapprove

4. If teachers could enter another vocation at the same salary as teaching, they would do well to do so.

- 1 strongly approve
- 2 undecided
- 3 disapprove

5. Summer school presents a great opportunity for inservice training of which teachers should take advantage.

- 5 strongly approve
- 4 undecided
- 3 disapprove

6. The teaching profession is hampered by unbearable social restrictions.

- 1 strongly approve
- 2 undecided
- 3 disapprove

7. The teaching profession has compensations which help to offset its low income.

- 1 strongly approve
- 2 undecided
- 3 disapprove

8. The teaching profession should be used as a stepping stone to a more desirable and remunerative profession.

- 1 strongly approve
- 2 undecided
- 3 disapprove

9. Teaching offers great opportunities for creative work.

- 1 strongly approve
- 2 undecided
- 3 disapprove
10. Teachers have practically no opportunities for self-expression.

strongly approve undecided disapprove strongly disapprove
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

11. To succeed in the teaching profession, one should have a strong liking for children.

strongly approve undecided disapprove strongly disapprove
(5) (4) (3) (2) (1)

12. There is no profession in which the opportunity for service is greater than in teaching.

strongly approve undecided disapprove strongly disapprove
(5) (4) (3) (2) (1)

13. If a teacher is uncertain what course of action to take, it is better to do nothing than to make an error.

strongly approve undecided disapprove strongly disapprove
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

14. Work should be well done to secure praise from those in authority and so boost the worker's spirits.

strongly approve undecided disapprove strongly disapprove
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

15. In the teaching profession, doing a good piece of work is the best guarantee of tenure.

strongly approve undecided disapprove strongly disapprove
(5) (4) (3) (2) (1)

16. Most supervisors are "snoopers" without whom the profession would be better off.

strongly approve undecided disapprove strongly disapprove
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
17. Young people should hesitate to join the teaching profession because of the stigma which the public casts upon it.

strongly approve  undecided  disapprove  strongly disapprove
(1)  (2)  (3)  (4)  (5)

18. Those who can, do; those who can't, teach school.

strongly approve  undecided  disapprove  strongly disapprove
(1)  (2)  (3)  (4)  (5)

19. The public mind can be changed by vigorous contributions of statesmanlike teachers to the field of education in national life.

strongly approve  undecided  disapprove  strongly disapprove
(5)  (4)  (3)  (2)  (1)

20. If you stay in the teaching profession long enough, you "get as dumb as the pupils."

strongly approve  undecided  disapprove  strongly disapprove
(1)  (2)  (3)  (4)  (5)

21. A teacher should not attempt to become a member of the community in which she works.

strongly approve  undecided  disapprove  strongly disapprove
(1)  (2)  (3)  (4)  (5)

22. Teachers should demand salaries proportional to their scholastic ability.

strongly approve  undecided  disapprove  strongly disapprove
(1)  (2)  (3)  (4)  (5)

23. Teachers should be interested in extra-curricular activities.

strongly approve  undecided  disapprove  strongly disapprove
(5)  (4)  (3)  (2)  (1)
24. Teachers should teach and administrators administrate.

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25. The teaching day should be confined to the limits of the opening and closing bells.

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26. Regular, well-planned teachers' meetings should prove beneficial to teachers.

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27. A teacher should take an active interest in the physical properties of the school room.

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28. It is the teacher's duty not only to teach, but also to set a good example.

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29. Each teacher should determine his own policies without regard to the school's philosophy.

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30. Teachers should encourage regular classroom visitation by parents.

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31. The teacher's interest in the activities of the pupils should be confined to the pupils' in-school activities.

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32. Teachers should retire from the profession after twenty years of experience, regardless of age.

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33. A teacher should consider home visitation a part of his duties.

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34. The teacher should present approval or disapproval of school policies to the administrator through other members of the faculty.

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35. Teachers should take an active part in the work of the parent-teachers' association.

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In order to make good use of this test, it would first be necessary to check its validity. If the test proved to be valid, then a low score would indicate low morale in the teaching profession, while a higher score would indicate correspondingly higher morale.

In this chapter, an effort has been made to present briefly several of the outstanding attempts which have
been made in the field of morale and attitude measurement. In this connection the work of Thurstone and Likert was described. Besides the written test method of measuring attitudes, other methods described were (1) measuring attitudes through student writing, (2) measuring attitudes through a study of external behavior, and (3) measuring attitudes by the use of the interview. At the conclusion of the chapter a proposed test for measuring teacher morale has been given.

It should be emphasized again that the good program for morale measurement will not limit itself to only one of the devices mentioned in this chapter. A successful, well-rounded program will result only if all available devices and methods are used intelligently.
CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY

Within the past several decades, and especially during World Wars I and II, the importance of morale as a factor contributing to success has come nearer to full realization. Within recent years, much has been written about morale, and many definitions for it have been given. As expressed in these definitions, there are at least two factors which are common to high morale. Wherever high morale obtains, there is purpose, and there is a sustaining drive and urge. From the view point of the group, morale may be defined as follows: Morale is that desire within a group for sustained, vigorous, cooperative action which occurs when the wills and purposes of the individuals in the group are in complete harmony with the will and purpose of the group.

Very largely, one's conduct is governed by his desires. It follows then that a person's morale is very closely related to his desires. Failure to achieve a certain minimum satisfaction of these desires brings frustration, which leads to aggression. Aggressive behavior may take many forms detrimental to good morale.

While morale has been highly emphasized in time of war, not much has been said and done concerning morale for
times of peace. There are difficult jobs requiring high morale in peacetime as well as in time of war.

The following six factors are considered as being essential for high morale in a group:

1. Something to strive for.
2. A sense of mutual support.
3. Progress toward the goal.
4. Something each can do.
5. Leadership.
6. A sense of humor.

There are numerous devices which organizations have used for centuries, consciously or unconsciously, as morale builders. Among these are codes, rituals, songs, badges, uniforms, exclusiveness, secrecy, titles, promotions, conventions, and meetings.

To promote student morale one must know and be able to recognize those attitudes and conditions which are thought of as constituting good morale. These are confidence, optimism, respect, the habit of realism, and success. Some of the factors which are foremost in bringing about these attitudes in the individual school are the teacher, the principal and the non-teaching staff, and the community itself.

The school is only one of the many agencies which influence the morale of our children. Others include such
agencies as the home, the church, the Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and summer camps.

Good morale-building practices of public schools may be named under three headings:

1. The school must provide for the health and physical well being of the child.

2. The school must strive to meet the child's need for social status.

3. The school must meet the need for a common cause.

The position of the school administrator as a promoter of teacher morale cannot be over emphasized. The good administrator must, therefore, have a realization of the forces which affect teacher personality; he must make possible frequent contacts with his teachers; he must be able to recognize good morale and poor morale, and know what actions and attitudes are characteristic of each.

The factors which are unfavorable to good teacher morale fall principally into two divisions. The first of these concerns various aspects of community life and the second includes factors in unintelligent administration and supervision.

The administrator can play an important part in correcting conditions which are unfavorable to good morale. Opportunities for the teacher's social life can be increased and restrictions on personal freedom removed. Often it is possible to improve board and room arrangements. A number
of things can be done to properly orient the new teacher. For this, as well as for the use of the experienced teacher, the teacher's handbook is important. The superintendent should have and follow a sound policy in the selection, appointment and placement of teachers. Proper consideration of the teaching load is essential and requires more than mere attention to the number of classes a teacher is assigned. Other factors important in building up teacher morale, and to which the administrator should give careful attention are security in employment, economic security, teacher participation in forming school policies, better working conditions for teachers, recognition and promotion, proper supervision, and democratic school administration.

The promotion of community morale requires that:

1. The school be properly interpreted to the community.
2. The school serve the needs of the community.
3. The school be a cooperative community enterprise.
4. The community be encouraged and allowed to help in planning the educational program.

The field of morale measurement and attitude measurement is relatively new. Several methods for determining and measuring attitudes have been developed but with attending difficulties. Among the devices for determining and measuring morale are:

1. Written tests designed for the purpose.
2. Writing, which may be on a topic of the subject's choice or on an assigned topic.


4. The interview, either directive or non-directive.

CONCLUSIONS

As a result of this study, the following conclusions have been reached:

1. Even though morale is an intangible sort of thing dealing with attitudes, conditions, and ideals, it is possible to cultivate and promote it.

2. Student morale is affected by a number of factors. These include home environment, school environment, the teacher, the principal and the non-teaching staff, and the attitude of the entire community.

3. Promoting teacher morale is one of the biggest and most important jobs of the school administrator.

4. The promotion of community morale is largely a program of good public relations.

5. It is difficult to measure attitudes, but it is not impossible. Schools should use all available devices in the evaluation of their morale-building program in order to discover its weaknesses and point to the necessary corrections.


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