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The Chronological Development of Guidance in the United States

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THE CHRONOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT OF GUIDANCE IN THE UNITED STATES

Instructional Materials Center
Jacksonville State College

by

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Submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree
of master of science in education
at Jacksonville State College

Jacksonville, Alabama

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INTRODUCTION

The candidate elected to work on a report centered around the chronological development of guidance in the United States with special emphasis on the contribution of the funds made available through Federal Aid, and especially through the National Defense Education Act, Title V of Public School Law 85-864.

In order to limit the scope of guidance, the candidate also found it necessary to adhere to the following functions of the guidance program:

(1) to collect and systemize accurate information about pupils;

(2) to provide an individual counseling service coordinated with group instruction relative to certain areas such as vocational exploration; and

(3) to carry on a dynamic educational program among their colleagues and parents that will lead to intelligent use of the information that the guidance department is able to provide.

It is the sincere belief of the candidate that counselors, administrators, teachers, and parents need a thorough understanding of both the development of and the financial set-up of the guidance program in order to more

efficiently utilize the available funds to provide maximum benefits for the group for whom it was really established--the students.

CHAPTER I

TRACES OF GUIDANCE IN COLONIAL SCHOOLS

The beginnings of guidance would be as difficult to trace as it would be to trace the origin of the wheel or any other common object which we take for granted. Evidences of the realization of the need for guidance may be found in Plato's Republic, but for centuries no efforts toward working out an effective plan were demonstrated in regard to an established program. The guidance program of today appears to have emerged from the past needs for spiritual, moral and vocational needs in the institutions of higher learnings when a vast majority of the pupils had to journey far from home in their pursuit of knowledge. The organization of the Colonial schools was based on the family plan with the presidents and teachers acting *in loco parentis*. That parents expected the teachers to assume these responsibilities is also evident, as in the case of Elizabeth Soltonstall, who wrote to her daughter in June 1680 advising her, "Mind that you carry yourself very respectfully and dutyfully to Mrs. Graves as though she were your mother."[1]

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[1] Alice Morse Earle, Child Life in Colonial Days (New York: Macmillan Company, 1899), p. 100.

William Penn concluded that etiquette and morals were important enough that he selected "a Committee of Manners, education and arts that all wicked and scandalous living may be prevented and that youth may be successively trained up in virtue and useful knowledge and arts."[2] The colonists of Massachusetts also desired that their schools transmit "religion and good manners."[3]

There was a vast difference in the pattern of life in the South, economically, politically and socially, from their counterparts in the northern colonies. The rich settlers in the South were responsible for the education of their own children, but they drew up some rigid laws pertaining to public education for the indigent, orphan and illegitimate children. In 1620, when a group of children were sent over from England to Virginia, the governor implicitly requested of the town "to put the prentices to trades and not let them forsake their trades for planting or any such useless commodity."[4]

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[2]George Straughton, Benjamin Nead, and Thomas McCamant, editors, Duke of Yorke's Book of Laws, 1675-1682: Charter and Laws of the Province of Pennsylvania, 1682-1700 (Harrisburg, 1879), pp. 95-96.

[3]Ellis Ames and Abner Goodall (eds.), The Acts and Resolves of Massachusetts Bay (Boston: 1895), pp. 681-682. Hereinafter cited as Ames, Acts and Resolves.

[4]William H. Hening (ed.), The Statutes at Large, Being a Collection of Laws of Virginia (New York: 1825), I, 114-115.

In 1668 the Grand Assembly of Virginia passed laws requiring the Vestries, "to build houses for educating and instructing poor children in the knowledge of spinning, weaving and other useful trades or occupations."[5]

The New Englanders felt that citizenship training should be included as an objective in Colonial education. The New Haven Court Order states that "for better training up of the youth in this town that through God's blessings they may be fitted for public service hereafter, either in church or commonwealth, it is ordered that a free school be set up."[6]

Toward the middle of the eighteenth century the schools began to include courses of practical utility. The administration of this new curriculum involved difficulties. Since there was only one or two teachers in the school it was difficult to reconcile purposes so divergent as preparation for college and training for a vocation. Private institutions sprang up which determined their course of study by the demands of the community in which they were located.

The closely woven interrelationship between the Colonial government and the institutions of higher learning

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[5]William H. Hening (ed.), The Statues at Large, Being a Collection of Laws of Virginia (New York: 1825), II, 266.

[6]Charles Hoadly (ed.), Records for the Colony or Jurisdiction of New Haven (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1858), p. 240.

had a very penetrating consequence on all later developments of education in that colleges so established were to serve as a model for all subsequent institutions. This seems to be particularly true of the programs of personnel administration with which the colleges started.

The University of Pennsylvania was originated through the efforts of religious groups in 1779. The charter called for "a board of trustees consisting of the president of the supreme executive council, the vice-president, the speaker of the general assembly, and the attorney general of the colony, plus the senior ministers of several of the established churches including a Catholic representative."[7] An earlier charter had required that the trustees make it their business "to visit the academy often, to encourage and countenance the youth, countenance and assist the masters and by all means in their power, advance the usefulness and reputation of the design; that they will look on the students, as, in some measure their own children, treat them with familiarity and affection."[8]

The lack of roads and other means of transportation made it impossible for the schoolmaster and the teachers to

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[7]Francis Newton Thorpe, Benjamin Franklin and the University of Pennsylvania (Washington, D. C.: United States Bureau of Education, Circular of Information No. 2, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1893), pp. 84-87. Hereinafter cited as Thorpe, Benjamin Franklin.

[8]*Ibid.*, pp. 67, 86-87.

consult with parents concerning any problem that arose, thus, the institutions willingly assumed the responsibility of quite a number of guidance functions. This was done because the educators believed that these duties were an essential part of the educative process. As far as can be determined, the first group to have separate and distinct guidance functions was established by Sister Angela Merici. A number of the better students were given special training by the nuns and they, in turn, assisted with the discipline and recreation of the other pupils. There were quite a few "Do's and Don'ts" in her system such as don't "permit them anything indecent or improper such as comedies, cards, dances nor any loose vulgar songs. The girls may play battledore and shuttlecock, at bowls, and a quiet game of chess."[9] The pupils were admonished to "take the nuns who teach them for their mothers, since they hold the place of a mother."[10]

The boarding students presented numerous and complicated situations. Some of them were able to secure lodgings in the homes of the presidents, with faculty members, or, after thorough investigation, in homes of worthy neighbors. Since this arrangement proved so unsatisfactory

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[9]Sister Mary Monica, Angela Merici and Her Teaching Idea (New York: Longmans, 1927), p. 372.

[10]Ibid., p. 370.

a committee was appointed and funds were raised to construct dormitories. This allowed Columbia University to pass the following rule in 1763:

> Each person admitted as above shall have an habitation in college assigned to him by the president in which he shall be forced to lodge (unless by special leave obtained from the governors or the president) except at stated vacations under penalty of five shillings for the first night of absence. . .eight shillings for the second, twelve shillings for the third (or adequate exercise) and expulsion for continuance of his offense, or such other punishment as the governors shall think necessary.[11]

Early college records distinctly depict the efforts of the educators in carrying out their objectives and their courageous attempt "to take diligent care and to exert their best endeavors to impress upon the minds of children and youth committed to their care and instruction, the principles of piety, justice and a sacred regard for truth, love of their country, industry, frugality, chastity, moderation and temperance, and those other virtues which are an ornament of human society, and the basis upon which the republican constitution is structured."[12]

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[11]Ellis Ames and Abner Goodall (eds.), The Acts and Resolves of Massachusetts Bay (Boston: 1895), Vol. I, 417.

[12]Ibid.

CHAPTER II

VESTIGES OF GUIDANCE IN THE NATIONAL PERIOD

During the early part of the national period colleges were founded primarily to educate the future citizenry so vitally important to the young nation. While religious education was still emphasized greater stress was put on moral and social aspects. Just at that time making Johnny into a good citizen was more important for educational purposes than the salvation of his soul. Franklin College's plan declared that the purpose of the college was to "promote an accurate knowledge of. . . languages, mathematics, morals, and natural philosophy, divinity and all other branches of literature as will tend to make good men and useful citizens."[13]

Very rigorous rules of conduct were observed in all the early colleges. In most instances the children were forbidden to steal, curse, play cards, drink, use tobacco or play dice, and, "unless by presidential permission with parental consent or doctor's orders, associate with any person of bad reputation, commit fornication,

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[13]Joseph H. Dubbs, History of Franklin and Marshall College (Lancaster, Pennsylvania: Franklin and Marshall College Alumni Association, 1903), p. 19.

fight cocks, call each other nicknames, or be disrespectful or tardy or disorderly at public worship."[14]

Outwardly, the University of Georgia had a more liberal attitude since its charter stated:

> As it is the distinguishing happiness of free governments that civil order shall be the result of choice and not of necessity, and the common wishes of the people become the law of the land, their public prosperity and even existence, very much depends on suitably forming the minds and morals of their citizens. . . . This is an influence beyond the stretch of laws and punishments, and can be claimed only by religion and education.[15]

Regardless of the feelings on laws and punishments some very rigid rules were drawn up which the student was required to learn and they served as passports to his classes so that "his very action was guided by them. A law got him out of bed and put him back again. He ate by them, studied by them, he recited by them--they were with him always. He kept them close at hand, hardly knowing what to do until he should consult them what he could do next."[16]

The relationship between the faculty and the

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[14]Thorpe, Benjamin Franklin, p. 404.

[15]A. L. Hull, Historical Sketch of the University (Atlanta: The Foote and Davis Company, 1894), p. 4.

[16]E. Merton Coulter, College Life in the Old South (Athens: The University of Georgia Press, 1951), p. 60.

students was quite frequently one of open hostility. The students often banded together and defied the faculty in spite of the stringent rules forbidding them to do so. Feeling that the faculty was the chief stumbling block to their happiness, the students found a number of methods in which they could express their dislikes. Some of the expressions were mild capers such as that of hiding the president's gatepost. Other showed vicious traces of contempt. More than once professors were hanged in effigy.[17]

It is easy to understand the growing friction between the teachers and the pupils, since the teachers were responsible for carrying out the rigid set of rules that were commonly inflicted upon the students. Even in the dining halls they were not given the privilege of a few moments of relaxation. They were the sole heirs to the responsibilities of discipline. In 1804 President Nott of Union College wrote his brother that "Each class belongs to the family of the officers who instructs them: and in our dining hall is preserved all decorum, ceremony and politeness of refined domestic life."[18]

The rules of conduct pertaining to the dining room

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[17] Ibid., pp. 66-67.

[18] Andrew J. Raymond, Union University, Its History, Influence, Characteristics and Equipment (New York: Lewis Publishing Company, 1907), p. 145. Hereinafter cited as Raymond, Union University.

were specific. On the sound of the bell the students at the University of North Carolina were directed to "repair to the dining room, arrange themselves according to the order of the classes on each side of the door with their monitors at the head and thus followed the tutor."[19]

The responsibilities quite often resulted in deep-seated resentments on the part of the faculty members and, evidently some changes were requested since this was one of the first personnel services to be turned over to other personnel. The stewart or whoever might accept the responsibility was given his board or extra concessions for his thankless task.[20]

The transfer of responsibilities, however, did not solve the problem of dining hall discipline. The modern supervising staffs are not immune to continued complaints and quite often strikes or public demonstrations. The University of Georgia tried to control such situations with a shreat that, "in case of misbehavior, disobedience, or improper conduct, the offending student may be turned

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[19]Kemp P. Battle, History of the University of North Carolina (Raleigh, North Carolina: Edwards and Broughton Printing Company, 1907), pp. 201-202.

[20]Alfred J. Morrison, The College of Hampden-Sydney, Calendar of Board Minutes, 1776-1876 (Richmond: The Hermitage Press, 1912), p. 122.

out of the room, and lose his meal for that time."[21]

Fortunately, there is also much evidence of wise and constructive administration on the part of many educators of this period. In many instances the problems were met by using methods which have long since become well-established techniques of the modern guidance program. Also college records of this period show fragmentary evidences that the guidance functions of this period included at least four other areas of responsibility such as financial assistance, health records and supervision, educational guidance and a crude record of the student's work. Educational guidance was generally limited to friendly advice on research and subject matter, programs of incentives to achievement such as honor rolls, assistance regarding programs of the literary societies, and supervised study.

Extracts from numbers of letters preserved in the archives of Mount St. Mary's College attest to the fact the solicitous parents were capable of giving some of their offspring the benefit of guidance by proxy:

"(My son) must not be bled or given calomel."

"What in the name of goodness has George been

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[21]Minutes of the Senatus Academicus, 1799-1842, p. 124. These minutes, in manuscript, are in the University of Georgia Library.

about with his teeth to occasion a dentist bill of $7.50?"

"I received a letter from George today asking permission for him to chew tobacco. I will thank you to prevent it. . . . I am fearful that he is not behaving as well as formerly."

"Willie's nose has something the matter with it which is making it grow crooked. Please make him keep pushing it to make it straight."[22]

The educators of the national period assumed and carried on the informal, and for the most part unrecorded, guidance functions of the Colonial period plus a few extensions of their own. Some of their efforts might appear to be crude and even humorous to persons having grown up in a more permissive culture, but they did seem to sincerely seek to give constructive answers to the problems of the students and were instrumental in laying the groundwork for a more liberal viewpoint toward the guidance program for which we are striving today. We do not have to make Willie "keep pushing his nose to make it straight," but we can consult his parents about the possibility of getting it straightened, or if that is not possible, he could be assisted in the realization that he can accept himself as he is. There is no evidence that this was not done then since the records were so poorly kept.

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[22]Mary Maud Meline and Edward F. McSweeney. The Story of the Mountain, Mt. Saint Mary's College and Seminary (Emmitsburg, Maryland: The Weekly Chronicle Company, 1911), p. 57.

CHAPTER III

EMERGENCE OF GUIDANCE DURING THE TRANSITION PERIOD

Between 1787 and 1860 our country had grown from thirteen sparsely populated states to a huge nation that extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. The development of its abundance of natural resources and the application of capital and machinery caused it to become a nation of great industry and wealth. This led the public to realize that the few schools that did exist were not only too few and far between, but that the classical subjects taught at that time were not adequate for such a great industrial nation. Slowly the vocational guidance movement began to emerge. More than three hundred colleges were established during this period. The growth had a profound and penetrating effect on the objectives of the colleges. Immediately after the Civil War boys from the middle class families and the "inferior-minded" females sought admission to the institutions of higher learning. Authorities were appalled when co-education became inevitable, and made concerted efforts to throw stumbling blocks to, at least, hinder the movement. At

first Horace Mann of Antioch College forecast terrible dangers,[23] but later relented and declared:

> That the labors and expenditures of higher education of men will tend indirectly to elevate the character of women; but they (the founders) are certain that all wise efforts for the improved education of women will speed the elevation of the whole human race.[24]

President Finney of Oberlon College went a step farther and suggested the use of "a wise and pious lady with such lady assistants to keep up sufficient supervision."[25] With the installation of such services the title "Lady Principal" emerged, but was gradually changed to Dean of Women in 1892. The word "dean" was used to designate personnel work. The growth and demands for deans increased rapidly after 1913.[26]

Another impact of the expanding role of education in admitting middle and lower income groups was that of changing the antiquated standards to the newer concepts of religion, discipline, and morality. Slowly the idea of self-discipline began to creep into the codes. This

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[23]Anna Reed, Guidance and Personnel Services in Education (Ithica, New York: Cornell University Press, 1944), p. 32. Hereinafter cited as Reed, Guidance.

[24]Raymond, Union University, p. 145.

[25]Reed, Guidance, p. 35.

[26]Ibid., p. 32.

is portrayed by the objectives of Haverford College which stated:

> That a desire that students may be influenced to good order and diligence in study, by the highest religious motives; by moral and religious principles, a sense of duty, a manly spirit of obedience, and the generous feelings which should characterize young men engaged in honorable pursuits.[27]

Herbert Spencer further evidenced the feelings of that period when, in 1860, he outlined the plans for future education. Traces of these objectives can be seen in almost all of the later educational plans:

1. Training for self-preservation
2. Training for obtainment of sustenence
3. Training for discharge of parental duties
4. Training for social and political conduct
5. Training for use of leisure time[28]

The Morrill Act of 1862 made it possible for each state to receive 30,000 acres of land for each senator and representative of that state to establish colleges of agricultural and mechanical arts. It took at least two decades for the law to become effective in all of the

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[27]Rufus M. Jones, Havergood College, A History and Interpretation (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933), p. 7.

[28]Raymond N. Hatch, Administration of the Guidance Service (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1958), p. 10. Hereinafter cited as Hatch, Guidance Service.

states. The vagueness of the program made it difficult for the institutions to set up adequate teaching standards until scientifically trained educators were called in to scrutinize and systemize the statistics. The endeavors of these dedicated men made possible the standards for our present day courses in agricultural and mechanical courses.[29]

The imperative requests for more and better teaching personnel were evidenced by the fact that more than fifty new state normal schools were established during the last three decades of the nineteenth century. The basis of a closer relationship between education and the study of psychology was also established.[30]

The need for a unified course of study was felt by the National Education Association in 1875, therefore, a committee was selected to study the possibilities. This was the initial step in solving the problem "of articulating the curriculums of secondary education and higher institutions of learning.[31]

With the advancement of college entrance requirements, the secondary schools began to take inventory, and,

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[29]Stuart G. Noble, _A History of American Education_ (New York: Rinhart and Company, Inc., 1954), pp. 308-309. Hereinafter cited as Noble, _American Education_.

[30]_Ibid._, pp. 313-314.

[31]Hatch, _Guidance Services_, p. 3.

as a result, in 1893 the Report of the Committee of Ten offered the following points:

1. An enriched program for secondary schools
2. A reduction of elementary schools to six years and extension of high school to six years
3. The recognition of individual pupil interest and ambitions
4. Adequate time allotment for various subjects
5. Departmental teachings in grades seven and eight[32]

The Committee also called attention to the fact that:

1. It disapproved of short courses and recommended that every subject be taught for a period sufficiently long to insure real benefit to the pupil.
2. The Committee recommended that the student who was going immediately into a vocation be given the same thorough instruction as the one who expected to enter college.[33]

Very vew alterations in regard to educational policies were made to coincide with the recommendations of the Committee of Ten, but the basic principles upon which the modern foundation of secondary education is established were originated in that report.[34]

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[32] Hatch, Guidance Services, pp. 3-4.

[33] Noble, American Education, pp. 315-317.

[34] Ibid., p. 317.

CHAPTER IV

THE EXPANSION OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Frank Parsons is accredited with having the distinction of being the founder of the vocational guidance movement. He started the work by making a systematic study of occupations and an intensive examination of individuality and potentiality. Another advantage of his endeavors was the fact that he kept a record of his findings in order that others might benefit from his investigations. Parson's plan was to give intensive counseling to students for a brief period before they graduated from high school. Mrs. Quincy A. Shaw, philanthropist, came to his assistance by financing the organization of the Vocations Bureau.[35] His general procedure was concerned mainly with the counselee in:

1. the getting of a clear understanding of himself--an understanding of his abilities, aptitudes, interests, ambitions, resources, and limitations and their causes;
2. the getting of a knowledge of occupations

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[35] John M. Brewer, History of Vocational Guidance (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942), pp. 22-23. Hereinafter cited as Brewer, History of Vocational Guidance.

and their opportunities and requirements; and
3. true reasoning on the relationship between these two series of facts.[36]

The National Vocational Guidance Association, a current division of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, compares with Parsons in this manner: "Vocational Guidance is the process of assisting the individual to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter upon it and progress in it."[37]

In 1909, after the establishment of the Vocations Bureau of Boston, educators started thinking in terms of organizing guidance and personnel services for both the elementary and secondary school pupils. One teacher-counselor was assigned to each school, but they still maintained their full teaching duties in most schools with no stipends, supplies or materials. Most of them did not continue after the first year's work was completed.[38]

Further inspiration was evoked by the evolvement of the use of group tests during World War I by the Army. Without adequate knowledge of the purposes, reliability,

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[36] Frank Parsons, Choosing A Vocation (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1909), p. 5.

[37] Brewer, History of Vocational Guidance, pp. 76-77.

[38] Henry B. McDaniel with G. A. Shaftel, Guidance in the Modern School (New York: The Dryden Press, 1957), pp. 22-23.

or validity of the tests the personnel services of the schools readily accepted them as the only true thermometer for measuring the intelligence of the pupils. This fallacy led many of the educators to completely renounce the total testing program, and, as the personnel services had so willingly gone along with the testing program, both the guidance services and testing were regarded as a useless waste of time. John Dewey was fearful lest the testing program would discourage individuality rather than encourage it as he had been so ardently striving to lead the instructors to do.[39]

A few years of untiring efforts on the part of those who could see advantages of the proper use of the testing program and the test publishers were required to clarify and correct the objectives of the tests and re-establish the lagging program. Counteracting the resistance to change by the personnel services and the continued improvement of the group tests resulted in an improved guidance system which has been generally accepted throughout the entire country.[40]

The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 enriched the content of the high school program by making it possible for the

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[39]John Dewey, "Progressive Education and the Science of Education," Progressive Education (August 1928), 197-204.

[40]Brewer, History of Vocational Guidance, p. 103.

vocational guidance teachers to receive instruction at the land grant colleges. By matching the money paid by the federal government the states were able to (1) pay salaries of agricultural teachers and personnel directors; (2) pay for the instruction of home economics, trade and systematic labor; (3) make teacher preparation for vocational subjects possible; (4) study problems of teaching techniques; and (5) pay for the administration of the law.[41]

The initial vocational guidance conference on a national level was held in Boston, in March, 1910. The two most important factors of the conference were: it was the nucleus of the National Vocational Guidance Association which was the first national association to promote guidance services in schools; it served as a trading post for the exchange of ideas and information on practical guidance experiences. John Brewer's records of the conference proceedings supplied a clearer concept of the principles of guidance to both lay leaders and educators. Vocational aspects and problems were the main ideas on the agenda, however, the impact of the meeting seemed to crystallize the influence of the guidance movement.[42]

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[41] H. G. Good, A History of American Education (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1962), pp. 304-305.

[42] Glenn E. Smith, Principles and Practices of The Guidance Program (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951), pp. 61-62. Hereinafter cited as Smith, Guidance Program.

In 1915 the Department of Vocational Guidance was established and a plan for the certification of counselors was drawn up.[43]

Although the National Education Association's interest in the vocational guidance movement had been seemingly waning for a number of years, its interest in vocational and educational guidance was still very much alive. In 1918 the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, appointed by the National Education Association, published the "Seven Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education:"

1. Training in the maintenance of health
2. Training in the fundamental processes
3. Training in worthy home membership
4. Training in obtaining and maintaining a vocation
5. Training in civic responsibilities
6. Training in use of leisure time
7. Training in the development of character.[44]

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[43] John M. Brewer, The Vocational Guidance Movement (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1918), pp. 26-27.

[44] Hatch, Guidance Services, pp. 3-4.

CHAPTER V

THE EVOLUTION OF THE TESTING PROGRAM

Very little was accomplished in the field of standardized testing in the United States before the turn of the twentieth century. Horace Mann had stated his preferences of written examinations over the oral examinations which were used so commonly during the Colonial and National periods.[45] Emerson E. White had offered numerous benefits that were derived from written tests, but European efforts seemed to be required before American interests were stimulated.[46]

Robert Thorndike, who later became identified as the father of the educational measurement movement, divides twentieth century testing into three distinct periods. The pioneering stage began at the beginning of the century and extended to 1915. During this period Binet developed his intelligence scales, Thorndike prepared handwriting

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[45] Georgia Sachs Adams and Theodore L. Torgerson, Measurement and Evaluation (New York: The Dryden Press, 1956), pp. 22-23. Hereinafter cited as Adams and Torgerson, Measurement and Evaluation.

[46] Emerson E. White, The Elements of Pedagogy (New York: American Book Company, 1886), p. 148.

scales, and Stone led the pioneer movements in arithmetic achievement tests. Starch and Elliott created a sensation over their survey which proved the unreliability of scoring in teacher-made tests. Henry H. Goddard and Frederick Kuhlmann were successful in their attempts to revise the Binet scales adaptable to use by the American children.[47]

The "boom" period was ushered in by the Army's need for faster and more efficient methods for selecting recruits for commissioned and noncommissioned officers during World War I. The Army had been faced with two problems. First, the individual tests that were in use at that time required too much time for its administration. The unpublished works of Arthur H. Otis served as the basis for the Army Alpha which solved the time element since it could be administered to a large number in the same amount of time required for administering the former individual tests. The second problem which confronted them was the fact that the Army Alpha was unsuitable for the illiterate and foreign-language-speaking recruits. The Army Beta evolved to become the first intelligence test to combine a group test with performance-type items.[48]

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[47]Robert L. Thorndike and Elizabeth Hagen, Measurement and Evaluation in Psychology and Education (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1955), pp. 5-6. Hereinafter cited as Thorndike and Hagen, Measurement.

[48]Adams and Torgerson, Measurement and Evaluation, pp. 24-25.

After World War I the secondary schools attempted to profit by the experience of the Army, but discovered that students, especially girls, were not familiar with the test items. In order to solve this problem the Otis General Intelligence Test was developed, which gave it the distinction of having been the first especially created intelligence test for the secondary schools. A year later the Delta I and Delta II were designed to appraise the intelligence of pupils in the elementary schools.[49]

The achievement battery tests were introduced during this period and the indiscriminate use of all tests brought about sharp criticisms and doubts as to the validity and importance in the educational program. The attacks resulted in causing the publishers to take inventory and discover that the censures were justified. The critical evaluation period came into existence and numerous adjustments have been made in the tests as well as in the re-education as to the purposes and limitations of the test.[50]

The California Test of Mental Maturity was published on the assumption that previous tests were not adequate in the measurement of the mental ability of the nonreaders. This was the first test to provide both verbal

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[49]Ibid., p. 27.

[50]Thorndike and Hagen, Measurement, p. 6.

and non-verbal quotients for children.[51]

From this tiny mucleus various and sundry tests have been introduced, not only in the fields of achievement and intelligence, but also aptitude, character and personality, and interest. In her bibliography of tests in 1933 Gertrude Hildreth listed 3,500 entires. By 1939 the list had grown to 4,279 and again in 1945 a supplement raised the list to 5,294. Educators are not only realizing the value of tests in the school program, but they also have come to realize that tests are not infallible, and that a thorough knowledge of the tests administered, the students taking the tests, and the purposes and limitations should be thoroughly understood before any interpretations should be attempted.[52]

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[51] Ibid., pp. 6-7.

[52] Gertrude H. Hildreth, A Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Scales (Psychological Corporation, 1933; Second edition, 1939; Supplement to Second edition, 1945).

CHAPTER VI

FEDERAL AID AND THE GUIDANCE MOVEMENT

The Federal government has been very generous in its contribution to the guidance program, both morally and financially. In addition to the previously mentioned Morrill Act of 1862 which provided land for agricultural and mechanical colleges and the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 various other acts have stimulated its growth.

The George-Deen Act legislated in 1936 broadened the services of the Smith-Hughes Act by providing vocational counseling and Federal aid to distributive education in the areas of agriculture, commercial education, home economics, and trade and industrial education. After the Federal funds were made available quite a few of the states set up guidance offices. At that time this was the only use of Federal funds on state and local levels.[53]

The George-Deen Act became effective on July 1, 1937 with the following financial provisions: (1) $1,200,000 for vocational training in the distributive occupations--

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[53] Charles M. Arthur, "George-Deen Act and Its Implications," Education Digest, II (September, 1937), p. 9.

retailing, wholesaling, jobbing, commission buying and others; (2) $1,000,000 for the training of teachers of vocational educational education in agriculture, trades and industries, and home economics; (3) $175,000 to provide a minimum allotment of $20,000 to each state and territory for vocational education in agriculture, trade and industry and home economics; (4) $54,000 to guarantee a minimum of $10,000 to each state and territory for vocational education in distributive occupations; and (5) $54,000 to guarantee a minimum allotment to each state and territory for training teachers of vocational education.[54]

Another milepost had been reached. For the first time in the history of education the need for distributive education on state and local levels were recognized.[55]

Less than ten years after the George-Barden Act was passed. The Federal funds extended the scope of the George-Deen Act to embrace various other activities on the state and local level as well as to maintain some of the previous obligations. The regulations were so vague that the Commission of Education was compelled to exercise his own judgments in designating the areas in which Federal funds could be utilized. He included the following areas:

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[54] Ibid.

[55] Ibid.

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1. The maintenance of a state program of supervision
2. Reimbursement of salaries of trainers
3. Research in the field of guidance
4. Reimbursement of salaries of local guidance workers which also included travel expenses.[56]

The greatest stimulation in the guidance movement was brought about by the enactment of the National Defense Education Act with its ten titles. The provision for guidance services was contained in Title V, parts A and B.[57]

Under Title V-B of the National Defense Education Act, more than 2,000 counselors and teachers enrolled in approximately fifty institutes for guidance and counseling in 1959. The rapid influx of counselors and school programs has created a tendency toward quantitative rather than qualitative enrichment, therefore, it will be the duty of the trained counselors themselves to add the quality so badly needed in the guidance profession.[58]

Counselors and teachers were generally obtained by selecting teachers from the ranks and sending them to

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[56] Smith, _Guidance Program_, pp. 67-68.

[57] Walter F. Johnson, et al, _Pupil Personnel and Guidance Services_ (New York: McGraw Hill Company, Inc., 1961), p. 334.

[58] Willis E. Dugan, "The Impact of NDEA Upon Counselor Education," _Personnel and Guidance Journal_, XXXIX, p. 37, (September, 1960).

an institute. There is usually a wide gap in the psychological preparations needed for counseling that is not stressed in regular teacher education courses.[59]

In 1959, only thirty-two states had drawn up specified standards of counselor qualifications and generally only four of the eight areas of minimal preparations were established as policies of requirement for counselor certification. These four areas were:

1. philosophy and principles of guidance
2. educational and occupational information
3. appraisal techniques
4. introduction to counseling.[60]

The other four minimal preparation courses which were rarely stressed in certification requirements were:

1. personality theory and development
2. statistics and research methodoloty
3. group procedures in guidance
4. supervised counseling experience.[61]

Regardless of its shortcomings the future of the program looks exceptionally bright and it is heartily welcomed by the local systems because:

1. it has greatly stimulated interest, stepped up study, and spurred efforts

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[59] Ibid., pp. 37-40.

[60] Ibid.

[61] Ibid.

to provide more complete guidance programs;
2. it has increased consciousness of need;
3. it has increased effort to find more and better ways to initiate programs;
4. it has stepped up study and effort to improve quality of the services; and
5. federal assistance has resulted in an improved effort to make program services more efficient and effective in assisting students tounderstand themselves, their environment and finding their proper place in it according to the uniqueness of each.[62]

The public attention is on the guidance program. Guidance institutes are being held in almost every state and territory in the country. The foundations have been established. The results can only be determined by the effects that it will have upon the future of the youth of today for which the entire program was created.

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[62] Annual Narrative Report 1958-1959 Program of Guidance, Counseling and Testing.

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