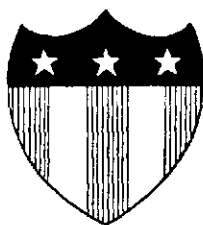


Learning the Ways of Democracy

A Case Book of Civic Education



Educational Policies Commission

*National Education Association of the United States
and the American Association of School Administrators
1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D. C.*

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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES
Washington, D. C.

The illustrations are from various schools visited
by the staff during the field work. The end pa-
pers reproduce murals executed by students of
the Benjamin Franklin High School in New York
City for the school assembly-rooms.

First printing, October 1940

Second printing, June 1941

Acknowledgment

THE COMMISSION records here its appreciation of the distinguished service rendered by the staff who participated in the field studies and in the drafting of the report: OLIVER H. BIMSON, WILLIAM G. CARR, SAMUEL EVERETT, G. L. MAXWELL, and HOWARD E. WILSON, and, on a part-time basis, HAROLD BENJAMIN. Its thanks are extended also to the Consultants who helped in the selection of the schools and to the staffs of the selected schools for their unvarying and cordial cooperation.

The field work on the project involving visits to ninety high schools in twenty-seven states was conducted from September 1939 to January 1940. The staff report was approved for publication by the Commission, after thorough discussion and revision, on May 13, 1940.

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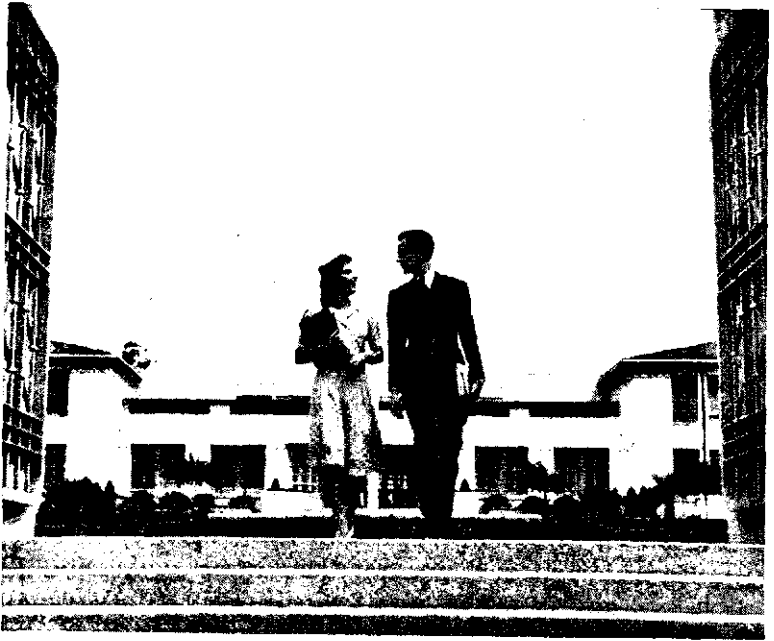
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Foreword

SINCE ITS ESTABLISHMENT, nearly five years ago, the Educational Policies Commission has made the improvement of education for democratic citizenship the central point of its work. An important part of this effort was a firsthand study of effective programs of civic education in a selected group of secondary schools. At this time, when the development of an active and intelligent loyalty to democracy is clearly the nation's supreme problem in education and in defense, the Commission is glad to be able to give this account of what good schools are doing to develop good American citizens and to present recommendations concerning the further improvement of citizenship education. Previous publications of the Commission provide the background; this study is pointed deliberately at *implementation* of the democratic way of life in and through our schools.

The reporting of specific projects in this volume does not involve an endorsement. Generally speaking, however, only those practices have been reported which show some promise of effectiveness. Citizenship education is in a period of growth and adaptation. The Commission, therefore, urges that specific procedures described in this report be applied in local circumstances with due regard to local needs and problems.

The schools of the United States should give effect to the promises of democracy; they also should explore the values of democracy, teach its processes, and establish habits and attitudes of citizenship consistent therewith. Thus the schools perform a function essential to the very existence of our democracy.



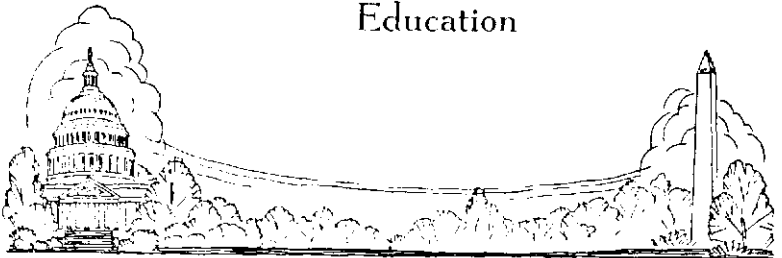
CHAPTER I

The Hallmarks

of

Democratic

Education



THIS VOLUME is an account of evidences of the democratic spirit in educational practice, which were observed in ninety American secondary schools. Those who went out to seek these evidences carried with them ideas as to what the democratic spirit is and how its presence may be recognized. These ideas have determined the selection of the materials in the chapters which follow. It is advisable, therefore, to begin by stating what the democratic spirit means and what are considered to be indicators that this spirit is at work in education.

Let us approach such a statement by way of some facts observed in this study. In each of the schools visited, the staff members undertook to ascertain the ideas of democracy which underlay the school program. Occasionally direct statements about these ideas were forthcoming. More often it was necessary to observe practices and infer the character of underlying ideas.

Six Different Ideas of Democratic Education Were Found in Schools

Democratic education, it was found, means widely different things to different people, both in theory and in practice. These diversities can be illustrated through a series of sketches, each of which characterizes a school typical of one idea of democratic education. Six sketches of "typical schools" follow. The number might be increased to take account of minor variations, but these six represent the more important ideas which were encountered. None of these "typical schools" actually exists as described here; yet each one is true to fact, for each of its component parts was observed in one or more schools and can be found in many others. No one actually spoke the exact words reported here; yet every idea was ex-

pressed, either in words or in deeds, by someone observed in this study.

Out of the examination of these six types of schools, out of the comparison of these varied ideas about democratic education, out of the discussion of some of the accompanying problems, the way will open for a statement of the hallmarks of democratic education employed in selecting the materials for this report.

*Example 1: One Mind Sets Democratic Goals
and Directs Action toward Their Attainment*

In the first school, the administrator speaks:

"I selected most of the teachers who are now on this high-school staff. They are competent people, thoroughly in sympathy with the principles under which the school is operated. If they were not in sympathy with those principles, I would soon get rid of them. It is hard enough to teach democracy under the best of conditions, without being troubled with disloyal or insubordinate teachers. Certainly I believe in democracy, and I believe in democratic schools, too. I want every pupil in this school to have a fair chance for an education that will help him to be a self-respecting, self-supporting citizen."

One of the teachers testifies as follows:

"I like to work in this school. All you have to do is a good job of teaching, and attempt nothing else until and unless the principal calls on you for help. Our principal is a good man to work for. He doesn't waste our time in long conferences trying to get us to tell him what should be done next. He realizes that is *his* job. He knows how he wants the school run, and he runs it that way. Democracy? We practice it instead of talking about it. We try to know every student in this school and to give him the education which best fits his needs. Our principal says that is democracy in education, and I think he is right."

A student of this school adds the following comment:

"Of course our school is democratic. We have a student council, for example. It makes important decisions all the time. Does the principal have to approve these decisions? Well, naturally the council doesn't make any decisions without finding out whether the principal thinks they are all right. If he believes some proposed scheme is wrong, the council wouldn't want to try it anyway. The principal has had wide experience. We listen to him. Of course he listens to us, too, but after all he is the final authority."

A citizen of the community gives his opinion:

"That school is run efficiently. The teachers and the students know what is expected of them at all times. They don't fumble around for answers. They know they have to teach and learn the *correct* answers. The principal sees to that. He is responsible to the superintendent for the conduct of the school, and he has authority to go along with his responsibility. Democracy? We're all for it, of course, but what does it mean? When the greatest statesmen of the world can't define democracy, why should we start children going in fuzzy-minded circles trying to do it?"

There is one clear line running through this vignette—the line of efficiency. The people who have spoken have all emphasized their desire to see the school get its work done with a minimum of lost time and effort. They are all a little worried lest their educational efforts be impeded by too much discussion. Rather than risk such dangers, they choose the strong leadership of one man.

At first thought, we might conclude that this school is a simple autocracy, no doubt benevolent but still an autocracy. But we might be mistaken. We must remember that this school seeks to serve all economic and racial classes with justice, that it tries to provide opportunity to all the children of all its people, and that it shapes its practices to the varied needs of its students. Can we then be so sure that it is

an autocracy? If its purposes are democratic and if its procedures are directed toward those purposes, how are we to appraise its true spirit?

Can democratic ends be attained in an autocratic manner?

To what extent should teachers and students and citizens have a direct voice in determining the nature and instruments of the purposes of a school?

Is democratic action compatible with group efficiency?

*Example 2: Students Are Kept Busy Practicing
the Use of Tools of Democracy*

Let us hold these questions in mind and turn to a second school. The principal says proudly:

"Of our six hundred students, four hundred are actively taking part in student activities. We have almost everything in the way of clubs, programs, and organizations. We try to get all our students into something. When I first came here, there were no hobby clubs at all. Now we have more than twenty. There were then only thirty boys who turned out for football. Now we have two full squads for our varsity teams, as well as a twelve-team intramural league. We have the biggest band in the state. We believe you can't have successful democracy on a large scale unless everybody has a lot of experience in democratic activities in small groups."

A teacher of the school remarks:

"We get such a high percentage of participation because we have an excellent system of motivating the children to take part in activities. We offer prizes, awards, and school letters for a wide variety of things. That is the only way you can get a large number of students to be active. Of course it makes work for the teachers. Sometimes we get so tired that we seem to have little strength left for classroom teaching. But I suppose that these extra efforts are the price we have to pay to keep democracy going."

A student declares:

"It is a strenuous life here. There are so many things going on that you can hardly keep up with them. But, after all, that's democracy—everybody has to take part in whatever is going on. Our best school leaders are the ones who get into the most activities. You don't see the connection between democracy and all this activity? It's simple. The real reason for dictatorship of any kind is a lack of people who know how to carry on the activities a group wants. So they have to get one man who does know. He tells them how to do it. Then democracy is gone, just because the common people haven't had enough practice in doing the things needed to make democracy work."

A citizen makes his comment:

"That school is a whirlwind of activity. My daughter stays there until six o'clock almost every evening attending this meeting and that. I don't see how she can stand the pace. But I suppose that's the way to educate children for life. After all, the adult community is full of organizations, and you have to belong to them in order to know what's going on and to keep up with your neighbors. Is it democratic? Why, certainly. These children are learning to run their own affairs."

At first glance, we see running through this school the single thread of feverish action which appears to have only the aim of keeping everyone busy. Such an aim seems to have little to do with democracy. Activities which have to be kept alive by the artificial respiration of competition and the hypodermic injection of prizes, awards, and honors are more likely to lead to headaches than to clear thinking and sound judgment. But when we look more closely we discern a deeper purpose. Through this multitude of faculty-inspired activities, the school is seeking to give its students experience in using the tools of democratic living—the ballot, parliamentary procedure, representative

government, group action, and the like—scaled down to the dimensions of the high school; and it is doing this in the belief that the experience will make them more efficient citizens. So again our examination of a school has yielded not final judgments, but questions to be answered later.

Are the amount and distribution of participation in group activities reliable indicators of the presence of the democratic spirit?

Are there useful habits of democratic procedure which can be learned apart from democratic purposes?

Most important of all, can a school be an efficient teacher of democracy, if the students do not share in determining the kinds of activities in which they will take part and the purposes which these activities are to serve?

Example 3: Formulas for Democratic Planning Are Made Chief Ends of Education

Another concept of democratic education is found in a third school, whose principal makes this statement:

“We have developed in this high school a democratic system of student-teacher cooperation in planning units of work. At the beginning of each unit in each course, the whole group, teachers and students working together, sets up the goals, determines the ways in which those goals may be achieved, and selects the needed materials. We do not think you can have democracy when a state department of education, a city school superintendent, or any other higher-up hands down ready-made programs of work for us to follow. Of course we welcome suggestions from the top offices, but we use them or not as we see fit and find convenient.”

A teacher explains further:

“The faculty adopted this plan and it certainly is democratic. You might think that we would not cover the course

of study by this method; but you would be surprised to find how carefully and intelligently the students plan our work with us. I am convinced by this experience that a democratic method of this kind is just as efficient as the traditional pattern of teacher domination, and of course it is far better for the students. It gives them the feeling that they have a say in their own affairs. This is just as necessary for classroom matters as for the extracurricular activities."

A student comments:

"I don't like this system of making us stop every so often in each class and go through the same motions of deciding what we are going to study next and how we are going to study it. I admit that some students like it. They say that we won't always have teachers to tell us what to do, and that we are old enough to begin to learn to plan things for ourselves. One of them said yesterday that we are learning how to use freedom and that this is more important than memorizing a lot of information. That sounds all right when you say it, but when it comes to practice, I think we're just wasting our time. Why? Well, I'll tell you. We really don't learn to plan our own work, for we always have to come out where the teacher wants us to come out. If we don't come out there, the teacher keeps the discussion going on and on, with everyone in the class trying his very hardest to hit upon the suggestion the teacher wants. And when someone hits it, you can hear the whole class sigh with relief. Yes, I suppose it's a part of being democratic. But sometimes I get sick of that word."

An adult member of the community remarks:

"These new methods of teaching are a waste of the taxpayers' money. Teachers are supposed to be experts at education, and they should know what to teach and how to teach it. But my children tell me that their teachers spend days in trying to get the students to decide what they want to study. When I asked the teachers why they do this, they tell me that they want the children to learn

to plan together democratically. That sounds silly to me. You can as easily argue that whenever you build a bridge in a democracy, all the voters ought to sit down and design the bridge together. Personally, I think we need less so-called democracy and more real efficiency in our schools."

Again we must be cautious in judging the amount of democracy displayed in this illustration. Our first impression is that here is a school where the democratic spirit is at home. Everyone shares in setting up goals and in choosing the means for working toward those goals. Or does everyone? The student's reaction is disquieting. Something has gone awry when a considerable number of students feel that a teacher-prescribed formula for democratic policy-making has become more important than the formulation of sound policies; or worse yet, that such a formula has degenerated into a device whereby teachers compel their students to shape their plans to the teachers' desires.

Again we emerge with questions.

Is it possible to learn the skills of democratic planning and policy-making in situations in which the group must "come out" within limits set by some outside authority?

How can we distinguish true policy-making from pseudo policy-making, especially in cases where the procedures are apparently identical?

How can the expert best be employed by the democratic group to increase the efficiency of the group in planning and in policy-making?

What is the role of the expert when policies are to be carried into practice?

Once more we are confronted by the question of efficiency. In this case, the need is recognized for efficiency in setting up purposes as well as in moving toward their achievement.

*Example 4: Freedom To Do as One Pleases
Is Considered the Heart of Democracy*

Let us look at a fourth of the "typical schools." The principal speaks:

"We believe in freedom here. Our greatest concern in administration is to see that the individual liberties of students and teachers are protected at all times. We have as few rules as possible. We avoid uniformity of any kind. We do not try to impose our notions upon the teachers. We give them academic freedom to the fullest extent. This practice seems to us to be the essence of democracy. It protects the individual and allows him the greatest possible opportunity for self-development. Isn't that what democracy is for?"

A teacher says:

"A few of us have tried to get together and develop some means of reorganizing the curriculum in terms of the needs of this community, but we haven't got very far. Our faculty divides into half a dozen little groups and none of them is willing to work with the others unless its ideas are assured of priority. How can you get unity of purpose into a school curriculum when you have to deal with such rugged individualists? How can we make democracy work if it is going to mean letting everyone do as he pleases?"

A student of the school likewise gives voice to some misgivings:

"This school doesn't have any pep or spirit compared with other high schools I have heard of. Everybody does too much as he likes, and some people get by without doing much of anything. But I guess that's democracy—to give everybody as much freedom as possible. That is why a democracy always gets things done more slowly than a dictatorship. My social studies teacher doesn't admit that. But it's true, because when a democracy goes to war, for instance, doesn't it have to become a dictatorship for the

duration of the war? It would be whipped if it didn't forget its democratic ways for the time being at least."

A citizen observes:

"The principal is one of the finest men I know. He loves his fellow-men like Abou Ben Adhem did. People count with him. Every single human being that he meets has his respect and sympathy. Sometimes I think other people impose on him because of that fact. Children take advantage of him and get him to make all kinds of exceptions in their favor. Some of the teachers are doing poor work, but the principal can't do anything about it without violating what he feels are the fundamentals of academic freedom. We all have a real affection for him, but when he retires I hope we can get someone in his place who will have a firmer hand on the school. Of course we must have freedom in a democracy, but freedom must be limited by considerations of public welfare."

Again we encounter the recurring demand for a democracy that works efficiently. This time the obstacle to efficiency seems to be an excess of individual freedom, which raises the question of the place of freedom in democratic living. This is always a crucial point in the progress of any group toward democracy. Freedom has been an indispensable part of the foundations of every democratic structure, yet many a promising democratic enterprise has been wrecked by that which people regarded as freedom.

What then is democratic freedom, especially in the interdependent world in which we live today?

What is its relation to the task of getting a job done efficiently by a group? Is individual freedom consistent with efficiency in group action? Or, conversely, is efficient group action possible without individual freedom?

We add these to our growing store of unanswered questions.

Example 5: Socially Useful Jobs, with Widely Shared Responsibilities, Engage the Entire School

We turn to the fifth of the ideas of democratic education. The administrator of the typical school commences:

"We are concerned above all in this school with the possibilities of school and community service, with initiating and helping to carry through projects for the public welfare. Whenever any of us conceives a plan of action for the school, he begins at once to share it with the rest of the group. He invites criticism and revision of his proposal. Students, teachers, and parents are encouraged to make the plan their own before we try to put it into operation. The process of starting the project is slowed up, therefore, while committees scrutinize it, reshape it, study ways of making it work, and suggest means of evaluating its success after it is once under way."

A teacher continues:

"We don't bother much about the forms and machinery of school government. Organization charts? We hardly know what they are. We are so busy planning big jobs that need to be done in this school and community and performing the day-by-day labor which they entail that we have no time to fool around with useless organization. The only organization we have is just what is needed to do the things we want done. Do we teach democracy? We certainly do. Our entire community service program is a demonstration of democracy. We may not talk much about democracy in our classes, but we think it is more important that boys and girls catch the spirit of democracy through firsthand experience than that they learn the right definitions."

A student expresses his point of view:

"The teachers are so busy with the community program that they don't pay much attention to our student organizations. They put us on our own, and we seem to get along pretty well. No, we don't have corridor guards, monitors, and student courts. We don't seem to need them. Why

should we have people to make us do what we can do quite well by ourselves? We have organizations, certainly. We use them to get jobs done. When we don't need them, we don't bother with them any more. We just let them die. Most of us are so busy with our parts in the community program that we haven't time to spend on things we don't need."

A citizen gives the final comment:

"The most remarkable thing about that school is that the leadership is furnished by many people. Of course the principal is a leader, but so are the teachers and the students. One person often starts an idea in the school but he never seems to think that he has to make it a one-man affair. Since everyone in the school regards everyone else as a leader, there is an atmosphere of respect for the opinion of others, even in the case of marked disagreement, which is decidedly unusual. It is an atmosphere our adult community needs to develop."

In this illustration we find emphasis upon the doing of useful jobs which the school and community need to have done. Efficiency is again of paramount concern. Organization and techniques are shaped and employed for the successful completion of these jobs. They are tools to be changed whenever better tools are available. Furthermore, we find wide sharing of responsibilities, with the members of the group sometimes leading and sometimes following in accordance with their particular abilities. Everyone is invited to take part in making plans, and everyone is enlisted in carrying plans out. Little is said about democracy, but much is done which testifies to the democratic spirit which animates the program.

One question grows out of our review of this school:

Is education for democracy satisfactorily achieved when students have many experiences of democratic living? Or should these experiences lead on to reflection on their meaning, to understanding of their distinctive demo-

cratic characteristics, to formulation of the principles of democracy, and to application of these principles in other situations?

*Example 6: Laws of Learning and of Man
Set Limits to Democratic Education*

The administrator of the last on our list of "typical schools" describes the characteristics of this school:

"We have to consider the level of maturity of our students and the abilities of our teachers before we can say what we can do in democratic education. The ways of democracy are not part of our native equipment. They must be *learned*, just as surely as the ways of language and numbers must be learned, and they should be learned under the guidance of teachers who know how to teach them. Furthermore, state laws lay certain binding obligations upon the school board and upon me which we cannot delegate to anybody. Public opinion also puts certain responsibilities of almost equal weight upon us and upon the teachers, too. We cannot share these responsibilities with students without changes in the law or other definite consent of the community. To pretend that we are doing so is not good education but merely dishonesty. We publish a list of requirements for which the administrative and teaching staff are directly responsible to the school board and the public. It is understood that students and teachers may recommend changes in these requirements, but they have only the voices of citizens in changing them."

A teacher adds this statement:

"It is true that we have a limitation of the field in which students can take part in deciding policies. Within that field, however, students are encouraged to take a large share of responsibility for running the affairs of the school community. This type of school government provides some excellent material for our classroom work on democracy. We make it a practice to study the government of the school in all our social studies classes. Students get a much better understanding of democracy when they approach

it through something close to their daily experience. We find it easy and natural to move from the government of the school to the study of city, state, and national government."

A student says:

"This scheme of letting everybody know exactly where student authority begins and ends is a good one. It is fair and aboveboard. You don't spend your time deciding something, only to find out that you aren't allowed to decide it in the first place. Besides, there are some things that we aren't experienced enough to handle yet. The student council used to take care of cases of student discipline, for example, but we asked the principal and the faculty to take them off our hands. Seniors, of course, have much more authority than first-year students. The principal tells us that he will give us authority as fast as we prove that we can be responsible, up to the limit which the law allows."

A parent gives his impression of this arrangement:

"One of the best things our school does is to teach democracy in a realistic setting. Those children know what authority they have and what responsibilities go with that authority. They know what authority they can't have and why. They discover that you can't have any authority for long unless you assume corresponding responsibilities. If we adults were more careful in such matters, we would have more efficient government."

This school also yields its quota of questions faced by every democratic group wanting to get its job done efficiently.

How can the democratic group make most efficient use of its personnel in doing the work to be done? Particularly, how can it insure competence and responsibility on the part of those in positions of authority?

Do all members of a democratic group have the full right to take part in executing policies, as well as in determining policies?

Is the school limited in its action as a democratic society by the fact that the ultimate source of authority is outside the school and that its officers are responsible to a public body other than the personnel of the school? If such a limitation exists, is it necessary?

*Democratic Efficiency Is
the Common Goal of All*

Let us look back for a moment at the six patterns of school democracy which we have used as illustrative cases.

There was first the "master-mind" school with democratic purposes which it attempted to carry out through autocratic procedures. It was not trying to be dictatorial, however. It was merely trying to get a democratic task done efficiently.

Next there was the "busy-work" school, negligent of purposes but humming with its multitude of activities. In spite of surface appearances, this school was not having children go through democratic motions merely for the sake of the motions. It believed its activities were giving students mastery of the skills of democratic living. It was trying to educate for more efficient democracy, too.

Then there was the "freedom-by-formula" school with its emphasis on procedures to be followed in group planning. This school, too, might be accused at first glance of going through motions for their own sake. Actually, however, it recognized the importance of the policy-making function in democracy, and was seeking to give its students experience in an efficient method of group planning.

The fourth illustration presented the "do-as-you-please" school with its aversion to uniformity and prescription. In spite of appearances to the contrary, this school was also endeavoring to be efficient in attaining the central purpose of democracy. It believed that the welfare of the indi-

vidual was the objective of all democratic living, and in its eagerness to keep close to that objective it refrained from using devices and rules which might hamper any individual's development. It was attempting to protect the heart of democracy.

In the fifth case, the "get-jobs-done" school centered its attention on efficient achievement of socially useful work. It encouraged everyone to take part in planning this work, for it believed that plans produced through the cooperation of many minds are sounder than those produced by one. It sought to rest leadership on competence to do the job, and hence changed leaders as often as necessary to assure the best work on each job. It kept its machinery subordinate to its purposes, but it did not neglect machinery. Instead, it was constantly looking over its machinery, to make certain that it was using the tools suited to the current job.

Finally, there was the "liberty-within-limits" school with its careful delegation of authorities to administration, teachers, and students in accordance with the powers each was prepared and allowed to exercise. Here, also, the ultimate goal was democratic efficiency.

From this review, and from the actual observations of the ninety schools visited in this study, two conclusions emerge. First, the administrators, teachers, students, and citizens in each case wanted sincerely to make democracy work and believed that education was a powerful instrument for that purpose. Varied as were their efforts to achieve that goal, they were all agreed in the desire to increase democratic efficiency.

Purpose, Procedure, and Personnel Are Common Problems

Second, in every school three questions had to be answered, and the fundamental differences between the

schools are found in their answers to these questions:

1. What is to be done? This is the problem of *purpose*.
2. How is it to be done? This is the problem of *procedure*.
3. Who is to do it? This is the problem of *personnel*.

Purpose, procedure, and personnel—these are the three problems which must be mastered before one can proceed far on the road to democratic efficiency.

Democracy, When Fully Understood, Is More Efficient Than Autocracy

But, someone may object, is not the very term "democratic efficiency" a paradox? Can a democratic school become highly efficient without yielding some of its democratic practices? And how is it possible for an efficient school to become more democratic, except at the cost of inefficiency? Such objections spring from the assumption that democracy must move more slowly than autocracy, that democracy must fumble in every crisis, and that inefficiency is the price which must be paid for democratic freedom.

This assumption is challenged. On the contrary, it is here maintained that when the members of a democratic society fully understand the nature of democracy and when they are skilled in the practice of its ways, then a democracy is more efficient than an autocracy in performing any task not inconsistent with democracy itself.

The last clause is not added to evade the issue. It simply takes account of the fact that there are some things which a democracy cannot do and still be a democracy; for example, it cannot forcibly stifle all criticism on the part of minority groups in order to create a seeming unity of public opinion. In the performance of such peculiarly autocratic acts, democracy is not even a competitor. In all

other matters, it is here affirmed, democracy can be more efficient than autocracy. The inefficiency of some democratic groups is due, not to an excess of democracy, but to poor understanding of what democracy is and lack of skill in making it work.

Efficiency is a matter of getting a job done as well and with as little effort as possible. To estimate the degree of efficiency in any instance we must know what the job is designed to accomplish, what methods and tools are required, and what human resources are needed. When we look at the workings of autocratic and democratic systems of living with these three points of purpose, procedure, and personnel in mind, we see that not only can democracy be just as efficient as autocracy but that it will be *more* efficient if it utilizes the true advantages inherent in democratic action.

In a democracy, the primary purpose of all action is the welfare of each individual. In an autocracy, on the other hand, whether it be directed by the administrator of a school or the head of a nation, individual welfare must be made secondary if the autocracy is to exist. The presence of a dictator always means that the dictator or something he represents is more important than the combined values of the members of the group. But efficient group action is possible only when the members of the group can find their own welfare represented in the group's purposes. Thus the dictatorship is forever handicapped in any attempt to be truly efficient.

Let us pursue this thought further. In a true autocracy the welfare of individual members of the group is always subordinated to something which is held to have greater worth than the men, women, and children in the group. Thus millions of people of the unfortunate minorities in a totalitarian state may be required to suffer hunger, degradation, and diseased minds and bodies, in order "to

carry out the manifest destiny of our great empire," "to obey the will of our glorious leader," "to protect the purity of our superior race," or "to extend the principles for which our nation stands." Thus, too, children in an autocratic school may be subjected to mental starvation and spiritual violence in order "to be loyal to the traditions of the founders," "to meet the usual requirements for college entrance," "to attain proper standards of scholarship," or "to give the mental discipline for which the school has always been famous."

Whenever a person, a policy, a set of traditions, a pattern of loyalty to a chief or a symbol, however admirable each may appear to be in its intent, is allowed to take precedence over the welfare of the individuals in a group, democracy in that group becomes a sham and a delusion. No dressing up of the sacred entity in halos of required reverence can ever be a satisfactory substitute for the simple, unadorned sum of the worth of all the members of the group.

There is a good reason why an autocracy must always have a person, policy, or other entity that is considered of greater worth than the combined worth of the people in the group. Such a device makes it possible to lead into group action those people who have not yet comprehended the purpose of public welfare in terms of individuals. It is difficult for ignorant people to grasp the concept of working for all their fellows, but they can respond to a slogan or a "glorious leader" or the "traditions of this distinguished school." Such persons give ready allegiance to autocracy, because at first sight autocracy seems simple enough for them to operate. But they are doomed to ultimate inefficiency in group action, because the entity to which they are loyal, remote as it is from the welfare of the rank and file, will not long inspire men to zealous effort on its behalf.

The yearning for autocracy often expressed by nominal followers of democracy is merely an indication of inability to understand the sweeping democratic purpose. The myth of autocratic efficiency comes from the same source. The notion that men carry on their group affairs with a minimum of effort and a maximum of effect under the whip-lash of an all-knowing dictator is one which is, of course, tenderly nurtured by autocrats as being essential to their continued existence. It is to the advantage of autocrats to see that the real facts of human association are not presented to the people, for these facts inevitably undermine the myth which sustains the dictators.

*Democracy May Excel in Constructing
and Revising Purposes*

The problem of purpose is never satisfactorily solved in an autocratic environment. As a matter of fact, autocratic administration is woefully inefficient in matters of policy-making, for it cuts the administrator off from his chief source of progress, namely, the intelligence and resourcefulness of his fellow workers. The administrator who is a dictator only here and there will find that the policy-making function in his organization breaks down here and there. The more he becomes a dictator and the longer he holds an autocratic position, the more inefficient his policy-making becomes. An autocratic administrator gets the best advice on policies he will ever get at the time he first takes office. From that point forward the quality of counsel he can command from his associates is destined to a steady deterioration. The subordinate who at first is bold enough to offer opinions and recommendations soon becomes one who presents only facts. No matter how closely his mental processes parallel those of the leader, occasions inevitably arise when his suggestions vary from what the

leader thinks to be correct. If they vary too much, this variation is viewed as evidence that the counselor is incompetent. Whether he is liquidated, demoted, or merely ignored is immaterial. The important point is that he is forced out of the counseling picture as a maker of proposals, a suggester of policies.

Some of the dictator's original suggestion-givers become fact-presenters. This job, too, is bound to degenerate. The fact-presenter becomes more and more a selector of facts which the boss will consider significant. Thus he moves closer and closer to the precipice over which he must eventually fall into the abyss of the yes-men, who make up facts to order. In a real dictatorship, moreover, even this submissive falsifier has not yet reached the depths of policy-making inefficiency. There remains at the lowest circle of the Inferno a place reserved for the only one whose counsels a thoroughgoing dictator can accept year after year—the head-nodder—and even this doomed soul is forced to step up the energy of his nods until he is obviously an automaton which any self-respecting autocrat must despise.

Complete autocracy, to be sure, like complete democracy, is possible only in theory. In practice every dictatorship has some popular intelligence brought to bear on its problems of policy-making. With every change of administration, if at no other time, the judgment of the rank and file is necessarily given some weight. But the device of revolution furnishes the chief source of new and vital policies for a dictatorship, for it is only through revolution that the members of the group are able to register their opinions frankly and forcefully.

A democracy, on the other hand, needs no periodic revolution, because the revitalization of purposes and reorientation of policies are carried on peacefully every day by a free people. The greatest of all inventions was not fire-

making or the construction and use of the wheel, but that form of human association which makes revolution unnecessary, through free discussion, untrammelled expression of the popular will, and effective carrying out of group-made policies.

Procedures of Democracy Can Be More Efficient

The problem of procedure, like that of purpose, can be met more adequately by democracy than by autocracy. There are three main reasons, or perhaps three phases of one main reason, why inefficiency of procedure is bound to occur in an autocracy. All three of these reasons are inseparably related to the problem of purpose, because every efficient procedure is derived from the purpose to be served.

In the first place, no agency, mechanical or human, remains efficient very long unless it is subjected to continuous evaluation. When only the man at the top dares to criticize the administration, the quality of the criticism necessarily remains low. The head of an autocratic administration always has too much work to do and cannot give the time and effort required for searching examination of the procedures.

In the second place, an autocracy is inefficient because it throttles inventiveness. Every improved procedure is likely to affect policies. In an organization where the policy-making function is a prerogative of the leader, it is therefore dangerous for a member of the group to invent new procedures.

A third source of inefficiency in autocratic procedure is the fatal degeneracy of management represented by the glorification of procedure for its own sake—commonly known as "red tape." The man who is appointed to carry out procedures of any kind in an autocracy is condemned to work with fixed formulas. The procedure constitutes

his job. The leader rates him on the basis of loyalty to that job and regards coldly any tendency on his part to question the purposes the job serves. Thus, to be safe, the worker under an autocratic regime must love the procedure for its own sake and leave consideration of its goals to the boss.

The democratic organization, by contrast, offers an immediate means of attack on these sources of inefficiency. It provides for comprehensive and detailed criticism of procedures by the men who work at the job of operating those procedures as well as by those who can look at them from the vantage point of general administration. It stimulates inventiveness by encouraging every member to devise new and better ways of achieving the purposes of the group. It offers a means of protection against red tape, by giving every worker a citizen's voice in policy-making, and by helping him to understand the place of his own procedure in furthering the policies of the group.

*Better Use of Personnel Is
Possible in a Democracy*

The problem of personnel, which is the problem of utilizing effectively all the human resources of the group, is also one that autocracy by its very nature is predestined to fumble. It is an indispensable condition for the efficient carrying out of any job that the man who works on it shall make full use of his intelligence and shall have maximum freedom to use his strength and skill when and where they are most needed. At this very point autocracy falls down completely. It fails because it has to limit the individual's freedom mechanically. It must substitute the uniform responses of docile followers for the combined strength and resourcefulness of free men, automatic obedience for true skill, and blind allegiance for intelligent loyalty.

The aim of autocratic management is to weld individuals into a machine-like structure which will move at the orders of the boss like a real machine controlled by a single lever. Thus autocracy ignores the distinctive human capacity to do jobs which machines cannot do, and particularly the capacity to make free, intelligent, unbiased decisions. The maximum of group efficiency is attained only when every member exercises this capacity to its utmost.

The supreme respect for the individual which has always been the essential element in the democratic spirit is also the chief condition of democratic efficiency. The old notions of equality and brotherhood may be as dignified in their idealism as the Declaration of Independence and the Gettysburg Address, but at the same time they are as direct and practical in application as the organization chart of the most skilful and modern industrial engineer.

It follows that the first condition for the efficient use of personnel in any group is to liberate, develop, and use the intelligence of every member of the group. In other words, education is essential for efficiency. But lest we be confused by a word, let it be pointed out that autocracies also practice education suited to their aims, and that what we speak of here is education appropriate to the purposes of democracy. Such education involves careful study of each individual's potentialities, complete development of his abilities, and provision for free communication of ideas between him and his fellows. These are jobs which autocracy cannot undertake without jeopardizing its security. The history of human association is crowded with instances of autocracies undertaking these tasks, grudgingly and in a limited fashion, only to find that the very foundations of their existence were undermined by the resultant development of intelligent freedom in their people. The same history also displays cases of would-be democracies that

have failed abysmally because of hesitance and ineptitude in carrying out this function.

Democracy by no means dispenses with the specialized knowledge and technical competence of the expert. In fact, a democracy's use of expert services is more likely to result in increased efficiency than is the use made by the autocrat. Under a dictator, whether he be the ruler of a nation or the principal of a school, the expert must play one of two roles. Either he is merely a tool of the dictator, employed to carry the ruler's policies unquestioningly into practice; or else he is himself a petty dictator, determining both purposes and procedures in the restricted area assigned to him by higher authority.

In a democracy, on the other hand, the expert is responsible in the long run to the entire society which he serves. The people, either directly or through their representatives, decide when the expert is needed and what his duties are to be. If the people call upon the expert to lead them in policy-making, it is to the people that he supplies the information which is the product of his experience and research, as data which the people may employ in choosing their purposes more intelligently. If the people ask that he serve as administrator or executive in fields requiring special competence, his acts are subject to review in the court of public opinion, to be judged by their consistency with the policies which the people have approved. A democracy can thus avail itself fully of all the knowledge and skill which the expert can place at its disposal, yet protect itself against the costly consequences of fallible one-man-judgments in matters of policy and purpose.

Such utilization of the expert depends upon clear understanding by all the people of the expert's functions and of his qualifications. This, in turn, requires education in the choice and use of experts, for the rank and file of the citizenry. To the extent that this popular understanding is

lacking, a democracy unnecessarily reduces its efficiency; given such understanding, the democracy can get jobs done more effectively and quickly than any autocracy can hope to do. A democratic administrator, better than any dictator, can be efficient when he is serving an informed public. A technical specialist serving a democracy has opportunity to be more truly expert than one subservient to a despot, when the people know how to make use of his knowledge and abilities. The plea of *necessary* inefficiency in a democracy is often merely the rationalization of half-baked experts, fumbling administrators, and shiftless public servants whose security in their jobs is best guaranteed by an uninspired, misinformed, and ignorant citizenry.

The Road to Democratic Efficiency Can Now Be Mapped

With the discussion of purpose, procedure, and personnel in mind, let us now consider the questions which were raised earlier in the chapter in connection with the illustrative schools. These questions may be conveniently grouped under seven headings.

1. To the question whether democratic action is compatible with group efficiency, the reply has been made that democracy is not only compatible with efficiency but is the only type of human association in which highest efficiency is possible.

2. Four questions concern the relations between purposes and procedures:

- a. Can democratic ends be attained in an autocratic manner?
- b. Are there useful habits of democratic procedure which can be learned apart from democratic purposes?
- c. Is it possible to learn the skills of democratic planning and policy-making in situations in which the group

must reach decisions within limits set by some outside authority?

- d. How can we distinguish true policy-making from pseudo policy-making, when procedures are apparently identical?

To the first three questions the reply is an emphatic negative. Efficient procedures must be consistent with the purposes which they are intended to serve. Democratic purposes are not achieved by dictatorial methods, nor are autocratic aims furthered by democratic means. The methods of democratic planning are not learned in situations where the outcomes are arbitrarily determined in advance. Nor can other useful skills of democratic action be learned in groups whose purposes rest upon arbitrary external authority. To be sure, much that passes for democratic education is of this hybrid type. Such practices create the illusion that children are being prepared for democratic citizenship, whereas they are merely learning how to be busy in doing things which someone else has decided they ought to do. To the fourth question the answer is that in true policy-making the actual purposes of the group are changed by the process, whereas in pseudo policy-making purposes remain fixed by outside authority while the group does busy work because it looks democratic.

3. Closely related are four questions regarding participation in democratic groups:

- a. Can a school be an effective teacher of democracy if the students do not share in determining the kinds of activities in which they will take part and the purposes which these activities are to serve?
- b. To what extent must the members of a democratic school community have a direct voice in determining the nature and instruments of the school's purposes?
- c. Do all members of a democratic group have the full right to take part in executing policies, as well as in determining them?

- d. Are the amount and distribution of participation in group activities reliable indicators of the presence of democratic spirit?

Every member of a democratic group must be guaranteed the opportunity to have a direct voice in determining the group's purposes. This opportunity should be limited only by the individual's willingness to make use of it and by such practical rules as the group may itself adopt to permit progress from deliberation to action. But even after action has been taken, and the decision of the majority has been registered, a democracy protects the rights of any minority to argue peaceably for the adoption of its purposes.

In the school, two additional limitations must be recognized. One is that not all policies can be determined by the personnel of the school, because of legal requirements. Of this, more will be said later.¹ The other is that the ways of democracy must be learned, and therefore the ability of a child to take part in democratic processes is conditioned by his maturity and his previous experiences.

A school, therefore, can be an effective teacher of democracy only to the extent that it recognizes for each member of the school community his right, within the limits fixed by the nature of legal requirements and by the maturity of students, to share in determining school purposes.

The case is different when we consider participation in the execution of policies. To take part in policy formulation is a right which belongs to every member of a democratic group by virtue of his membership in the group. To take part in policy execution is a right which must be merited on the basis of competence, demonstrated to the satisfaction of the group. A vast amount of time and effort

¹ See pages 33-34.

is wasted because of failure to grasp this distinction. One sees large committees appointed to do executive tasks because "it gives everyone a chance to take part." One sees groups of five, ten, sometimes twenty people working sedulously on petty problems of procedure which one competent person could handle as well in far less time. It is at just such sorry performances that the champions of autocratic practices point the finger of scorn and say, "*There is an example of your vaunted democratic efficiency.*"

This wasteful activity is not essential to democracy. What is essential to democracy, we repeat, is that all the people have a chance to take part in deciding on purposes, that the procedures for accomplishing these purposes be consistent with the purposes, and that both policies and procedures be subject to periodic evaluation by the people. Given these conditions, any democratic group will do well to place responsibility for the execution of policies in the hands of those who have best shown their fitness for this task.

It must be remembered, however, that the school is primarily a place for learning, rather than for demonstrating finished performance. This is as true of the skills of executive action as of the skills of language, numbers, and music. There may be inborn executive capacities, but the particular skills needed in a democratic society must be learned, from the rudiments upward, through years of guided experience.

During the earlier years of school, responsibilities should be passed around until each child has had a fair opportunity to try out and develop his capacities for executive work. During the later years, the school should be concerned with developing the abilities of those who have superior executive talents, and with fostering in all a respect for competence as the first qualification for holding office. In these later years, therefore, the school will maintain progressively

higher requirements of fitness to hold all responsible positions.

The amount and distribution of participation in activities is accordingly no reliable indicator of democracy. The reliability depends upon the character of the activities. If people are active in deciding where they want to go, or in learning to use the most efficient methods for getting there, their activity is evidence of democracy. But if they are ever so active in going they know not where, or in doing what someone else has told them to do, their activity proves nothing more than that they are busy.

4. Three questions relate to the use of personnel:

- a. How can the democratic group make most efficient use of its personnel in doing the work to be done?
- b. How can it assure competence and responsibility on the part of those in positions of authority?
- c. How can it best use the expert?

The requirements for the efficient use of personnel, including the expert, have been discussed above² and may now be summarized. A democratic group, in order to use its personnel efficiently, must have a clearly defined policy to guide its actions. A school or a nation must know what it wants to do before it can select people to do it. Next, it must know exactly what jobs have to be done in order to carry out this policy, and the qualifications of the persons needed for each job.

It must then select the most competent persons available for each position, pressing beyond superficial qualifications to those which indicate particular fitness for the job in question. The cause of democracy is poorly served when unqualified people are appointed to responsible positions because they have been faithful to the party, or when

² See pages 23-26.

irresponsible persons are chosen for important offices because they are likeable or good looking.

Having chosen competent people, the group must give them authority commensurate with their responsibility and encourage them to exercise resourcefulness and ingenuity. At this point, as we have seen earlier, a democracy has the greatest advantage over other types of society, for it alone can make full use of the intelligence and initiative of its personnel.

Finally, the democratic group must hold its agents accountable for carrying out its policies and for efficiency of performance. To this end, it requires frequent reports of accomplishment, which are subjected to rigorous review and criticism. Suggestions as to changes in policy are welcomed from those responsible for carrying policy into effect; but the policy-changing as well as the policy-making authority remains with the group.

If incompetence or inefficiency on the part of any agent becomes evident, the group must remove him from office. No person, however meritorious his past record may be, has the right to continue to hold a responsible position when he ceases to contribute to the welfare of the society which he serves.

5. Another group of inquiries concerned freedom and its relation to efficiency:

- a. What is democratic freedom, especially in the interdependent world in which we live today?
- b. What is its relation to the task of getting a job done efficiently by a group? Is individual freedom consistent with efficiency in group action? Or, conversely, is efficient group action possible without individual freedom?

A proper kind of individual freedom is always consistent with and necessary to efficiency in group action. The tendency in many would-be democratic groups to lump all varieties of freedom into one category and to resist any

attempt to classify them according to their social values is a chief source of inefficiency in these groups. Frequently one hears the statement that individual freedom and social security are antithetical terms, that when you eat more bread of one you necessarily have less cake of the other, and that increased welfare of the group must always be purchased at the price of desirable freedom for its individual members. On this assumption, the most confusedly-jostling, simply-responding mass of amoebae, a welter of rugged one-celled individualists, would be a summit of desirable activity. Actually, however, the amount of good freedom possible for the individual increases as we go upward in the organic scale, as freedom becomes more and more enlightened by intelligence.

Democracy is based on intelligent liberty—a liberty informed and inspired in the sense that it has clear-cut goals and the motivation and techniques to achieve them. Such liberty is expressed in purposeful and skilled action for the common good. Its boundaries are set only by aimlessness, ineptitude, and ill will; they are extended by every widening of popular understanding.

Failure to grasp this concept of liberty gives rise to thoughtless mourning for liberties that are better dead, for liberties that must die if higher liberties are to live. To disarm a murderous gunman is obviously not to encroach upon his proper liberty. In an intelligent society his liberty to kill must give way before his neighbor's liberty to live. To protect a moron from the dangers to which his limited intellect exposes him is not so much to restrict his freedom as to enlarge it. To prevent a motorist from driving while drunk is not to take from him any truly democratic right. To require a high-school student to study his native language is not to restrict his intelligent action. To keep a drug manufacturer from advertising as good for babies certain nose drops which are in fact likely

to give babies pneumonia is not to sacrifice one iota of his proper liberty.

It is the business of the school for efficient democracy to develop a scale of social values for the understanding and evaluation of individual liberty, to give practice in applying those values, and to lead learners from the lower to the higher freedom. Only so can it promote the ordered, intelligent action which democratic efficiency demands. Efficient group action requires intelligent freedom for the individual, restricts his unenlightened freedom, and guarantees that he shall have ample opportunity for personal growth and satisfaction in working for the good of his fellows.

6. Is the school limited in its action as a democratic society by the fact that the ultimate source of authority is outside the school and that its officers are responsible to a public body other than the personnel of the school? If such a limitation exists, is it necessary?

It is true, of course, that the ultimate source of authority for school policies is outside the school itself, namely, in the public which maintains and supports the schools. But it is a denial of faith in both education and democracy to conclude that this imposes a *necessary* limitation upon the school as an agency for democratic education.

The school can go at least as far as the public wants it to go in educating youth for democratic citizenship. If the public attitude restricts the school in performing this function, the solution is to be sought, not in passive resignation to these restrictions as if they were forever fixed, but in carrying the case to the public on an educational basis. Let the school and the public together engage in a democratic process of policy-making for education. Let the citizens examine the status of democracy in the United States and in the world today. Let them define the needs of the nation and of their own community for a citizenry informed as to the meaning of democracy and skilled in

its practice. Let them determine whether they will charge the school with responsibility for preparing youth for the full exercise of democratic citizenship, or whether they prefer a type of education which uses the patterns of autocracy. If they choose the former, let them delegate authority to administrators and teachers to conduct the school as a laboratory of democratic living and an agency of free inquiry into the nature of democracy.

7. Can we affirm that education for democracy is satisfactorily achieved when students have experiences of democratic living?

The role of intelligence in democracy has been stressed throughout this discussion. By the use of intelligence, man is able to reflect on the meaning of his experiences, identify common factors in them, formulate hypotheses for further testing in experience, and eventually state principles which can be applied to similar situations extending far beyond actual experience. By such use of intelligence, most of the advances in the physical and social sciences have been accomplished. To assert that experience in democratic living is the whole of education for democracy is to deny to ourselves the greatest contribution which intelligence can make. Experience is essential, of course. Training in the mere verbalisms of democratic vocabulary is no education at all. But the value of experience is greatly enhanced when it is accompanied by intelligent thinking.

Experiences in democratic living should therefore lead on to inquiry into the distinctive characteristics of such experiences, to reflection on the meaning of democracy, and to the application of democratic principles to situations which are as yet beyond the range of direct experience for the student. The methods by which some schools are undertaking to accomplish this will be reported in the next chapter.

The Hallmarks of Democratic Education Can Be Identified

This chapter set out to provide answers to two questions: What is the democratic spirit? And, what are the evidences that the democratic spirit is at work in education? The entire chapter has been concerned with these questions, but it may be helpful now to summarize the thought of the chapter in the form of a statement of the hallmarks of democratic education.

1. *Democratic education has as its central purpose the welfare of all the people.*

This purpose of general welfare takes precedence over every claim to special privilege, regardless of the source or character of such claims.

While the concern of democratic education with general welfare rightly commences with the welfare of pupils, it does not end there. Democratic education seeks to broaden the understandings and sympathies of pupils, so that they become responsibly concerned for the welfare of people outside their own face-to-face groups, and particularly for people less fortunate than themselves or less able to act in their own behalf. Democratic education also deals directly with matters of community and national welfare in programs for both children and adults.

2. *Democratic education serves each individual with justice, seeking to provide equal educational opportunity for all, regardless of intelligence, race, religion, social status, economic condition, or vocational plans.*

Each person, by virtue of his membership in the democratic community, is entitled to learn the things best suited to his particular needs, to share in determining the purposes of education, to exercise the leadership of which he is capable, and to take part freely in the social life of the school.

3. *Democratic education respects the basic civil liberties in practice and clarifies their meaning through study.*

Chief among these liberties are the right to have access to reliable information, the right to form one's own opinions and to express them freely through discussion, publication, and the ballot, the right to seek to persuade others, the rights of peaceable assembly, petition, and freedom in religion, and the right to impartial justice in accusation, trial, and judgment. The enjoyment of these liberties is the right of every American citizen. Hence, whatever may be the child's legal status of dependency, these are morally the child's rights also. The school for democratic citizenship will show proper regard for these liberties in every relation with the child.

4. *Democratic education is concerned for the maintenance of those economic, political, and social conditions which are necessary for the enjoyment of liberty.*

To speak of liberties without reference to the economic necessities of life, to speak of democracy without reference to political institutions, is, as Charles A. Beard has said, "to speak of shadows without substance." Democratic schools accordingly should devote much time to the study of such matters as the history and operation of our political institutions; the rise and structure of our economic system; the political and economic systems which are competing with democracy on the world scene; distribution of employment, goods, and services; health, housing, and social insurance; and any other conditions which affect the ability of American citizens to enjoy "the blessings of liberty."

5. *Democratic education guarantees to all the members of its community the right to share in determining the purposes and policies of education.*

This right is extended to children as well as adults, but is limited to suit the maturity and experience of pupils. Since

one aim of democratic education is to develop capacity to take part efficiently in group policy-making, the pupils' share increases with their ability.

6. *Democratic education uses democratic methods, in class-room, administration, and student activities.*

It also recognizes the need for developing skill in the use of democratic methods, and provides opportunity for widespread practice with such tools of democracy as the ballot, representative government, public discussion, the press, and group action.

7. *Democratic education makes efficient use of personnel, teaching respect for competence in positions of responsibility.*

It gives pupils wide experience in the selection of leaders on the basis of their qualifications for the jobs to be done, and in the use of leaders after they have been chosen. It seeks to discover the particular abilities of each child, and to utilize these talents in the service of the group. It esteems the knowledge and skill of the expert and makes full use of his services, yet does not permit him to supplant the group as the source of final authority.

8. *Democratic education teaches through experience that every privilege entails a corresponding duty, every authority a responsibility, every responsibility an accounting to the group which granted the privilege or authority.*

This is the lesson of democratic discipline, the learning of which is a long and difficult process that cannot begin too early. Failure to teach this lesson will invite the imposition of autocratic discipline in every time of crisis, with a consequent weakening of democracy.

9. *Democratic education demonstrates that far-reaching changes, of both policies and procedures, can be carried out in orderly and peaceful fashion, when the decisions to make the changes have been reached by democratic means.*

Democratic education is of all types most responsive and adaptive to change. Frequent review and evaluation of policies, freedom of speech and press, and majority decisions accompanied by protection of the rights of minorities make violent change unnecessary and orderly change practicable.

10. *Democratic education liberates and uses the intelligence of all.*

It encourages free inquiry and inventiveness as indispensable means to social progress. It promotes a deep and abiding faith in the potential wisdom and good will of the masses of the people. It devotes itself unremittingly to the task of evoking these latent powers among all classes and conditions of men.

11. *Democratic education equips citizens with the materials of knowledge needed for democratic efficiency.*

Individual and social progress depend upon the intelligent use by each new generation of the intellectual heritage of the past. That heritage, however, is too vast to be transmitted in whole. Choices must be made, and choices should be guided by clear principles. Out of the store of knowledge, and especially from the natural and social sciences, democratic education selects that information most needed for efficient democratic life today, and makes this available to young and old alike.

12. *Democratic education promotes loyalty to democracy by stressing positive understanding and appreciation and by summoning youth to service in a great cause.*

Democratic education seeks to give young people clear understanding of the meaning of American democracy, deep appreciation of the struggles and costs by which it has been achieved, satisfying experience in democratic living, and full awareness of the forces against which democracy must contend today. It eschews appeals for blind and thoughtless allegiance as a means of winning devotion. Rather, it seeks to build a deep and lasting loyalty to democracy by holding before youth the challenging vision of an unfinished task—the building in these United States of a society “with liberty and justice for all.”

*To Education Falls the Task of
Making the Democratic Spirit Prevail*

These are the marks of the democratic spirit in education. This spirit is as old as man's first concern for the well-being of his fellow-man. It is born anew each time a group takes as its first goal the welfare of each of its members. It does not originate in a political system or a social-status pattern. It does not emerge from a ballot box or a bill of rights. It does not first see the light of day in congresses or courts of law. It does not spring full-panoplied from the folds of a revolutionary banner. It comes instead from the hearts of those millions of men who are willing to suffer something of inconvenience and weariness, hunger and pain, that the burden of the other fellow's inconvenience or weariness, hunger or pain, may be lightened. If it be said that this is merely the Golden Rule in simple, straightforward action, the follower of democracy will not quarrel with that interpretation.

In the schools as elsewhere, democracy is no easy path.

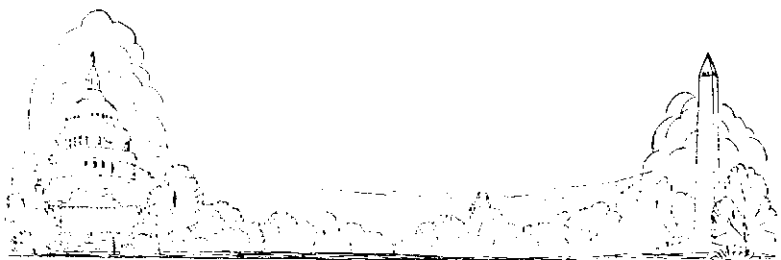
It is a hard road and one which some members of the group may wish to reject in favor of the smooth, straight tunnel of autocracy where no man has worth in himself, where education is a process of learning to obey orders automatically, and where motivation is a simple matter of dodging a club and moving in the direction indicated by a whiplash. The man who scorns to enter that tunnel, the man who is not easily frightened by difficult and dangerous jobs, has his way clear before him. He must feel with and for all his fellows, try to understand them, work to inform and inspire them, and seek to be informed and inspired by them.

The problem of making the democratic spirit prevail in these dark days of hostility and uncertainty falls chiefly to education. The reformer may cry that it is a social problem, the financier may hold that it is an economic problem, the politician may claim that it is a problem of statecraft, and the escapist may fold his hands and murmur resignedly that it is a problem which can be solved only by the inexorable march of destiny. But the basic problem, underneath its social, economic, political masks is forever and always, simply and completely, the problem of modifying human behavior by the method of education. A would-be democracy which fails in time to grasp this principle and to act upon it intelligently and decisively is doomed. Its back is against the wall, the bandage of self-imposed ignorance is over its eyes, and the fingers of invited autocracy are tightened on the triggers of the firing squad.



CHAPTER II

The Course of Study



WE DO NOT NEED to study democracy," argued one school administrator. "All we need to do to make good citizens is to let pupils live democracy in the schools."

"This so-called democracy in school life is a waste of effort," reasoned another. "The task of patriotic education is to teach the fundamental principles and convictions upon which this nation was founded and which are the heart of democracy."

Good Education Is Compounded of Action and Thought

The difficulty with both these arguments is that each takes half the picture for the whole. One cannot live democracy adequately without also thinking about it. One cannot think soundly about democracy without drawing the materials of thought from his experience. Thought and action fortify one another. A school program which emphasizes democratic living for its students is essential, but so also is a program which requires students to be thoughtfully conscious of their experience and able to generalize from it. Separated from thought, participation in supposedly democratic activities deteriorates into meaningless "busy-work." Divorced from action, the study of the concepts of democracy degenerates into exercises with empty words.

A Common Basis for Civic Thought and Action Is Required

As one surveys the American scene, he is impressed by the complexity of the demands which our society makes upon its members. Seldom if ever before in the history of the world have the rank and file of a nation's citizens been called upon to pass judgment on as difficult and intricate

social problems as those which confront the American people today. The American democracy requires citizens who, in their formative years, have acquired a common body of facts, understandings, loyalties, and skills. A haphazard educational program, or one based solely on the personal preferences of students, is not adequate. There must be a common basis for the thoughtful civic action of citizens, and the schools should help to provide it. This chapter deals with the groundwork of American democracy as it is presented in the schools' courses of study.

*The Course of Study Helps
To Provide the Basis for Citizenship*

The curriculum may be defined as the total set of experiences provided by the school for students in order that they may learn. In that sense this entire report deals with the curriculum of civic education. The course of study is only a plan or guide in developing the curriculum. It is, in effect, a schedule of the areas of human affairs within which students are to have educative experience. The course of study may be said to chart a channel through which the living stream of the curriculum flows. The following pages will report certain beacon lights in that channel, marking areas which seem especially important for our young citizens to explore.

*Promising Practices Have Been Selected
from Many Courses of Study*

It is true, of course, that everything in schools which contributes to the growth of students is important to education for democracy. The higher the level of general education the better are the chances for the progress of democracy. However, a survey of the full course of study has not

been practicable in the time available for this study. Even such important school services as the programs of health improvement and vocational training have therefore been excluded from direct consideration. A few selected areas of education for democracy will be discussed, the choice of which has grown pragmatically out of the work of the schools observed. In each of these schools, the question was asked: "What course-of-study materials have you developed or are you developing which seem to you to have unusual significance for citizenship in a democracy?" Out of the wealth of "leads" revealed by the answers to this question, the materials of this chapter were selected.

No complete course of study for civic education in the secondary school will be described or recommended. The inclusive pattern of the course of study is determined by a variety of factors, many of which are peculiar to a given institution, and it would be folly to recommend a single program for all schools. This chapter will deal with critical centers of emphasis in the course of study, with elements of the total program which seem to be especially promising for further development and experimentation. These elements have been selected from the different grade levels of the secondary school and from a wide variety of school situations. Although emphasis naturally falls upon the social studies, the materials come from a variety of subject fields; for the social studies and civic education are not coterminous. While most schools may well experiment with the use of such materials as are here suggested, the materials cannot be combined mechanically to make a full program of civic education.

The promising practices observed in courses of study, and chosen for description or reference in this report, are grouped under six headings: (1) the meaning of democracy, (2) the civil liberties, (3) the dignity and worth of

the individual, (4) economic trends and problems, (5) social welfare, and (6) political institutions and processes.

1. THE MEANING OF DEMOCRACY

The perpetuation and growth of a democratic society require understanding on the part of its citizens of the tenets and ideals to which they are loyal—an understanding which does not confuse means with ends, mechanisms with goals, or symbols with substance. Citizenship has in it a strong emotional quality of loyalty; but loyalty *to what?* Democracy ought not to be and need not be a vague and nebulous matter. Its basic principles should be made definite and a strong program of civic education should set them forth in the clearest possible light. The competitors of democracy, by every means at their command, inculcate in youth their distinctive loyalties and creeds.¹ Although its methods must be different, our democracy must be no less diligent in presenting to the youth of America the meaning and the values of the democratic way of life.

Students Tell What Democracy Means to Them

"America's Town Meeting of the Air" recently conducted a contest in which six thousand high-school students submitted essays on "What Is Democracy?" That so large a number of students attempted to answer the question and that the winning essays were of high quality are encouraging signs. But beyond this six thousand is a vast body of young people whose ideas about democracy are but dimly known. In order to discover what some of these "run-of-

¹ National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938. p. 13-16.

the-mine" students are thinking, a study was made of the views of a sampling of the youth in schools included in this inquiry. Two thousand and six high-school students from 68 different classes of Grades VII through XII in 40 schools were asked to write brief statements of what the term "democracy" means to them. The students were selected at random. They were given only a few minutes to write their answers. Replies were anonymous, so that they might be frank. Papers were collected on the spot to avoid possibilities of consultation or coaching. The classification of responses provides food for thought.

CLASSIFICATION OF STATEMENTS OF 2006 STUDENTS
REGARDING THE MEANING OF DEMOCRACY

	<i>Percent</i>
1. Definitions of democracy in terms of rights and privileges only	63
2. Definitions of democracy in terms of responsibilities as well as rights and privileges	27
3. Quotations of memorized statements	3
4. Confused thinking or erroneous ideas	2
5. Statements too vague for classification	3
6. No answer	2
	100

Nine out of ten students had reasonably definite ideas about democracy and were able to express them on short notice. Ten percent were vague, confused, or unable to respond, or took refuge in memorizations. So far the results are encouraging. However, of the 90 percent who gave intelligible definitions, over two-thirds defined democracy solely in terms of rights and liberties without reference to the responsibilities entailed. Fewer than one-third gave evidence of awareness that in a democracy citizens have obligations as well as privileges. This condition calls for prompt attention, for personal liberties will not long endure without widespread assumption of civic responsibility. "It is the common fate of the indolent," said an Irish champion of

liberty, "to see their rights become a prey to the active. The condition on which God hath given liberty to man is eternal vigilance."

Practically all of the students who defined democracy referred to civil liberties and the rights of the individual. Most of them mentioned some of the political institutions, especially universal suffrage and consent of the governed. Only a small fraction, however, referred to the economic elements of American democracy. Only 8 percent mentioned anything related to economics, and of these, three out of four wrote of economic privilege, one out of four of economic responsibility.

Some of the more thoughtful and comprehensive students' statements are reproduced here. They give proof of the maturity of thinking of which the high-school student, aided by good teaching, is capable. Let the reader ask himself if he could do as well as the students, if he were unexpectedly asked to write what democracy means to him, in the next ten minutes. Furthermore, the diversity of language and style in expressing the same fundamental ideas indicates that the schools have not been greatly concerned with formulas.

What does democracy mean to me? This morning, after eating my breakfast, I went out on the porch and picked up our newspaper. I read not what I was told to read, but news given freely with many opinions. I then came to school. I went into a large library without showing any kind of passes or permits. I used one of many excellent books on history. On my way to my homeroom I met and talked to several of my fellow students who may be richer or poorer than I. They may have a different religious belief or may have no religious belief at all. From my homeroom period I went to my history class. There I and the entire class discussed freely our subject of study for the entire period. That's what democracy means to me.

Democracy means allowing all persons an equal opportunity for political activity; a share in the government of their country; an equal opportunity to earn a living and to accumulate wealth; an equal opportunity to enjoy good health and recreation. It gives the individual the right to lead his life, to worship his God, in the way that he chooses without asking permission from any man. In

return for the privileges that he gets, he shoulders an equal load of responsibilities. He must take an active part in the government, either as a voter or as an elected or appointed officer; he must see to it that what he does in leading his life in his own way does not act so as to do harm to others. In having an equal opportunity himself, he likewise has the responsibility of seeing that others enjoy the same privileges, to protect those privileges and to aid his nation to preserve itself.

Being a Jewess I live doubly blessed by the American democracy. To me it means the right to exist as an individual in the pursuit of health and happiness under a government which protects those rights of my existence. A democracy means that if I equip myself correctly I can endeavor to act in the formation of an even better working government. A hackneyed word used with democracy is freedom—yet what infinitely deep meanings that word has for me in its attachment to democracy. I may thus suffer no curtailment of my religious belief and I may say and do what I've a mind to without interference of state unless in so doing I harm others. In short, to me a democracy means the privilege to *live* and live *freely*.

Democracy means to me the freedom of speech, actions, press, and religion. By freedom I mean the right to do and think as I please so long as it doesn't interfere with my fellow-man. Democracy means equality to all. No one race should receive all the benefits or more than a just share of benefits. It means equal educational, suffrage, and religious rights. Democracy is to me a privilege and not a burden. It is the sharing equally of all responsibilities and working together for the good and well-being of everyone.

Democracy means something so big that it can hardly be put into words. It means the freedom to speak and think and believe as we choose. It means truth; it means tolerance; it means respect for oneself and for others. It means that whether I am rich or poor, black or white, my ideas are as good as those of anybody else. It means that we have the privilege to rule ourselves and the responsibility to rule ourselves wisely. It is the most important thing we have. Democracy cannot be secured or kept secure merely by negative actions against the "enemies of democracy." It can be preserved only through positive action for the strengthening of democracy.

The above are from senior high-school students; here are two statements from junior high school.

In my opinion, democracy is a form of government whereby every citizen is a part of the government. In a democracy, the reigning power, instead of being vested in a dictator or some such bigwig, is vested in the public as a whole. The individuals who are the officials of the government are not the masters of the people but servants. In a true democracy, every man has a right to say just what he pleases.

any time he pleases, and in any manner he pleases. He also has the right to do anything he chooses, providing the public as a whole approves of it. These are just a few of the chief factors of a democracy.

To me democracy is everything that is right and just for all people and things. Democracy has been taught to me since I was a small child. When I entered kindergarten, I learned to play with others; this promoted a feeling of friendliness which I hold till this day. In a large school like this there is one lesson that is never taught but is realized by the majority of students. This is racial tolerance: in our school there is a number of the Jewish faith equal to the Gentiles, also there are a few Chinese and Negroes. By cooperating with these peoples we promote a wonderful sense of democracy which will help this nation treat all nations and peoples the same.

The Meaning of Democracy Can Be Clarified by Study

The clarification with students of their ideas about democracy may be carried on in many phases of school work. Opportunities arise in most classes for guiding pupils into deeper comprehension of democratic principles. Alert teachers seize these opportunities. In the Fieldston School in New York City, for example, a teacher of literature was observed while leading his students into a better understanding of contemporary democracy through the study of Athenian democracy in the Greek classics.² In another school a teacher of American history, and in another a teacher of speech were accomplishing similar results with different materials. But incidental instruction is not enough. The problem should be met squarely through the planned program of the course of study. A number of schools are attempting so to meet it, and some of the "units of work" which they have developed will be described.

First come two promising units in American history. Last

² A similar method of teaching has been employed in a class in the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, and is described in: Stolper, B. J. R., and Fenn, Henry C., *Integration at Work*, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939, 166 p.

of the units in the course on American history in the Fieldston School in New York City is one developed around the question, "What Is the American Tradition?" The unit "worksheet" begins with Max Radin's statement in the *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*: "A tradition is not a mere observed fact like an existing custom, nor a story that exhausts its significance in being told; it is an idea that expresses a value judgment." From this point of view the pupils review their study of the nation's development in order to list the goals, achievements, and problems which are the common heritage of the American people. In 1938-39 the unit was built around the following outline, which focuses attention on the meaning of democracy as expressed in our national life, both past and contemporary.

What Is the American Tradition?

I. Is it democratic?

- a. In the political field
 - 1. Extension of franchise
 - 2. Reform spirit in political parties
 - 3. Institutions giving greater popular control
- b. In the economic field
 - 1. Distribution of income
 - 2. Amount of social control of economic life
- c. In the social field
 - 1. Amount of equality of opportunity
 - a. Among different income groups
 - b. Among races
 - c. Between sexes
 - 2. Social responsibility for the care of the unfortunate
 - 3. Protection of the rights of the individual

II. Is it individualistic or cooperative?

- a. Extent of individual enterprise
- b. Amount of collective action through the government
 - 1. Subsidies
 - 2. Tariffs
 - 3. Land grants
 - 4. Collective enterprise
- c. Private experiments in collectivism

III. Is it tolerant?

- a. Religion
- b. Race
- c. Nationality

IV. Is it progressive?

- a. Amount of opposition to reform
- b. Groups opposing reform.⁵

A similar unit, called "The American Dream," is taught in Grade X American history classes in Tulsa, Oklahoma. This has been described at some length in a bulletin issued as part of the Tulsa course of study.⁴ An introduction presents the theme which James Truslow Adams developed in *The Epic of America*. Goals are then set up, which include growth in the understanding of individual liberty, equality of opportunity, contributions of racial and national groups to American culture, and the ideal of tolerance. The materials are drawn from American history, and all are brought to bear on the central theme of "The American Dream" in such fashion as to lead pupils into a better understanding of the ideals and principles cherished in a democratic society. Throughout the unit there is skilful mingling of current problems with historical trends, and of contemporary literature with the great documents of our tradition. Democracy is presented as a dynamic, growing process rather than a static pattern.

Approaches similar to the above are also being used in some courses in English. In Shaker High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio, the Grade XI English course on "Changing Culture of the American People" is oriented toward understanding and appreciation of the democratic ideal. In the

⁴ Day, Elizabeth. *What Is the American Tradition?* Outline for course in American history, 1938-39. New York: Fieldston School.

⁵ Board of Education, Social Studies Department. *The Social Development of America*. Grade X, unit on "The American Dream." Tulsa, Okla., 1939. 51 p. (Mimeo.)

first semester, readings center in the theme of "The American Dream"; during the second, students explore the nature of the "good life" and the conditions of its achievement in contemporary society.⁵

A number of units on the meaning of democracy were found in modern problems courses and in the so-called "core" courses in which the work in social studies, English, and sometimes other subjects is fused in a single course. For example, in the Eugene, Oregon, High School, core work in Grades XI and XII centers in the "economic, social, and political problems of a dynamic society." In 1939 the course was launched with twelve weeks of study of "Democracy in Action." The classroom was itself an experiment in democracy, with a great deal of the planning of work done by students. By discussion, reading, projects, and direct explanatory instruction, the teacher sought to build up a background of ideas about democracy, against which to study modern problems. The themes developed in the twelve weeks follow:

1. Exploring the meaning of democracy in our school
2. Tracing the development of democracy in the school
3. Organizing democratically for the solution of school problems
4. Tracing the growth of constitutional democracy in the United States
 - a. Democratic practices and theories developed during the Colonial era
 - b. Formation of the United States Constitution
 - c. Growth of democracy under the Constitution
5. Participating in the political life of our city, state, and nation
6. Selection, by democratic procedure, of problems of government for further study by the class.⁶

⁵ Graham, Grace, and McCracken, Louise. "The Good Life: Shaker Heights' 11th-grade English Course." *Clearing House* 14: 218-23; December 1939.

⁶ Hendricks, Russell G. *Democracy in Action*. Eugene, Ore.: Eugene High School, 1939.

The study of modern problems in Grade XII of Theodore Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Iowa, proceeds along comparable lines. Approximately the first third of the year is devoted to a study of "Democracy and Its Competitors," and this unit sets the bench marks for the subsequent survey of modern problems.² The following excerpt explains its purpose in striking fashion.



WHAT THIS COUNTRY NEEDS IS A GOOD 5-CENT DICTIONARY

Many Americans today are like the man in the cartoon. They are confused and feel the need of light on the numerous terms which confront them today. Communism, sovietism, socialism, national socialism, nazism, Bolshevism, Fascism, nationalism, and Americanism are a few of the many "isms" that perplex the readers of current books, magazines, and newspapers. Red, radical, conservative, reactionary, and liberal are some of the labels attached to persons prominent in today's news.

² Kaip, Earl S., and Morgan, Robert M. *Democracy and Its Competitors*. (Unit Study prepared under the direction of the Committee on Experimental Units of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.) Boston: Ginn and Co., 1940.

Indeed, there is a need for a good dictionary, but even then how can one be sure about the meaning of all these terms? Are abstract definitions of real help in getting at the meaning of such words as democracy, communism, and fascism? What are some of the limitations of definitions?

The unit is developed according to the following outline.

Democracy and Its Competitors

- I. The background of the struggle between democracy and dictatorship
- II. Democracy and autocracy compared
 - A. A warning about definitions
 - B. The meaning of democracy, nazism, fascism, sovietism
- III. Governments of the United States, England, and France
- IV. Governments of Germany, Italy, and Russia
- V. Business, agriculture, and labor under democracy and dictatorship
- VI. Education and religion under democracy and dictatorship
- VII. Press and radio in modern nations
- VIII. Communism, fascism, and nazism in the Western Hemisphere
- IX. Preserving and improving democracy in the United States.

The remainder of the Des Moines modern problems course is usually planned by the teacher and students together and varies from year to year. During 1939-40, the plan for the entire course grew out of the unit on "Democracy and Its Competitors." While working on the last topic in this unit, the class discussed the following obstacles and threats to democracy in the United States:

1. War
2. Inefficiency and corruption in government
3. Unemployment
4. Crime
5. Race prejudice
6. Inadequate health services
7. Inadequate purchasing power and maldistribution of wealth
8. Waste or misuse of natural resources
9. Poor housing.

At the conclusion of the unit, students and teacher agreed that it would be profitable to spend the rest of the year in

more intensive study of each of these obstacles and threats to democracy. This plan seems notably superior to the study of a series of disconnected "modern problems," for here each problem is viewed, not in isolation, but in relation to a central issue—the preservation and improvement of American democracy.

A unit on "A Comparison of Modern Forms of Government," from a Grade XI course in Contemporary Problems of Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, provides a final illustration in this area.⁸ After an introductory section on the meaning of democracy similar to that in the Des Moines unit, students are launched into an analysis of forms of government through an ingenious pretest, an excerpt from which follows:

Pretest

To Teachers: Use the following set of questions adapted from the study guide of the Foreign Policy Association to see what students know or think of pertinent ideas dealing with dictatorships. When the questions have been answered, tally the results on the blackboard in order to call the attention of the group to the differences of opinion and information. Encourage discussion as the tally proceeds. This preliminary survey will probably point the way to more constructive study.

Answer true or false to each question.

1. All dictatorships are alike.
2. There are several important political parties in both Russia and Italy.
3. Fascist dictators always overthrow the capitalistic system.
4. The communists aim to replace the capitalistic system with one which produces goods not for profit, but for use.
5. The fascists declare that under their system the government is absolutely supreme and that it must be glorified by the people.

⁸ Board of Education, Social Studies Department. *A Comparison of Modern Forms of Government*. Grade XI. Tulsa, Okla., 1938. 40 p. (Mimeo.)

- 6. In Russia the government owns practically all the business enterprises.
- 7. The government regulates business extensively under fascism.
- 8. All dictatorships persecute Jews and other minority nationalities.
- 9. Dictatorships have usually arisen in countries where people were suffering great economic hardships.
- 10. Russia, Germany, and Italy guarantee freedom of the press and freedom of speech.

(The test continues through twenty-five questions.)

The unit proceeds through a flexible series of readings and activities relating to various contemporary governments, with the following questions in the foreground:

1. What were the conditions under which each form of government originated?
2. How do the forms of government compare as to:
 - a. Executive authority?
 - b. Legislatures?
 - c. Who is allowed to vote?
 - d. What party system is used?
 - e. Police power?
3. What is the attitude of each toward industry, public utilities, and ownership of property?
4. What is the attitude toward classes and race prejudices?
5. What are the conditions and standards of living?
6. What is the situation in regard to laboring conditions, unemployment, and women workers?
7. What is the position of freedom of press, speech, religion, personal liberty, and education?
8. What is the foreign policy?
9. What is the situation respecting militarism?

These illustrative course-of-study materials are evidence that there are divers opportunities in the programs of American secondary schools to guide students into direct and fruitful study of the meaning of democracy. They suggest practices which are well worth experimental use by other teachers. Two characteristics of these materials should be noted by anyone intending to work in this field. In the first place, these units do not present democracy exclusively in terms of political institutions. The common errors have

been avoided, of defining democracy too narrowly, and confusing its political means with its social ends. The better practices extend the democratic concept beyond the political into every phase of our social existence. In the second place, many of these units approach the principles of democracy through the medium of concrete examples, on the assumption, no doubt, that the study of specific cases leads to better understanding of underlying principles and also facilitates the application of principles to other cases.

The Study of Democracy May Begin with School Experience

This chapter opened with the assertion that good education is compounded of thought and action. Many schools undertake to provide active experiences in democratic living in the classroom and in out-of-class activities, as we shall see in succeeding chapters. Surprisingly few schools, however, make any provision for the study of these experiences as a means of gaining insight into the meaning of democracy. Here is one of the most fruitful approaches to the study of democracy as a way of living together. That this approach is so often neglected simply indicates that educators frequently overlook those opportunities which lie nearest at hand.

The recent action of a group of senior students in history classes at the George School in Pennsylvania illustrates one way in which the understanding of democracy may be fostered through examination of the life of the school. This project was initiated and carried through by a committee of students, following a discussion of the meaning of democracy at the time of the staff visit to the school. The students prepared a written report of their experience, from which the following quotations are taken.

Our brief discussion of democracy the day you were here greatly stimulated many of us. The result was that all the senior history

classes gathered together to discuss our differing views of democracy. It was obvious that such a large gathering could not draw up a concise doctrine of the ideas expressed in the time we had to do it, so subcommittees from each class were appointed. They met several times and formulated a statement of what they felt a democracy should be. As this was merely theoretical, we applied it to school life in a statement, "Democracy at George School." Both of these papers were subjected for correction to the various classes as a whole, and it is in this form that we send them to you.³

It is interesting for us to note how little we knew of this much-talked-of "way of government." (We readily recognize the fact that our knowledge of democracy is still very limited.) You may notice that we made it a "way of life" as well. We were struck by how far from democratic the United States is, and by the difficulties that arise in trying to make it more so. We found that a democracy has faults, but that its strong points far outweigh them. We now know a lot more about the government under which we live, and are therefore better prepared to take part in it.

There follows a clear and thoughtful statement of the "basis of democracy," applied in turn to political, economic, and social relationships. The most significant contribution of these students lies in their application of their thinking about democracy to their collective life in the school. A large part of their statement is reproduced here, as evidence of the mature thinking of which high-school youth are capable.

Democracy at George School

I. General Principles

- A. We aim at the development of full, free, and well-rounded personalities, at clear thinking and genuine sympathy toward other ideas and other people; toward sincere, profitable, and understanding relationships between students and teachers; and toward providing more channels for individual growth through cooperative living.
- B. Each person is to be respected as an individual and considered and dealt with as such.
- C. Every possible attempt shall be made to lead the individual to realize his responsibility to the group and to form his attitudes and actions accordingly.

³ The principal of the school verified this statement and added: "The meetings of the students were conducted with almost no faculty supervision. There was no teacher participation at the time the statements were drawn."

- D. The general welfare shall be considered as the test of policies, actions, and ideas. Any restrictions must be made only with this in mind.

II. The Rights of Freedom of Opinion, Expression, and Tolerance

- A. All students and faculty members shall have the right to hold any sincere opinion on any matter.
- B. It is necessary that every effort be made to show all possible sides of a question in a fair light in order that a sincere opinion may be based on an unbiased point of view.
- C. No person shall be persecuted by physical means, social exclusion, ridicule, or lowered general esteem in the eyes of others for any sincere opinion which he may hold or for any state of affairs over which he has no control.
- D. Reading of students should not be subject to the censorship or pressure of the faculty, but students should stand open to their advice.

III. Self-Government

- A. The students should have the right to govern themselves to the greatest possible extent in any aspects of school life in which they would have the time and ability to act as governors.
- B. Most aspects of school life shall be regulated by a coordinating committee of the boys and girls councils in cooperation with the faculty. The faculty is not to dominate any of the committees.
- C. Social affairs shall be controlled by a committee of students with an adviser or several advisers from the faculty. They shall aim toward creating a social life in which the relations between boys and girls will be as natural as possible, and a school atmosphere in which everyone has a part.
- D. Disciplinary measures shall be taken with the sole purpose of helping the students (and thus to promote the welfare of the group as well as of the individual), and of protecting the group from uncooperative individuals. No person shall be given any penalty without just cause and without first having the opportunity to defend himself.
- E. In dormitory matters students shall have the right to hold their own meetings independent of the presence or pressure of the teachers, to decide upon their principles, methods, and rules, and to deal with any problems or concern which may arise.
- F. The right to study in a quiet and suitable place shall be protected by a joint committee. Provision shall be made for special individual needs, and for the protection of students' rights to have part of every day free to use as they please.

IV. Relations of Students and Faculty

- A. The student government body and individuals shall be encouraged to seek the help of any teacher in any matter in which that teacher can help them. They shall look upon the faculty as their guides and shall respect the opinion of the faculty on questions as to what is best for the general welfare.
- B. Teachers should live up to the standards they set for the students except when there is a difference in needs arising from their different functions in school life. They should be totally impartial.
- C. Any major problems about which the students and faculty disagree shall be considered by a committee made up of delegates from the faculty and students. The faculty, however, shall have the final judgment if the problem can't be solved by cooperative discussion.

It is a fair assumption that for these students "democracy" now means a set of practical principles instead of some vague abstractions.

2. THE CIVIL LIBERTIES

We turn next to examples of the ways in which some schools are helping to clarify students' understanding of the civil liberties through direct study. The assumption is frequently made that students will naturally and inevitably recognize such civil liberties as the rights of free speech and of a free press as basic values to be cherished and defended. There is little evidence to support the assumption, however. To be sure, most of the two thousand students who defined democracy for this study did so in terms of personal liberties. But the majority mentioned only personal liberties for themselves. Only a small number referred to the obligation of each citizen to protect the liberties of *others*. Without direct instruction in the matter and without experience, young people are not likely to understand the foundations of the civil liberties, or to care deeply about these basic tenets of the democratic faith.¹⁰ Provision must therefore

¹⁰ For further evidence see: Wilson, Howard E. *Education for Citizenship*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938. Chap. II, especially p. 64-89.

be made for teaching pupils about the nature of the civil liberties, and for infusing that teaching with a deep appreciation of their worth.

Civil Liberties Often Can Be Taught Incidentally

For teachers alert to current living there are endless opportunities for incidental treatment of the civil liberties. In one class visited, for example, pupils were engaged in an animated discussion provoked by the showing in the local motion picture theater of the M-G-M film, *The Story That Could Not Be Printed*. The film imparted new life to the story of John Peter Zenger which has been so long buried in the brief, prosaic sentences of textbooks in American history, and it became the basis for thoughtful analysis of the rights and responsibilities of a free press.

Many classroom discussions of the civil liberties are stimulated by the materials of current affairs. War censorship especially seems to lead to consideration of various civil liberties, though often in terms rather remote from the pupil. The materials on civil liberties published in such papers as the *American Observer*, *Current Events*, and *Scholastic* are frequently used by teachers as the basis of discussion. The "Let Freedom Ring" radio series of the United States Office of Education¹ and the broadcast programs of "America's Town Meeting of the Air" have been provocative of fruitful teaching in this field. Such occasional opportunities to thresh out the meaning of civil liberty by reference to specific issues and events arise in many school

¹ Jager, Harry A., editor. *Let Freedom Ring!* (13 Radio Scripts) U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1937, No. 32. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938. 379 p. Jager, Harry A., and Hatch, Roy W. *Let Freedom Ring!* (Manual) U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1937, No. 33. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938. 83 p.

situations, and are of great importance to civic education. They have a reality and challenge difficult to create and plan in advance. Nevertheless, it is unwise to rest the case for civil liberties on such incidental teaching. A planned program of civic education, reaching all the students in the schools, would add systematic and penetrating analysis to these spontaneous discussions.

Civil Liberties Frequently Are Taught as a Part of Other Topics

In many schools the civil liberties are dealt with regularly as subordinate elements of other topics. In Grade IX social studies classes in Cleveland, Ohio, for example, a unit on "Public Opinion" is taught,¹² in which students deal with the relation of free speech to public opinion and with the problems of censorship of the press, the radio, and the movies. In Grade XII of the same schools is another unit on "Public Opinion" in which the civil liberties are also stressed.¹³ One topic in this unit, entitled "Civil Rights—Significance and Repression," is outlined as follows:

1. Development of Anglo-Saxon liberties
 - a. Magna Charta (1215)
 - b. Petition of Rights (1628)
 - c. Bloodless Revolution (1688)
 - d. American adaptations
 - (1) Declaration of Independence
 - (2) Bill of Rights in the Constitution
2. Civil liberty
 - a. Meaning
 - b. Personal rights
 - (1) Freedom of religion
 - (2) Freedom of speech
 - (3) Freedom of press
 - (4) Right of assembly

¹² Board of Education. *Social Studies IX-A, Tentative Outline*. Cleveland, Ohio: the Board, 1936. 119 p. (Mimeo.) See Unit V, p. 102 ff.

¹³ Board of Education. *Modern Problems Unit No. 16, Twelfth Grade*. "Public Opinion." Cleveland, Ohio: the Board, 1938. 25 p. (Mimeo.)

- (5) Right of petition
- (6) Fair trial in criminal matters
- c. Property rights
- 3. Repression of civil rights—earlier examples
 - a. Alien and Sedition Laws
 - b. Chattel slavery of the 19th century
 - (1) The slave
 - (2) The abolitionists
 - c. Court decisions against labor
 - d. Know Nothing Party
 - e. Ku Klux Klan
- 4. Effect of World War on exercise of civil rights
- 5. Recent restrictions
 - a. Suppressions in California
 - b. Angelo Herndon case
 - c. Applications of Georgia's Insurrection Law
 - d. Activities among the share-croppers
 - e. Martial law in Terre Haute and elsewhere
 - f. Tom Mooney case
 - g. Scottsboro case
- 6. Repressive legislation
- 7. Comparative position of civil liberties
 - a. In democracies
 - b. Under communism
 - c. Under socialism
 - d. Under fascism
- 8. Relation of civil liberty to public opinion.

One of the "problems" in a unit on "Public Opinion" developed for Grade XII in the schools of Rochester, New York, illustrates a somewhat different approach to the study of civil liberties. The "problem" is, "What serious questions exist in American democracy today concerning public opinion?" A suggested outline for the answer includes:

Outline of Content

- A. Current threats to civil and political liberty in the United States concerning freedom of speech, press, assembly, petition; discrimination against individuals and groups because of religion, race, nationality, union membership, political philosophy, etc.
- B. The movement against academic freedom and discussion of public problems in the classroom
- C. The extension of scientific thought procedures to public and personal problems

Activities and Discussion Topics

1. Democracy as majority rule (with protection of minorities) depends for its success upon proper safeguards for individual liberties and enlightened public opinion. Collect as many illustrations of the violation of civil and political liberties as possible; be sure you can show what constitutional or legal rights are involved. What is the importance of these violations? . . .
2. What is a "red scare"? Look up the Lusk Laws of 1921 in New York State.
3. What is academic freedom? Look up the case of Copernicus. Why should public problems be discussed in the classroom? . . .¹⁴

In Grade IX of the junior high schools of Schenectady, New York, civil liberties are taught through examination of historic documents on the rights of man. One section of a unit on "Social Control" deals with "Philosophers whose theories have influenced modern social control." Among these are:

1. Thomas Jefferson and the *Declaration of Independence*
2. Rousseau and the social contract
3. Voltaire and tolerance
4. Locke and essays on government
5. James Madison and the *Federalist Papers*.¹⁵

In at least three other schools visited there was some attempt in English courses to develop units on "the literature of civil rights," but, promising as these efforts are, they have not yet been sufficiently developed. Here is ample opportunity for further creative work.

Civil Liberties Sometimes Are Studied Directly

We come now to an example of a unit dealing primarily with the civil liberties, a unit on "The Struggle for Personal

¹⁴ Board of Education. *Course of Study in Social Studies: Regents Groups*. Twelfth Year. Rochester, N. Y.: the Board, 1937. 71 p. (Mimeo.) See p. 36-37.

¹⁵ Department of Public Instruction. *Guide for the Social Studies: Grade IX, Unit IX. "Social Control."* Schenectady, N. Y.: the Department, 1936. 10 p. (Mimeo.)

and Political Liberty," prepared for a Grade IX class in Cleveland, Ohio. Following is the outline of the unit, omitting details and a section on suggested procedures.

The Struggle for Personal and Political Liberty

Objectives

- Major: To appreciate the time and the individual sacrifices required to establish the personal and political liberties enjoyed in America today; to sense the dangers now threatening to destroy these liberties; and to strengthen the spirit of resistance to such destructive forces
- Minor: To know the stories of the chief persons and events in the development of personal and political liberty among the English-speaking peoples in Europe and America
To know the safeguards provided for these liberties, particularly in England and America
To know the chief forces which threaten to destroy the liberties of the people of the United States today
To know that these forces of destruction can be defeated only by the good sense, courage, and spirit of independence and self-sacrifice of the great majority of the American people
To appreciate the necessity of maintaining a proper balance between individual freedom and group discipline in all fields of human association
To appreciate how the liberties of the pupils of a school may be increased or decreased by the action of the pupils themselves

Outline

I. Liberty

1. What is liberty?
2. What is the difference between personal and political liberty?
3. Do we have more or less personal liberty than our grandparents had?
4. Consider restrictions on liberty imposed by laws about health and sanitation, building inspection, fire prevention, hunting and fishing, zoning, speed and traffic regulations, fireworks, etc.
5. Why are such restrictions on personal liberty imposed?
6. Do we have more political liberty than our ancestors had?

II. A Brief History of the Struggle for Liberty

1. How the English people gained certain political liberties
2. Why is this development in England of importance to us?
3. Civil liberties under the early government in the English colonies of America
4. The struggle for personal and political liberty as evidenced by events leading to the American Revolution

5. Personal liberty and the Declaration of Independence
6. The Constitution of the United States and our civil liberties

Questions

- I. Are the liberties provided in the Constitution threatened today?
- II. Do dangers to our liberties come from the same sources that they did in Colonial times?
- III. Are the constitutional guarantees of certain liberties ever used to secure unfair advantages?
- IV. Why are amendments to the Constitution sometimes needed?
- V. What do you understand by slander? Libel?
- VI. Are laws relating to slander and libel consistent with ideals of liberty? Why?
- VII. Can you show that every liberty imposes a duty?
- VIII. By what means may our liberties be increased? Consider in this the home, the school, the community.
- IX. Are the people who demand personal liberties for themselves always willing to extend the same liberties to others?
- X. Have we arrived at a condition of religious toleration in our times?¹⁶

These illustrative units represent only a beginning in the task of teaching the civil liberties. This area is one of the least developed and at the same time one of the most important fields for the work of thoughtful and creative curriculum-makers. In most of the schools visited, there was noticeable lack of concrete, vital material on the civil liberties. From literature and history, from court records and current affairs, we need to select concrete cases, moving and challenging in their human interest, which will breed in students deep conviction and discerning sensitivity toward "the rights of man." Units of work should be developed which deal with the great documents of our tradition, with the stresses of contemporary life, with critical periods of history, with incidents in school and community life—all focused on the preservation of individual rights and the complementary acceptance of individual responsibilities. The resources of the writers of books, of the makers of courses of study, of the creators of visual materials, and of

¹⁶ Board of Education. *Social Studies IXB, Tentative Outline*. Unit I. Cleveland, Ohio: the Board, 1936. 54 p. (Mimeo.)

teachers in all fields should be brought into action. Without abandoning incidental teaching on the subject, we need imperatively to make a systematic and positive attack on the tasks of clarifying pupils' thinking about the civil liberties and of intensifying their loyalty to the personal rights and responsibilities which lie at the heart of democracy.

3. THE DIGNITY AND WORTH OF THE INDIVIDUAL

The civil liberties, the institutions of democratic government, indeed democracy itself are founded on a faith that every human being has possibilities for beneficent growth in mind and spirit, which can be realized if the conditions favorable to growth are provided. Out of this faith grows the primary purpose of democratic education, which is the welfare of all the people. Out of this faith arises that concern for one's fellow men which lies at the heart of the great religions and of all humanitarian enterprises.

Individual Worth Is Best Learned through Personal Relationships

This moral ideal is less readily apprehended through direct study than are the other elements of democracy. Sensitiveness to human worth is first of all a product of influences affecting the child long before he reaches school. Even in school, the forces most potent in developing respect for oneself and for others are elusive and largely depend on association with individuals who express such respect in their living. The treatment of students as individuals worthy of respect should be the very heart of teaching and of school administration—a point which will be amplified in succeeding chapters. That student spoke truly who replied, when asked how her school helped her to understand

democracy, "The teachers here treat us students like real people."

*Direct Instruction in Individual Worth
Is Desirable*

Nevertheless, there are definite opportunities for developing and using materials in the course of study which will facilitate the growth of better personal relationships. The study of individuals and individuality, especially by adolescents, helps to enlighten relations with others and is prerequisite for the proper study of society. A few schools have begun to take advantage of these opportunities, although, as far as the systematic course of study is concerned, most of the materials dealing with the dignity and worth of human personality are incidental and fugitive.

In class discussions in many fields alert teachers seize frequent opportunities to suggest and emphasize the worth of individuality. Occasionally situations for doing this are intentionally created. The study of character in literature, of biography in history, and the interpretation of conduct in motion pictures are especially suitable for this type of instruction. Even without altering the structure of its course of study, almost every American school can now find opportunities, both spontaneous and planned, to guide pupils into deeper and friendlier human understanding.

These occasional opportunities for glimpsing individual worth and dignity, however, are not sufficient. The planners of the curriculum must incorporate in the course of study definite sections of work intended to serve these ends more completely. Some suggestions of this type of materials are introduced here for their illustrative value, but it should be emphasized again that schools are only on the threshold of a program adequate for this purpose. The concept of "man as the proper study of mankind" has not yet per-

meated the work of the schools nearly so much as is likely to be necessary hereafter.

*The Study of Personality
Develops Understanding and Self-Respect*

One approach that many schools have taken toward the study of human worth is by way of personality and its development. To be sure, the study of personality is often superficial so far as its contribution to citizenship education is concerned. It is sometimes rather blatantly a means to self-aggrandizement, something in the nature of winning friends and subduing enemies. Sometimes the study of personality, poorly directed, tends to make adolescents unduly and unfortunately introspective. But in other cases the study of means of self-improvement involves a deeper understanding and appreciation of human nature.

In the Grade X course in "Social Living" of the Eugene, Oregon, High School is included a unit on "Personality."¹⁷ The stated objectives of the unit include the understanding of many aspects of human nature, respect for all personalities, and sensitiveness to the beautiful in human nature. As the unit is developed it involves self-analysis by pupils of their social qualities, with emphasis on respect for others as the basis of being liked.

In the homemaking course of the Sacramento, California, Senior High School, a sequence of units on "Family and Social Relationships" includes study of personality. The unit on "Personality" is outlined as follows:

- A. Personal background
 - 1. Heredity
 - 2. Environment
 - 3. Health
 - 4. Associations—family and friends

¹⁷ Kidwell, Will M. *A Teaching Unit on Personality*. Tenth-Grade Social Living, Eugene High School, Eugene, Ore. October 1939. 19 p. (Mimeo.)

- B. Personal appearance
 - 1. Physical—type and coloring
 - 2. Clothing—choice of type and color
 - 3. Grooming and neatness
 - 4. Poise and dignity
- C. Personal habits
 - 1. Manners
 - 2. Voice
 - 3. Conversations
 - 4. Cooperation
 - 5. Responsibility
- D. Character traits
 - 1. Honesty—to self and others
 - 2. Loyalty—to all associates
 - 3. Self-confidence
 - 4. Attitudes—or philosophy of life
- F. Personality analysis.¹⁸

Such study, under a teacher aware of the possibilities, might aid greatly in developing self-respect and understanding of other persons. In the Sacramento course of study the unit is outlined in considerable detail with many valuable suggested activities and reading references.

Courses in Ethics Stress Human Values

The study of personality is not the only promising avenue to the recognition of human worth. Among the other approaches which schools are using are courses in ethics and religion.¹⁹ The Fieldston School in New York City gives regular and systematic instruction in ethics. One course included five units, each built around the problems of students: education, work life, family life, community life, and religion. In the George School in Pennsylvania, a school

¹⁸ Board of Education. *Homemaking Course*. "Family and Social Relationships." Senior High Schools, Sacramento, Calif.: the Board. 62 p. (Mimeo.)

¹⁹ For a discussion of the place of ethics in democracy see: National Education Association and Department of Superintendence. Educational Policies Commission. *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1937. p. 80-95.

of the Society of Friends, the study of religion is foremost. This study includes the application of religion in ethics and its practice in community service. Classes in both schools emphasized the value of the individual as a fundamental of ethics and as a religious conviction.

The same ethical interest appears in other courses. For example, Unit 6 in the Grade VII course in social studies in Schenectady, New York, deals with "My Social Ideals."²⁰ The content outline, omitting the suggested activities, follows:

- I. My ideals expressed in friendship
 - A. Meaning of friendship
 1. Advantages of good companions
 2. Disadvantages of associating with bad companions
 - B. Value of friendship
 1. Qualities I seek in friends
 2. Factors which do not make for friendship
 3. Common prejudices which may restrict friendship
 - a. Race prejudices
 - b. Religious prejudices
 - c. Social prejudices
 - d. Economic prejudices
 - C. My friendship circle
 1. How friendships are made
 2. How friendship makes for citizenship
 3. My responsibilities in friendship
 - D. Great friendships
 1. In history
 2. In literature and legend
 3. Qualities which made these friendships great.

The unit continues with materials on great heroes and their qualities, but the sections which treat of the relations of friendship to prejudice and to citizenship are most pertinent to the interests of this study.

An interesting unit on "The Study of Human Nature" has been taught in Grade IX in the Carpinteria, California, Union High School. The project developed in part from

²⁰ Department of Public Instruction, *Guide for the Social Studies*, Grade VII, Unit 6, "My Social Ideals." Schenectady, N. Y.: the Department, 1936, 1939. 22 p. (Mimeo.)

students' interest in the improvement of their social behavior and in part from their study of various methods of expression, such as pantomime, but it may also be a means for directing thought to the uniqueness and the worth of each person. The written material distributed by the teacher in connection with the project included the following:

Who is the most interesting character you know—a policeman? a janitor? an athlete? an old lady? a hobo? Why is this person interesting? Watch how he does something; impersonate him before the class in a pantomime of his actions so that the class will recognize the character and realize what he is doing.

A newspaper reporter was asked what people looked for when they bought the daily paper. His reply was simple: "They want to find out about other people." This answer seemed too simple to the person who asked the question, so he picked up his paper when he got home and counted all the articles in it. There were 321 separate articles in the paper, and of these, 317 told about some person or group of persons and what had happened to them. There is no doubt about it—people are interesting! . . .

The Factors of Human Interest

What is there about people that makes them interesting?

- (1) First of all, their appearance.
- (2) In the second place, people are interesting because of their position in life. Who are they? Looks are often deceiving.
- (3) The third factor which makes people interesting is the story of their lives—what have they done and what has happened to them?
- (4) There is a fourth factor of human interest which governs all of those already mentioned—novelty or peculiarity. What is there about this person which is unusual?

Biology and Psychology

Give Insight into Human Nature

One often neglected approach to the study of the individual lies in the fields of biology and psychology.²¹ The

²¹ The possibility for stressing the worth of the individual through instruction in science has been emphasized, and many suggestions for it advanced, in the recent report on science teaching by a committee of the Progressive Education Association. See: Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association. *Science in General Education*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938. 591 p.

study of the human being as a physical organism, infinitely complex and valuable, is increasing in secondary schools. In the Fieldston School in New York City an advanced biology course includes these units: "The Races of Man," "Eugenics and Euthenics," "The Child's Normal Social Development," and "Biology and Human Welfare."²²

In a course in "Practical Psychology" offered to juniors and seniors in the high school of Springfield, Missouri,²³ are units on "Human Nature and the Human Body," "Habits and Their Acquisition," "Mental Processes," and "The Emotions." The final unit of the course is called "The Individual" and is intended to develop the ability "to understand one's own personality and capacities and how to develop them to the fullest possible extent, to understand and gain respect for the personality of others, and to learn to get along well with them." A skeleton outline of the unit follows:

- A. What is "personality"?
- B. Understanding human behavior
- C. Personality types
- D. Self-analysis
- E. Development of sound, happy, and pleasing personalities
- F. Special adolescent personality problems.

Some Courses Deal Directly with Human Relationships

An unusually comprehensive course, concerned primarily with human personality and human relationships, is being taught in Grade XII in the South Pasadena, California, High School. It is entitled "A Course in Human Relationships." Each of the seven units is developed in the

²² Fieldston School. *Biology and Human Life*. Part II—For Students. New York: the School. 84 p. (Mimeo.)

²³ Senior High School. *Semester Course in Practical Psychology for Juniors and Seniors*. Springfield, Mo.: the School. 13 p. (Typewritten.)

form of a page or more of problems, followed by a long list of suggested activities and a bibliography. Space does not permit reproduction of more than the titles of the units, but fortunately the course is available for those who are interested.²⁴ The list of units follows:

1. Learning about ourselves
2. How you may improve your personality
3. Family life and preparation for it
4. Improving our social institutions
5. The problem of human conservation
6. The problem of social security
7. Social control and human progress.

Similar in purpose and content are the "Personal Management" and "Social Living" courses for Grade X in the University High School, Oakland, California.²⁵

Opportunities for the study of human worth and dignity are found in a variety of courses in addition to those mentioned. A unit on safety taught in Grade VII in the schools of Schenectady, called "My Value to Society,"²⁶ begins with the importance of the individual and the value of the individual to society as seen by parents, insurance companies, courts of law, and governmental institutions as indicated by their expenditures for human welfare. It illustrates the possibility of introducing material on individual worth—often assumed but not often definitely expressed in teaching—in the study of modern problems.

²⁴ Erickson, Elmer J. *A Course In Human Relationships*. Los Angeles, Calif.: Office of the County Superintendent of Schools, 1939. 26 p. (Mimeo.)

²⁵ Miller, Vera D., and Kyne, Gretchen. "Personal Management: Core Course in the Low-Tenth Grade." *University High School Journal* 15: 146-153; April 1937. ¶ Rowell, Hanna W., and others. "Social Living: Core Course in the High-Tenth Grade." *University High School Journal* 15: 154-165; April 1937.

²⁶ Department of Public Instruction. *Guide for the Social Studies*. Grade VII. Unit 5, "My Value to Society." Schenectady, N. Y.: the Department, 1938. 18 p. (Mimeo.)

Study of Minority Groups
Builds Respect

Appreciation of personal worth is enhanced through the direct and sympathetic study of minority groups and their cultures. A source unit on "Minorities,"²⁷ developed for use in the junior high schools of Des Moines, Iowa, illustrates this. A condensation and selection of materials from this unit follows:

- I. Among the purposes the teacher should have in planning a unit on minorities are:
 - A. To help boys and girls recognize the rights of other people who may be different from themselves
 - B. To help pupils develop a growing consciousness of the problems faced by minorities
 - C. To develop an appreciation for the contributions of various groups of people to our civilization
 - D. To help children learn to value opposing opinions as an aid to finding democratic solutions for problems vital to their living
- II. What are some points of contact with minorities which the teacher should recognize while planning the unit and during its progress?
 - A. School contacts in classroom, study hall and library, lockers, corridors, lavatories and drinking fountains, playground, gymnasium, auditorium, lunchroom, parties, dramatics
 - B. Community contacts in home, home social functions, parks and playgrounds, churches, stores and service agencies, repair shops, movies, swimming pools, youth organizations (Scouts, etc.), eating places, beauty parlors
 - C. Wider contacts outside local setting
 1. News reports of persecution of Jews, Catholics, Protestants, etc.
 2. Propaganda for racial solidarity
 3. Advertising, radio, movies
- III. What minority groups should be considered in planning the unit?
 - A. Well-defined minorities
 1. Racial groups
 2. Political groups
 3. Religious groups
 4. Economic groups

Board of Education. *Source Unit: Minorities*. Curriculum Bulletin. Des Moines, Iowa: the Board, 1939. 15 p. (Mimeo.)

B. Minorities close to the child

1. School minorities—not usually static, but shifting
2. Neighborhood minorities.

In the Benjamin Franklin High School in New York City groups of teachers from various fields—history, art, science, music, literature—prepare intercultural units stressing the value of the contributions of racial and national groups represented in the school's student body. In the Moultrie, Georgia, High School and the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School, Gainesville, Florida,²⁸ white students regularly study the problems and achievements of the Negro race. A course called "Builders Together" for Grade X English in the Santa Barbara, California, High School²⁹ deals with the cultures and accomplishments of the minority groups in the population of Santa Barbara County. All these are fruitful approaches to the study of human beings.

*Courses Which Dignify Labor Contribute
to Appreciation of Human Worth*

This discussion of human worth would not be complete without reference to the teaching regarding the dignity of labor. Succeeding chapters will refer to recognition and esteem of labor performed by students as service to school and community. Here four examples will be reported of dignity attached to labor in the course of study.

The Holtville High School is located in a rural district in Alabama.³⁰ Most of the Holtville students engage in some

²⁸ University of Florida, P. K. Yonge Laboratory School. *Curriculum Record 1938-1939*. "How Our Race Problem (Negro) Affects Us." Unit VII, Grade XI. Gainesville, Fla.; the University. 11 p. (Mimeo.)

²⁹ Noyes, E. *Builders Together*. English course for the tenth year. Santa Barbara, Calif.: Santa Barbara High School. 10 p. (Typewritten.)

³⁰ For a more complete description, see Chapter V.

form of manual work as a part of their school program. The school is equipped with a large woodshop, a craftshop, a pottery kiln, a refrigeration plant, a poultry hatchery, and a canning plant, all of which students have helped to construct. The school also owns a tractor and a power spraying outfit. With such equipment a large number of students can engage in work of immediate practical value to the school or to the community. At the time of the staff visit, other students were working on an arboretum and community park, a quail farm, and a community flower garden. Much of the work in home economics and handicrafts for girls has this same practical character.

Most of the students in the University High School at Ann Arbor, Michigan, are preparing for college. Two years of industrial arts shopwork, however, are required for every boy, on the theory that a practical knowledge of basic technical skills is an essential part of education in the world of today. The excellent equipment of the shop and the high quality of instruction have made it possible for many boys to progress far in developing manual skills, in the course of two years. A valuable concomitant effect is to dignify manual work and to give it parity with intellectual effort.

Two southern schools for Negro students were notable among the schools visited for the high place assigned to skill in the manual occupations. These two schools, one urban and one rural, present a fair sample of some of the problems of educating Negro youth. Most of their graduates will probably spend their lives at manual or domestic labor. Until existing legislation and social practices are radically changed, few of their graduates are likely to know the dignifying experience of the full exercise of the franchise. Unless they can look upon manual labor as honorable and socially useful, these Negro youth will enter adult life handicapped in their effort to achieve self-respect.

In the Allen-White High School, Whiteville, Tennessee, a course in preparation for domestic service was introduced several years ago. The principal and teachers in the school have sought to foster the attitude that household service is a socially necessary occupation, that it offers opportunity for continuous growth and advancement for the alert worker, and that it may justly be considered an honorable career. The school officials attempt to place the graduates with employers who are sympathetic with this point of view. Conversation with a number of students at the school convinced the observers that the attitude of these girls toward their vocation is not different from that of Negro students looking forward to college and to teaching.

In the Parker High School in Birmingham, Alabama, every student spends at least one period a day in one of the school's twenty shops throughout his or her four years of school. The work done in these shops is useful to the school, to the children's families, and to the community. Talented students are encouraged to take advanced training in the fields of their special skills, and many of them are placed in employment immediately upon graduation. Manual labor is accepted as an integral part of education and manual skill is treated with the same respect as intellectual achievement.

The varied materials presented in this section illustrate ways in which alert schools today are attempting to develop and use more material intended to build in students a deeper understanding of the individual human being—the center of the democratic philosophy. Further development is needed in all the approaches which have been illustrated—the study of individual worth through analysis of personality, through ethical instruction, through the sciences of biology and psychology, through courses in human relationships, through study of minority cultures, and through the dignifying of manual labor in the school curriculum.

4. ECONOMIC TRENDS AND PROBLEMS

"Education will not move democracy forward by merely teaching courses of study concerned with the democratic philosophy and principles," said the United States Commissioner of Education in a recent address. ". . . Self-government is being undermined by its failure to solve the crucial problems of the technological age. . . . Education for democracy, therefore, is basically concerned with the social and economic issues which have been put up to us by the machine empire. . . . Unemployment, surpluses, foreign trade, social security, housing, money and credit, wages and hours, conservation of natural resources, taxation, and purchasing power—these are the fundamental matters requiring the constant attention of the schools and colleges and adult groups."¹

The Educational Policies Commission, through its earlier publications as well as in the opening chapter of this report, has expressed its general agreement with the above statement.² We turn now to examples of schools which already have a place for these "fundamental matters" in their courses of study.

There are several phases of education for economic efficiency. One is vocational in character—the preparation of citizens for competence and achievement in the work by which they earn a living. Another is often referred to as "consumer education"—education for the efficient use of income, both in spending and in saving. Developments of

¹ Studebaker, John W. "Education Moves Democracy Forward." *Education for Democracy: Proceedings of the Congress on Education for Democracy*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939, p. 354-58.

² National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators. Educational Policies Commission. *Education and Economic Well-Being in American Democracy*, 1940. Chap. II; and *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, 1938. Chap. VI and p. 116-118. Washington, D. C.: the Commission.

marked significance to democratic education in these two areas are now taking place in American schools, but this volume does not attempt to examine and report on them, except incidentally. Limitations of time and space made it desirable to focus this study on a third aspect of economic education—the preparation of students to meet the problems of our collective economic life, problems which can be solved in a democracy only by cooperative group action, problems whose solution determines in no small degree the course of democracy itself.

*Courses in Business Lead Naturally
to the Study of Basic Economic Conditions*

In the Fieldston School in New York City, "economic and business studies" is one of five fields from which students choose their major interest. Courses in this field are by no means limited to information and skills immediately needed for entry into business as a vocation. Rather, they seek to give a broad understanding of the whole of our industrial and commercial system, its place in the national life, and its attendant problems. Let the instructor speak:

Fieldston School offers a three-year Economics and Business Course. Students may take any or all courses. Beginning with retail stores in the Fourth Form (tenth grade), they pass to a survey of wholesaling, then study how New York City is fed, and finally investigate the ways in which advertising, finance, transport, communication, insurance, and markets contribute to the whole process of distribution. They do not ignore consumers' problems.

In the following year they survey American industries. Each student selects one which particularly interests him, for special investigation. Results are pooled. These phases are covered: history, economic geography, tariff problems, manufacturing and operating questions, organization of the industry in the United States, labor problems, outstanding managers. In the last quarter of the year, the economic, political, and social life of a series of foreign countries, to which the preceding inquiries have especially directed attention, are surveyed in detail.

In the final year we run the whole gamut of economic problems, making a study of standards of living and the means to their improve-

ment. This involves inquiries into a great range of questions, from poverty to wealth, isolationism to internationalism, factory management to national planning. Nothing that is human eludes the interests of the economist.³³

The orientation of the course has direct value for civic education, and is suggestive for school programs both in social studies and in commercial departments.

Courses in History Give Understanding of Economic Foundations

Another approach to instruction in this field has been developed in Grade XI American history in Rochester, New York.³⁴ Departing from the chronological organization of history, the curriculum bulletin suggests that teachers devote about a third of the year to a unit called "The American People Have Tried To Evolve an Economic System Which Provides the Greatest Good for the Greatest Number." To quote from the bulletin:

The aim of this unit is to present a unitary history of the United States economic system, . . . with the emphasis upon economics for meaning, and upon history for order and organization, and the study of cause and result relationships.

This unit is divided into three parts, as follows:

1. Some Economic Principles You Should Know
2. Factual Outline of Historical Materials
3. Guide Posts

The purpose of the third of these divisions, Guide Posts, is to help keep the students on the track and to lift the economic principles from the level of mere static and academic doctrine to a level of live, functional applicability as a social tool in modern affairs. These guides are generalizations which may seem self-evident to some people, but to others may become justifiable topics of intelligent debate; they are listed as much to stimulate discussion and to develop a social aware-

³³ Hanchett, David S. "More Than Economics and Business." *School and Home*, 1938. p. 48, 53.

³⁴ Board of Education. *Selected Aspects of American History*. Course of Study for Eleventh-Grade Social Studies. Rochester, N. Y.: the Board, 1937. See Unit II. p. 12-55. (Mimeo.)

ness in eager students as to serve as guides to the use of the economic principles listed.

Following a statement of objectives, ten problems, about which the unit is to be organized, are suggested:

1. What was the nature of the economic life and institutions with which the United States started out as a new nation?
2. What were the three revolutions started by Kay, Tull, Smith, and their followers?
3. What are the nature and the origin of the American money system?
4. What are the nature and the history of our banking system?
5. What has been the tariff history and experience of the United States?
6. What has been America's experience with the business cycle?
7. How and when has the government been an aid to business and economic enterprise, rather than a regulator?
8. What has been the trend of labor history in the United States?
9. What has been the history of transportation in the United States?
10. What have been the changes in business management and organization in United States history?

This unit is clearly an effort to reorganize historical materials so as to focus them on economic achievements, trends, and problems.

A Science Course Includes the Study of the Economic Effects of Science

In the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, a course in the physical sciences has been developed on the assumption that "as part of their contribution toward furthering the cause of a democratic society, science teachers should stress the social implications of their material. The problems of modern life, to the solving of which the physical sciences may make contributions, should be points of departure for much of the work of the course."³⁵

³⁵ Brown, H. Emmett. *The Development of a Course in the Physical Sciences for the Senior High School of the Lincoln School of Teachers College*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. p. 35.

In each of the fifteen units of the course, "social sensitivity" is regularly included among the important educational values to be sought. Moreover, several of the units are primarily concerned with the social and economic processes and problems with which the applications of science are inseparably associated. The titles of these units follow:

Unit 10. The processes by which our natural resources are made available for consumer use are fundamental to our present civilization.

Unit 13. Modern scientific technology is equally capable of being used for the good or the ill of mankind.

Unit 14. Information and techniques of science may be employed to insure the consumer a higher quality of goods.

Unit 15. The development of scientific knowledge and techniques has reached such a point as to make possible a better society and a better living for everyone, as judged by all the factors that constitute complete living.

Some Courses Are Centered in Current Economic Problems

A number of courses attack current economic issues directly, for example, "Current Economic Problems" for Grade XII in the South Pasadena, California, High School.³⁶ The course is composed of seven units to be taught in one semester:

1. Introductory Overview: American Economic Life
2. How I May Become an Intelligent Consumer
3. Can We Raise Our Level of Living Through Improved Production Methods?
4. The Exchange of Economic Goods
5. Where the Return from Production Goes
6. Making Our Savings Work
7. The Government and American Economic Life.

In the last unit, the outline of which follows, the close relationship between economic life and political institutions of democracy is apparent.

³⁶ Erickson, Elmer J. *Tuelfth Grade Social Studies*. Part II, "Current Economic Problems," Office of the County Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, Calif.; May 1939. 22 p. (Mimeo.)

Unit VII—The Government and American Economic Life

Problems of the Unit

1. Why was it necessary for government to step in and regulate business?
 - a. Why were the original efforts at government regulation directed at the railroads?
 - b. Why did the government adopt and attempt to enforce anti-trust legislation?
 - c. How did large corporations evade the anti-trust laws?
 - d. Do you think the government should revive the anti-monopoly fight? Why or why not? Are all monopolies undesirable? Why or why not?
2. Does government today regulate business too much? Why or why not?
 - a. Is our present administration interfering too much with private business in its combined efforts at conservation and power production? Why or why not?
 - b. Is government regulation of air, water, bus, and truck transportation, and telephone and telegraph communication too strict or too lenient? Discuss.
 - c. How does the government regulate stock exchanges and the issuance of securities? Is this plan too strict? Why or why not?
 - d. How does the Federal Trade Commission function? Does it hamper business unfairly? Why or why not?
 - e. Does the new Wages-Hours bill represent unfair government interference in private business? Why or why not?
 - f. How is business in California regulated by our state government? Is this regulation always fair?
 - g. Do we have local regulation of business? If so, what form does it take? Is it fair?
3. How does government foster the development of American industry and agriculture?
 - a. How has government research aided industry and agriculture?
 - b. How has government endeavored to stimulate foreign trade?
 - c. How has government aided in the financing of large and small business and agriculture?
 - d. How has government aided in the development of transportation and communication?
4. How does the federal government raise the money to pay for the manifold activities in which it engages?
 - a. Why does the federal government rely so heavily upon the income and estate taxes for its revenue? Why are these taxes termed progressive?
 - b. What tax reforms would you propose for the federal government?
 - c. How can the federal government balance the budget?

5. Can our level of living be raised through international cooperation?
 - a. What is meant by reciprocal trade agreements? How are they arranged?
 - b. How do recently arranged reciprocal trade agreements affect California industry, you, and your family? Are you in favor of these treaties? Why or why not?
6. Why should government underwrite the social security of its citizens?
 - a. How will the Social Security Act of 1935 affect you? Your family?
 - b. Do you favor extension or limiting of the Social Security Act? Why?

The social studies course of study in the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School at Gainesville, Florida, is highly flexible and the pupils share in the selection of units. In many schools in which this practice is followed, social and economic issues are often inadequately treated as compared with problems more personal in character. Examination of the units taught at the P. K. Yonge School, however, shows that a good balance has been maintained between personal and social interests. A unit called "How May We Assist in Securing Industrial Democracy?" is fairly representative of the type of materials on economic questions used in this school.⁸⁷ The objectives set up by the class included an understanding of the factors causing industrial change, of the issues involved in current industrial clashes, and of the possibilities of raising the standard of living through different distribution of the national income. Among the topics investigated and discussed in the course of the unit were: unemployment and relief; labor organizations and their development; causes of and proposed remedies for conflicts between employers and labor; cooperatives; and government action relating to industry and labor.

⁸⁷ University of Florida and the State Department of Education. *Curriculum Record, Unit V, Grade 12, 1938-39*. Gainesville, Fla.: P. K. Yonge Laboratory School. p. 787-98.

Many Units on Specific Economic Problems Have Been Developed

A large number of schools have developed good units on specific economic problems. A Tulsa, Oklahoma, unit on "Cooperatives"³⁸ contains an introduction and overview; a suggested outline for study; suggestions for class discussions, projects, and research activities; and an extensive bibliography from periodicals, pamphlets, and books. In Cleveland, Ohio, a unit on "Employer and Employee" is taught in the modern problems course.³⁹ It includes teaching materials on the history, status, and forms of labor unions, the demands and policies of organized laborers and organized employers, and the weapons of economic warfare and tools of economic cooperation. In Los Angeles a unit on "Labor in America" begins by stating, "The purpose of this unit should be to give an understanding of the reasons why labor problems exist, the attempts that are being made to deal with them, and the difficulties that stand in the way. Most students are very shortly going to have to face the question, 'Shall I or shall I not join a labor union?'" With this orientation the unit presents a wide variety of teaching suggestions concerning labor and the labor movement.⁴⁰

A number of units of work, both in social studies and mathematics, deal with matters of taxation, public finance, public debt, and social insurance, though these units are not widely taught. In the high school of Waynesboro, Virginia, a mathematics class centered a semester's study on

³⁸ Board of Education, Social Studies Department. *A Unit on Cooperatives*. Contemporary Problems, Grade XI. Tulsa, Okla. 53 p. (Mimeo.)

³⁹ Board of Education. *Employer and Employee*. Modern Problems Unit No. 7. Cleveland, Ohio: the Board, 1938. 19 p. (Mimeo.)

⁴⁰ Los Angeles City School District. *Labor in America*. Course of Study in American Life and Institutions. Los Angeles, Calif.: the District, 1938. 31 p. (Mimeo.)

local taxation, revenue and expenditures, and the services received by the public in return for its money. The social studies course in the John W. Weeks Junior High School in Newton, Massachusetts, includes a unit on "Local Government and Problems of the City of Newton," with a section on taxation. In a course on home planning in Sacramento, California, Senior High School, problems of finance are studied in a unit on "Home Ownership," including financing operations, taxes, insurance, operation costs, and the relation of realty investment to community welfare.¹¹

*The Study of Economics Sometimes
Begins with the Life of the School*

The school itself is sometimes the point of beginning for the study of economic matters. Such examples are rare, for economic instruction tends often to deal only with remote institutions and affairs. In the Ellerbe, North Carolina, High School, the students manage the school store as a phase of the study of economics. The core of instruction in Grade X in the Pine Mountain Settlement School of Harlan County, Kentucky, is the administration of a successful school cooperative. Students in the Norris, Tennessee, High School also direct the consumers cooperative of their institution. In both schools, this experience of management is accompanied by study of cooperatives. In the Benjamin Franklin High School of New York City, classes in economics made a thoroughgoing examination of the finances of the school cafeteria, which led on to a study of administrative policies concerning cafeteria operation. In the Holtville High School, Deatsville, Alabama, the students manage a refrigeration plant, a bank, a hatchery,

¹¹ Board of Education. *Home Planning I. Course of Study, Public Schools*. Sacramento, Calif.: the Board. 23 p. (Mimeo.)

a cooperative store, a printing press, a community motion picture show, and a newspaper, all as a part of the curriculum of the school. All these Holtville projects involve the adult population of the community as well as the students, and the economic experiences of these students seem to be genuine. These are some promising examples of what may be done to approach the study of economics by way of direct contact with economic processes and problems.

*Economic Problems Are Too Often
Studied in Isolation from Democratic Principles*

One shortcoming runs through much of the teaching of modern problems observed in this study. The problems are usually studied and discussed in isolation. Their bearing upon American democracy, which ought to be made clear, is usually only vaguely implied. This is more frequently true of economic problems than of political, for we are only slowly becoming aware of the close interrelations between our national economy and democracy. Fortunately, there are exceptions to be noted. Reference has already been made to the modern problems course in Theodore Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, in which a unit on the nature and ideals of democracy introduced the course and served as a constant background and point of reference for later units. A similar background study of the nature of democracy and of the scientific method of attacking problems precedes the study of particular questions in the modern problems course for Grade XII in the Sacramento, California, Senior High School. In one of the modern problems classes in the high school of Eugene, Oregon, the instructor had made a large wall chart in which parallel columns were devoted to democracy, fascism, and communism. As contemporary problems and situations were discussed in the class, there was constant

reference to the chart, with the question, "What does democracy demand in this issue?"

Courses in economics are taught more and more commonly in the American secondary schools, but they are still, for the most part, elective. Even in most of the schools which offer the courses and units described in this section, only a relatively small number of students enrol in economics classes. As long as economics and modern problems remain elective, it will unfortunately be possible for the majority of students to graduate from high school without any systematic instruction in the economic foundations of American life. Study of the economic aspects of our civilization should be required no less than study of the political and cultural.

5. SOCIAL WELFARE

The inclusion of social welfare as a separate section of this report requires no justification beyond the preamble to the Constitution of the United States. The purposes, "to promote the general welfare and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity," undoubtedly meant more to the authors of the Constitution than economic welfare and political liberty alone. As this Commission has already pointed out in an earlier report, popular education has been considered essential to the general welfare from the time of Washington, Jefferson, and Madison.⁴⁵ With the passing of the years the conception of the general welfare has been steadily broadened to suit the changing conditions of our national life. Today, we find that health, old-age insurance, care of the handicapped, aid to the unemployed, housing, conservation, and recreation, as well

⁴⁵ National Education Association and Department of Superintendence, Educational Policies Commission. *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1937. Chap. II.

as education, are commonly considered matters of public concern and essential to national welfare.

The Broader Concept of Social Welfare Is Reflected in the Schools

What the schools are teaching about social welfare is therefore quite pertinent to this study of education for citizenship. Problems of social welfare are commonly included in the modern problems courses which many schools are offering. For example, in the social problems course in the University High School in Oakland, California, after the units common to all modern problems courses, the following units are pursued:

1. The influence of natural conditions upon the economic and social life of men
2. The institutions of society—the family, industry, state, school, church
3. The family, oldest institution of society
4. Maladjustments in our present social order—unemployment, poverty, relief, delinquency, crime
5. People in need of help—physically handicapped, mentally handicapped
6. Forward looking plans: e. g., social security legislation.⁴³

A more comprehensive outline of social welfare topics is found in the course-of-study materials for secondary schools issued by the State Department of Education of Virginia. One of the areas suggested for instruction is "Conserving Human Resources." The following outline, while in no sense a hard-and-fast statement of ground to be covered, indicates the scope of the area within which teacher and class may work.

Conserving Human Resources

- I. Stresses which tend to deplete human resources
 - A. Difficulty of gaining steady and congenial employment
 - B. Individual and social unrest

⁴³ University High School. *Résumé of Courses in the Social Studies Department*. Oakland, Calif.: the High School. 8 p. (Mimeo.)

- C. Weakening social controls
 - D. Unassimilated immigrant cliques
 - E. Racketeering, vice, and crime
 - F. The existence of mob spirit
 - G. Lack of respect for integrity of others
- II. Resources to conserve
- A. Physical health
 - B. Mental health and intellectual freedom
 - C. Special abilities of individuals
 - D. Personality
- III. Methods of conserving human resources
- A. Prevention of war
 - B. Reduction of accidents
 - C. Adequate medical care
 - D. Reduction of infant mortality
 - E. Protection of the unfortunate
 - F. Education based on need
 - G. Provision for economic security
 - H. Elimination of conditions making for "blight areas"
 - I. Removal of slums
 - J. Provision for recreational needs
 - K. Provision for aesthetic needs
 - L. Rehabilitation, both personal and vocational
 - M. Resettlement of population of sub-marginal lands.⁴¹

Youth Problems, Education, Social Security, Housing, and Crime Are Studied

A large number of good units on particular social welfare topics have been developed, a few of which will be described. "Youth Faces the Modern World" is the first unit taught in the modern problems course in Grade XII of the Cleveland, Ohio, high schools.⁴² It suggests activities, projects, and readings through which young people may examine the social situation in which youth finds itself today. The outline for the unit follows:

⁴¹ Virginia State Board of Education. *Materials of Instruction Suggested for the Second Year of the Core Curriculum of Secondary Schools*. Richmond, Va.: the Board, 1938. 201 p. (Mimeo.) See p. 47 ff.

⁴² Board of Education, Division of Social Studies. *Youth Faces the Modern World*. Modern Problems Unit No. 1, Grade XII. Cleveland, Ohio: the Board, 1938. 30 p. (Mimeo.)

- A. Positions of youth today
 - 1. Youth in our population
 - a. Age limits
 - b. Nativity and parentage
 - c. Distribution by sexes
 - d. Number in comparison with adults
 - e. Shifts in relative numbers
 - 2. Status of American youth
 - a. Employed
 - b. Unemployed
 - c. In school
 - d. Marriage by age groups
 - e. Transient youth
 - f. Crime statistics
- B. Youth movements in foreign lands
- C. Youth in America
 - 1. American youth "problem"
 - a. Adjustment of youth to society
 - b. Youth and jobs
 - 2. Youth asserting itself
 - a. Youth movement
 - b. Youth organizations
 - 3. Efforts to aid youth
 - a. Government and education
 - b. Vocational guidance
 - c. Placement advices
 - d. Federal Works Program
 - e. Leisure-time opportunities
 - f. Future responsibility
 - g. Conservation of human resources.

The unit is an orientation to the study of modern problems, and an attempt to recognize and help clarify the point of view of youth.

Attention should be called to two additional units in the Cleveland course of study. The first deals with "Social Security," presenting not only the theoretical bases and social issues involved but also an analysis of the operation of presentday social security measures, local, state, and federal.⁴² The second unit, or rather group of units, deals

⁴² Board of Education, Division of Social Studies. *Social Security*. Modern Problems Unit No. 9, Grade XII. Cleveland, Ohio: the Board. 1939. 22 p. (Mimeo.)

with housing. A special bulletin on *Unit Guides for the Study of Housing and Civic Beautification*, issued in 1938 as an aid to interdepartmental correlation, contains units from the fields of art, home economics, home gardening, industrial arts, social mathematics, social studies, and science. The bulletin is valuable not only for the teaching materials and suggestions it contains but also as an example of one means of promoting integrated teaching.⁴⁷

In a Grade X course in social studies, the Schenectady, New York, public schools include a unit on "Social Conflict and Cooperation," which brings together for teaching purposes a body of sociological data and ethical ideals. A brief outline of the unit follows:

Social Conflict and Cooperation

1. Man in conflict with nature
2. Problems in social cooperation
 - a. War
 - b. Economic competition
 - c. Race differences
3. Attempts to replace conflict with cooperation
4. Difficulties hampering growth of cooperation.⁴⁸

The unit makes extensive use of historical materials, applying them to contemporary situations and problems. A similar unit on "Social Change" is taught in Grade XII in Rochester, New York. In it, pupils are led into study of three basic questions: Why is social change necessary? What are the methods of social reform? What is progress? Such units as these last two cut across a variety of modern problems.⁴⁹

⁴⁷ Board of Education. *Unit Guides for the Study of Housing and Civic Beautification*. Cleveland, Ohio: the Board, 1938. 114 p. (Mimeo.)

⁴⁸ Department of Public Instruction. *Social Conflict and Cooperation*. Guide for the Social Studies, Grade X, Unit V. Schenectady, N. Y.: the Department, 1936. 16 p. (Mimeo.)

⁴⁹ Board of Education. *Modern Political and Social Problems*. Unit IV of Twelfth-Grade Social Studies. Rochester, N. Y.: the Board. (Mimeo.)

Three other units dealing with social problems will be mentioned, but not described. All may be secured from the producing schools. These are: a Los Angeles unit on "The Role of the Negro in the American Scene";⁵⁰ a Des Moines source unit for Grade XII, called "What Are the Crime Problems of the Community, State, and Nation, and What Can Be Done about Them?"⁵¹ and a unit on "War and Peace" for Grade XI in Tulsa, Oklahoma.⁵²

6. POLITICAL INSTITUTIONS AND PROCESSES

A large proportion of the time allotted to the study of contemporary society is devoted to political institutions and problems. Unfortunately, much of the course-of-study material in this field shows the influence of the formalized "civics" of an earlier day. Many courses are still concerned chiefly with bookish descriptions of the structure of institutions of government, to the exclusion of inquiries as to how these institutions work, how they affect the daily lives of individuals, and how the individual in turn can influence them through his activities as a citizen. Some schools, reacting against a lifeless study of government, have adopted modern problems courses which include political as well as economic and social problems but often fail to provide for systematic study of political institutions and the ways in which they operate. Such reaction, commendable though it may be, should not blind

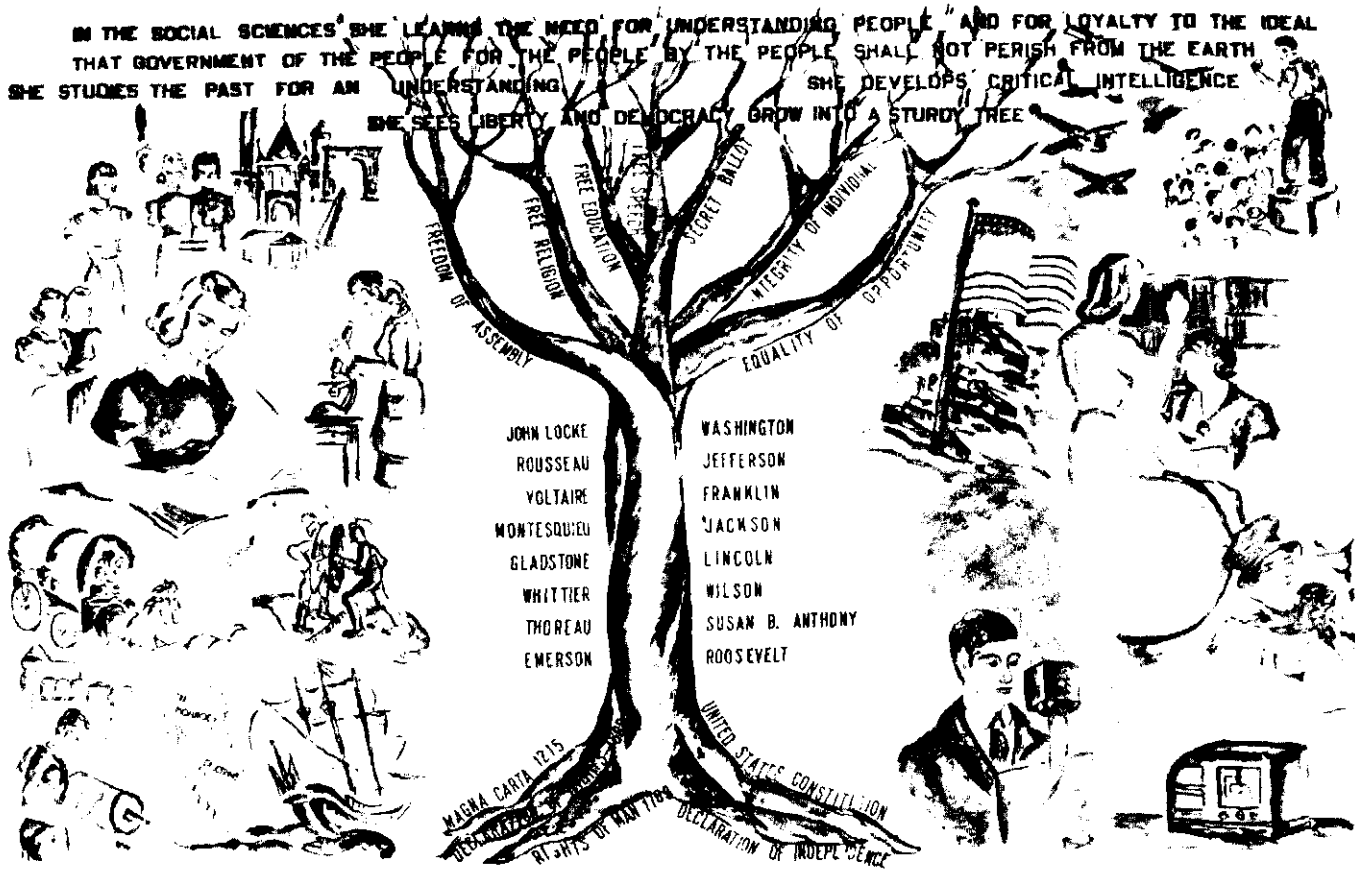
⁵⁰ Los Angeles City School District, Division of Instruction and Curriculum. *The Role of the Negro in the American Scene*. Course of Study for American Life and Institutions, Grade XI. Los Angeles, Calif.: the District, 1939. 36 p. (Mimeo.)

⁵¹ Board of Education. *What Are the Crime Problems of the Community, State, and Nation, and What Can Be Done about Them?* Curriculum Bulletin for Grade XII. Des Moines, Iowa: the Board, 1939. 24 p. (Mimeo.)

⁵² Board of Education, Division of Social Studies. *A Unit on War and Peace*. Course in Contemporary Problems, Grade XI. Tulsa, Okla.: the Board, 1938. 59 p. (Mimeo.)

IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES SHE LEARNS THE NEED FOR UNDERSTANDING PEOPLE AND FOR LOYALTY TO THE IDEAL
 THAT GOVERNMENT OF THE PEOPLE FOR THE PEOPLE BY THE PEOPLE SHALL NOT PERISH FROM THE EARTH
 SHE STUDIES THE PAST FOR AN UNDERSTANDING SHE DEVELOPS CRITICAL INTELLIGENCE
 SHE SEES LIBERTY AND DEMOCRACY GROW INTO A STURDY TREE

[96]



THE TREE OF LIBERTY

A mural in the main hall of Julia Richman High School, New York City, designed and painted by students of the school.

us to the facts that the terms "democracy" and "citizenship" refer primarily, though not exclusively, to political institutions and relationships, and that the understanding of the institutions and processes of government is an essential qualification of the citizen of a democracy.

*The Functions of Government Are Taught
as Inseparable from Economic and Social Life*

There is a growing tendency in some schools toward studying government in terms of its functions, rather than of its structure alone. The machinery of government is examined as it is actually working in practice, rather than as it is prescribed in legal documents. Furthermore, each function of government is viewed in relation to the purposes which it is intended to serve. When government is approached in this way, the lines of demarcation between political, economic, and social fields become less and less distinct. Government is seen to extend its operations far into economic and social life, while economic and social conditions, in turn, exert a profound influence on government.

An illustration of this tendency in school practice appears in a civics course for Grade IX recently developed for the schools of Baltimore County, Maryland.³³ The first unit of the course is a sociological survey of the immediate community, with analysis of the composition and distribution of the county's human and economic resources. This unit is followed by one on local government as it relates to the conservation and further development of these resources. The third unit is a survey of the resources of the state of Maryland, and this, in turn, is followed by a unit on the activities of state government. Succeeding

³³ Baltimore County Board of Education. *Course in Citizenship for Grade IX*. Towson, Md.: the Board, 1939. 100 p. (Mimeo.)

units deal with aspects of federal government, each political institution or operation being closely associated with the human needs it is designed to serve.

The Boynton Junior High School in Ithaca, New York, has a similar plan for the study of government, as outlined in an unusually complete syllabus prepared in 1938.⁵⁴ In Grade IX one unit of the course in social studies provides a survey of the structure of local, state, and national government, and the succeeding unit builds on this foundation an analysis of "Functions of Government." The introduction to the latter unit follows:

Since the adoption of the Constitution there have been differences of opinion as to the kinds and amount of power to be entrusted to the federal and state governments respectively. The teacher, in presenting this unit, should exercise care not to propagandize for or against states' rights. Rather it should be his purpose to center the attention on certain functions so important that they must be understood by intelligent citizens. In each case the pupils should (1) study the present machinery for exercising the function, (2) consider the arguments for and against the exercise of the function by the state and federal governments, and (3) on the basis of available evidence, reach a tentative conclusion as to the desirability of exercise of the function by the state or federal government, or both. It is quite possible, and even desirable, that differences of opinion prevail in connection with certain of these tentative conclusions. As far as possible the pupils should be prepared to make a thorough and systematic study of issues in much the same way that they will have to study them as intelligent adult citizens.

To carry out this purpose, the unit outline suggests study of governmental operations dealing with (1) crime, (2) public health and morals, (3) ownership and operation of public services, (4) care of the sick and handicapped, (5) old age and unemployment insurance, and (6) regulation of industry and labor. Study-guide questions, activities and projects, and bibliographies are suggested for each of these areas.

⁵⁴ Board of Education. *Course of Study in Social Studies: Grades 7, 8, 9*. Experimental Edition. See Units IV and V of Grade IX. Ithaca, N. Y.: the Board, 1938. (Mimeo.)

The social studies course for Grade IX-B in the Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, public schools aims to provide the knowledge and experiences about government which junior high-school boys and girls will find most meaningful. Beginning with the face-to-face relationships of everyday living, the course moves outward to include larger, more complex institutions, constantly seeking to remove the impression of remoteness by showing how these institutions affect daily living.

The first unit considers the student's personality, his responsibilities in the world, and his opportunities to improve himself. The next unit takes up the more intimate associations—the student's relationship to his home, church, school, and community. Reaching out into a still larger area, the third unit considers the student and his government, under five headings:

- A. The Bases for Government
- B. Outstanding Characteristics of Our Government
- C. The Organization and Work of Our Government
- D. Our Government and Other Governments
- E. How Citizens May Take Part in the Activities of Government.

In the final unit, ways are studied by which the government and other public agencies help to promote the health, security, safety, and welfare of the individual.⁵⁵

The inseparability of the political, economic, and social is recognized in the organization of certain courses of study in Los Angeles and Oakland, California. The Los Angeles public schools have developed a course in "American Life and Institutions," for Grade XI. The units of this course are arranged in four areas on a large chart which includes suggestions as to the (a) current conditions, (b) historical background, (c) outstanding personalities, (d) social

⁵⁵ Board of Public Education. *High School Social Studies, Ninth Grade*. (Tentative Outline, September 1939.) Pittsburgh, Pa.: the Board, 1939. 65 p. (Mimeo.)

implications, (e) political factors, (f) economic factors, (g) cultural factors, and (h) personal applications, worth developing in each unit. The general outline of the course follows:

1. *American Ideals* (Required of all.)
- Area I. *Social Aspects of American Society* (Choose one unit.)
 2. Immigration
 3. Racial and National Origins
 4. Rise of Social Institutions
- Area II. *Geographical and Social Aspects* (Choose one unit.)
 5. The Frontier
 6. Conservation of Natural Resources
 7. Regionalism in the United States
- Area III. *Economic and Social Aspects* (Choose one unit.)
 8. Rise of Big Business
 9. Labor
 10. The Farmer
- Area IV. *Political and Social Aspects* (Touch each area, but emphasize one.)
 11. Getting and Spending Public Money
 12. Making and Observing Laws
 13. Selecting Public Officials
 14. Finding Our Place in World Affairs
 15. Challenges to Democracy (Required of all.)⁵⁶

Through this arrangement the study of modern institutions and problems is made more flexible, without ignoring the desirability of acquainting all pupils with selected critical areas of democratic living.

In the University High School, Oakland, three social studies courses are offered for Grade XI, of which the student must choose one. These courses bear the titles: "Social Problems," "Political Problems," and "Economic Problems." Instead of being quite distinct courses, the three have at least half their work in common, as will be seen from the following outline of the "Political Problems" course:

⁵⁶ Based on functional chart of course in "American Life and Institutions." Board of Education, Los Angeles, Calif., 1939.

- I. Units of work common to the three courses
 - A. Particular objectives of the social studies to be emphasized in Grade XI required courses
 - B. Aids to the study of problems available at University High School and in the community
 - C. The molding of public opinion
 - D. Being a citizen of the present social order—in the government of (a) University High School, (b) Oakland, (c) California, (d) the United States
 1. Brief résumé of government as University High School students understand it through:
 - a. Personal management and social living—emphasis upon use
 - b. American history—emphasis upon changing forms and use
 2. Definitions of citizenship
 3. Privileges and responsibilities of citizenship
 4. Duties and obligations of citizenship
 - E. The role of education in achieving political progress
 - F. Paying for what we want—taxation
- II. Units of work found only in the "Political Problems" course
 - A. Government—the agency for expressing the desires of the people
 1. Citizenship in the state
 - a. Political parties
 - b. Suffrage
 2. The functioning of government—problems of the day selected as the content for the study of:
 - a. Legislative functions of government
 - b. Executive functions of government
 - c. Judicial functions of government
 - B. How a democracy differs from other government organizations in its operation; comparative governments.¹⁷

The study of contemporary problems, instead of being a series of relatively unrelated exercises, here becomes a means whereby the student may gain a better understanding of the functioning of the various institutions of democratic government.

¹⁷ University High School. *Résumé of Courses in the Social Studies Department*. Oakland, Calif.: the High School. 8 p. (Mimeo.)

History Throws Light on the Understanding of Contemporary Government

An approach to the study of government through history may be illustrated in a course on "The Rise and Development of Self-Government" for Grade X students in Tulsa, Oklahoma. In developing the course, the teachers of American history were first excused from classes for a week's intensive study with a curriculum consultant. Weekly meetings of the group followed for an entire semester, with teachers listing (1) the contemporary understandings needed in the area, (2) the historical elements focusing on these understandings, (3) the things students might undertake to do in order to grasp the understandings, and (4) the pertinent teaching references and materials available. The following general outline of "topics about which students should do some thinking" was developed:

Rise and Development of Self-Government

- I. To what modern understandings can this contribute?
 - A. Machinery of self-government
 1. Party machinery: origin and growth
 2. Bureaucracy
 3. Pressure groups: lobbying
 4. The citizen's share in self-government
 - a. Office holding
 - b. Voting
 - c. Qualifications
 - d. Right of petition
 - e. Organize to express his position
 - B. Suggested Reforms
 1. Short ballot
 2. Popular election of President
 3. Referendum, initiative, recall
 4. Unicameral legislature
 5. Civil Service
 6. Judicial reform
 7. Sectional vs. national representation
 8. Policies vs. personalities
 - C. Legitimate Areas of Government Action
 1. Regulation of competitors: I. C. C.

2. Regulation of business morals
 3. Subsidizing business
 4. Competition with business
 5. Police power
 6. Taxation, tariff, and income
- D. The citizen and self-government
1. Civil rights
 2. Majority vs. minority rights
 3. The citizen's relations to the law
 - a. Part in law making
 - b. Obedience to law
 - c. Legitimate violation for protest cases
 - d. Lynching and mob action.⁵⁸

Teachers were urged to develop units of work within the frame of this outline, and the curriculum committee prepared elaborate source units for their aid.

Specific Problems of Government Are Frequently Studied

Many units have been developed dealing with special phases of government, for example, one on "Civil Service," also from Tulsa. The general purpose of the unit is stated in a quotation from the report of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, "It is generally agreed by public officials and employees, by business and civic leaders, by labor officials, and by politicians that the time has come for a new nationwide program for the improvement of the quality of the personnel of government." The unit is intended to show students:

1. The steps which have been taken toward creating an efficient government personnel
2. Why it is so necessary that an efficient government personnel be created
3. The steps that have been taken to survey existing conditions
4. The specific reforms that have been advocated.

⁵⁸ Bowman, Nelle E., and Larson, Esther. *Some Philosophy and Experience in Evolving a Social-Studies Program*. Tulsa, Okla.: Tulsa Board of Education, 1938. 43 p. (Mimeo.)

An outline of possible topics for study in connection with the unit suggests:

1. Historical background of Civil Service (1789-1881)
2. First promptings to reform (1865-1881)
3. Advances toward permanent reform (1881-1938)
4. Recent steps toward reform
5. New requirements of the Civil Service
6. Important trends in state, county, and city personnel
7. Government employment and career service
8. The need for public action.⁶⁷

The unit booklet includes suggestions for teaching, for keeping the material on personnel up to date, and for relating it to students' vocational interests. This unit is also noteworthy in its combination of historical and political science materials in the study of a current problem.

It is not enough, however, for students to learn about the structure and operation of institutions of government. If democracy is to be efficient, citizens must also be skilled in the use of the procedures of democratic action.⁶⁸ These skills are not instinctive. They must be learned, and there is no agency so well suited to teach them as is the school. Hence a rightful place in the civic education program belongs to such homely but necessary skills as marking a ballot, reading a newspaper critically, securing licenses, paying taxes, locating reliable information in libraries or in governmental reports, taking part in public discussions or in committee action, and helping to shape enlightened public opinion.

A great deal of learning of these skills takes place in student councils, homerooms, clubs, forums, and other out-of-classroom activities, and as a result of democratic teaching in the classroom. Such learnings will be discussed in succeeding chapters. Here we are concerned with pro-

⁶⁷ Board of Education, Social Studies Department. *Civil Service*. Contemporary Problems. Grade XI. Tulsa, Okla., 1939. 78 p. (Mimeo.)

⁶⁸ See pages 22-23.

vision in the course of study for instruction in democratic procedures.

*Parliamentary Procedure and Techniques
of Group Discussion Are Learned through Experience*

Many of the schools visited are providing systematic experience in parliamentary procedure. Not only in extra-curricular clubs and societies, but also in classes—English, “social living,” and speech, for example—students learn how group business can be conducted most efficiently. In the high school of Eugene, Oregon, all general classes in the school are organized as “democracies,” and run according to standard rules of procedure in handling their group affairs. Pupils appoint and hear committees, make motions, carry on discussions and vote. Each class is supplied with handbooks on parliamentary procedure, and students quickly learn to participate efficiently in group action. In the Tappan Junior High School of Ann Arbor, Michigan, instruction in parliamentary procedure begins with the homeroom presidents, who then pass this instruction on to their fellow students through parliamentary practices in homeroom meetings.

A unit on “Parliamentary Drill” is offered as part of the English program in the Sacramento, California, Senior High School. The objectives of the unit are stated as follows:

1. To enable the student to see and experience the practical working of some of the fundamental principles of democracy, such as fair play, the exchange of ideas, the rule of the majority, etc.
2. To enable the student to develop consciously some of the attributes of democracy, such as courtesy, tolerance, cooperation, etc.
3. To develop in the student a sense of responsibility and leadership through elections and the holding of offices
4. To prepare the student for cooperation and leadership in adult club and other organization activities
5. To enable the student to develop self-confidence and poise.

The content centers on the group activity of organizing a club, making its constitution, and carrying on a variety of types of group business. There is a tendency in some schools to allow the "rules of order" to become ends in themselves, but in the three schools just mentioned this tendency seemed to be avoided and the rules were used as means to ends.

Valuable as is instruction in the relatively formal conduct of group business, even greater emphasis should be placed on the development of ability to lead and take part in informal group discussion, which is sincere, orderly, and purposeful. Relatively few schools have consciously turned pupils' attention to the technique of constructive discussion. In the high school in Santa Barbara, California, an elective course for seniors, called "Open Forum," attempts to combine instruction along these lines with the study of modern problems. On topics of their own choosing, pupils try out various methods of provoking and guiding discussion, and in reaching group solutions. In the Hutchins Intermediate School of Detroit, groups of students cooperatively taught by a teacher of English, a librarian, and a teacher of social studies, consciously analyze their own techniques, especially during the planning phases of their work. In Friends' Central School in Overbrook, Philadelphia, students take part in discussions at the student round tables of the Foreign Policy Association of Philadelphia. Several times each year they broadcast unrehearsed discussions on topics growing out of their class work. In Theodore Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Iowa, students attend adult forums and make reports to their classes about the forums which they have visited. Their reports include evaluations of discussion technique as well as of content. In New York City, Cleveland, Pittsburgh, Los Angeles, and elsewhere, high-school students

have been broadcasting round-table discussions, immediately following the nationwide broadcasts of Columbia's "This Living World" series. Such experiences are of great value, especially when considered in connection with the recent growth in adult education activities and in public forums. Further evidences of what schools can do to improve the quality of group discussions will be found in later descriptions of teaching method.

Instruction Is Given in Habits of Sound Thinking

Basic to constructive discussion, as also to the formation of sound judgments, is training in habits of good thinking and clear expression. Such training is not confined to single units or subjects of work but must systematically permeate the entire curriculum. In this respect the Virginia State Core Curriculum for a full eleven-year system is worth examination. Some of the most impressive training in scientific thinking on social problems is carried on in mathematics classes. The teaching of mathematics in the high school at Shaker Heights, Ohio, involves careful analysis of the techniques of thinking and of the nature of proof, and practice in the use of such techniques in social situations.⁶¹ Similar practices were found at the George School, in Pennsylvania, and in Norris, Tennessee, High School. In the mathematics classes of Lewis and Clark High School in Spokane, Washington, special attention is given to the construction and use of graphic materials on the quantitative aspects of social affairs. Other examples, drawn from classes in science, English, home economics, and other fields, will be found in the next chapter.

⁶¹ For a more complete description, see pages 164-66.

*Public Opinion Is Studied as an
Important Factor in Democracy*

Units on "Public Opinion and Propaganda" are found in the courses of study of many schools. Emphasis is frequently laid almost exclusively on immunizing students against misleading propaganda. The more constructive approach, which shows how public opinion is formed and how it becomes effective and which stresses individual responsibility for helping to shape sound public opinion, is too often neglected. Without minimizing the instruction concerning propaganda as such, the possibility for guiding the development of public opinion toward positive social ends needs more attention than it usually receives.

Several units will illustrate this constructive approach to the study of public opinion and propaganda. A unit on "How Our Community Forms Its Opinions," for Grade VIII in the schools of Schenectady, New York, is introduced as follows:

It seems proper that we should devote some time to a consideration of how we form and express opinions in our community. What are the things which lead you to think as you do about the questions of daily life? What helps you to make your opinions? Do you get your information from your own experience or from the experience of others? Are your opinions expressed because of partiality, dislikes, or prejudices, or do you often express opinions without any actual information on the subject?

In a democracy where free speech and free press are so highly prized, this is very important. What do you think when you find someone else's opinion differing from yours? Do you immediately conclude that you were wrong or that the other person is wrong, or do you try to get information that will enable you to prove to yourself which view is essentially correct? There are ways in which we can test the soundness of our opinions and the purpose of this unit is to open up these ways to us.

The outline around which the unit is developed covers the following topics:

1. Opinions: What they are and how they are made
 1. Character of opinion

2. Forming opinions by reasoned conclusions
 3. Public opinion; its nature and how it is judged
- II. Agencies which aid in opinion expression and formation
1. The modern world of print
 2. The newspapers
 3. Magazines
 4. Books
 5. The radio
 6. The motion picture
- III. Propaganda
1. Meaning of the term
 2. Dangers of propaganda
 3. Benefits of propaganda
 4. Education and propaganda
 5. Types of propaganda
- IV. Responsibility of the individual in opinion formation
1. Discussion
 2. Wise statement of opinions
 3. Judgment of opinions stated by others.⁶²

A unit with similar viewpoint is taught in the senior year in the high schools of Rochester, New York. Its stated objectives are:

1. To show the psychological factors at work in all of us which create background for the formation of public attitude
2. To help pupils understand both the constructive and destructive factors at work in public opinion as a great determining force in social organization
3. To show the necessity for scientific thinking in facing and dealing with personal and public problems as the basis for a more reasonable social order.⁶²

The unit outline follows:

- I. Where do you get your opinions?
 1. The meaning and origin of personal opinions, beliefs, and prejudices
 2. The role of instinct, habit, and environment in making adjustment to life situations

⁶² Department of Public Instruction. *How Our Community Forms Its Opinions*. Guide for the Social Studies, Grade VIII. Unit 4. Schenectady, N. Y.: the Department. 9 p. (Mimeo.)

⁶² Board of Education. *Public Opinion*. Social Studies Course of Study, Grade XII, Unit III. Rochester, N. Y.: the Board. (Mimeo.) See p. 24-38.

3. Special factors which operate in making sensory observations and determining attitudes
 4. Why beliefs and attitudes are subject to change, and how adjustments are made
 5. Types of thinking, and their application to personal and public problems
- II. How is public opinion formed, manipulated, and controlled?
1. Description of agencies
 2. Appeals and methods
 3. Attempts to estimate and measure public opinion
- III. What serious problems exist in American democracy today concerning public opinion?
1. Current threats to civil and political liberty
 2. Academic freedom and discussion of public problems in the classroom
 3. Extension of procedures of scientific thought to public and personal problems
- IV. How can you help to create enlightened public opinion in our democracy?

In the Sacramento, California, Senior High School an experiment is under way in bringing diffused materials from the traditional fields of English and social studies to a focus in the study of "Modern Means of Communication." The course as now taught in Grade XI includes these units:

1. Word study and critical reading, with emphasis on the power of words to guide or to mislead (Includes study of advertising and propaganda)
2. Parliamentary law to provide a useful means for the practice of communications
3. Study of newspapers, with emphasis on how to read them for information, and how to use them for the improvement of the students' own writing (Includes study of newsreels)
4. Study of magazines with similar purposes and a greater emphasis on the choice of leisure-time reading
5. Study of radio with a view to the improvement of the student's own oral and written expression and of his choice of programs
6. Letter writing
7. Comprehension, and essentials of grammar, punctuation, spelling.⁶⁴

⁶⁴ Sacramento Senior High School. *English 5X and Y. Course on the Modern Means of Communication*. Sacramento, Calif.: the High School. 8 p. (Mimeo.)

In addition to general units on public opinion a number of schools are developing more intensive units on particular communication industries. An example of promising work of this type is a unit on "The Radio as an Influence To Mold and Reflect Man's Achievements," taught in the Basic Living course in Grade X of the high school in Burbank, California.⁶⁵ In many respects the "sociology of communication," which is the core of this unit, is one of the most promising of all areas for development in the study of public opinion.

Even the Simple Skills Must Be Learned

There are many opportunities—some of which schools are seizing—for training prospective citizens in the routine skills of civic action. The method of marking a ballot is one of these. To make certain that no pupil graduates from school without knowledge of the procedure of voting, the high schools of Detroit, Michigan, and Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, for example, have school elections at the times of municipal elections. Using the same ballot as their elders, and on the same election day, pupils vote on a citywide basis. This procedure, carried on for several years past, is now recognized by the lay public and the press as practically a straw ballot, with results available several hours in advance of the regular election results.

A few schools are providing systematic instruction for pupils, not only in the general use of the library, but also in the use of official reports and governmental documents—local, state, and national. In Framingham, Massachusetts, pupils study the town warrant in advance of

⁶⁵ Board of Education. *Radio as an Influence to Mold and Reflect Man's Achievements*. Grade X Unit. Burbank, Calif.: the Board, 1939. (Typewritten.)

the town meeting, and deal with it very much as their parents do.⁶⁶ In Baltimore County, Maryland, the use of official reports of the health department, welfare departments, planning boards, and administrative divisions of government is stressed. In many modern problems courses the location and use of reports and documents issued by the federal and state governments and by semi-public agencies are a regular part of the class work.⁶⁷

Civics Instruction Is Related to the Actual Political Scene

There are a number of promising attempts to vitalize instruction about government by relating it more closely and realistically to the local political scene and to students' participation in civic affairs. These developments will be described more fully in later chapters, but some will be briefly noted here. A bulletin of the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction⁶⁸ describes a project carried on in the Radnor Township High School of Wayne, Pennsylvania, at the time of the last presidential election. Students in a civics class organized as the national committees of the opposing political parties, carried on a spirited campaign for the regular presidential nominees, held registration and an election in the city polling places especially opened for their use, and analyzed the results of their election and of the election in the nation as a whole.

One of the social studies classes in the O'Keefe Junior High School in Atlanta, Georgia, is organized and con-

⁶⁶ For a more complete description, see pages 151-53.

⁶⁷ For an example, see the description of the course in Moultrie, Georgia, High School on pages 114-18.

⁶⁸ State Department of Public Instruction, *Suggestions for Developing a Social Studies Program in the Secondary School*, Bulletin 411, Harrisburg, Pa.: the Department, 1939, p. 20-26.

ducted after the pattern of the United States Senate on one day of each week during the period when Congress is in session. This class keeps in close touch with the actions of Congress through the *Congressional Record* and a weekly newspaper for schools to which all students subscribe. In the course of each year, this class also visits the state legislature, various state executive offices, the county courthouse, and the city council. The Stanford Junior High School in Sacramento, California, is organized according to the model of the city government of Sacramento, which is of the city manager type. The faculty undertakes to provide frequent contacts between students and city officials in order to guard against the dangers of artificiality which are latent in such an organization. In the Theodore Roosevelt High School, in Des Moines, Iowa, a group of pupils initiated and carried out a successful campaign throughout the city to "get out the vote" in the general election of 1938. A similar campaign was conducted by students in the Quincy, Illinois, High School, in connection with a municipal election.

Instruction in the democratic procedures which have been illustrated in this section is still too rare in American schools. Such instruction is a safeguard against inefficient action, which, it has been repeatedly pointed out, is quite unnecessary in a democratic society. Aimless, wasteful discussion and careless, slipshod work cannot be tolerated in the name of democratic freedom, especially when the means of prevention are at hand.

A Teacher Summarizes a Year's Work in Modern Problems

The presentation of brief units and sections of courses on economic, social, and political problems, to which much of the last three sections of this chapter has been devoted.

may be rounded out by the description of an entire year of study covering materials in all three of these fields.

In the Moultrie, Georgia, High School the social studies work of the senior year is devoted to modern problems, but within this general area teacher and students chart their own path. The teacher of such a class has prepared a report on the work done during 1938-1939,¹⁰ from which the following description is taken.

1. Problems of government were listed.

In an effort to answer the question, "Why were the Germans so easily persuaded to give up democracy for a dictatorship when Americans would not have been?" the students were guided, at the beginning of the year, into a brief study of the general make-up of our national government. During this short study, questions about the problems of our national government arose. For example, when discussing the work of the Department of State, the chief question was, "How can the United States stay out of war?" and when discussing the Bill of Rights many students became interested in the question of the benefits and evils of having freedom of the press. To these the teacher added others, and a list of problems of our government was made.

2. The need for information became apparent.

Immediately it became clear that students needed information about these problems and evident that they did not know how to go about finding information. The following general objectives were set up:

1. To become aware of existing problems with an increased desire to do something about such problems
2. To learn by experience to:
 - a. Find information
 - b. Select needed information and discard irrelevant material
 - c. Organize this information clearly and interestingly
3. To increase ability to distinguish between fact and opinion
4. To bring about an attitude of cooperation by:
 - a. Having students contribute material to the work of the class
 - b. Having groups work together in planning the presentation of their projects
5. To improve ability at self-expression.

The students took as their first principal objectives: To learn to find information. Several days were spent in a discussion of the use

¹⁰ Simpson, Hoy, *Report of Year's Work in Senior Social Studies, 1938-39*, Moultrie High School, Moultrie, Ga. 10 p. (Typewritten.)

of certain aids in finding information, and in actually using these. Then an attempt was made to find information on the problems which had been mentioned. The ones about which sufficient materials could be found were written on the board and each student was allowed to select one on which he was to obtain information. The following subjects were used; each pupil was to write an essay on one of the topics.

The Future of Democracy
How to Stay Out of War
Propaganda
The South—the Nation's Number One Economic Problem
Freedom of the Press—an Asset or an Evil?

Students searched books, newspapers, magazines, etc., for material. All of this material was filed under the five subjects chosen. Additional material was continuously brought in during the entire year. For two or three weeks, students surveyed all the information and discussed interesting or contradictory facts found. When most students had about covered the material available, groups were organized according to the problems selected, each group choosing a chairman and any other officers they needed.

3. Students shared the results of their work through interesting and varied reports.

For several days these committees met and planned how they would present their projects to the rest of the class. The methods of presentation were left entirely to each committee, and a variety of plans resulted. Some simply divided the subject and talked to the class on its various phases; one group working on the problems of the South pretended they were the members of the National Emergency Council meeting to prepare their report for the President; one group had a "true-false" radio program—gong and all—at which time the class was questioned and members of the committee explained why the answers were true or false. Some groups led class discussions, having the entire class take part by having each member of the committee ready to help clear up any questions and to keep the discussion going. Still another group pretended it was the United States Senate and debated the question of how the United States could stay out of war.

4. The class studied the race problem, then Georgia's state government.

The race problem of the South was easily led into, for much interest centered around the Negro when the groups were discussing the South as the Nation's Number One Economic Problem. The need for race tolerance was not a "felt need" on the part of some students

who were very prejudiced, but it was decided that all would study some phase of the race question.

Again interesting material was contributed by students, though it was found that much less was available on this subject. Some students visited the Negro school and interviewed the principal who let them bring several books and pamphlets from the Negro school library. One of these, *Who's Who in Colored America* convinced many of the most prejudiced students that Negroes could make progress if given a chance. The librarian ordered pamphlets from the Commission on Interracial Cooperation in Atlanta which were most helpful. Each group spent about two or three days getting the historical background of race prejudice in the South and then began to collect facts just as they had done with the other subjects.

One student decided to make a special study of Negroes in Moultrie and in Colquitt County. He interviewed the Negro school principal, the county health officer, the head of the Chamber of Commerce, and other citizens. He visited Negro homes, took pictures of several, and showed them to the class. He also made pencil sketches of some of the typical Negro houses of the South. The Tri-Hi-Y girls and Hi-Y boys invited the Negro school principal to speak to their groups.

After much information had been collected, the material was outlined and several days were spent in preparing papers on the various phases of the racial problem. With few exceptions improvement was shown by the students in collecting information, assembling material, discarding irrelevant material, expressing thoughts originally, and in following directions. At the close of this study one class prepared an attitude test about race tolerance. Each class took the test and checked themselves.

Just about the time that this phase of our study was completed the general interest of the students seemed to be in the meeting of the Georgia Legislature. Many questions arose about it and the class made a short study of Georgia's government with emphasis on weaknesses and needs. We found that it was difficult to get much information on Georgia's problems. A group of 35 students and two teachers went to Atlanta while the legislature was in session. While there they listened to a discussion of the sales tax in the House, talked to the Governor, visited the state museum and other places of interest.

5. Small groups worked on separate problems, then reported to the class.

Throughout the year various subjects of interest had been suggested by some students as additional problems to be studied. After the study of Georgia government these additional topics were listed by the students, and each pupil was allowed to work on the one of his choice. The subjects suggested were: (1) Crime, (2) Home and Church, (3) How To Use Money Wisely, (4) Educational Problems of Georgia, (5) Safety, (6) Georgia's Health Problems, and (7) Unemployment.

For several days the class as a whole looked for information about the subjects so that they could be sure there was enough material available on each one. Then groups were formed and the material available on each subject was turned over to the group studying it. After a few days of group research and discussion the study-groups planned how they would present their work to the class.

One group reporting on crime had a court trial at which Society was tried for causing much of the existing crime. A jury was selected in the usual manner; witnesses were questioned; lawyers argued the case; the jury retired and came to a verdict of "Guilty"; and the judge sentenced Society to give more to education, to improve housing conditions, to attend church more faithfully, to provide better recreation for the young and old, and to stay at home more. Another gave a "radio program" entitled "Crime Doesn't Pay." Several groups wrote and presented plays. One group working on educational problems visited the Negro school, the business school, the opportunity school, and the mill school. They interviewed the county and city superintendents of schools about the condition of the schools as to finances, ratings, etc. They reported to the group in the form of a panel discussion.

6. The year closed with a brief study of state school finances.

Near the end of the school year, a committee of the Georgia Education Association published a pamphlet about the causes of Georgia's financial difficulties. The class became interested because of their recent study of educational problems and because some schools were having to close early. Enough pamphlets were ordered for each child to have one and after they made a brief study of them in class, they carried them home to show to their parents.

This record of the experience of one class exhibits a fine consistency between content and method. Problems of democratic living were attacked through a class procedure which was an experience in democratic action, with the teacher giving such guidance as seemed to be needed to assure growth in ability to use this procedure. A wide range of problems was studied, without much regard to conventional subjectmatter organization, yet the year's work had a unity in the conscious relating of each problem to principles of democracy. At the same time, the number of problems was sufficiently small to permit thorough exploration of each and considerable practice in

gathering information from many sources before proceeding to possible solutions. Problems were so distributed as to represent the local community, the state, the region, the nation, and the international situation. Other teachers will doubtless secure good results in other ways. This experience is cited as an illustration, rather than a model.

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter has been written with the conviction that the direct study by students of the nature and tradition of democracy, of the contemporary problems and trends of our democratic society, and of the skills of competent citizenship is an essential part of civic education. Materials have been described from the courses of study of a group of selected schools—materials which seem pertinent to the central needs of a comprehensive, well-planned program of civic education. They are offered as suggestions, drawn from school practices, for the further improvement of the curriculum. They do not constitute a total program, for no vital curriculum can be built out of parts drawn from a storeroom of prepared courses and units. Rather, they are examples of the kinds of study materials which are likely to be produced whenever schools address themselves to the task of effectively educating youth for democratic citizenship. The casual adoption of such materials as these does not insure good civic education or even good teaching of the materials adopted. The development of improved course materials must proceed hand in hand with improvements in teaching methods, in administration, in out-of-classroom activities, and in evaluation.

From the materials presented here, and from the observations and study upon which their selection was based, nine conclusions may be drawn. These are to be regarded, not as appraisals of existing school programs, but rather

as guideposts for the further development of civic education.

*Comprehensive Plans for Civic Education
Are Essential*

1. The approach to civic education is, in virtually all schools, fragmentary and incomplete, even within the course of study. With few exceptions, the schools have not analyzed the full demands of citizenship education in a democracy. The civic education program has often grown by chance accumulation of materials rather than by broad and systematic plan. Schools that are teaching effectively about modern economic problems, for example, may be doing virtually nothing in the way of instruction about the civil liberties; schools with a good program for the analysis of school and community living may have little effective instruction on the democratic tradition. It would seem appropriate for schools sincerely concerned about civic education to make a general and coordinated approach to the study of democracy and democratic citizenship on the entire curriculum front. Such a service rendered by even a few schools would be of marked value to the whole of American education.

*Activity and Study Should Reinforce
One Another*

2. In many of the schools now alert and acutely conscious of the need for "education for democracy," there is strong emphasis on an activity program in democratic living, as will be seen in subsequent chapters of this report. This emphasis is sometimes so pronounced as to result in neglect of the rational analysis of democracy and its problems and demands. There seems to be a real danger that,

within civic education, we may develop two uncoordinated and unrelated programs—on the one hand, an immediate, challenging, but sometimes thoughtless program of participation and, on the other hand, a relatively remote, abstract, and colorless academic program of studies. The two should complement each other and gain vitality from one another. The far-sighted school will experiment with a combination of doing and thinking, which is now unfortunately rare.

*Thoroughness of Inquiry Is Desirable
in the Study of Social Problems*

3. Schools which encourage the study of modern problems should not attempt to cover too many problems and issues and trends. The best results seem to occur where only a few selected units are studied with sufficient penetration to give a thorough understanding of the nature of the problems and of the steps necessary for their solution. Many courses in modern problems and current affairs spread themselves over too wide an area and become shallow. It is more important that students shall learn how to investigate thoroughly a small number of representative problems than that they shall have a superficial acquaintance with all the problems of the day. Skill in defining issues, in gathering reliable information through observation and reading, in evaluating possible solutions, and in projecting plans of action is to be sought, rather than mere facility in the discussion of problems.

*Modern Problems Courses Should Exhibit
Unity as well as Flexibility*

4. There is no single inherent scheme of organization of materials in the modern problems field. Courses in modern

problems are therefore likely to take their forms solely from the passing events of the contemporary scene or from the changing interests of students, with little pattern or order. Such lack of organization is neither desirable nor necessary. One experience cited in this chapter shows how a year's work on modern problems was organized around the study of the meaning of democracy.⁷⁷ This is not the only possible organization for such a course, but it is a promising one. Whatever the organization, it should help the learners to see the connections which exist between seemingly diverse problems, to discern underlying causes, and to understand how events and conditions advance or hinder the achievement of democracy. Given a pattern of organization which is understood by the students as well as the teacher, the students should exercise a large measure of choice in the selection of particular problems for study.

Courses in All Fields Should Contribute to Civic Education

5. While it is natural that a good deal of the direct teaching about democracy, its achievements and its problems, should be carried on in courses in the social studies or in "integrated courses" in which the social studies have a central part, the social studies have no monopoly on civic education. The materials reported in this study indicate that all classes and subjects may provide contents and experiences for students which will deepen their thoughtful concern for democracy. Civic education is not properly a segregated or distinct area of school work, but ought to be intricately enmeshed in the total educational program. The "good citizen" is, first of all a "good man." With this in mind, there remains, nevertheless, a real need

⁷⁷ See pages 54-56.

in even the best of schools for a focusing of education on the essentials of democracy, and for the insertion of new units of experience in the total course of study, in order to develop sound intellectual and emotional bases for democratic living.

Further Experimentation Is Needed

6. This chapter has dealt with six curriculum areas, assumed to be essential parts of a program of democratic education. School practices and course-of-study materials are reported for each of these, but it is probable that few who read this report will be entirely satisfied with what even the superior schools have done in any one of the areas. The reported materials are suggestive and promising, but in each area there seems room for improvement, both in new combinations of existing materials and in the introduction of wholly new materials. Further experimental investigations and developments should be encouraged in all areas.

More Adequate Materials of Instruction Are Required

7. There is unquestionably a relation between quality of instruction and quality and adequacy of instructional equipment. Schools with good libraries, supplies of newspapers, periodicals, and pamphlets, motion pictures, other visual aids, and radio equipment are tremendously aided in their efforts in civic education. Furthermore, there is a dearth of written materials which are clear, direct, and concrete. The written accounts of democracy, of civil liberties, of individual worth, of modern problems are commonly too abstract and remote to be thoroughly convincing to secondary-school students. Teachers and libra-

rians need and are eager for simple, vital, dramatic materials to convey to students the meaning of democracy, its relation to the world about us, and the qualities of behavior characteristic of the democratic man.

*Those Who Would Teach Citizenship
Should Practice It*

8. Civics teaching is afflicted by twin evils, which teachers will do well to guard against. The first is a naive, sentimental attitude which makes political activities seem to be as the idealists would like them to be. Such an attitude is found in many teachers whose main connection with civic life is through books. Its effect is to bring civics instruction into disrepute with students who know the facts. The second evil is that of cynicism, which assumes that all public life is shot through with corruption. It results in antagonism toward public affairs and in defeatism. The good citizen is neither naive nor cynical. He sees political life realistically as a mixture of good and bad practices, and seeks to promote the good and reduce the bad. Education for citizenship is best advanced by teachers who are practicing citizens, who work actively for civic improvement, and who encourage their students to do likewise.

*The Teacher, Not the Pattern, Is the Key to
Effective Civic Education*

9. Further development of a civic education program should not, in any school, wait upon the establishment of any particular course-of-study pattern. While a program of integrated studies or of a core curriculum with lengthened class sessions seems frequently to be accompanied by improved classroom procedure and by better guidance of

students, there appears to be no necessary relation between such a pattern for the course of study and the quality of the curriculum. The illustrations given in this chapter have been drawn not only from a variety of fields but also from courses organized on the bases of academic subjects, of current problems, and of social and individual needs. The one essential factor for the improvement of the curriculum in this area is a teacher who has thought deeply about democracy as a way of living, who is himself a democratic person carrying well the responsibilities of his citizenship, and who is free and alert to reconstruct the curriculum in the light of the needs both of students and of society.



CHAPTER III

Classroom

Teaching



MY CHIEF INTEREST in teaching," remarked one instructor, "is to help boys and girls become good American citizens. That is why I am teaching art." Then he added, "I know that sounds strange to you, but I chose to teach art because I believe that the art classroom can be the best laboratory of democratic living in the high school." This teacher's commendable enthusiasm for the democratic possibilities of his classroom is shared by many another teacher of science, home economics, mathematics, shopwork, agriculture, and other subjects, the content of whose courses is only indirectly related to citizenship. Democratic methods of teaching belong not to a few subjects, but to all—if the teachers understand these methods and are skilled in their use.

On the other hand, the best of the courses and units on the meaning of democracy and other subjects described in the preceding chapter will fall far short of their possibilities for civic education if they are taught in autocratic fashion. The students' reactions to such teaching are apt to be like those of Emerson, when he said, "Your actions speak so loudly that I cannot hear what you say."

In the opening chapter certain hallmarks have been proposed, whereby the presence of the democratic spirit in education may be recognized. In this chapter, which reports illustrations of democratic classroom teaching, the examples will be grouped under six of these hallmarks, restated slightly in their application to the subject of the chapter.

In democratic teaching:

1. There is cooperative action for the common good.
2. The welfare of each individual is sought.
3. All take part, according to their abilities, in planning and carrying out activities and in evaluating results.
4. The experimental method of free inquiry is used, based on faith in informed intelligence.

5. There is freedom for the study and discussion of controversial subjects.
6. Responsibility in action is a condition of the enjoyment of freedom.

1. COOPERATIVE ACTION FOR THE COMMON GOOD

A democratic society, as we have seen in the opening chapter, has two chief purposes—to promote the common good and to foster the welfare of each individual. Neither of these purposes can be said to be more important than the other. Both are essential if democracy is to endure. If individual rights are slighted, we tend toward totalitarianism. If the claims of the general welfare are ignored, we move either toward disintegrating class conflicts or toward rule by privileged minorities.

At this time in our national history there appears to be need for particular stress on action for the common good, to establish a balance with the past emphasis on individual rights.¹ This need is more than theoretical. It is of the greatest practical importance. At times when the nation has been confronted by public issues of the utmost gravity, partisan and class interests, rooted in misconceptions of the rights of individuals, too often have blocked the way to action for the general welfare. Every emergency which calls for maximum effort serves to remind us that a nation cannot long endure, in the fiercely competitive world of our day, without a citizenry willing to give unselfishly of time, substance, and effort whenever the public interests are at stake.

It is fitting therefore that the American school should be a place where, in a democratic atmosphere, boys and girls can learn to work together for the common good without expectation of any reward other than the satis-

¹ See page 47 of this volume for evidence that most high-school students think of democracy solely in terms of personal rights and privileges.

faction which comes from service to a cause greater than oneself. Such learning will not be accomplished quickly or easily. It must come through a long process of gradual but constant growth. The first steps in this process are found in relatively simple experiences of cooperation in class, club, or play group. The last steps will be reached when young people envision the possibilities of a better nation and a better world, and commit themselves wholeheartedly and intelligently to the task of making their visions into reality. Between the first and last steps lies a host of intermediate learnings.

The examples which are reported in this volume represent many different stages of development of cooperative action for the common good. Many instances of service for the common good in out-of-class activities and in the community will appear in later chapters.² Here the examples are drawn from observations in classrooms.

Students Reduce Safety Hazards and Promote Health

Students in a health course in the Waynesboro, Virginia, High School, at the time of the staff visit, were actively engaged in eliminating safety hazards in the school and in carrying on a school safety campaign. The atmosphere of their classroom was informal. Students moved about freely, to get needed materials or to discuss their ideas with others. Those who had work outside the classroom were free to go and come. Most of their work was done in small groups, each group working on a job, which, when completed, would carry forward the class project.

Several boys from the class surveyed the locations of the fire extinguishers throughout the building. As a result of this check-up, some of the extinguishers were moved.

² See pages 209-24 and all of Chapter V.

so as to be more accessible in time of need. Another group, boys and girls, was working to establish a bicycle club. They believed that such a club could help to increase safety for cyclists, pedestrians, and motorists. A third group, in cooperation with the police, was making a study of the speed of cars passing along the main road in front of the school. It was expected that this information would be of value to the police in determining and enforcing speed laws.

As another project, the class members were attempting to increase the "health-consciousness" of the whole student body. They made and displayed health posters and visited homerooms to report on health matters. The unit on safety in the school was followed by similar work on safety in home and community, which likewise contributed to the common good.

Commercial Students Provide an Office Production Service for Teachers

In the Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio, senior commercial students studying office practice render a useful service to teachers of the school. These girls operate a production room where any teacher in the school may arrange to have typing done, stencils cut and run, and other comparable types of service performed. The production room is run almost entirely by chief clerks, who change with each class period. These chief clerks are students chosen for the job because of their demonstrated ability to accept responsibility. The teacher in charge is rarely in the room, since she has been allowed only one period in her schedule for this work. The production room, on the other hand, is in operation for a large part of the day, and the girls go ahead with their varied duties, without immediate adult guidance. Cooperation is needed,

not only among the girls engaged in the work during a single class session, but also on the part of all the girls who work during the entire day, in order to assure a continuous flow of work and the completion of all jobs on schedule.

*Girls in Home Economics Classes
Serve Both School and Community*

A home economics class for juniors and seniors in the Lincoln Consolidated School, Ypsilanti, Michigan, carries on a variety of projects for the benefit of both the school and the community.

Each girl in the class offers her services in one of the elementary grades. She assists the pupils and teacher in many ways. One girl, for example, helped the pupils in the fourth grade cut out, hem, and hang curtains for their room. The entire class prepared and gave a skit for the elementary-school children, which emphasized the importance of such health habits as plenty of sleep, good food, and regularity in meals. Other cooperative projects for the school include a tea for new teachers and assistance in entertaining visitors. The girls also help the school nurse by making bandages, keeping records, and conducting health surveys.

Community activities of the girls range from making dolls for sick children to entertaining the mothers of different classes. When sickness, death, or any other misfortune has brought a family need to the attention of the class, the girls offer their services in the home.

Similar services in the community are rendered by girls in home economics classes in the Parker District High School, Greenville, South Carolina. This school is carrying on a general community improvement program, in which the home economics department is responsible for helping people to improve their homes. Many of the girls in home economics classes assist voluntarily, contacting local resi-

dents and arranging for consultations with teachers. Advanced students, who have completed the course in interior decoration, go into the homes and assist with the plans for home improvement. This service is available without charge and many persons take advantage of it each year.

Art Students Beautify Their School Buildings

In the Eugene, Oregon, High School, the students in the art department operate an art service bureau for the school. The school building is tastefully decorated with students' paintings and murals. Any group in the school—club, homeroom, class, or department—which wishes the services of art students, makes a written application which is given prompt attention. Requests range from a frieze on Mother Goose characters for the nursery-school room to stage drops for assembly programs.

Art students in the Carpinteria, California, High School have likewise contributed to the beautification of the school. Ingenious decorative signs have been made by students for each room in the building. Artistic shelf labels in the library attract one to the book displays. At the time of the staff visit, the art students were assisting in a health campaign by preparing health posters for all the bulletin boards.

Dozens of paintings, pastels, and charcoal drawings by students lend beauty and color to the ancient, crowded corridors of the Benjamin Franklin High School in New York City. One frequently sees a student pause as he passes through the halls to inspect and admire the work of one of his schoolmates. Boys in this school have also executed a series of historical panels on "The Growth of American Democracy," which now decorate the front of the assembly hall.

Industrial Arts Students Construct Needed Equipment for Their School

Students of industrial arts also use their talents for the benefit of their schools. For example, when a small group of industrial arts students first assembled in the Benham, Kentucky, High School, in the late summer of 1938, they were faced with the job of reconditioning an old wooden building, which was to house their new department. The building had been practically unused for ten years. The roof leaked, most of the windows were broken, and repairs were needed throughout. This group of students, under the leadership of their teacher, made all the necessary repairs. When school started they constructed work benches, tool cabinets, and machine stands. Every student's efforts were directed toward the establishment of a good shop, in spite of a limited money outlay.

In the short time since they began this work, the students have performed a number of other useful services to the school. They have dismantled an old and unused wooden church building, and are using the materials for the construction of a student center for the school. When completed, the new building will contain a party room, a model kitchen, and various other features to make a complete recreation center for the young people. These students have also constructed the furniture and other equipment for a new art laboratory in the high school. They have built a student store in the main corridor of the school, drawing up the specifications and completing all the work themselves. Their latest project has been the construction of thirty standard sized typewriting tables for the county board of education.

*Physical Education Students Assist
in Directing Classes and Intramural Sports*

In a number of schools, students aid in the teaching of classes in physical education; for example, in the Benjamin Franklin High School, Rochester, New York. In the girls physical education department, there are three levels of student participation. The first is known as the Leadership Group. Girls are admitted on their own application, provided that they meet certain standards in scholarship, citizenship, and progress in physical education. This group meets after school and is instructed by the teacher in methods of directing various activities in the gymnasium classes. The next higher group is called the Honor Leader Group. A girl is admitted to this group from the Leadership Group, when she has shown exceptional proficiency as a leader and has expressed a desire to become a member. The members of the Honor Leader Group serve as officials for after-school games. In the highest group, known as the Special Honor Group, a girl is given an opportunity to share in the instruction of classes, under the supervision of the teacher.

In the boys division of physical education there is a similar plan in which boys qualify as gym leaders and officials for intramural sports.

A comparable plan is found in the Leaders Corps of the John W. Weeks Junior High School, Newton, Massachusetts. Members of the corps, selected by the instructor on the basis of their capacities to lead and assume responsibility, act as assistant directors of class activities, take care of the locker room and showers, officiate at intramural contests, serve as managers of intramural leagues, and look after equipment.

2. CONCERN FOR THE WELFARE OF EACH INDIVIDUAL.

In a society infused with the democratic spirit, the general welfare is seen to reside in the men, women, and children who compose that society. Every institution, therefore, whether it be governmental, economic, or educational, is to be judged by its contributions to the welfare of individuals whose lives it touches. The democratic spirit knows no barriers of intelligence, race, religion, social standing, or economic status. It is, as we have seen, grounded on faith in the possibilities of all sorts and conditions of men. It therefore seeks to help each person to live the most abundant life of which he is capable.

It follows that the school which aims to be democratic will be concerned for the highest welfare of each child. This means, among other things, that each child will be dealt with as an individual. It means also that mutual respect and good will, on the part of both teachers and pupils, will be found in every classroom.

It is impossible to gather in a single section all the instances of teaching which exemplify concern for the individual child. The illustrations which follow consist of examples of guidance, of classroom situations in which mutual friendliness and respect were clearly in evidence, and of concern for individual welfare on the part of school librarians. But the entire chapter might well be included under this heading, for all good teaching is based on respect for the worth and possibilities of each learner.

Continuous Guidance and Diagnostic Teaching Lead to Better Understanding of Students' Needs

"Which of your experiences in this school have influenced you most to become a better American citizen?" a leading senior girl was asked.

"The guidance," she replied unhesitatingly. "For the first time in my life I have been treated as a person, not just as a child or as a unit in a class. I had to be treated as a person myself before I could understand much about obligations to respect the rights of other people or to treat them as persons."

Guidance at its best is a process of becoming so well acquainted with a pupil that the teacher is able to help the pupil better to understand himself, to plan intelligently for his own highest welfare, and to make fullest use of educational resources in carrying out his plans. Without guidance, action for the welfare of each individual is a groping in the dark. Many teachers are constantly carrying on effective guidance as part of their regular work. A formal guidance program is not essential. Nevertheless, in this age of large high schools and constantly increasing demands on teachers, some provisions should be made to guarantee the performance of the guidance function. It is too important to be left to chance.

In the George School in Pennsylvania, individual guidance is a continuous process from entrance until graduation. On the daily schedule there is a forty-five-minute period designated as "period for consultation with teachers" and teachers are in their offices at this period. On the days of the staff visit, most of them were continuously engaged in conferences. If a student does not go voluntarily to see his adviser in the course of a month, the adviser takes the initiative and arranges an interview. Guidance is aided by a period of "diagnostic teaching" which occupies a large part of the first half of Grade X, the purpose of which is to gain as complete an understanding as possible of each student. A number of tests are given, and each student fills out a personal history report. Teachers engaged in the diagnostic program meet every two weeks

to discuss the individual students with whom they are working. At the end of the diagnostic period, each student sits down with his adviser and reviews his choice of courses. He may be advised to make other selections, but he is not required to change.

Upon entering the University High School, in Oakland, California, each student is assigned to a permanent counselor, who proceeds to become acquainted with the student as rapidly as possible. After the first interview, some tests are given. Then comes a talk about vocational plans, although no attempt is made to force a vocational choice at this time. As soon as the counselor and student have come to know one another fairly well, one or both parents come to school with the student, and student, parents, and counselor together work out a tentative three-year educational plan. This is subject to later modifications, but gives the student something by which he may chart his course. All of the basic information about the student is kept in the hands of the counselor.³ The "core" classes serve the purposes of homerooms, and the teachers of these classes work with the counselors in advising the students, especially during the first year when the "core" course deals with "Personal Management" and "Social Living." The fifteen counselors meet weekly under the chairmanship of the viceprincipal in charge of guidance.

Guidance Aids Students To Make Wise Choices

The courses in the Edison Technical High School in Rochester, New York, are highly specialized and it is important that the boys have careful guidance in making their selections. Ninth-grade boys make the best possible

³ See pages 390-95.

tentative choices at the beginning of the year. During the year the staff seeks to assist each boy to discover whether he should continue in the field in which he has started or turn to another field. Several times during the year the boys are brought together in order that the general and technical phases of all departments of the school may be explained to them and also demonstrated by advanced students in the school. Near the end of the ninth grade each boy indicates which special line of work he would like to pursue for the next three years. At this time the question of job opportunities is also considered. It is possible for a boy to change his plans later, if a change seems advisable. Parents are consulted before the boys' choices are finally accepted.

In the Greeley, Colorado, High School, twenty-two of the thirty teachers have advisory groups. These teachers are responsible for learning as much as possible about the students in their groups, to the end that they may be guided to make wise choices as to courses of study, activities, and vocational plans. Teachers undertake to visit the home of each student at least once. A thirty-minute period each day is used for conferences between teachers and students. Emphasis is placed particularly on the *relations* between guidance, class instruction, and extracurricular activities. Instead of a point system for participation in student activities, the advisers are asked to counsel the more ambitious students not to take part in too many activities, and to guide the more reticent students into activities from which they will gain enjoyment and profit. Whenever the class work of a student is unsatisfactory, a report is sent first to the adviser, who seeks to determine the causes of the student's difficulty before reporting the matter to parents.

*The Homeroom Is a Useful Aid in
Understanding and Guiding Students*

In the University High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan, the guidance program centers in the homerooms. A student normally remains in the same homeroom throughout his six years in the school. Thus the teacher is able to become thoroughly acquainted with each student and to base his guidance on unusually complete information. The homeroom period is thirty minutes daily.

The homerooms are responsible for some of the most important extracurricular activities of the school, so the teacher has opportunity to observe his students in action in a variety of situations. The ninth- and tenth-grade homerooms, for example, manage the school fund drive, which is part of the community fund campaign. One homeroom takes charge of the annual Christmas basket campaign. Another keeps in touch with shut-in children at the University Hospital, and makes all arrangements for the annual Christmas celebration given by the school for the hospital children.

The Phoenix, Arizona, Union High School gives as the first two purposes of homerooms:

1. To reestablish the pupil-teacher relationship too often lost because of the departmentalization of high-school work
2. To counsel and guide in educational, social, and civic matters, and as a means to this end, to discover and develop desirable tendencies and aptitudes and to gain a knowledge of the student's home life.

A well-planned homeroom program has been developed for each year of high school. Among the subjects included are orientation to the school, vocations, health, leisure-time activities, social behavior, and the like. The mother of one of the students in each homeroom serves as homeroom mother, and it is her responsibility to assist the teacher in maintaining contacts with the parents of students.

*Teachers Aid Students To Define Their Needs
and To Plan Their Courses Accordingly*

Guidance services and homerooms are important; but the main work of schools takes place in regular classrooms, and it is there above all places that concern for the welfare of the individual should be found. The examples of classroom procedure which follow could be multiplied many times. These have been selected to illustrate two desirable characteristics, namely, the adaptation of class work to the needs of individual students, and mutual respect and friendliness on the part of teachers and students.¹

For the past six years the boys of the Mont Pleasant High School, Schenectady, New York, have been electing work in home economics. When the principal, home economics supervisor, and home economics teachers first met to consider a program for boys, they soon concluded that a satisfactory course could not be planned without the help of the students themselves. As a result, the boys who were interested were invited by the principal to help consider the problem. With no books to guide them and with only a few magazines and some newspaper articles about boys' problems to supplement their own ideas, the boys and the teachers together planned this course. Each new group of boys has followed a similar procedure, using the outline of the previous class as a starting point, changing and adding to it to meet their particular needs.

During the current year, the boys started this course with a study of personal relations and social behavior. The work of the course was individualized, so that each boy received help at the points where he felt greatest need. Some boys, for example, wanted help on how to introduce people, etiquette at table, how to order in a restaurant,

¹ See pages 369-74 for other examples of schools which undertake to adapt courses to interests and abilities of students.

and the proprieties of conduct at dances. One boy aptly expressed the value of the course, "When you know how to act you can have more fun, because you don't have to think about how you act. You just do it naturally."

Later in the course there was a unit on foods. Members of the football squad planned their training diet. A group of boys and girls prepared food and entertainment for a supper dance. Many boys assisted in buying the food for their families. Then followed a unit on clothing, which included clothing selection, standards for judging fabrics, workmanship, and color harmony. Boys also learned how to take better care of their clothes, pressed suits, cleaned ties and hats, and laundered sweaters. Thus did a teacher show concern for the welfare of her students by enabling them to plan and carry out a course suited to their needs.

In the Baker Junior High School of Denver, Colorado, whose students come largely from homes of low income and varied national backgrounds, a teacher of shop has endeavored to fit the work of his course to the diverse conditions of his students. This teacher undertakes to visit the homes of all his students, so that he may better understand the ways in which the shop course may aid in improving those homes. The teacher then works out a program of shop activities with each boy and girl in the class. At the time of the staff visit, some students were cleaning clothes, some were pressing garments, some were blocking hats, while others were repairing and shining shoes. Boys were cutting hair, girls were washing each other's hair. Boys and girls were making toys, furniture, and household utensils of wood and metal. The shop was indeed a demonstration of the education of "each according to his needs."

Teachers Help Students To Discover and Develop Their Abilities

In the Parker High School, Chicago, Illinois, the art course is characterized by regard for the individual talents and needs of each student. The student may move about the classroom as he chooses, now working with a congenial group of classmates, now withdrawing to a corner where he can work without interruption on some project of his own. No attempt is made to obtain conformity among the students in their choice of subject or materials. Rather, the individual desires of each student are recognized and respected. The teacher strives to help each individual in doing more effectively the tasks which he sets for himself.

A visitor entering this classroom is likely to find five or six boys and girls painting. Another group is at a table, planning decorations for a school party. Two others are carving small panels in wood, while a larger group works on fashion design. Students are not competing with each other for some extrinsic reward or in order to see who can do the best work. Each is working on his own projects, seeking to express some idea which has peculiar significance for him. A bulletin board is used, not for the purpose of displaying the "best" work, but rather as a place where the product of one's work may be placed in order that it may be appreciated by all and at the same time criticized in a friendly and constructive fashion.

The teacher feels that respect for personality is impossible when all must work on the same subject, particularly if it is a subject which the teacher superimposes. His leadership is best exerted, he believes, in conferences with individual pupils, usually at the request of the students. The studio is always open, and students of all ages and levels of ability are welcomed, as long as there is room for them to work.

The art classroom at the George School, in Pennsylvania, is similar in many respects. Each student in this school elects one subject in the field of the fine arts (including music), during each year at the school. Students who choose art are allowed one month to "find themselves." They work in small groups, and the two instructors move from group to group, explaining the nature and techniques of the work, and giving some time to each student. As soon as the student discovers the medium in which he wishes to work, the teacher helps him to map out a plan of projects suited to his interests. The staff visitor talked to one boy who was doing creditable work in clay modeling. "How long have you been modeling?" he asked. "I just began this week," replied the boy. "I've been trying to draw and paint, but I didn't do very well. The teacher suggested that I try modeling, gave me a start, and now I *know* what I want to do."

Students in this class have full responsibility for the care of all materials and equipment, a task which they perform quite informally but none the less efficiently. Last year, when they decided that they wanted to work in ceramics, they built a ceramics laboratory and pottery kiln with their own labor, donated after school hours.

Students Learn To Respect Candor in Class Discussions

A lively discussion was observed in a civics class at the John Burroughs Junior High School, Los Angeles, California. Reports on current events were first presented by a student panel, whose members sat around a table at the front of the room. After the presentations, the panel members returned to their regular seats. There ensued a constant interchange and clash of opinion between the panel and the class members. In spite of sharp differences

in viewpoints, students generally displayed fine respect for one another, and the teacher was as alert to personal relations as to content of the discussion.

The students were not afraid to ask questions, even when the questions revealed their own lack of everyday knowledge. During the discussion which followed a report on the fate of Poland, a girl said, "I would like to know where Poland is and what it is like." She admitted that the discussion was meaningless to her because she did not have this basic information. She went on to say that she supposed the other students would laugh at her for asking such a simple question. A number of her classmates did begin to tease her a bit. Here the teacher immediately came into the discussion, saying that these were exactly the kinds of questions needed and that when a person did not know certain facts he should ask questions rather than try to cover up his ignorance. With this encouragement from the teacher, the class members began to reveal ignorance of many aspects of European affairs, and many of their misunderstandings were easily cleared up, when once they were honestly admitted. The sympathetic leadership of the teacher, the informal exchange of ideas, the freedom to ask questions, and the assurance that one's questions would be seriously received—all went into building up a spirit of respect and frankness.

Understanding Teachers Take Account of the Needs of Slow Learning Students

The instances thus far reported have been drawn from classes composed of students who represent cross-sections of school populations. Outstanding illustrations of effective teaching were also found in classes for students of lower ability, which reveal particularly the teachers' understanding of the peculiar difficulties of the slow learning

children. For example, a ninth-grade "social living" class for low ability students was observed in the Abraham Lincoln High School, Los Angeles, California. Considerable time was given to the study of spelling, arithmetic, and reading, with particular attention to practical problems closely related to the students' daily lives. Family grocery lists, for example, were worked out by the boys and girls. The teacher also sought to encourage the students to follow the news so that they would have some knowledge of major current events.

During the news period, the teacher asked for volunteers to read. Walter raised his hand. He read to the class in a halting manner, showing about fourth-grade ability. The teacher commended him, saying: "It is not easy to stand up and read to the whole class. Walter is brave. I hope all of you will be as brave and help by reading to us." In order to develop poise the teacher encouraged students to go to the front of the room to read. The teacher and the class felt that this is harder to do than to read from one's desk. One boy, after reading a paragraph quite well, stopped and said, "I shake too much." There was no laughter. The teacher praised the boy, saying that he had shown improvement in his reading.

Throughout the reading period, time was taken for discussion of what was read, so that the interest was not lost. The group obviously liked to talk. The teacher recognized this liking and encouraged it, as a means both of self-expression and of learning tolerance and respect for the opinions of others.

Other instances from different fields will be found later in the chapter. Attention is called particularly to the planning of a model community at the George School and the planning of a unit on the modern drama at Shaker High School, as examples of adaptation of class work to individual interests; and to the evidences of candor and mutual

respect in most of the examples of free discussion of controversial issues.

*School Libraries Provide Services
Suited to the Varied Needs of Students*

This discussion of concern for individual welfare would not be complete without reference to the contributions of school librarians who seek to furnish the services and materials which will be most helpful to each class, to each committee within a class, and as far as possible to each individual student.

In the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School at Gainesville, Florida, the library is available for the use of entire classes or of individual students during the first two periods. Students may come from any part of the school and make use of the library, checking out their own books, reading in the library, and being responsible for their own conduct. As an aid in guiding the reading of individual students, the librarian has a record of books read by each student, both in school and out of school, from the fifth grade onward. Student assistants keep these records and take care of most routine matters, so that the librarian is free to give a large part of her time to advising individual students and furnishing selected materials to classes.

The librarian at Hutchins Intermediate School in Detroit, Michigan, in addition to performing the usual duties of her office, is cooperating with a teacher of social studies and a teacher of English in planning the "integrated course" for Grade IX students. Her knowledge of available materials makes her a valuable member of this planning group. This library room has four glass-partitioned conference rooms which will accommodate groups of ten or twelve students. These rooms, when observed, were constantly in use by student committees coming to the library to

look up materials on special topics and to discuss what they had found. The librarian consulted with these committees frequently, to assist them in getting the most useful materials. Here again, a large staff of student assistants do practically all the detail work. In addition, they act as advisers to other students on leisure-time reading. They meet frequently with the librarian, to receive the training and information necessary for competent advising.

The librarian of the Carpinteria, California, High School makes daily visits to classrooms and undertakes to keep informed as to the work which each class is doing. A collection of books, magazines, newspapers, and pamphlets is prepared for each unit of class work, and is transported to the classroom in one of the ingenious "library dollies" developed at this school. This librarian also attempts to become personally acquainted with students, and to guide their reading in the free periods in which they come to the library for study or recreational reading. The assistance of students enrolled in a course in "Library Practices" frees the librarian from routine for this more constructive work.⁵

At the University High School, Oakland, California, the school library provides three types of services to students. There is the usual reference library and reading room for ordinary study. Students may choose, however, to go to a free reading room, where there is a supply of books and magazines not directly related to class work. This service encourages a wider range of reading than that required for courses. Students of low reading ability may enrol in a supervised reading course, the aims of which are to stimulate interest in reading and to provide aid in improving reading techniques. This course has its own

⁵ Holmes, Marjorie. "Carpinteria Library Becomes Center of Activity." *California Journal of Secondary Education* 12: 472-73; December 1937.

reading room and supply of books, ranging from Western thrillers, mystery stories, and popular romances to the best current fiction and non-fiction. Students begin to read at the point at which they are interested. The important thing, said the teacher, is to get them to read. The teacher keeps a record of each student's reading experience and seeks to guide every student individually, so that he slowly but surely improves the quality as well as the techniques of his reading.

3. PARTICIPATION OF ALL IN PLANNING, EXECUTING, AND EVALUATING

"The voice of the people . . ."

"Government of the people and by the people . . ."

"A system where everyone has a say in what goes on . . ."

Wherever students speak about democracy, wherever they search for the fundamental meaning of the term, there one will hear these statements. But what do boys and girls understand these words to mean? Do they think simply of the occasional use of the ballot to vote for representatives and executive officials? If so, their understanding is far from adequate. The analysis of democracy in the opening chapter has shown that "government of the people and by the people" is not a simple matter. In such government, whether it be of a nation or of a club in school, three processes are to be distinguished, namely, determination of plans and policies, carrying these plans into effect, and appraising the results. An efficient democratic group gives attention to each of these processes—planning, executing, and evaluating—and does not make the error of lumping them together as one.

To take part in policy formulation is, as we have seen, a right and an obligation of *every* member of a democratic

group. If a large proportion of citizens are unwilling or unqualified to exercise this right, or if the right is denied to them, democracy breaks down at its source. Policy execution, however, is a right which must be merited by individuals on the basis of their competence to do the jobs which the plans call for.⁶ Executive ability, always a rare talent, is the more needed in public life today, as the scope of government becomes ever more inclusive and the attendant administrative problems ever more complex. Evaluation, like policy formulation, is a right and duty of all. To save a democratic group from errors and inefficiencies, its members must frequently appraise both the adequacy of its policies and the effectiveness with which they are being put into practice.

The school of democratic citizenship will therefore see to it that all students have opportunities to share in democratic group planning and that they grow steadily in their mastery of this skill. It will also help each student to develop whatever executive capacities he possesses, by affording him opportunities to assume responsibility for carrying out group plans, and by holding him to as high requirements of performance as are appropriate to his maturity and experience. Finally, the school will assist its students to develop the skills of evaluating their own group actions.

A Model Community Is Planned by Students

A tenth-grade class at the George School, in Pennsylvania, provides the first example of student participation in planning. This is a class in the "citizenship sequence," in which work in English, mathematics, social studies, and science is organized around some inclusive project. One

⁶ See pages 28-31.

teacher from each of the subjectmatter fields assists in the conduct of the course.

In the initial stages of this project the class was interested in formulating a problem for study which might extend over a period of two or three years. After discussing numerous possibilities, it was decided that the group would develop plans for a community in which it would like to live. The students agreed that the community should be located near the site of the George School.

One of the first activities was listing the institutions and services which their community should have. The list included schools, a recreational center, parks, water supply, sewage system, medical care and hospital, police protection, stores, churches, business, industry, and governmental agencies.

At the time of the staff visit, students had formed small committees to investigate each of these major factors in a community and the committees were just beginning their work. The progress of the project during the succeeding three months is described in a letter from the teacher:

As I remember, we were just beginning our community project when you were at George School. Since that time the students have each been furnished with an individual map of the land on which they are planning to build this community. They have used some of the present roads and have planned others. They have spent a great deal of time inspecting different plans of homes and farm buildings and have had two lectures by a person who owns a mill and lumber company in Newtown, Pennsylvania, relative to the planning of houses and building materials. They have studied the cost of building, and, in fact, have ready to work a price list of all the material that would go into their homes so that they may estimate the exact cost.

The students have divided the class into committees. One committee investigated mortgages; another, building and loan; and another, the Federal Housing Administration. These committees have reported to the class and have shown exactly how much different priced homes would cost by using the different plans of financing. They have discussed as a group the advantages and disadvantages of the three plans and now are deciding individually how they will

finance their homes. After their homes are built, they plan to study insurance, taxation, budgets, etc.

In their history class, they are discussing the type of government they will want in their community. Their science teacher has investigated with them water supply, communication, sanitation, and they have studied something about the soil. Our landscape architect has conducted them around the campus, showing them the advantages and disadvantages of different locations for homes or farms. They have used their English class to learn to write business letters in order to get material to use in this project. They will also use their English class time to write the deeds for their property. We then plan to take them to our county seat in order to record the deeds and at the same time visit the tax office in order to learn how properties are assessed, and the methods used in taxation.

Students Plan and Carry Out an Instructive Project in City Government

In the Framingham, Massachusetts, High School, social studies classes prepare sample town warrants similar to those presented for the voter's consideration each spring in the Framingham town meeting. The classes have also held town meetings. In a preliminary study of the New England town meeting several students suggested that they might hold a town meeting of their own, have an election of officers, vote on public questions, and compare the results with the adult meetings. This proposal was received with great favor by the group. A study of actual town warrants showed that they contain articles for the necessary appropriations to run the town departments, and other articles for appropriations on desired improvements. In order to decide on articles for one of the class warrants, the students decided to interview residents, talk with the town officials, and make personal observations regarding the needs of the community. Whenever a pupil chose an article for a warrant, he was obliged to estimate the cost from some fairly authoritative source. Many items for the warrant were thus collected.

A finance committee, composed of students who were

especially interested in fiscal administration, was chosen by the class. This committee first studied the town appropriations, and especially the budgets of each department. The committee members then decided upon the financial limit for the class warrant and scrutinized each article to see that it was within the limit which had been set. The class then made a preliminary review of these items, at which time any could be rejected, subject to reinstatement if 30 percent of the class signed a petition to that effect. Preparations were then made for the model town meeting. Each "citizen" was furnished with a copy of the "Town Warrant" of ten items, five of which follow:

Town Warrant
March 8, 1939

Middlesex, ss.

To Walter F. Taylor, one of the Constables of the Town of Framingham, or to either of them, Greetings:

In the name of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, you are hereby required to notify and warn the Inhabitants of the Town of Framingham, qualified to vote in Elections and Town affairs, to meet at Nevins Hall in Framingham Memorial Building in said Town, on Wednesday, March 8, A.D., 1939, at 7:30 p.m., then and there to act on the following articles:

Article 1. To see if the Town will vote to appropriate \$50,000 to abolish the railroad grade crossing in the center of the town, by making an overpass in conjunction with the railroad. Pass any vote or take any action relative thereto.

Article 2. To see if the Town will vote to borrow \$100,000 to build a public gymnasium in conjunction with the WPA. Pass any vote or take any action relative thereto.

Article 3. To see if the Town will vote to appropriate \$10,000 for continuation of Concord Street and sidewalk up Elm Street. Pass any vote or take any action relative thereto.

Article 4. To see if the Town will vote to appropriate \$60,000 to erect a new fire station on the north side of town, the site to be on Concord Street near the Civic League. Pass any vote or take any action relative thereto.

Article 5. To see if the Town will vote to appropriate \$2,000 for rubbish collection. Pass any vote or take any action relative thereto.

The "town meeting" was presided over by an elected "moderator." He was ably assisted by "constables" who

were elected to maintain order. Each article was read by the "town clerk." The chairman of the finance committee then made a recommendation. "Citizens" argued for and against each article before a vote was taken.

When the adult town meeting was held, one or two student reporters represented the class each night, took notes, and summarized the reports. In 1939 at least two-thirds of the class attended one or more sessions of the town meeting.

Teacher and Students Demonstrate Efficiency in Planning and Evaluating Their Work

An eleventh-grade class in the Shaker High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio, furnishes an unusually complete example of group planning, execution, and evaluation. The staff visit happened to occur at a time when the class was planning its next unit. The teacher subsequently reported the way in which these plans were carried out, and the evaluations which students made at the end of the unit. We shall undertake to follow the class through this cycle. The year's work for this class combines English and social studies under the broad heading, "The American Scene." Within this field, individual classes choose their own subjects and methods of study, although a few units are thought of as constants in that they reappear year after year.

This class, having completed a unit on propaganda, was considering the next subject for study. Planning at first was carried on by the class as a whole. The teacher led the discussion, and directed it so that it followed a *procedure* for planning which teacher and class had previously agreed upon. She did not dominate the *content* of the planning, however. A class planning committee had been appointed

to which all matters of detail were referred, as soon as the class agreed on major questions.

The teacher began by saying: "It is now two weeks since we have done any planning. Our work this year is concerned with the American scene. Our planning committee has suggested several topics which we might study following the work on propaganda. Which of these do you prefer? Or have you others to suggest?"

Members of the class then suggested, one after another: radio, newspapers, American literature, the background of American writers.

Teacher: Does the class want a thorough textbook study of American literature?

Several students: No.

(It will be noted here that the first major group decision came very early in the planning session. The pupils agreed on one thing they did not want.)

Teacher: What do you want then?

Girl 1: Select writers for study in which we are especially interested.

Girl 2: Someone suggested that we might study the movies.

Teacher: Radio, movies, and newspapers are all channels of communication, and we have given quite a bit of thought to channels of communication in connection with our study of propaganda.

Girl 3: When "Abe Lincoln in Illinois" comes to Cleveland, we should study that.

Boy 1: When we study modern drama we should do more than read the plays. We should correlate our study with our art work, study staging, for example. Why not have all of that now before "Abe Lincoln in Illinois" comes, so that we will be fully prepared for it?

Teacher: Look at the calendar. We have three weeks before Thanksgiving, then we have four weeks after Thanksgiving before Christmas. There is time there for two more units before Christmas.

Boy 2: Let's have a study of the modern drama in the three weeks between Thanksgiving and the coming of "Abe Lincoln in Illinois."

Girl 4: We couldn't do it all in two and a half or three weeks if we studied stage setting and things like that.

Boy 3: We ought to start on the drama now. Six weeks is not too much to give to such a unit.

Girl 5: I think we ought to start now. That might lead on to a study of the movies.

Teacher: Yes, we have drama on the radio and in the movies, as well as on the stage. Shall we limit our present study to the stage?

Boy 3: I suggest that we go back to Shakespeare and come up to the present time.

Boy 1: Why? We are interested in the American scene in this class.

Boy 3: Just because Shakespeare is not an American is no reason to rule him out. He has had a great influence on the American drama.

Teacher: Would you take all drama from Shakespeare down to the present?

Girl 3: Oh, no! Only those which particularly influenced American drama.

Teacher: Are we agreed as to a unit on the drama?

A unanimous "yes" was the response from the class.

(The group has here made its second decision with regard to future work. The unit is to be on drama.)

Teacher: How shall we limit ourselves further?

Girl 6: Well, I don't think we ought to go back into the Colonial period.

Teacher: Did they have drama in the Colonial period?

The class could not answer this question.

Teacher: Well, then, you would have to go back and find out when American drama began. When did the country begin? Why did the colonists come here? Were they interested in drama in those days? You will probably find that you don't have to go as far back as the early Colonial period. By American drama, do you mean drama written by Americans?

Boy 3: No, we might rule out some of the important dramas which have been produced in America if we adopted that definition.

Teacher: You might be interested in the Little Theater movement. Until recently the center of American drama has been in New York, but now drama is being taken to the entire country, for example, by Katherine Cornell, Maurice Evans, and Raymond Massey. Then there are groups of local players producing drama all over the country, in little theaters.

Boy 4: That suggests that the summer theater is still another field for study.

Teacher: Our work in this unit may turn out to be a matter of individual interest.

Girl 4: I think we could have committees to handle these special problems.

Teacher: Well, those are matters of procedure. First of all we want to limit our field and set up specific objectives, then we will move to procedure. We can either have all the work by the group as a whole or we can have it all individual work, or we can have some combination of the two. We will have to decide how we are going to work and how we are going to report our work. Shall we set any further limits on our American drama unit, such as pre-war drama or post-war drama?

Boy 5: We might begin with the Civil War.

Boy 6: Pre-depression and post-depression drama might be a good division.

Teacher: You are apparently recognizing that drama reflects social

conditions and social attitudes. Who are some American playwrights who have been concerned with social problems in recent times?

Boy 6: Clifford Odets.

Girl 7: The author of "Dead End."

Teacher: Shall we call our unit "The American Drama"? What will result if we try to take in everything?

Girl 3: Why not call it drama as it affects the American scene?

(This limitation of the subject for study was apparently acceptable to the group. It represented the third group decision.)

Teacher: Let's get on with the job of setting up our objectives. What is it you want to work toward? What do you want to get out of this unit of study?

(From this point on, the discussion dealt mainly with objectives which were suggested by members of the group. These were noted by the planning committee for further consideration.)

Girl 7: We want to awaken a consciousness that drama is not just a means of entertainment, but is also a means for producing whatever effect the playwright wants to produce. It may be a means of propaganda. We want to know what dramas are being played nowadays and what their effect probably is on people who see them.

Teacher: All right, now keep on with these objectives. We will get them down as you state them and then we will let our planning committee refine them for us.

Girl 3: We want to have a consciousness of the effects of drama on our own community.

Boy 1: We want a better understanding of drama as an expression of the American way of life, as a means of showing what people are thinking in various parts of the country.

Teacher: Will any one play give us the American way of life? Will "Tobacco Road," for example? No, we can't go to any one play and get the essence of the American way of life.

Boy 7: If we limit ourselves to drama written for effects, we leave out some important drama, for example, Katherine Cornell's comedy this week. That is just written to make people laugh.

Girl 7: I want to know what effect writers wanted to produce, if any.

Boy 7: I still don't want to rule out comedy.

Girl 7: Well, my statement was not intended to be inclusive. It is one of several possible objectives.

Boy 7: O. K.

Girl 1: I think we should get an understanding of the influence of current drama on American public opinion.

Girl 3: I would prefer to leave out the current drama.

Teacher: Can you pick up this idea of drama reflecting the American way of life and tie it up to your general objectives for your work this year? The democratic way of life means more than political life. Do you think we should watch for it in drama as well? It is not necessarily the main thing in drama, but shall we ask if the author is

attempting to express the democratic way of life in his drama or to do something about it?

(Note how the teacher has oriented the suggested purposes to a larger purpose which is one of the major aims of the course.)

The rest of this class meeting was given to further suggestions regarding objectives. A subsequent report indicates that those objectives finally accepted were as follows:

American Drama Unit

1. To realize more fully the influence of American drama on public opinion
2. To broaden our understanding of the American way of life as expressed in drama
3. To become familiar with some of the current plays and contemporary actors and actresses
4. To be able to evaluate intelligently
 - a. Actors' interpretations
 - b. Settings
 - c. The play itself
5. To become familiar with the lives, characteristics, ideas, and styles of certain playwrights.

The teacher of this class describes the planning technique as having four distinct steps. First, limit the field to be studied. Second, set up specific objectives. Third, decide on procedures and methods to be employed. Fourth, list the material to be used. In the discussion reported above, the class completed the first two steps of the planning technique.

After the objectives of the group were agreed upon, each student then developed an individual plan of work, listing procedures and methods to be employed and the immediate objectives he hoped to attain. These individual plans did not replace the group work, but served to supplement it. One boy prepared the following plan:

- I. Objectives
 1. Learn to evaluate the interpretation of the play
 2. Develop appreciation of the effectiveness of the play's atmosphere
 3. Become familiar with the current plays and actors

4. Gain an understanding of the American way of life as expressed through drama
5. Follow articles written by good critics of drama
6. Make a study of the life of Robert Sherwood

II. Methods

1. See several of the plays showing in Cleveland
2. Write a comprehensive review for each one
3. Write some sort of essay to round out the work
4. Analyze the columns of McDermott in the *Plain Dealer* and of Brooks Atkinson in the *New York Times*.

Two meetings of the class were sufficient to set up the plans for this six weeks' unit. Thereafter, the teacher and the planning committee, working together, looked after the details of planning. Space does not permit the description of the work of the class during the six weeks, but it is important that we take account of the fact that the unit was not completed without an evaluation. First a written evaluation was made by each student in terms of both group and individual objectives, then followed an evaluation by the class as a whole, through group discussion. Excerpts follow from the written evaluation by one of the girls in the class:

Perhaps the most worthwhile thing I gained from the unit was the fulfilment of my first objective: that of acquiring a broad knowledge of many modern playwrights and their works. While at times I read more than one play by a certain author, I in no way limited myself to any one writer, however famous he might be. . . .

My second objective, a study of social problems through a study of plays concerned with certain problems, was easy to fulfil after I discovered which authors wrote plays concerned with social problems. Rice and Odets were the outstanding examples I found. Their presentation of certain problems was sometimes unbelievable, often shocking, but so real and vividly true to life that one, having read the selection of plays I did, would never look upon the slums—their peoples and their problems—with scorn and dislike, but instead with a kind of pity and a desire to “do something” about these conditions. Some of the most “popular” social problems I discovered in plays were: housing conditions, unemployment, threat of socialism, communism, and all the other “isms”. . . .

I gained from this unit a very important “something” which was not among my original objectives. That was the ability and under-

standing necessary to read a play and be able to visualize it as it would be played upon a stage—the characters, settings, everything—to be able to get the feeling of a play merely by reading it.

Students Share in Planning the Best Use of Their Working Time

In addition to these instances of group planning, in a number of cases students were observed while engaged in individual planning. A classroom procedure which requires each student to plan the use of much of his time is used in the North Bend, Washington, High School. The members of a freshman algebra class, for example, spend two periods each week in individual work, and a third period in group work under student leadership. The teacher is available for consultation by both individuals and the class, but the initiative lies with the students. They plan their own work and call upon the teacher as they need him.

On the day of the staff visit, the teacher was not present for the first ten or fifteen minutes and the students began immediately to present their problems according to a plan decided upon in the work period the day before. Each went to the front of the room to make a statement or demonstrate a problem at the board. The first student reporting had written out a number of statements in relation to algebra, some parts of which were in error. After his report the members of the class made corrections. A second student checked for accuracy a problem which he had previously placed on the board. He answered a number of students who asked him questions in regard to his procedure. A third student went to the board and requested help with his work. He wrote the problem on the board. Suggestions were made by the class. Without being asked to do so, a girl went to the board in order better to explain a point. When the teacher entered the

room the pupils did not ask him any questions but proceeded with their work as before. Even when in difficulty they did not turn to him exclusively but continued to discuss their difficulties among themselves.

In the Benham, Kentucky, High School the class work is highly individualized. Each student's major work centers in an "integrated" course, under the homeroom teacher, and the student goes to other classes in subject-matter fields to get the help which he needs on his major project. Therefore, each student must plan his daily work program each morning, and he does this during the homeroom period. The student makes out his own plan on a form, takes it to the homeroom teacher, and, as soon as she approves, begins his day's work.

Ninth-grade students at the Hutchins Intermediate School, Detroit, Michigan, not only share in planning their class work in English and social studies, but also do a large amount of their work in small groups, under student chairmen.⁷ Each group works on a topic which is a part of the project of the whole class, and reports to the class when its special work is done. Staff visitors to this school had opportunity to question students as to what they thought of this cooperative type of work, as compared with the methods of teaching in other classes. The questions and some of the replies follow.

Question: What do you consider to be of special value in the plan under which you have been working?

Student: It has helped us to get better acquainted with other members of the class and to gain different points of view.

⁷ Cleary, Florence; Hurd, Thelma; and Miller, George. "Cooperation in an Integrated Program." *Cooperation Principles and Practices*, Fifteenth Yearbook, Washington, D. C.: Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1939, Chap. 13, p. 190-93. Also: Cleary, Florence D.; Hurd, Thelma; and Miller, George L. "Teaching the Cooperative Way," *Nation's Schools* 22: 37-38; November 1938.

Student: This is a better plan than the old one under which we used to work. We make progress faster.

Student: Maybe there is more factual learning under the old plan.

Student: Under this plan we learn to depend upon ourselves more.

Question: Are you inclined to waste time?

Student: Oh yes, we waste some time, but is not this an experience we all go through?

Student: I don't think we waste time.

Student: A seeming waste of time enables us to get acquainted.

Question: Why do you like this type of procedure?

Student: We come to know each other better, so we can beat the others at their own arguments.

Student: I don't think that is the only reason. We also become better friends.

Student: Don't you think we would get more out of individual work than group work?

Student: I think group work is a benefit.

Student: I don't think so. Some will lag back and let other members of the group do it.

Student: If there is some lagging back it is partly the fault of the group.

Question: Which plan helps you to learn to study?

Student: I think I can get more of just plain facts by reading one book, but I get more enjoyment out of this plan.

Student: I think there is a point to bring out about study habits. Group work encourages one to work out of school. This plan helps us learn to work for ourselves.

Student: We changed off once for a little while and found that we accomplished more this way.

Student: I find that group work requires more preparation. Under the old plan you can almost get it all just from listening in the class without studying.

Question: Do you learn facts as well or less well under this plan?

Student: I don't know whether we do or not but I do know that we learn other things.

Student: I don't think we learn less facts. I think our experience helps us to learn facts as well as the other things.

Question: What other values are there in this plan?

Student: Under this plan when we study one subject, it leads to another. We do not have to try to get everything in one lump.

Student: It's a benefit in later years. It helps us to mingle with other people.

Student: I think this plan will add to personal success in life, because you get along better with others.

4. THE EXPERIMENTAL METHOD OF FREE INQUIRY

Efficiency in group action requires the full utilization of the intelligence of all members of the group. It is here that democracy has its great advantage over authoritarian societies. Instead of imposing arbitrary limitations upon the use of intelligence, democracy encourages free inquiry, exploration, invention, and constructive criticism.⁸

Human beings, however, must learn how to use their intelligences. The methods of scientific investigation and critical thinking are not a part of the native equipment of even the most intelligent. They are a part of our social heritage, and must be learned by each individual.

Hence the need that education in a democracy shall both teach and exemplify the experimental method of free inquiry. This method includes the techniques of discovering or collecting facts, of distinguishing between facts and opinions, of examining basic assumptions, of formulating and testing hypotheses, of drawing general principles from specific instances, and of applying principles. Here we shall report examples of classroom teaching in which one or more of these techniques of free inquiry is employed.

Students of Many Races Make a Scientific Study of Racial Differences

The study of racial characteristics by students in the Benjamin Franklin High School, New York City, provides the first illustration. This school is located in East Harlem where Italians, Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and many other racial groups compete for a livelihood in a distinctly underprivileged neighborhood. Under these conditions, practical problems of racial differences and racial superiority are bound to arise. The school is doing what it can

⁸ See pages 23-26 and 38.

to develop a feeling of mutual understanding among the students through its community work with both children and adults of the racial groups of the neighborhood.⁹ Each department has prepared a syllabus for intercultural education based on the study of racial differences and attitudes. The unit on "Race" taught by the biology department is especially interesting as an example of a scientific approach.¹⁰

In studying this unit, the students and teacher discuss such questions as these:

Is there a pure race?

Is the "Aryan race" superior to others?

Are some groups more advanced in the scale of evolution than others?

Are some groups of mankind more intelligent than others?

Why does a nation consider itself superior?

Do so-called inferior groups of man contribute to civilization?

The most authentic references are employed. The appeal is to reason rather than to feelings. Conclusions are drawn only after facts have been marshaled and examined. An attempt is made to develop critical attitudes based upon scientific inquiry, and thus to render the students immune to racial propaganda based chiefly upon emotional appeals.

Mathematics Teachers Relate Logical

Thinking to Assumptions and Issues in Social Problems

A part of the work of a geometry class in the Santa Barbara, California, High School consists in the examination of the assumptions which underlie newspaper editorials, advertisements, school regulations, and such everyday practices as installment buying and law observance. The point of view and purposes of the instructor are expressed in the following statement:

⁹ See pages 266-70.

¹⁰ Bleifeld, Maurice. "A Biology Unit Dealing with Racial Attitudes." *American Biology Teacher* 2: 7-9; October 1939.

It is a well-known fact that assumptions are necessary and important in an argument. In spite of this we have all experienced many heated arguments in which very important assumptions were made but not stated. It is much easier to follow the thinking of an individual who is willing to give reasons for his opinions and who will state the assumptions upon which his conclusions are based. Many differences of opinion between individuals could be more easily adjusted if each would state and analyze the assumptions used, for if we think accurately and arrive at conflicting conclusions then we must have started with conflicting assumptions.

Our behavior is based upon our assumptions of conduct. If a person's actions are out of harmony with his professed assumptions, then we have the individual who is confused in his thinking. Many poorly adjusted people are of this type, still trying to hang on to outmoded assumptions but not willing to act in harmony with them. We need to be honest with ourselves and realize that if we wish to change our behavior, changes in our assumptions must be accepted.

This phase of thinking which is so essential to life adjustment is likely to be neglected in a geometry course because in this field we have thought of our assumptions as being self-evident truths which were unchangeable. But if the main purpose of our teaching is to develop thinking power, then we cannot neglect this important phase of thinking. This unit on "Conflicting Assumptions" is an attempt to teach something which will be functional in the life of the students.

At the time of the staff visit, this class had worked out statements of assumptions underlying common practices in the fields of law observance, conduct in the school, installment buying, and civic responsibility.

A geometry class in the Shaker High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio, offers an example of a mathematics teacher's endeavor to develop ability to think logically about social as well as mathematical problems. This teacher has collected numerous materials exhibiting varied opinions with regard to a number of important social problems. At the time of the staff visit, the class had just read a seven-page compilation of conflicting views about the proposed child labor amendment to the Constitution, and was proceeding to discussion.

Teacher: What seem to be the issues here?

Girl 1: The opponents of the child labor amendment said that the

passage of this amendment would make us like Nazi Germany or Communist Russia. These opponents favor regulation of child labor by states, rather than by the federal government.

Teacher: What is the issue to them?

Girl 1: Communism or fascism.

Teacher: Would they rather let children be exploited than risk communism?

Girl 1: Yes.

Boy 1: On the other side, you have to consider that children take earnings from adults and lower the earning power of the family.

Teacher: Who says that?

Boy 1: Mayor La Guardia.

Teacher: Then with him it is a labor problem, is it?

Girl 2: There seem to be different interpretations of the amendment.

Teacher: How can that be?

(The teacher asks the girl to read the amendment, which she does, then continues.)

Teacher: How can they have different interpretations of these words? Who are some of the people opposed to the amendment?

Boy 2: Nicholas Murray Butler.

Teacher: Do you believe that Dr. Butler is in favor of child labor and child exploitation?

Girl 3: No. He's just afraid of too much federal control.

Girl 4: He's the same as I am. He sees the bill as being too vague and thinks that it gives too much power to Congress.

Girl 5: Don't a lot of people oppose the amendment because it would defeat their own ends? Employers of child labor mask their real motive under the claim of opposition to communism.

Teacher: Do you think they are not sincere?

Boy 5: Take the newspapers, for example. They employ children as newsboys. They would lose by the amendment.

Teacher: Let's suppose that everyone is sincere. How would you suggest that everyone get together, which is what you have to do if you are to have group thinking?

(Note here that the teacher is suggesting the application of the democratic principle of cooperative group action.)

Boy 5: Add a clause that the amendment shall apply only when children are exploited.

Boy 4: If you did that, in each case the government would have to prove in the courts that the persons involved were exploited. That would take too long a time and would be far too expensive.

Girl 4: Well, you either have to exclude the cases where exploitation doesn't exist or include the cases where exploitation is not likely.

Teacher: Could you get at it by changing certain words in the amendment?

Boy 5: You could set a minimum wage which would have to be paid to all children or adults.

Girl 4: Shouldn't they have written down all the prohibitions and regulations and rules in the amendment?

Boy 6: The bill to regulate farmers ran to six hundred pages.

Teacher: Do we want an amendment to the Constitution six hundred pages in length?

Class: No!

Girl 3: Some of the opponents don't like the word "prohibit" in the amendment.

Teacher: And some don't like the word "labor." They are afraid that the amendment will extend to mental labor as well as to physical toil and may, therefore, involve federal regulation of private schools. How about that?

No response.

Teacher: Well, what word could you use other than labor?

Boy 2: Employment?

Teacher: Possibly. I hope that you see that whereas we might have thought that the issue was to be whether we should have child labor or not, instead, we find that the issue resides in the wording of the amendment. What do you say about the wording? Is the amendment carelessly worded or not? It follows the general plan of the Constitution in making a broad general statement. Do you feel that if the amendment can't be passed with these words, it should be changed? In any case, it shows us the need for the precise use of words.

Unfortunately, the bell terminated this discussion, but not before these teaching aims were clear: to develop students' ability to locate issues, define terms, weigh evidence, and proceed toward solutions through group thinking.

A Class Investigates the Uses of the Consumer's Dollar

In the Huntington High School for Negro students, Newport News, Virginia, an eighth-grade group made a study of consumer problems. Their work involved the careful collection of facts, the study of standards, scientific experimentation, and finally, the publicizing of the findings. Their efforts resulted in the use of the information by both the students and their parents. This study was carried on in a class which combined the content and techniques of the social studies, the language arts, the fine and home arts, and science. The incident which led to this

study occurred when the class was discussing the production and distribution of food, clothing, and shelter. The group of students who were responsible for presenting the operation of the Pure Food and Drug Law gave a report on a violation which was currently in the newspaper headlines. Others in the class joined in a discussion of the laxity of governmental regulation and the extent to which the uninformed public could be harmed and cheated through a lack of reliable information about buying. The discussion did not stop with the facts concerning the particular case in question. Problems of everyday buying were also considered. It was concluded that much money could be saved and living in general could be improved if people learned to be intelligent buyers. Toward the close of the period the teacher asked the class members if they felt that a study of consumer problems would help their families.

When the discussion was continued the next day, the students showed such interest that the teacher had no doubt concerning the importance of making a more intensive study of consumer problems. The first step was the listing of the products being used by the families of the students. It was decided that brands of food, kinds of patent medicines, types of fuel, toilet articles, dentifrices, and brands of shoes and clothing should be included. This information was collected. Only those items which appeared on individual lists five or more times were to be investigated, since others did not seem representative. The teacher then pointed out that the class thus far was probably using too few cases. After a discussion of this point, the class decided to send a questionnaire to the pupils of the entire school, to obtain a more adequate sample of buying choices. This was done. The class was then divided into five groups for compiling the data. Copies of the

findings were mimeographed and distributed to all class members.

This collecting of facts about buying practices was merely the beginning of the study. Materials relating to consumer problems were next collected. Buying standards were set up after an investigation of scientific sources. The devices of advertisers were studied. The bases for buying used by the families reporting on the questionnaire were discussed in relation to standards and advertising devices. Class members came to realize the unscientific bases commonly used by families in their purchases.

Under the teacher's direction the students performed bacteriological tests to determine the germicidal power of the leading antiseptics reported. Students went even further and made soap, powder, face cream, and other preparations to discover the ingredients needed and their costs. Clothing fabrics were examined under the microscope and were chemically tested. Durability tests and chemical tests were made of other articles.

The work done by this class was exhibited on bulletin boards throughout the school. A play on the practical value of intelligent consumer buying was written by the students and was produced in the school assembly. The class members made lists of the most economical products and the "best buys" and carried them home for use by their families. Each student observed the effect of these lists on the subsequent buying choices of his family, and reported on the results. For months after this study was completed students sought information concerning purchases. Questions were also sent in by parents. A number of families who have kept a careful budget have reported saving several dollars a month as a result of the information furnished to them.

Students Examine the Meaning of Democracy and Its Application to Their School

The "Problems of Democracy" classes in the Eugene, Oregon, High School are concerned not only with political problems in the world at large but also with democracy as it is related to the government and society of the school. From time to time the students in these classes have examined their own concepts of the meaning of democracy and the operation of democracy in the school.

The project reported here was the outgrowth of a student council meeting where the problem of democratic government in the school was under discussion. One of the council members, who was also a member of the class, proposed that the class might make its own study of democracy in the school. The students' interest was quickly aroused by this suggestion, and they proceeded to develop a questionnaire to which they gave the title, "Survey on School Democracy." It included the following items:

1. What do you understand by "school democracy"?
 - a. Does it ever mean to do as you please?
 - b. Does it mean self-control? Regard for others' rights?
 - c. Does it mean assuming individual responsibility?
2. Is democracy tied up with other things besides government in school? If so, what?
3. What are the weaknesses and faults of democracy as practiced in our school system? What are the beneficial features?
4. How has so-called "classroom democracy" been abused? What are its values?
5. What constructive criticisms or suggestions would you make to improve the spirit and practice of democracy in Eugene High School?

The questionnaire was then given to a representative sampling of students, and the results were tabulated and studied. These became the basis for a series of class discussions. As a result, in 1938-39, the "Problems of Democracy" classes were reorganized on a more democratic basis.

with an extension of students' authority to include more than routine matters and discipline.

One of the first activities of the reorganized classes was an investigation of the opinions concerning classroom democracy and student government held by the teachers, alumni, and the student body of the school. Facts were collected by interviews with representative members of the three groups. The results were reported orally and in writing. Then a committee in each class compiled the findings into a composite report which is now used as source material for social studies classes.

Still another project of a "Problems of Democracy" class at Eugene illustrates the experimental method of inquiry. In a research project on the meaning of democracy, the students spent four weeks collecting, discussing, and studying definitions gathered from all available sources. During this time approximately two hundred concepts of democracy were considered by the group. A class editing committee reduced this number to forty items. The whole group then agreed on seventeen points as being of major importance, and these became a statement of democratic principles for the guidance of the class.

An Experiment in Dictatorship Enhances Students' Appreciation of Democracy

From the George School in Pennsylvania, comes the final example in this section, an ingenious experiment in teaching the values of freedom of speech and other civil liberties. A social studies class was engaged in a study of democracy and dictatorship, when a number of students expressed dissatisfaction with democracy because of its alleged inefficiency. Dictatorships were much more successful, they said, in "getting things done." They suggested that more dictation by the teacher, and less student

participation in planning and discussion might be desirable in their own class. The teacher took their criticisms seriously and suggested that the classroom might be a good place to perform an experiment in the use of democratic and dictatorial methods. He first explained what he had been attempting to accomplish by employing democratic methods, and then proposed that the class be operated as a dictatorship for two weeks, at the end of which time the students might choose which method they preferred for the rest of the year.

The students accepted the proposal eagerly, and the teacher did his part in thoroughgoing fashion. He strictly prescribed all classroom activities. He acted as sole arbiter of all debatable questions. He even appointed two students to serve as secret police and to report to him daily on the private actions of their classmates. Each class period opened with the teacher's reading of these reports. Most of the students were ready to end the experiment at the end of the first week, but the teacher-dictator was unyielding. At the end of two weeks the class voted unanimously to return to its accustomed democratic procedures.

5. FREEDOM FOR THE DISCUSSION OF CONTROVERSIAL SUBJECTS

Freedom of discussion of controversial subjects is more than a right. It is a requisite of democratic institutions and democratic ways of living. In a democracy, public policy is ultimately determined by the will of the people. To deny the right of consideration of controversial questions to any portion of the people or to place any question outside the pale of free discussion, is to strike at the heart of democratic institutions.

The nature of controversy implies that there are vital differences of opinion which may be based upon conver-

sance with different facts, assumptions, or hypotheses. It is at these points of controversy that basic decisions are usually made. The right to engage in free discussion of controversial issues is therefore the right to think about problems at the very points which are of greatest practical consequence. If citizens do not have this right, they are unable to make intelligent decisions, and control passes into the hands of those individuals who are adroit enough to attain positions of power and influence. A democracy thrives on clear thinking at points of controversy. It dies without it.

That American high schools recognize the importance of teaching children to think clearly about debatable issues is evident from the examples cited in this section. These illustrations are typical of many others which were observed.¹¹

Students Experience Free Speech While Discussing Civil Liberties

In a modern problems class in South High School, Omaha, Nebraska, a Grade XII group was observed while discussing freedom of speech and the press. A mimeographed sheet, entitled "Finns Hail Soviet Aid," had been brought to class by a student. This sheet had been left on the front porch of the student's home and apparently had been generally distributed in the neighborhood.

The teacher read the sheet aloud to the class and said, "Well, what do you think of it?" A part of the discussion is reported:

Boy 3: I'm puzzled, because the newspapers say Finland and Russia are at war and this says that the Finnish and Russian people are friendly.

¹¹ See also pages 366-69.

Boy 2: It's propaganda. It favors only one side.

Teacher: Is there any danger in that?

Boy 2: Yes, if you read only this. I believe we should read newspapers, too, and get other points of view.

Boy 3: Your viewpoint will depend a lot on which side you read first.

Teacher: Are you as gullible as some people?

Girl 1: No.

Teacher: Why? What do you particularly look for when you read things like this?

Girl 1: Propaganda.

Teacher: Do you think that older people are as aware of propaganda as you are?

Girl 2: I don't think so. I think we begin at once to ask where the information comes from and what the other side is.

Girl 3: I think older people believe whatever agrees with their own point of view.

Teacher: In one class, a student said, "We ought to do something about the spreading of communist statements like this one." What do you think?

Boy 2: I don't think we should. We ought to let people express their views. But you should be sure that you get all views on a question.

Teacher: Suppose you get one side from an Omaha paper and another side from a Des Moines paper. Where does that leave you?

Boy 4: Right where I ought to be. Then I will have to make up my own mind.

Boy 5: This sheet probably does some good. All that we read in the newspapers is sympathetic to Finland. I haven't heard or read anything on the Russian side. Even if this isn't true, we need to have some way in which the Russian side can be presented.

Boy 6: But this makes the Russian attack on Finland sound different from what it is. This doesn't sound like aggression.

Teacher: Do you think that the city should pass an ordinance forbidding the distribution of handbills like this one?

Boy 7: No. That would drive them underground. There would be secret distribution.

Girl 4: I disagree. I think we ought to stop it completely if it is too harmful to the government or damages the people.

Boy 2: What is going to be your measuring stick for deciding whether it is too harmful?

Girl 4: Is it too communistic or too fascist?

Boy 2: How are you going to decide that? And who is going to decide it?

Girl 4: Well, then, if it is contrary to the will of the majority.

Boy 8: I don't think we should stop it at all. As long as the Communist Party is legally recognized as a political party in this coun-

try, and as long as they do things aboveboard, I say "Let them do them."

Boy 2: It isn't democratic to suppress handbills. Democracy says to see all sides of a question.

Boy 7: Suppression would do more harm to democracy than anything. It would make our newspapers like the Russian newspapers.

This discussion not only concerned freedom of speech; it also exemplified it. Students were free to express their own views candidly, and to disagree both with one another and with the teacher. Every statement was open to challenge, and to the demand that it be supported by evidence or argument.

Students Discuss the Constitutional Rights of Those Who Oppose Democracy

A social studies class in the John W. Weeks Junior High School, Newton, Massachusetts, was observed while talking about the constitutional rights of American citizens who are members of organizations advocating radical changes in government. This class was visited in October 1939. These students were thinking seriously about problems to which most adults did not give much thought until another six months had passed.

Throughout the discussion, the teacher was concerned that students should be able to support their statements with evidence, and that this evidence should be reliable. The teacher, incidentally, was employing an ingenious device. Two electric light bulbs, one yellow and one red, had been placed in view of all class members. When a member of the panel or a student on the floor made a statement which was vague or off the point, the yellow light was switched on by the teacher. The red light showed when there was error of fact.

The class session opened with a "current events" report by a student panel. Included in this student report was a

statement relating to the alleged communist domination of the American League for Peace and Democracy, as reported in the press. Following the report, the class turned to discussion:

Boy 1: I think the statement that the people on the mailing lists of the American League for Peace and Democracy are communists, is just propaganda.

Teacher: We certainly have to have something more than these press reports to justify us in believing that statement, especially when we see the list of the names of people involved, and their replies to the charges.

Boy 2: What can they do about it even if they find these organizations are giving out literature? Don't we have freedom of speech and freedom of the press under the Constitution?

Boy 3: The Dies Committee can prosecute them if they violate the laws.

Teacher (correcting the student's statement): A committee of Congress can summon witnesses and can punish them if they do not appear, or punish them if they tell untruths, but it cannot prosecute them for the violation of laws.

Boy 4: What good does the Dies Committee do, if it can't punish people for violating laws?

Boy 5: The "Bund" may not go as far as it would otherwise, because the Dies Committee is acting.

Boy 6: I think the "Bund" influences weak Americans.

Girl 1: What do you mean by "weak" Americans?

Boy 6: Oh, I don't know, the feeble-minded, I suppose.

Boy 1: I suppose they influence illiterates.

Girl 1: Well, organizations like that and the communists' organizations may influence poor people who live in slums, but they don't have much effect on the rest of us.

Teacher: Should the nazis and communists in this country have the right of free speech?

Girl 2: Yes.

Girl 3: Most of them are American citizens the same as everyone else, but there ought to be a law that if they are going to do anything to harm our government they can be stopped.

Boy 6: I don't see why they are American citizens and then plot against the United States.

Teacher: How do you know that they are plotting against the United States? What evidence do we have on that point?

Boy 6: Well, they do something at these meetings. They are probably doing that.

Girl 4: Can't people be punished for un-American acts?

Teacher: It can be done, but the government hesitates to do it. In our history we have several times had "field days" of persecuting

people who didn't agree with us. Should they have freedom of speech, even if they are advocating something which we believe is wrong? If your answer is "yes," where will you draw the line for subversive activities? If your answer is "no," are you denying these people rights guaranteed by the Constitution?

The Meaning of Democracy in the School Is Examined

The term "democracy" is often used by adults and youth alike, but its specific meanings for particular situations are not often inquired into. It is therefore interesting to find the students in a Grade X social studies class in the Radford, Virginia, High School attempting to define democracy and to apply the definition to practices in their own school. The pupils were in the process of making individual and group reports on the subject of "Education" when the discussion took place.

Girl 1: German youth do not have the same rights in their schools as we do.

Teacher: Perhaps the German schools are suited to their type of society.

Boy 1: If you had democracy in schools in Germany, then when they got out they wouldn't let the dictator continue.

Boy 2: We have dictatorship here.

Teacher: In school or in the nation?

Boy 2: In both.

(A murmur of amusement goes around the class.)

Teacher: Do we have democracy in this class?

Boy 3: How about those items on the board?

Teacher: Where did they come from?

General chorus: From the class.

Boy 4: Another class group decided to study transportation and I wanted to study communication. They forced me to study transportation.

Teacher: The will of the majority evidently determined the result. Are there illustrations of lack of democracy in schools?

Girl 2: Yes, we have to take English. We have to take social studies. A certain number of units are required for graduation.

Teacher: Suppose we ask the boy who said that we have dictatorship in school to define democracy.

Boy 2: It means that you do what you want to.

(A chorus of protests arises from the class.)

Boy 5: When you see a car you want, do you just take it?

Girl 3: You must have some agreement or rules in a school to get things done.

Girl 4: Democracy means freedom of speech, press, and religion.

Teacher (to the class): Your idea is, I think, that in a democracy we can do what we want provided we do not hurt others. But sometimes in the nation and in schools, tradition becomes so strong that it acts like a dictator.

A Principal and His Students Talk Over a Difficult Problem Together

In the Sacramento, California, Senior High School, a third-year social problems class invited the principal of the school to talk with them about a proposal, initiated by students, to include an elective course in sex education in the school curriculum. The class meeting opened with a brief statement from the principal, who explained some of the difficulties of attempting to introduce sex education into the curriculum. He pointed out that the school must move ahead in harmony with the community, rather than seek to adopt changes which have not been generally accepted. The students and the principal then engaged in the following discussion:

Girl 1: Nine-tenths of the students would like a course. If we don't get it here, we'll pick up the information in alleys and drug stores. Why can't we have it? Why can't we do as we did with the tuberculosis tests, and require the parents' OK for students to take the course?

Principal: A voluntary course is possible. What practical steps would you suggest for the school?

Boy 1: Get the consent of parents.

Boy 2: Would the board of education be involved?

Principal: Yes. I would have to present a course of study for their approval. What about newspapers? Are they part of the community?

Several students: Yes.

Principal: All right. We'll have to consider the newspapers. While we're talking together, let's not forget that much progress has been made. Ten years ago, could we have discussed this matter in this way?

Class: No.

Principal: You are right. Something has happened in recent years.

Boy 3: Yesterday the class discussed economic problems related to

birth-rates. Couldn't the subject be introduced under the study of economics?

Principal: There is an unsettled question as to how to teach such things as safety and sex. Should they be taught in separate courses, or as units in other courses, where they fit in logically?

Boy 4: This class is the only one in which the subject is discussed now. The discussion here shows that young people have been thinking. But we need to reach all who haven't been thinking about it seriously or scientifically. We can't leave it to voluntary enrolment.

Boy 5: How does the faculty feel about it? Are they divided?

Principal: They are part of the community, too, aren't they? My guess is that they are divided.

You wouldn't buy a car with only an engine, would you? You need the brakes. It isn't safe to engage in a course of action without the opposition. The best thinking is done in conference, with the opposition represented. The purpose of a debate is to win. The purpose of a conference is to get at the truth. So it isn't a serious obstacle to success, to have opposition. Indeed, opposition is necessary. It helps us along.

Well, you have isolated a great social problem. It is a new thing in education for young people to do this. What is the next step?

Boy 4: Get more facts.

Principal: Yes. Then, what other steps?

Boy 1: You have to win everyone, to get sex education. You can't put it on an elective basis.

Principal: Do you think it can be done?

Boy 1: Yes. Where people have freedom to gather facts.

Principal: People seem to need willingness to use facts more than ability to get them.

Girl 2: It is encouraging that there are more such courses in colleges.

Boy 6: Don't think that six-year-olds don't have their ideas. Begin in the elementary grades, and give them what they need and can take. By the time those kids get to high school, we'll be grown up and a part of adult society and we'll support it.

Girl 3: One thing needed is to instil in our parents' minds the idea that we are grown up. They should realize our need for information.

Principal: Are you implying that the high-school student has a responsibility for the education of his parents?

Girl 3: Yes. That's exactly what I mean.

Principal: Your parents haven't had the opportunities which you have had. The majority of them haven't been in high school. Forty-five per cent of you come from homes where one or both parents are foreign-born.

Boy 7: We need two things. We have needs for our own present life and needs for our later life as adults and parents.

Principal: The important thing is that we have freedom to attack our problems, any problems. That is democracy. We are free to go ahead and attack this and other social problems—war, crime, and the rest.

A Class Talks Freely about Civil Liberties, Patriotism, and Loyalty

In the Fieldston School, New York City, an ethics class made up of seniors discussed the conditions under which civil liberties are most cherished, the value of emotion in relation to these liberties, and the meaning of good citizenship. The teacher introduced the discussion by asking the students what they thought of the civil liberties banquet held the week before, at which some of them had served as ushers.

Boy 1: People nowadays don't have to work for their civil liberties and so they don't appreciate them. They awoken too late to danger that their civil liberties may be taken away.

Girl 1: I think there is special emphasis on civil liberties nowadays. Look at the shorts that we are seeing at many of the movies. I think the war situation has brought this about. We are whooping it up for civil liberty, but it may be too late.

Teacher: Do you think this is caused by the war? These movie shorts that you are referring to were prepared long before last September.

Boy 2: This is a development of recent years and has come with the building up of the fascist powers. There is a growing consciousness of patriotism in this country and we are giving more attention to the rights which we enjoy.

Teacher: Who is giving this attention?

Boy 2: Everyone. The patriotic societies have a lot to do with it. For example, only recently we have been singing "The Star-Spangled Banner" at all the movie shows.

Girl 1: There is certainly a lot of propaganda for patriotism, but I think it is too emotional.

Boy 4: It doesn't mean anything to sing "The Star-Spangled Banner"; it's just a song.

Girl 2: I suppose the American flag is just a rag too, eh?

Boy 4: We haven't fought for the flag so we don't appreciate what it means.

Girl 3: Well, "The Star-Spangled Banner" isn't just the same as "Here Comes Love."

Boy 5: I think we do have some feeling when we sing "The Star-Spangled Banner."

Teacher: Some of the influence comes from patriotic societies, but some of it comes from minority groups. They know that their rights to speak and to teach are at stake. But what of people like ourselves whose chief concern in life seems to be personal success, happiness,

marriage, and money? Where is your allegiance? To what are you loyal beyond yourself? What are the tests of citizenship?

Girl 5: To obey the laws.

Teacher: Yes, and to pay taxes, and to vote. But what else is there to citizenship beyond these?

Boy 5: A willingness to defend our country from internal and external enemies.

Teacher: In war time?

Boy 5: In both war and peace.

Girl 4: An interest in civic affairs going on around you is a part of citizenship.

Teacher: How is this shown?

Boy 1: In school it may be shown by whether you pick up paper on the floor or not. That may seem to be a small thing, but it is indicative of your citizenship.

Teacher: Yes, that's one test. Another part of citizenship is the voluntary associations of people to meet their social needs, such as public education, public health, and the conservation of natural resources. It is difficult to love humanity in general. We have to begin in small circles and then move out toward the nation.

Boy 7: A nation is too big. We have to whittle it down to something local that we can understand. The "Star-Spangled Banner" would mean more to me if I knew more people.

Teacher: The local group is too small. The forces and problems of greatest importance today are national, not local. We are yielding more power to the national government than ever before. Such problems as unemployment, labor relations, and the dust bowl are examples of this. People's strongest allegiance is usually to their nation. Loyalty to a smaller group doesn't prohibit loyalty to a larger. Education is a series of initiations into larger and more inclusive groups. We can continue functioning in smaller groups while moving into larger ones.

6. RESPONSIBILITY, A REQUISITE OF FREEDOM

Of the two thousand students who defined democracy in this study, practically all were aware that democracy involves freedom, rights, and privileges. Fewer than one-third of these students, however, made mention of any responsibilities incumbent upon the citizen of a democracy.¹⁷ The inadequate conception of democracy, to which these findings point, cannot be remedied merely by teaching more complete verbal statements about democracy. Democratic education, to repeat what has been said earlier,

¹⁷ See page 47.

teaches through experience that every privilege entails a corresponding duty, every authority a responsibility, every responsibility an accounting.¹⁰ The emphasis here is on the words "through experience," for that is the only means whereby the lesson of responsibility can be learned.

The responsibilities with which we are chiefly concerned are those which are willingly assumed by the person who knows that he and his fellows cannot long enjoy freedom unless they give heed to the duties which freedom exacts. Responsibility which is imposed by the constraint of some higher authority will not long sustain a society of free men. It is regrettable that many schools have limited students' opportunities for responsibility coupled with freedom largely to the so-called "extracurricular" activities. In classrooms, responsibilities usually have been assigned by the teachers. It is clear from this study that responsibilities need not be imposed from above for the sake of good teaching. Many cases have already been reported in which students have voluntarily undertaken and discharged responsibilities in the interests of the common welfare. Most of the examples cited earlier in this chapter, under "Cooperative Action for the Common Good" and "Participation of All in Planning, Executing, and Evaluating," involve the assumption of very considerable responsibilities by students. Other instances will be added in Chapter V. A few additional illustrations will be described here.

Responsible Students Have Freedom To Plan and Direct Their Own Work

A high degree of individual student responsibility for classroom work is found in the Holtville High School, Deatsville, Alabama. The ways in which students take

¹⁰ See page 37.

charge of classes and carry on projects which benefit the whole community are reported elsewhere in this volume.¹⁴ Here we are concerned with the freedom of students to decide how they are going to use their time and where they can use it to the best advantage.

Although each student normally follows a regular schedule of classes, he may choose to vary this schedule whenever he feels that his time could be more profitably spent in some other way. In each classroom there is a form which the student signs to indicate his intention of missing the class and to state where he plans to be and why. The editor of the school newspaper, for example, spends at least one day each week in the newspaper office. When she was asked what she does about the work for her classes on that day she replied, "Well, I make it up out of class if I think it is important, and if I don't think it is important, I just skip it. I have to decide what is the best use of my time, as well as what things I feel I need to learn or can do without."

"Blue Monday is gone for the students and teachers at North Bend," remarked one of the teachers at the North Bend, Washington, High School. Monday is a "free work day" in the school, a day when practically no formal classes are held. Instead, the students determine for themselves what they will do during the school hours, where they will work, and which teachers they will consult for guidance and assistance. Students work in the library, in the industrial arts shop, in commercial classrooms, wherever the facilities which they require are located.

At first, only those students who had previously shown initiative and a sense of responsibility were given the privilege of the "free work day." Gradually more and more students were brought into the program, until there are now only a few who are not included. The few who remain

¹⁴ See pages 192 and 322-25.

outside the program meet in regular classes under adult supervision on the free work days. One of the major concerns of the faculty is to find ways of stimulating this group to assume the personal responsibility which would justify freedom for them to direct their own work. Most of the students use their freedom in intelligent and profitable ways. They have accepted the obligations which necessarily accompany the privileges which they enjoy.

The "self-reliance group" in the Thomas Jefferson High School, Council Bluffs, Iowa, provides another example of responsible action coupled with freedom. A student applies in writing through his homeroom for admission to the group. The homeroom votes as to whether the applicant is qualified or not. The homeroom teacher and the principal of the school also pass upon the application. If these three approvals are given, the student becomes a member of the group.

The "self-reliance" students are given full responsibility for managing their own affairs. They are freed from the compulsory requirements of the school. Class attendance is optional, and these students may leave the schoolgrounds whenever they wish to do so. In the words of the principal, the members of the self-reliance group have shown their ability to direct their own activities in the school, and they are, therefore, entitled to freedom commensurate with this demonstrated willingness to assume responsibility.

A class on modern problems in Canton, Mississippi, High School was allowed to select its own materials of instruction and apparently learned a valuable lesson in responsibility in the course of the process. The students decided that magazines and reference books would be more useful for their purposes than a textbook. They agreed that each student would pay seventy-five cents into a magazine fund. The teacher then secured samples of nearly one hundred magazines. The students studied these carefully,

each student examining from ten to twenty magazines. A brief report on each magazine was made to the class, standards for selection were set up, and the class voted for the ten magazines to be purchased with its funds.

Students Conduct Classes

When Teachers Are Called Away

In a number of schools, students are in charge of the classrooms if the teachers are not present. Each class in the Tappan Junior High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan, has a student president and vicepresident. In three rooms observed when the teachers were unexpectedly called away, the student presidents assumed leadership at once. Under their direction, the recitations, discussions, and laboratory work proceeded without interruption. In three other classes, the presidents simply asked the students to read their books, since the teachers of these groups had apparently not informed the class officers as to what was planned.

Students in the Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio, are also responsible for managing their classroom activities. Every class in the school elects officers who take charge of the work during temporary absences of the teacher. These students are proud of the fact that their teachers may be called away at any time without interfering with the class work.

A third example of student responsibility in classroom management was observed in the University High School, Oakland, California. The student chairman of a social living class directed the work of the group during an entire period when the teacher was absent. After the students had presented the reports they had prepared for the day, the chairman said: "You will please study until the bell rings. You are asked to keep your voices down." For the

rest of the period the students worked informally, a number of them quietly discussing their work with one another.

In the Eugene, Oregon, High School, all social studies classes are organized to take responsibility in conducting many of their classroom activities. Student officers are in charge at the beginning of each period. After the school announcements are read by the student secretary, the president leads a short discussion on the current news of the day. Once each week, the students have complete charge of the discussion for the entire period. At all times when the student officers are directing the class, the students follow the rules of parliamentary procedure. New class officers are elected periodically in order to give as many students as possible an opportunity for responsible leadership.

Students Carry Responsibilities for the Operation of Shops

Students of industrial arts classes in several schools visited also take responsibility for various aspects of class procedure. In the Thomas Jefferson High School, Council Bluffs, Iowa, students elect their own shop foreman. Every six weeks a new foreman is chosen. Each student who holds this job has definite responsibilities and authority. The philosophy which underlies this procedure is expressed in the words of the teacher: "The sooner we teachers begin to delegate authority to the students, the better. Is not the knowledge that you are indispensable the chief incentive to responsible action?"

In the Milwaukee, Wisconsin, Vocational High School another type of student organization has been developed in the industrial arts department. Each class has a president and a secretary who distribute among the students such jobs as tool-room keeper, attendance checker, and safety man. They appoint student committees to work

with the teacher in planning and directing class work. The presidents and the secretaries of all industrial arts classes meet regularly to discuss common problems, such as ways of preventing accidents in the shops.

A similar organization exists in the industrial arts classes in the Boynton Junior High School, Ithaca, New York. Student officers are chosen by the instructor from among the applicants in each class. In each group there are a shop superintendent, a foreman, an assistant foreman, a librarian, three tool men, and a clerk. Each of these jobs carries with it definite responsibilities for the successful operation of the shop.

Students Appreciate the Value of Learning To Be Responsible

In the Atlanta, Georgia, University Laboratory School the students have a large measure of responsibility for their classroom work. In many courses the students choose the topics to be studied and help to plan class projects. In a number of classes each student may proceed in his study according to his own plans. A boy in the school commented on this method as follows:

I think we learn to take responsibilities here. Each student realizes that he is going to school for himself, and that if he is going to get an education, *he* will have to do it. One thing this school tries to teach us is cooperation. We learn how to discuss in our classes and we also learn how to plan work together. When we get out of school into life, we will have to be able to plan our own affairs. So while we are in school we ought to learn to plan for ourselves what we are going to do and how and why.

A girl gave her opinion of the school:

I had always been accustomed to doing what the teacher assigned me to do, but when I came here I had to learn to take my own responsibilities. I didn't like this method at first, but now I have come to like it very much. I find that I have to please myself instead of pleasing the teacher. There is no one to tell me that I must do anything. After two or three weeks here, I found I was learning to plan my own work and to make better use of my time.

CONCLUSIONS

Every Teacher May Make His Classroom a Place Where Youth Learn Democratic Living

1. Every classroom, laboratory, shop, and gymnasium may contribute to the development of democratic citizenship, if the teachers understand democratic principles and are skilled in their practical application to teaching. This requires something more than the rule-of-thumb learning of "democratic teaching techniques." It requires that teachers give careful study to the democratic ideal and its implications for life in America today; that they care deeply about the effects of their teaching on the civic behavior of young people; and that they be willing to submit their own familiar teaching practices to unsparing scrutiny in the light of the democratic ideal, and to cast aside all that is inconsistent with democracy.

Every Teacher, Regardless of Subject, Should Have Preparation in the Understanding and Practice of Democracy

2. The implications for the professional education of teachers are far-reaching. Every teacher, in every field—not only the teachers of social studies—should have a well-grounded understanding of American democracy and thorough pre-service experience with democratic classroom practices. Furthermore, every teacher should be expected to keep reasonably well informed regarding the major contemporary problems and issues of public life.

More Accurate Knowledge Is Needed as to the Possibilities of Growth in Social Behavior

3. The factor of growth in ability to work democratically requires more attention than it has received. We

know, in a general way, that the skills of democratic living are learned, and that the capacities of children to learn these skills increase with age. But research is needed to determine more accurately the levels of democratic social behavior in relation to age and intelligence, which are attainable under favorable learning conditions. Furthermore, application is needed, in the secondary schools especially, of what is already known about children's social development.

*Materials and Aids Are Needed Which
Are Suitable for Free Inquiry and Discussion*

4. The use of the experimental method of free inquiry and the frequent discussion of controversial issues require teaching materials and aids different from those commonly found in schools. The school library will be used increasingly, and it will need to be stocked with authentic reference works on problems likely to be investigated and with materials fairly representing all sides of controversial matters. In the study of the controversial, the radio will be a potent teaching aid, and more use will be made of newspapers, news magazines, standard magazines which give large space to public matters, and various series of public affairs pamphlets.

*The National Interest Calls for Emphasis
on Cooperative Activities and Motives*

5. Both competition and cooperation have legitimate places in the school and in American society. The observations of this study indicate that at this time schools need to stress cooperative activities and motives, in order to balance the effects of past emphasis on competition. Conditions of American life in the past have magnified the role

of competition in political and economic affairs, and schools have tended to reflect this emphasis. Today, however, the nation clearly stands in need of cooperation in the interests of the general welfare. This need has been brought forcefully to our attention by the national defense crisis, but it has existed for many years and has steadily been growing more acute. Some schools have commenced to respond to this national need for cooperation, as the examples in this chapter have shown; but much remains to be done, even in the schools furthest advanced.

It will not be easy to bring about this change of emphasis in education. The weight of tradition is on the side of competitive methods. The motives of rivalry are easily aroused and we are familiar with their use as stimulants to action. The motives of cooperation, on the other hand, become effective only through long practice, and we are still learning how they can best be developed.

A program of education for democratic citizenship will not abstain from the use of competition in situations in which rivalry is appropriate; but it will be chiefly concerned with activities in which boys and girls learn to work together for the common good, without expectation of individual recognition or reward, other than the satisfaction of doing something that is socially useful.



CHAPTER IV

Out-of-Class

School

Activities



IT WAS an inspiring experience to stand at the window of the library of the Lincoln Consolidated School near Ypsilanti, Michigan, and watch seventeen school buses converge toward the school from all points of the compass. These school buses, each carrying forty or more pupils, were transporting the young citizens of this school society from the sixty-three square miles of territory that make up this district. As the pupils alighted from the buses at the schoolhouse door, the student secretary of each bus went immediately to the office to make his or her report to the bus captain, also a student, elected to his position by his fellow members of the student body. The reports were made in writing, supplemented by oral description of any important happenings of the morning. The reports contained information about the number of pupils in each bus, the names of the absentees, the condition of the weather, the roads, mechanical difficulties, if any, and the general conduct of the pupils. Special record was made of any problem which needed immediate attention. The bus captain received each report, making due note of anything which should have his attention during the day. After the reports were all delivered, the bus captain carefully scrutinized each one, for it was his duty to do something, in the course of the day, to meet each problem reported.

Nearly all the pupils of the school come and go in the school buses. Each bus has its president, vicepresident, and secretary, elected by the pupils who ride in that bus. These officers have the responsibility for the conduct and safety of the passengers. There is nothing artificial about their responsibility. It is genuine. The welfare of their fellow students, as well as the efficient operation of the school transportation system, depend upon their performance of their jobs.

It was no less stirring to spend a day at the Holtville High School near Deatsville, Alabama, under the guidance of the student body president. In classroom, shop, library, and gymnasium alike, this young man knew his school, and he explained its operation to the visitors as ably as any adult guide could have done. "It is part of my job," he explained, "to keep in touch with everything that goes on in this school." He was not alone, however, in having a "job" for which he took full responsibility. Students were busily at work throughout the school, doing things on which other people depended—getting out the community newspaper; running a poultry hatchery and a meat refrigeration plant; operating a barber shop, a beauty parlor, and a community motion picture show; building playground equipment for the elementary school; making furniture and curtains for a model home which they had recently built; and handling all the money and accounts for all the school's activities, in the school bank. As often as not, there was no teacher present, because, it was learned later, the school does not have enough teachers to go around its many activities. So, the student president explained, "when a student takes the responsibility for doing something, if the student doesn't do it, it doesn't get done."

*Democracy May Be Learned through
Practice in the Laboratory of School Life*

These are laboratories of democratic living. Here boys and girls have opportunity to learn *through practice* the lessons of shared planning, group deliberation, action for the general welfare, and personal responsibility, which are the stuff of the democratic fabric. Such laboratories were found in many schools. Some were in classrooms, and the preceding chapter has reported many of these. Others were found in connection with activities which take place in the

school, but outside the classroom. These will be reported in this chapter. The next chapter will describe school activities which extend into the community.

The term "extracurricular activities" is advisedly avoided. It implies too narrow a limitation of the curriculum of education for democratic citizenship. In that curriculum, the out-of-classroom activities of this chapter and the next have a place by right, not by favor.

Experience in Democratic Living Enhances the Value of Studying about Democracy

It should be clear by this time that this study recognizes no cleavage between thought and action.¹ This chapter is no plea for student "activities" at the expense of thoughtful, systematic study of the meaning of democracy, of the civil liberties, of political institutions, and of the other areas described in Chapter II. Rather, this chapter attempts to show how students may gain understanding of the concepts of democracy and familiarity with democratic methods through the experiences of living together in a school. Actual experience with democratic principles and practices, in face-to-face relations with daily associates, is prerequisite to the fruitful study of these principles and practices in the more complex and remote adult world.

Activities Must Meet the Test of Consistency with Democratic Principles

Not all student activities are conducive to democratic citizenship. The activity which is carried on only because it wins an honor point for the student or a trophy for the homeroom is as useless for civic education as the most

¹ See especially pages 43 and 119-20.

routinized class work. The activity which is managed for the benefit of a few "school politicians" at the expense of the general welfare, or which rides roughshod over the civil liberties of students, is destructive of democracy. Even those benevolently dominated activity programs of the "master-mind" and "busy-work" types,² are, as we have seen, better suited to train youth for uncritical submission to authority than for the exercise of the rights of free men and women.

Careful selections therefore must be made from among the many hundreds of councils, leagues, clubs, patrols, courts, assemblies, forums, homerooms, newspapers, annuals, and other student activities observed in this study. Examples will be chosen which unmistakably contribute something to growth in democratic citizenship. The standards for selection are the "hallmarks of democratic education,"³ which, when applied to student activities, raise such questions at these: Does the boy from "across the tracks" have the same opportunity as the son of well-to-do parents to achieve success? Do all students have the right to share in deciding the purposes of their student organizations, or are purposes determined for them by someone else? Do students enjoy the rights of freedom of speech in forums? Of freedom of the press in their newspapers? Are the rights of the accused to a fair trial respected when a student appears before the student court?

Are student leaders selected because of their abilities, or because of superficial popularity? Are they held accountable for proper performance of their jobs after they are elected or appointed? Are responsibilities widely shared, so that all may have a chance to learn the skills of democratic action, or are they closely held in the hands of a few?

² See page 15.

³ See pages 35-39.

Do student groups act through orderly and peaceful methods, or do they resort to compulsion and violence? Is time taken for reflection about the meaning of activities, and particularly their significance as examples of democracy? Or do students act unthinkingly, simply to win recognition or to gain awards and "honors"? Are students stirred to blind loyalty to institutions and traditions which they do not understand, or are appeals to loyalty accompanied by thoughtful analysis of the values which deserve loyalty?

No single activity, of course, bears all the hallmarks of democracy. Some bear but one or two. Even these, however, merit our consideration, if they are not otherwise undemocratic; for democratic citizenship is built out of a multitude of diverse experiences, all directed toward a single inclusive goal.

The first examples will be grouped according to the major purposes of the activities: (1) students' control of students' conduct, (2) students' services to the school, (3) students' friendly assistance to other students, (4) influencing public opinion in the schools, and (5) recreational and social activities. Following these will come (6) examples of inclusive student organizations. Finally, three general problems will be treated briefly: (7) the selection and use of leaders, (8) responsibility in the use of student funds, and (9) motivation of students' activities. The examples under each heading might be multiplied several times, but lack of space compels arbitrary limitations.

I. STUDENTS' CONTROL OF STUDENTS' CONDUCT

In Some Schools, Conduct Is Controlled through Group Regulation and Enforcement

In South High School, Omaha, Nebraska, about 375 boys and girls in a student body of 3300 daily give a part

of their time to controlling the conduct of the students. These students—known as "committeemen"—are responsible for orderly behavior in the halls before school, between classes, and during the lunch hour. They are expected to see that traffic on stairs and in halls moves according to rules. They remain on their posts while classes are in session, and require hall passes from all students who move about the halls at these times. They take stands at the outside doors before school and at the end of the day, to prevent roughness and unnecessary crowding. They are present at the noon-hour dances, to guard against disorderly conduct, and at the noon-day movies, where they watch chiefly for those who disturb others by loud talking and boisterousness. They regulate traffic to and from the lunchroom and supervise the clearing of tables. They are also responsible for students' locker assignments and for periodic locker inspection.

This large staff of committeemen is organized under ten captains who are appointed by the student council. The council is a representative body elected by the various classes and clubs. The committeemen are selected by the captains from a list of "eligible" students maintained by a student "civil service commission." Students may be removed from the eligible list for misconduct or unsatisfactory class work. At the time of the staff visit, about 300 were ineligible. The work of these committeemen is inspected frequently by their captains, who assign them grades which are important chiefly because they affect their eligibility for higher offices. There are also less frequent inspections by a committee from the student council. Students on duty who were interviewed all said that they liked to work on these committees. The chairman of the civil service commission, however, reported that a few students each year refused committee assignments.

The regulations governing conduct in the various out-of-classroom situations are made by the student council. The council has incorporated, without change, a number of the administrative rules of the school, for example, the regulations about hall passes. The principal and boys' and girls' advisers attend the student council meeting and may take part in discussions about regulations, although they do not vote.

When students violate the council's regulations flagrantly or repeatedly in spite of warnings, they may be reported by any student or teacher, although in practice nearly all the reports are made by committeemen. A report is invariably followed by a trial before the student court, a body of four student judges appointed by the student council. A student prosecuting attorney, appointed for the year, presents the case against the accused, who is entitled to select a defending attorney if he so desires. The chief witness is usually the committeeman who reported the violation. Teachers may testify only when requested by the court to do so. The court may dismiss the case for lack of evidence, or may assign penalties ranging from a warning to taking the violator "off schedule" for three days or until he brings his parents to school.

Defendants have the right to appeal from a decision of the court to the student council, and from a decision of the council to the principal. In two cases within the past year, the principal has thought the students' penalties too severe in proportion to evidence, has ruled mistrials, and sent the cases back for rehearing. Members of the council and of the court may be tried only by the council.

During the staff visit, both the student council and the court held regular meetings. The council considered the following items of business: a report of the inspection committee on the negligence of certain hall monitors; a ques-

tion as to the scheduling of bells at noon to permit the best passing; a report of the committee which had visited the student court; a question as to designating certain stairs for one-way traffic; and the problems of out-of-school boys coming to the noon-hour dances in the gymnasium. The court heard three cases, two for failure to have hall passes, one for discourteous behavior. The first two were reprimanded, the last held over for further investigation.

Such, in brief, is the plan of one school which is representative of many. This school believes that one important way in which students learn the obligations of democratic citizenship is by assuming responsibility for making regulations to govern student conduct, for seeing that these regulations are observed, and for enforcing them, if necessary, by punishing violators. The complement of this is that the school believes that students also learn civic responsibility by observing the regulations made for them by a representative legislative body. Observation indicated that the plan results in a school which operates in smooth and orderly fashion, without apparent regimentation.

In Some Schools, Responsibility for Control of Conduct Is Placed on the Individual

Mont Pleasant High School, in Schenectady, New York, is also a large school, with nearly 3000 students. In this school there are no hall guards, no lunchroom monitors, no door attendants, no traffic directors, no regulations about traffic. Teachers likewise have no monitorial duties. In the periods between classes, students move through the halls in small groups, occasionally jostling one another, but without either roughness or rudeness; and by the time the bell rings, the halls are cleared. Attendance at assemblies is voluntary. Students sit where they wish, and there are neither ushers nor monitors in the auditorium. Students

commonly preside, and an assembly program may be carried through without a teacher in the auditorium. The attention and conduct at an assembly visited here were as good as at any observed during the study.

Staff observers reported that the same spirit of individual responsibility permeated the shops, which had expensive machinery and tools. There was no one in charge of the tool rooms, yet it was stated that not so much as a screw-driver had been lost in nine years. The boys were responsible for the tools and equipment and took pride in the fact that they did not have to be watched. Several boys were asked how this worked out. Their reply was that they knew that they had excellent equipment and wanted to take care of it. They have the understanding that the last boy to leave a shop, at any time, shall be responsible for seeing that machines are covered, tools in proper order, lights out, and doors locked. The same evidence of individual responsibility was found in the cafeteria. Hundreds of students and teachers were in the cafeteria at one time, yet there were no traffic officers or monitors of any kind, and no disorder.

There is no student court. Some cases of student misconduct occur, of course, but these are handled by the principal and deans on a guidance basis. The number of such cases is comparatively small, for with few regulations there are few violators. There is a student council but it has no responsibility for students' conduct. At the time of the staff visit it was concerned with improvement of the school grounds. Most of the student activities are carried on through the clubs, which are organized around a variety of interests, and through the assemblies and forums, which are planned and conducted by committees drawn from the clubs.

This school, too, is representative, not of many observed in this study, but of some. This school believes that one way

in which students learn the obligations of democratic citizenship is by assuming individual responsibility for their own conduct in situations in which many people have to work and live together. Observation indicated that this plan also results in a school which operates in a smooth and orderly fashion, without apparent confusion.

*We Must Decide What Kind of
Citizens Are Most Needed in American Democracy*

It is not the intent of the Commission to point to either of these schools as more democratic than the other. Let the reader make the choice for himself, for the decision is one between values. In brief, it is the decision as to what characteristics of citizens are most needed in the American democracy today. Both schools endeavor to be democratic. Both are democratic in some ways but not in the same ways. Each school stresses certain aspects of democracy, and neglects others. In both schools, the observable conduct of students is reasonably orderly, but the methods and by-products involved in achieving this end are quite different.

This should be added, that both schools are the products of years of careful building on the part of principals. More important in both than organizational structures are the school traditions, the morale of students. These can be built but slowly. They do not come in prefabricated form, ready to be set up and used whenever a school adopts a new plan of "student government."

*A Student Court Seeks To Prevent
Misconduct Rather Than To Punish Offenders*

There would be little of value in the multiplication of examples of schools of these two types. Only some brief descriptions will be added of variations from these types

and of special functions of control performed by students. In the Holtville High School at Deatsville, Alabama, the student court tries to act as a preventive rather than a punitive agency, to correct misconduct before it becomes serious. According to the student body president, whenever a student is reported as causing trouble, two members of the court talk with him and try to persuade him to improve his conduct. Regulations are kept at a minimum. At the time of the staff visit, the school year was half over and not a case had been brought to the court for trial. When a court trial is necessary, if the accused pleads not guilty he is tried before a jury of twelve students drawn from the six classes of the school.

A Student Council Endeavors To Control Conduct without the Use of Monitors or Court

The student council in Radford, Virginia, High School is responsible for student conduct, but seeks to deal with each problem as it arises, without employing the machinery of monitors and a court. At the time of the staff visit, the council was faced with a problem presented by boys who threw bottles and burst bags in the gymnasium while many students were eating their lunches there. The students' attitude of responsibility and concern is seen in the following excerpt from the council meeting:

Chairman: Yesterday the boys threw one bottle and burst several bags. It sounds like a war. What are we going to do about it?

Boy 1: Just ask them to pick them up.

Boy 2: That doesn't do any good. I say, watch them and see who does it. Then have a group from the council talk to them individually or in groups of two or three.

Chairman: Talking to them doesn't seem to do much good.

Girl 1: Talk about it in the homerooms.

Girl 2: The attitude in some homerooms is such that it won't help any.

Girl 3: Get some of the boys who do it to come to the student council meeting and talk it over with us. Then they won't hold prejudices against individual members of the council.

Chairman: That gives the council the appearance of being a police court. I don't believe that is what the council is for.

Girl 4: Let the boys on the student council who eat in the gym talk to the boys who throw bottles.

Chairman: O.K. I eat there, and several others do. I'll talk to some of them.

Girl 5: Let's have a campaign, with posters and an assembly meeting and discussions in the homerooms.

Girl 2: There would be a few who would react against it and that would spoil the campaign.

Boy 3: If the few found that the majority paid no attention to them, they would stop. They want to show off.

Girl 6: Make some of the worst offenders work in the campaign.

Boy 4: Right. Make them monitors.

Chairman: I don't like the word "monitors." Some would take the position just for authority.

Girl 5: I don't like the idea of monitors, either. Let's talk to them. If they hear it enough, it will have the same effect as propaganda.

Boy 2: We'd better try this than nothing. We won't get anywhere if we say that everything won't work.

Chairman: O.K. We'll go ahead with the campaign. We need a committee to work on the plans. Whom should we have on the committee?

Students Work To Solve Some Baffling Problems

A number of schools were found in which students had been helpful in solving some particular problems of student conduct.

Last year, in the Radnor Township High School at Wayne, Pennsylvania, there was a growing feeling on the part of some students that some things in the school needed improvement. So the students went to the principal and laid their views and suggestions before him. The principal proposed that the matter be presented to an assembly of students. This was done and the principal invited all students who were interested in working on these problems to give their names to him. Sixty-one students volunteered. With this group to draw from, a committee was organized which undertook to find solutions to some of the most pressing problems.

One problem was that of students' going to town for lunch. There had been some objections on the part of adults in town to the students' eating in the drugstores and other eating places, because the large number of students made it difficult for the townspeople to get prompt service. These objections had been carried to the board of education and it appeared likely that the board would take some action. The students wanted to find a solution which would make it unnecessary for the board to act. At the time of the staff visit, this committee, in cooperation with the student council, was busily at work on the problem.

In the Springfield, Missouri, High School a citizenship committee was organized for the purpose of improving conditions in the school with particular emphasis on conduct, school spirit, and a more democratic set-up. The committee originally consisted of eight teachers, but it was soon found that teachers could not accomplish much alone. So the committee became a Student-Teacher Congress made up of the eight teachers and one student representative from each homeroom. Each representative is free to present to the congress any suggestions made by his homeroom. After discussion, a motion is put before the congress; if the motion is passed, the recommendation is placed before the student council and the faculty for confirmation. Action in the congress has been taken with reference to such problems as the following: (1) lunch period patrols, (2) traffic on stairways, (3) bicycle regulations, (4) intermission between classes, (5) hall monitors.

*Students Show How Conduct Can
Be Controlled through the Influence of Public Opinion*

Students of the four high schools of Des Moines, Iowa, have through concerted action put an end to the rowdiness which for a time marred their football games and threat-

ened to put an end to these contests. Here is the students' own story.

Each student council appointed a committee of five students, which, with a faculty adviser, represented that school on an all-city committee. The all-city committee met at the beginning of the semester and discussed the problem. It continued to meet weekly to develop a plan to eliminate the undesirable conduct. This plan consisted chiefly in propagandizing the students as to what was wrong about their conduct. Panel discussions, with students as participants, were put on at the assemblies in each school. The panels also went to classrooms on invitation. There was also discussion in the student council, at each meeting, as to what was being done and what needed to be done. The student council members reported everything that the council was doing to their homerooms and saw to it that there was discussion of the problems in the homerooms also. All the school papers cooperated with editorials and news items and the city papers also gave space. When the students who were causing the trouble realized that a group of students was trying to solve the problem, and that the majority supported this group, they changed their attitude and became cooperative.

Students Are in Charge of Study Halls

Several schools were found in which students have taken the responsibility for control of conduct in study halls. Students in the Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio, are completely responsible for a system of study halls which has a daily attendance of over twelve hundred pupils. A student chairman is in charge of each study hall at each period, and the chairmen are responsible to a staff of supervisors, who report to the student council. In the last annual report of the student body president this statement is found, "Thus, we see that Collinwood is producing among its students, potential American voters and lawmakers, a deep regard for the advantages of democracy; and that it is partly creating this feeling by giving to its students a living and operating example of democracy through the use of the study hall system."

¹ *Annual Report of Student Controlled Study Halls*, Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio. 5 p. (Typewritten.)

In the Shaker High School at Shaker Heights, Ohio, a comparable plan is in operation. All students go first to the teacher-supervised study halls. After they have been there for at least six weeks, they may apply for transfer to the "honor study hall," which is under student supervision. Problems of conduct in the honor study hall are handled by a student committee, which has authority to punish infractions of rules and to require a student to return to the teacher-supervised study hall, if he fails to heed warnings.

Most of the students interviewed expressed belief that a large proportion of the students wanted to become eligible for the honor study hall, because they thought they could do more work there, under the conditions of greater freedom which prevail. Some, however, preferred the teacher-supervised hall as a place to work. No one spoke of assignment to the teacher-supervised hall as a penalty, nor did anyone state that the comparative freedom of the honor hall was abused. Indeed, several students thought there was less actual waste of time in the honor study hall. One of the student supervisors expressed his views this way, "Because we are students, we know more about what the other students are apt to do than the teachers know, and so we are able to check up on the students to better advantage."

Student Control Should Safeguard the Right of the Accused to a Fair Trial

Two occurrences may be related to show some of the problems incident to student control. In one school, the student court read over the monitor's written complaint before the accused student entered. This boy was charged with roughly pushing several girls, including the monitor, in passing on a stairway. The clerk reported that the boy was a senior. The chairman said: "If he's a senior, he ought

to know better. Let's give him two hours after school and a good warning." The boy was then called in. He said that he was a sophomore (first-year student), and he pleaded not guilty to the charge, saying that the girls had been standing together on the stairs and that he could not pass them without brushing against one or more of them. The chairman replied: "This is a good monitor who reported you. She wouldn't send in a report that isn't true." He then proceeded to pronounce the sentence previously agreed upon.

Later the students were asked if they had ever considered the constitutional rights of a citizen to a fair trial, as set forth in the sixth article of the Bill of Rights. They replied that they had not. This court seemed to be merely a disciplinary device of doubtful value, rather than an agency of civic education.

Student Control Should Observe Due Process of Law

The importance of constitutional procedure is illustrated in another school. A boy had created a disturbance in an assembly and had been ejected by student marshals. As a result of the incident, the principal had canceled an important assembly to which the students were eagerly looking forward. The student council was called into special session, and feeling ran high against the boy who was the cause of the trouble. Some members of the council proposed that the boy's student body card and privileges be taken away from him at once. Others, however, pointed out that the constitution required a hearing before the law and order committee before any penalty could be imposed. To this the reply was made that this was an emergency and that the council could not wait for the action of the law and order committee. The cooler heads answered that this

case represented one of the points at which self-government is apt to break down, when people become excited and want to shortcut the due processes of law. It is a pleasure to report that the counsel of the latter group prevailed, and that the entire council learned a lesson which gave new meaning to the words, "nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law."

*Some Schools Operate Efficiently
On a "Self-Reliance" Basis*

Finally we come to some other schools, which, like Mont Pleasant High School, do not use monitors or student courts. Thomas Jefferson High School in Council Bluffs, Iowa, is such a school. The watchword of this school seems to be "self-reliance." There are no student disciplinary officers or committees, no hall monitors or ground monitors, either students or teachers. No unruly or disturbing conduct was observed in the halls or in the auditorium. When the matter was discussed with the student council, one member said: "We know that we have four minutes to get from one class to the next. We know how long four minutes are. We know that we are expected to be in class when it begins. So why do we need somebody in the halls to make us do what we know how to do?"

This school was observed during a half-day in which the principal and all teachers were absent from the building, and again when the faculty was present. There was no perceptible difference between the two occasions, as far as student conduct was concerned.

The library and several shops in the Holtville High School, near Deatsville, Alabama, operate much of the time without the presence of teachers. The school has so many activities and special projects that the teachers must divide their time between several groups meeting simul-

taneously. During the period of observation, students were working busily and in orderly fashion, apparently unaware both of the absence of teachers and of the presence of visitors. When a student in the library was asked whether students ever caused disturbances there, she replied: "Oh, no. We only come here to study. We don't have to be here. If we want to play or talk, we can go to the recreation room."

Some Educators Question the Exercise of Disciplinary Authority by Students

In the Sacramento, California, Senior High School and in the Fieldston School, in New York City, students exercise no disciplinary authority over their fellow students. The principals of both schools gave substantially the same reasons in support of this policy. First and most important, they view student misconduct as a problem to be approached through guidance by trained counselors. Misbehavior, they said, is frequently merely symptomatic; the underlying causes must be discovered and modified in order to effect any lasting improvement in the individual. Even with the best of intentions, high-school students have neither the knowledge nor the experience to deal constructively with the causes of misconduct.

In the second place, they wish to avoid the tendency to identify "government" with "police functions," "citizenship" with "obedience to laws and regulations." Law observance is a necessary part of citizenship, but only a part. The police and police courts are one part of government, but only one. In many schools, it is claimed, the regulatory and disciplinary activities of "student government" bulk so large that they crowd other equally important civic functions off the scene. Some of these other functions, including a variety of services to the community and to fel-

low students and the shaping of public opinion, will be treated in the sections which follow.

2. STUDENTS' SERVICES TO THE SCHOOL

The importance in civic education of cooperative effort for the common good has been stressed in the preceding chapter, and examples have there been given of cooperation in the classroom. Out-of-class activities offer illustrations no less significant than those of the classroom, covering an even wider range of services. Here we report one or two examples of each of several services to schools frequently rendered by students.

Students Take Pride in the Care of School Buildings and Grounds

The clean, attractive appearance of several schools visited could be attributed in large part to the students' sense of personal responsibility for the care of buildings and grounds. The building which houses the Holland, Michigan, High School still looks new today, although it was constructed in 1913 and was last redecorated about nine years ago. The students feel a responsibility for keeping their surroundings orderly and neat, and take justifiable pride in the results achieved. In addition, the student council directs the efforts to beautify the grounds. The work is divided among a number of student committees, such as the park board, which is in charge of planting shrubs and flowers around the school.

Boys and girls at the Huntington High School, Newport News, Virginia, likewise take a personal interest in maintaining the cleanliness of the school building. The principal reports that there has never been a mark or blot on any of the walls. An inspection committee functions under the student council to visit the rooms of the school at least

twice a month. Attractive bulletin boards and similar indications of neatness in the rooms are noted. Torn window shades, broken pencil sharpeners, and other equipment in need of repair are reported to the principal's office for remedy.

Students in the Boynton Junior High School, Ithaca, New York, also have a part in helping to keep the school building and grounds clean. Here the students operate through a Board of Inspection, composed of about seventy boys and girls with definite interest in this type of service to the school. Their responsibility is to point out the places in the building which need special attention or repair. Their reports may relate to the care of the drinking fountains, cleaning the cupboard doors, keeping papers off the floor, or removing marks from the walls. The head custodian is a member of the Board of Inspection and cooperates with the students in their efforts.

Students Take Charge of Motion Picture and Radio Equipment

Another type of student service to the school, which is somewhat related to the maintenance of buildings and grounds, is the care and operation of school equipment. An example of student responsibility of this type is provided by the Mechanics Club of the Moultrie, Georgia, High School. The club members have charge of the visual education equipment of the school. The group is so organized that several students are available during each period of the school day to operate the motion picture equipment for various classes or for community organizations. One of the functions performed by the students in the club is maintaining the library of materials. This involves cataloguing films, slides, and other equipment. Finally, the members are responsible for the upkeep of the apparatus,

which includes both sound and silent machines, excepting only major repairs.

In the Abraham Lincoln High School, Los Angeles, California, a similar example was found of student control of the visual education equipment through a service club. In addition, the Lincoln students operate and take care of the broadcasting equipment, which is used extensively in connection with school assemblies.

Students Run Stores and Help To Manage Cafeterias

A school store is operated by the Girls Letter Club of the physical education department in the Phillips High School, Birmingham, Alabama, as another type of enterprise for the general welfare. The store receives second-hand books and resells them to the students. The club realizes a small profit in the exchange, and uses the money to buy equipment for the girls athletic department.

Students help to manage the school cafeteria in the Hutchins Intermediate School, Detroit, Michigan. The Cafeteria Service Club in this school assists during the lunch period in maintaining general order at the tables, keeping the cafeteria clean, helping to prevent accidents, and aiding the students to find seats. Another responsibility of the club members is to keep a daily record of how many students have to stand in line during the lunch period and how long they must wait before being served.

A large number of boys and girls are in the club. They are organized under captains, each group serving for ten minutes, then being replaced by another unit. This system enables many students to be actively responsible in the work of aiding both the students and the cafeteria management during the lunch period. The chairman of the club is a member of the student council, to which body he reports

any problems which arise. The club members meet regularly to discuss ways of improving their own work.

In the Benjamin Franklin High School, New York City, the student council was observed while working with the principal and a faculty committee in an effort to solve some of the problems of management of the school lunchroom. A number of students had expressed a desire for "more food for less money," and this meeting had been called to review the lunchroom situation. The principal opened the meeting by assuring the students that they might have a share in the administration of the lunchroom and by reminding them that they would also have to share in facing the financial responsibilities. The faculty supervisor of the lunchroom then presented a financial statement showing that most of the expenditures went for food and labor, and that other costs—insurance, auditing, laundry, and replacement of equipment—were relatively fixed. The council discussion continued:

Chairman: According to this statement, the only places we can reduce expenses are food and labor. We say we want more food, not less, so that leaves us only labor.

Student 1: We shouldn't reduce expenses by cutting the laborers' pay. That is low enough now.

Student 2: We shouldn't discharge any of the workers, either. One reason for supporting the lunchroom is that it will continue to give employment to the people who are working there. We all have parents and we know how hard it is for them to get work.

Faculty sponsor: We might save a few dollars by replacing the manager with someone at a lower salary. But would it be fair to dismiss this manager, who has worked for the public schools for thirty-one years, in order to save a little money for ourselves?

Several students: No!

Student 3: There's only one way to have a better lunchroom, and that is to increase sales.

This statement was generally accepted, and led to the question of whether the students wanted the lunchroom to sell certain "popular" foods and beverages of low food value to consumers, in order to take advantage of the

profits which could be made. The council decided against such sales. A proposal was then made to use voluntary student labor in order to make the lunchroom more attractive to customers, and this carried the discussion to questions of accident insurance and liability for compensation in case of injury. The meeting eventually produced a series of suggestions as to means of increasing sales. Its chief educational significance, however, lay in the problems encountered on the way and in the responsible and intelligent fashion in which the students attacked these problems.

In the Norris, Tennessee, High School, students manage a service enterprise known as "The Norris School Cooperative." In this school there is no inclusive student organization, but the class group is the unit of student activities. Most of the students, through their classes, have some share of responsibility for the operation of the cooperative. There is no sharp division between classroom and out-of-classroom activities, as far as the cooperative is concerned, and one finds that considerable time in several courses is given to matters related to the cooperative.

The Norris School Cooperative includes a cafeteria, a store, a bank, a lost and found bureau, and an egg and garden produce unit. The cafeteria is operated largely by students in Grades VII and VIII, together with girls from home economics classes. Students plan menus, purchase food, sell the food, look after the bookkeeping, and assist in the preparation of food. About seventy customers are served daily. Grade IX students manage the school store, which sells all sorts of school supplies at a small profit. Net profits from cafeteria and store are returned to cooperative members in the form of dividends.

The egg and garden produce unit is a producers' cooperative carried on by the agriculture classes. The products are sold to the school cafeteria and in the school store.

The business classes in Grades XI and XII look after the school bank, which is particularly needed since there is no commercial bank in this community. The bank serves as a depository for funds from student organizations as well as for individual funds. It carries both savings and checking accounts, and makes loans both to students and to organizations. All business and accounting are conducted by students, under faculty supervision.

*Students Serve in Libraries, Supervise Bulletin Boards,
and Make Public Announcements*

In a large number of the schools visited, students are performing useful services in the school libraries. The Library Club in the Tappan Junior High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan, will serve as an example. As one project, the members planned a "book week" in the school, decorating the library for the occasion, making announcements in the homerooms, and arranging for "book week" posters to be placed in the halls. The club members are on duty in the library both during the school day and after school hours. If the librarian is absent, these students carry on the library service under the direction of the club chairman. Reference has already been made to similar services by students in the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School, Gainesville, Florida; the Hutchins Intermediate School, Detroit, Michigan; the Carpinteria, California, High School; and the University High School, Oakland, California.³ Still other examples could be added.

In the Walton High School, New York City, students are responsible for the bulletin boards throughout the school. Supervision on the part of the faculty adviser, suggesting, encouraging, assisting, and, in extreme cases, vetoing, is in inverse proportion to the independence and capa-

³ See pages 146-48.

bility of the students in charge. Cartoons, posters, charts, and other materials which refer to the instruction being carried on in the classes and departments of the school are displayed. When the social studies classes were considering the problem of propoganda, statements and drawings showing the various devices used to influence opinion were posted by the students on the bulletin board in the social studies office. In the Baker Junior High School, Denver, Colorado, students are also responsible for the bulletin boards. The boys and girls are organized by rooms into councils. The bulletin board assigned to each group is judged periodically on the basis of appearance and content. The art teacher, who sponsors this project, is assisted by the members of the student council.

Students in the Shaker High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio, are responsible for presenting the school announcements, which are made each morning during the home-room period. These announcements are broadcast over the public address system from the principal's office, and they go into every room in the school. The students take an interest in being well prepared for this work, so that their presentations will be effective. A similar plan is followed in the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School, Gainesville, Florida.

Students Work To Improve School Health

Students also contribute to the general welfare of the school by assisting in health protection. In the Carpinteria, California, High School, for example, the Student Health Committee is a standing committee of the student council. One of the recent projects of this group was a tuberculosis testing program, in which, it was hoped, all students would take part. It was found, however, that some of the students had not taken the test. The student council decided to in-

investigate. The chairman appointed two members of the health committee to visit the homes of the students who had not taken tests and to discuss the matter with the parents. Considerable time was spent in preparing for these visits. The committee members recognized the need of being ready to answer all questions which might be asked, and of being able to explain adequately to the parents the purpose of the testing program.

In this school there is a ten-minute intermission each morning, during which orange juice and crackers are sold to the students. The intermission period resulted from a recommendation made by the Student Health Committee. Although students are not required to purchase the orange juice, the committee believed that the students would derive benefit from the opportunity to relax in mid-morning.

At the time of the staff visit, the Student Health Committee had just completed the selection of thermometers for the classrooms. The committee had previously recommended to the board that thermometers be installed, and the board had authorized the students to make the selection. The committee made a thorough study of standards for the purchase of thermometers, and also gained valuable experience in the use of public funds. The thermometer which was finally recommended was not the cheapest, nor was it the most expensive. The committee chose the thermometer which, in its judgment, gave the largest return in terms of accuracy, ease of reading, and durability for each dollar invested.

Students' efforts for health improvement sometimes include the community, as well as the school, and examples of several such community health projects, originating in high schools, will be given in the next chapter.⁶

⁶ See pages 270-71, 293-94, and 311-18.

Safety Conditions Are Improved through Students' Action

In several schools, students are responsible for meeting problems of traffic regulation and for conducting safety campaigns. In the Sacramento, California, Senior High School the safety council is in charge of these activities. The members of the council study the various problems which arise, and make recommendations to the student body. In one instance a survey was made of the bicycles which the students ride to school daily. It was found that about half of the bicycles were not properly equipped according to law to ensure the highest degree of safety for the owner, for auto drivers, and for pedestrians. As a result of these findings, the safety council sponsored a display of two bicycles, calling attention by streamers to the faulty equipment of the one and to the safety devices of the other.

In the Theodore Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Iowa, the student council recently organized a safety campaign aimed at promoting safe driving in the area around the school. Each student was asked to put a safety sticker on the windshield of his car. The stickers were furnished by the state department of motor vehicles. Members of the safety committee observed the driving of the students near the school building and reported those whose driving was careless.

Students Take Responsibility for Social Life, Usbering, and Hospitality

Another type of service to the school is exemplified by the work of the social committee of the student council at the Theodore Roosevelt High School. Early each year this committee gives an annual party for new students

to help them become acquainted with the others in the school. It is also in charge of the school dance and social hours. These social hours are held at frequent intervals, one of their chief purposes being to give every student in the school a chance to have some enjoyable social experiences. Entertainment is sufficiently varied to appeal to all tastes, with games, contests, square dances, and ball-room dancing among the favorite activities. The work of the social committee culminates in an all-school play night each semester, the program of which includes dancing, roller skating, a movie, table tennis, swimming, and other recreational activities according to taste.

The Ushers Club at the Phillips High School, Birmingham, Alabama, represents still another type of student service organization. Boys are elected to this group by their classmates. The members usher at both school activities and community affairs, but assume many other important responsibilities, including assistance to teachers at registration time, helping new boys to become acquainted in the school, and aiding in the operation of the lunch-room. The students consider it a high honor to be elected to this service group. The Courtesy Service Club at the Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, performs comparable services, one of which is receiving and entertaining visitors to the school.

An unusual school service is rendered by the student ambassadors of the O'Keefe Junior High School, Atlanta, Georgia. The members of this group visit the sixth-grade classes in the elementary schools from which O'Keefe draws its students and explain the course and student life of the junior high school. Another group of ambassadors goes to the senior high school to discuss with former O'Keefe students the problems which have been encountered in the higher grades. Former students are also invited

back to talk with the present junior high-school students about their experiences at the senior high-school level.

Honor Service Clubs Help the Schools in Varied Ways

Another activity through which students serve the school community is found in some of the Honor Service Clubs in the school visited. These groups were organized to be of general service to the school, to render any special services required, and to help in maintaining high morale. The Arista Society in the DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City, is an example.

As one form of service, members of the Arista Society volunteer to work in the "student help" classes, where advanced students assist students in the lower grades who are having difficulty with their class work. Another project of this society is carried out through the student advisory committee. The members of the committee are assigned to the homerooms of new students. They visit these rooms at least twice a week during the early part of the year to explain the traditions of the school, how to join clubs, and how to study, and to discuss matters relating to the general welfare of the school. A third activity of Arista is the publishing of scholarship lists. The students do all the work of tabulating the reports from the teachers, keeping up the files, and publishing the honor list. The members also act as ushers during school functions.

3. STUDENTS' FRIENDLY SERVICES TO OTHER STUDENTS

Besides performing services which are of general value to the whole school, students engage in a number of activities designed to aid particular groups of their classmates within the school. These services include tutoring

classes for students who need assistance in their work, handbooks for the boys and girls who are new in the school, and orientation programs for the benefit of incoming students.

Students Provide a Helpful Tutoring Service

In the Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio, the student members of the National Honor Society conduct a tutoring service for the students who are having difficulty in their school work. Students who volunteer to tutor elect a director and an assistant from among their number. These officers have the following responsibilities.

To assign periods for each of the members

To explain the tutoring program by giving talks in the home-rooms of all pupils, from the ninth through the twelfth grades

To interview department chairmen for more student tutors when necessary

To check the tutoring room each period

To check all applications of students. The form includes such items as date of entry, class teacher's approval, complete program of the student applying, his probable learning rate, and the date of withdrawal

To summarize all results by getting grades from report cards as well as comments of class teachers on the tutor's work

Occasionally to tutor during the periods in which they serve as room supervisors.⁷

This tutoring service presents its problems, but they have not been insuperable. In the first place, care must be taken to see that the students do not do any work which should normally be performed by teachers. This is an activity to enlarge the educational services of the school, not a scheme to replace teachers with student help. In the second place, students who would take unfair ad-

⁷ David, Aranka I. *Student Tutoring: A Success at Collinwood High School*. Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio. 7 p.

vantage of the service must be guarded against. Some students want tutoring in order to get their homework done. Others prefer to spend many hours with tutors instead of attending classes. However, the school seems to have succeeded in holding the program to its fundamental purpose of helping those students who seek aid because of prolonged absence, tardy registration, or specific weakness in a large unit of class work.

No teacher other than the faculty member who sponsors the group ever enters the student tutoring room. Student tutors are at all times in charge of the room. Two students serve during each period. The boys and girls who perform this service report that they learn quite as much as the students who are being helped.

At the time of the last written report, the project was in its sixth semester. In five semesters approximately 1200 pupils had been tutored by a thousand tutors. During this period 639 pupils maintained the same grades, 414 raised their grades, and only 149 failed after being tutored.

Students Prepare Handbooks of Information for New Students

Another service to their schoolmates, rendered by students in some schools, is the compiling of handbooks of useful information about the schools. These handbooks are commonly written largely by faculty members or administrative officers. There are some schools, however, in which students have taken over the responsibility for preparing the handbooks and arranging for their publication.

One example of this type of student effort is seen in the Framingham, Massachusetts, High School. A student committee each year prepares a mimeographed handbook

for the new students of the next year. One such book contains this cordial statement:

Welcome, Sophomores—We, the co-chairmen of the Handbook Committee, on behalf of the juniors and seniors of F.H.S. welcome you, the class of '42, and extend a friendly greeting, wishing you success in all your undertakings at F.H.S.

Similarly, the students of the Pasadena Junior College are in charge of the student handbook. One of the booklets carries this preface: "This book is dedicated primarily to new students. Its purpose is to acquaint students with the clubs and organizations at Pasadena Junior College. Make the most of your life at Pasadena Junior College by joining one of these clubs." The Girls League of the Phoenix, Arizona, Union High School publishes a handbook called "The Friendly Road." In the Greeley, Colorado, High School, the handbook is written annually by a sophomore English class.

Students Act as Friendly Guides to Newcomers

The Greeley High School provides the first example of another type of student service, namely, assistance in orienting new students to the school. The Big Brother-Big Sister Movement was organized in 1937 by a group of students who, in their own words, "felt such an organization would serve Greeley High School in the following ways: It would help to create a more friendly feeling and a more democratic attitude among students. It would make students entering the school for the first time feel at home sooner than they would otherwise. It would give every one an opportunity to serve his school. It would offer each student acting as a big brother or big sister a chance to improve his ability to get along with people

and to accept a responsibility, the direction of which would depend upon himself.”

Members of the junior class volunteer to serve as big brothers and big sisters and each entering student is assigned to one of these juniors. Contacts with most of the new students are made prior to their entrance through visits to the junior high schools. Big brothers and sisters take turns at duty in the school office during the two weeks before school opens, to see that no entering students are neglected. The older students are expected to keep in touch with the new students throughout the first year, although of course most of their assistance is given during the opening weeks. Last year the executive committee of the Big Brother-Big Sister group undertook to evaluate and improve their work through the use of questionnaires to teachers and to “little brothers and sisters.”

In the Hutchins Intermediate School, Detroit, Michigan, members of a host and hostess club are responsible for meeting new students when they register, taking them to their classes, helping them find their way around the building during the first day, and answering their questions about the school. Another function of this group is giving a tea and reception where the parents of the new students meet other students in the school and the members of the faculty.

In the Phoenix, Arizona, Union High School the Girls League helps to welcome new girls to the school by means of a big sister plan. The high-school girls are assigned to be big sisters to the graduating eighth-grade girls, whose names are obtained in the spring. Parties are held by the League for the girls who plan to enter the high school in the fall, and frequently the big and little sisters have contact with each other during the summer. When Freshman Day arrives, the big sisters meet the incoming girls,

conduct them to their classes, and otherwise help them become adjusted to the school.

4. INFLUENCING PUBLIC OPINION IN THE SCHOOL

"In a democracy there is a due process of policy-making no less than a due process of law. Due process of policy-making occurs where a perennial argument about national policy is carried on among responsible citizens representing a cross-section of the community's life, an argument begun with facts and reliable opinion about them, and carried forward until generally acceptable conclusions have been reached. These citizens are the men and women who make the opinion of their various communities. . . . The due process of policy-making, whereby public opinion is evolved out of a continuous give-and-take in communities, counties, states, and nation, puts the elected officers of the republic in a position to declare a genuine national policy. It is the indispensable characteristic of the way of democracy."⁸

If this be sound thinking, then an important element of education for democratic citizenship is experience in the shaping of public opinion toward democratic ends and by methods consistent with democracy. This section will report the ways in which a number of schools provide this experience, through forums, assemblies, newspapers, pageantry, and commencement programs.

Student Forums Help To Form Public Opinion on Issues of the Day

In the Burbank, California, High School, students take part in two types of forums, each concerned with public issues of the day. About once every two weeks, a forum

⁸ Wilson, M. I. *Democracy Has Roots*. New York: Carrick and Evans, 1939. p. 111, 116.

is held during school hours, with voluntary attendance of from 200 to 300 students. Topics for the forums are chosen by the classes in the so-called "basic" courses. Programs are then developed in the speech classes and usually consist of a panel or symposium with four or five members, followed by general discussion from the floor. The student participation is reported to be both lively and well informed. On Thursday evenings, from forty to fifty students and recent graduates of the school come together to listen to "America's Town Meeting of the Air" and to discuss the program afterward.

Forums as a regular school activity were also found in the Abraham Lincoln High School in New York City; the Benjamin Franklin High School at Rochester, New York; and the Mont Pleasant High School in Schenectady, New York. In Des Moines, Iowa, and Ann Arbor, Michigan, high-school students join with other young people in attending "youth forums," which meet in the evenings under public school auspices.

Two forums of unusual character were observed during this study. The first was a weekly meeting of a group of students from the University High School, Oakland, California. This group met for supper at the home of one of the members, and then listened to "America's Town Meeting of the Air." After supper the twenty boys and girls proceeded to find comfortable locations in the drawing room and gave careful attention during the hour's discussion of the question "What kind of peace can we expect after this war?" Following the radio program there ensued an hour of earnest, intelligent discussion by these young people. They disagreed on many points and called upon one another to support their statements with facts or arguments, but always in a friendly spirit.

This club meets sometimes in the school building at the

end of the school day, and sometimes at the home of one or another of the students. Some of the problems raised in the forum meetings are carried over into the school classes, but the group has no official connection with the school. They have asked one of the social studies teachers to be their sponsor.

The second forum was the "coffee hour" at the Phoenix, Arizona, Junior College, an occasion when all interested students and members of the faculty meet together in an informal way, for the purpose of discussing questions of interest to the group. The members of the group were seated comfortably in armchairs and divans in a large circle in the activities room of the school. Coffee and wafers were served. One faculty member had been asked to start the discussion, but after the opening statement no one, either student or faculty member, took precedence over the others in speaking.

The subject under discussion was an article entitled "The Duty of the Intellectual Now," by Harold Laski, published in *Harper's Magazine* for December 1939. Because this school provides many different publications in quantities in the library, every one present had had opportunity to read the article. There followed a free discussion on the part of all, with sharp clashes of opinion, yet with good will throughout.

Assembly Programs Help To Build a Unified Nation from Youth with Varied National Backgrounds

School assemblies are regularly held in practically every school visited in this study, and serve a variety of purposes. Here we are concerned with assemblies as educational means for influencing public opinion regarding both school affairs and larger public issues.

At the Abraham Lincoln High School in Los Angeles,

the stage presentations in the assemblies are practically on a professional basis. The skilled use of lighting effects, sound equipment, and radio technique makes these assembly programs unique among those observed. There are six assemblies each week, with two programs, each repeated three times. Each student has the privilege of attending both programs. The general purposes of the assemblies are stated in a report from the school.

The assembly program necessarily needed to be varied, inspiring, and dynamic. We decided that it should represent the school and its work; it should develop initiative and self-expression; it could well dramatize values; and it should contribute significantly to the education of youth toward an understanding, acceptance, and application of the characteristics of a democratic life.

One of the weekly programs is known as the World Hour. Through it the play production class presents topics of world interest, through drama and with musical accompaniment. One technique frequently employed is that of the Living Newspaper, performed against a background of a stage-size map of the world.

The other program is known as the Lincoln Hour, and its stated purpose is:

To develop in each student a healthy self-esteem, a racial pride, and among such a cosmopolitan group a sense of unity, tolerance, and respect. Boys and girls of foreign parentage find in their racial and national background matters of deep concern. This assembly is directed toward relieving such tensions and conflicts, and tries to help adolescents solve problems arising in their personal, social, and civic relations.

The series of programs presented last year merits attention.

When the radio program "Americans All—Immigrants All" was broadcast over a nationwide system by the United States Office of Education, this school secured a set of the recordings and of the scripts. Students in classes in speech, drama, music, and art, under the supervision of the teacher who serves as assembly coordinator, at once

set to work to prepare original performances of the entire series. With the script in hand, each participant listened to the recording and caught the spirit as well as the technique of the character he was to portray. Music students selected phonograph recordings to provide appropriate musical settings. After a program had been given in assembly, the recordings were made available for use in classes, where they were played on portable phonographs, and often became the basis for class study and discussion. These programs were of particular value in this school, many of whose students are the sons and daughters of recent immigrants still in process of becoming "Americans all."

*The Blessings of Liberty Are More Deeply
Appreciated When Seen through the Eyes of Newcomers*

An impressive assembly program was observed in another school serving youth from many foreign lands, the Julia Richman High School in New York City. During the last two years, Julia Richman has had an increasing number of students from European countries. They have adapted themselves to the life of the school with admirable ease, bringing with them sound training in high-school subjects, a sense of responsibility, and an eagerness to learn American ways. Since many of them have experienced the hardships of intolerance and exile it seemed fitting that they should give to the other students their message of appreciation of the tolerance and democracy which they have found in this country. Hence this program, excerpts from which follow, was presented by about sixty of these "Newcomers."

Theme music—Schumann "Scenes from Childhood"—Strange
Lands and Peoples

Introduction—A Julia Richman girl

A few weeks ago from this platform you heard a program on "Tolerance and Democracy." At that time the development of the American ideal of democracy was traced through our own history, and illustrated by the words of Abraham Lincoln and Woodrow Wilson. Today we are going to hear what that American ideal means in 1939 in perhaps the most troubled period the world has ever known. Many of us, in this auditorium, have parents who came from one part or another of that Europe which is now so torn with war and dissension. We who have spent our whole life in the United States do not always appreciate the advantages we have enjoyed, perhaps because we have known no other life than this American one, which is built on the principles of liberty and freedom. It has been a privilege to know these European girls. Through them we have begun to realize, more than ever before, what it means to live in the United States. We have also discovered that the newcomers have a great deal to contribute to the civilization of this country. We are going to let them speak for themselves.

(The speaker had been standing in front of the closed curtains. As the curtains opened there was revealed a group of sixty girls seated in a large semi-circle on the stage, some of them dressed in the costumes of their native country.)

The Julia Richman girl then said, "I shall now turn the program over to Inge, who came here from Mannheim, in Germany, a year and a half ago."

Inge spoke:

Julia Richman has always had a small group of girls from foreign countries, usually about fifteen in the whole school. Within the last year that number has increased to nearly eighty. We have had to learn biology, history, and geometry in a language that was almost new to us. Many of us had studied English as a foreign language, just as you study French and German here. We have had to learn new ways of living as well as a new language. But already, in less than a year, we are a part of this school, and therefore, in a larger sense, a part of this country. We have come from many different cities and villages, from large schools and from small ones, to go on with our education in Julia Richman. Now some of the girls will introduce themselves to you. You will see that we are learning to speak English very well.

It was found that nine countries were represented—Germany, Czechoslovakia, Palestine, Austria, Italy, Roumania, Hungary, Holland, and France—and dozens of cities, towns, and villages in these countries. The girls identified themselves in different ways, some by telling their

names and the countries from which they came, others by singing or dancing or playing musical instruments, still others by reciting poetry—all from their native lands.

Hanne, a girl from Germany, then gave this message:

To us newcomers from foreign countries, the United States gives freedom and happiness and an opportunity to live our own lives. We all know that we gain many things by coming here. We hope, too, that we do not come empty-handed, for we want to contribute our share to this country which has welcomed us. What do we bring? In addition to our gratitude, we bring with us the old civilization of Europe, the literature, the music, the poetry, that all the world loves. We bring with us Goethe and Beethoven, Heine and Dürer—the spirit of old Berlin, and old Vienna, which is a good spirit. Every single one of us brings a part of this spirit. Very talented people compose music, act, or paint, or write books. But also the average person brings smaller parts of that civilization with him to this country. We bring them in our memories of the fine things we knew in European life. They are a part of us, even though we are average persons. So, in accepting your welcome, we bring our small gifts to you, and to America.

Finally Lily, one of the newcomers, rose and said: "At the beginning of this program you sang the first stanza of 'America, the Beautiful.' We will sing the second stanza, because the words seem to fit us, who are also pilgrims. We, too, have crossed the ocean to find liberty and happiness as the early Pilgrims did." The entire group rose and sang the second stanza and the curtain closed.

Julia Richman High School is also using the scripts of the United States Office of Education's radio program series, "Let Freedom Ring," dramatizations of the history of the American civil liberties. These programs are presented on the auditorium stage by students from the dramatics classes.

Assemblies Are Used To Clarify the Issues in Controversial Public Questions

At the University High School in Oakland, California, assembly attendance is voluntary, but the assemblies are

generally well attended. Assembly programs are planned and carried out by a student assembly committee, under the leadership of the student commissioner of assemblies who is appointed by the student council. These students have the responsibility for building up student interest in the assemblies. A fair share of the assembly programs are on political and social topics. Whenever an issue of extraordinary importance arises in the community, effort is made to secure spokesmen representing all points of view to present their cases in the assembly. For example, at the time of the recent maritime workers' strike in San Francisco, the student committee invited an attorney for the employers and the secretary of the workers' organization to speak to them at an assembly. Both men accepted. Afterwards, most of the classes in the school held discussions on the subject, under the leadership of students who had made a special study of the situation.

*Assemblies Portray Art and
Science in Relation to Democracy*

At the Fieldston School in New York City, two unusual assembly programs have been presented on the theme of "Democracy." One was the product of the art department, the other of the science department. The aim was to show the contributions made to democracy by art and science, respectively. The science program was in the form of a drama showing that the products of science may be employed either to enrich life or to destroy, and that beneficial science flourishes best in a democracy. We quote from the report on the art program:

Many students contributed their expressions in the visual medium of the artist. Large murals were painted, illustrating and emphasizing various problems of current life, such as slum clearance, unemployment, war, and peace. Students interested in the stage arts designed and executed a dramatic setting before which the speakers

talked. A monumental sculpture twelve feet high standing on an eight-foot base represented the theme "Art and Democracy." A large statue symbolized both democracy and fascism, with their respective offspring, the artist and soldier. On either side of the statue was a curved screen upon which pictures were projected as each student spoke.

Newspaper Editorials and Polls *Influence Action on School Affairs*

The daily press is a powerful influence in shaping public opinion in the adult world, but the high-school newspaper plays a relatively minor role, as compared with assemblies, forums, and homerooms. Students meet each other face to face daily, and have little need to rely on the printed word.

Some papers were found, nevertheless, which were endeavoring to influence public opinion through editorials and feature articles, as well as to report school news. A few excerpts from the *Walton Log* of the Walton Girls High School in New York City will serve to indicate the kinds of action which this paper is seeking to stimulate. One of these editorials states: "We can do it! Democracy is on the march! The traffic squad, study hall, and cafeteria aides have been empowered to issue summonses to the rejuvenated Walton Court. Here fellow-Waltonites may judge with absolute impartiality, for no longer will it be a case of teacher vs. student, but rather of student vs. student." Another editorial reads: "In an effort to emphasize tolerance and democracy, six assembly programs have been arranged for this semester with these ideals as the theme. With democracy threatened on all sides, it is more necessary now than ever before to show the youth of America wherein their strength lies, how to use that strength with clear sighted wisdom and purpose, and how to protect those rights which are their incontestable heritage."

Student polls are sometimes taken and the results reported through the columns of the school paper, which thus become a channel through which "the voice of the people" is heard. One illustration was found in the *Spotlight* of Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio. In an article headed "To Have or Not To Have Music," one of the students presented the matter of having music in the cafeteria during lunch periods. An informal student poll was then conducted by this reporter, in which 100 students were asked to state their opinion. Eighty-eight favored the music, and the administration and student council acted in accordance with the will of the majority.

The staff of the student paper at the Benjamin Franklin High School in Rochester, New York, conducted a corridor quiz on neutrality in which both faculty members and students took part. A debate on the advisability of students' doing homework was also carried on through the school newspaper. The question at issue was whether or not teachers ought to assign homework to pupils on nights immediately preceding week-ends or holidays. It was the contention of most of the students that these times should be left free for various forms of social enjoyment. As a result, nearly all the members of the faculty have agreed that they will not assign homework for the period over the week-end or during vacation periods. The pupils have agreed to demonstrate that their work during the week will be superior because of this action.

A School Newspaper Staff Experiences Some Responsibilities of a Free Press

In the workshop of the school paper staff at the University High School in Oakland, California, there was evidence on every hand that pupils were assuming full responsibility for their work. This paper is published daily,

and most of the work is done by students after school hours. The paper is printed in the school's printshop. The staff of the paper each year works out an editorial policy in cooperation with the administration of the school. Acting under this policy, the students write all of the copy, including the editorials, without faculty supervision or review. The first knowledge which the faculty has of the content comes when the printed paper is delivered each morning. Thus the students learn the responsibilities, as well as the privileges, which are attached to that fundamental civil liberty, freedom of the press.

*A Pageant Portrays
Principles of Democracy*

Mont Pleasant High School, Schenectady, New York, believes that pageantry has a service to render in building an appreciation of democracy. The following quotation is taken from a school report:

Pageantry is essentially an exercise in creative democracy; it is a reaffirmation of our faith in the dignity of man and is a dramatization of our common heritage. While we have grown used to quick and ready lip service to the time-worn adage that democracy is the will of the people, it is necessary that we turn from the aggregate to the particular to evaluate the philosophy of democracy as the only social climate that furnishes the opportunity for the individual to rise to his greatest potentiality and at the same time permits his political judgment to determine the course of the state.

However, pageantry is not alone the device of the democracies; it is also the masque of kings. It is a powerful weapon wherever forms of social control exploit loyalties for the maintenance of power, and it is possible that the democracies must learn from the parades and displays of might of the dictators if they will survive—for shared loyalty to common ideals must be forcefully and frequently presented to the people to keep alive their social heritage.⁹

⁹ Garey, Helen C. *Pageantry—Writing and Production: An Exercise in Creative Democracy*. Mont Pleasant High School, Schenectady, N. Y. Report made to a meeting of the Council of New York State Superintendents of Schools at Saranac Inn, September 26, 1939.

"The American Way" is the title of a pageant written and produced in this school in 1937 to celebrate the sesquicentennial of the drafting of the American Constitution. It was rewritten and considerably improved in 1938 as a part of the statewide celebration of the sesquicentennial of the ratification of the federal Constitution by New York State in 1788. The body of the pageant itself sets forth great episodes in the history of the development of American civilization. Toward the close of the pageant there is a deeply moving spectacle of the Pilgrim fathers, the planters, pioneers, farmers, miners, scientists, and all the other types of people who have worked together to make America great.

*Commencement Exercises Become
Democratic in Both Method and Content*

For years high-school graduates have been delivering "essays" and "orations" at commencement exercises. Too often, however, these have been written by adults to impress adults. The students have merely been actors in an adult "show." In some of the high schools visited in this study, the commencement exercises are looked upon as educational opportunities, and the students are sharing largely in the planning as well as in the programs. Furthermore, the contents of a number of the students' presentations are worthy of attention as evidences of education in civic responsibility.

The printed programs of the John Marshall High School, in Minneapolis, Minnesota, for the past two years show that emphasis has been placed upon the understanding of the school itself and that students have had the major part in the presentations. On one occasion, the main part of the program was a panel discussion on the theme "The Value of Secondary Education," in which the principal

of the school and thirteen students participated. In another year, committeemen and witnesses reported to the audience on an "Investigation of Education." All participants were students. In June 1939 the honor students of the class presented an "Examination of Extracurricular Activities."

In Framingham, Massachusetts, High School, student committees plan the topics of the student addresses at commencement. For the past three years these committees have considered graduation an opportune time to emphasize good citizenship, and have chosen the themes and topics accordingly:

1938. *Central theme:* Selling America to Americans
Topics: The American Bill of Rights
Rights and Privileges of the Vote
The Constitution and the Citizen
1939. *Central theme:* The American Way of Life
Topics: America, the Melting Pot of All Nations
America Still the Land of Opportunity
Tolerance: A Democratic Essential
Training for Citizenship
1940. *Central theme:* Youth Faces the Future
Topics: The Privileges of American Youth
Citizenship Development in a School Community
American Youth in the World of Tomorrow.

For a recent commencement exercise the students and teachers of the Parker High School in Birmingham, Alabama, composed and presented a historical pageant on "The Spirit of the Negro." The Mont Pleasant High School students performed the pageant, "The American Way," at their commencement in 1937. Thus, in an increasing number of schools, commencement has become an occasion both for democratic participation by students and for the direction of the thoughts of students and audience alike to the principles of democracy.

One other important means for influencing public opinion in the school, namely, the homeroom discussion, will be considered in the later section on "Inclusive Student Organizations."

5. RECREATIONAL AND SOCIAL ACTIVITIES

Many of the out-of-class activities of students are primarily recreational or social in character; for example, athletics and sports; dramatics, glee clubs, bands; a variety of clubs—art, handicrafts, photography, radio, aviation, and so on; dances, social hours, and other occasions for sociability; and a part of the activities connected with assemblies, pageants, and festivals.

Only rarely are these activities directly concerned with matters of citizenship, and it is not necessary that they should be. There is a rightful place in education for experiences which add enjoyment to the life of the individual as he exercises his "unalienable right" to "the pursuit of happiness." Under favorable conditions, however, these recreational and social activities may make considerable indirect contributions to education for citizenship and they often do so. In the schools visited in this study, there has been evidence that these activities may help boys and girls to plan and work together, develop leadership capacities, break down undesirable class barriers, build ideals of good sportsmanship, and learn the disciplines of teamwork.

Students Learn To Plan and Work Together in Clubs, Plays, and Assemblies

Activities of the club type offer almost unequalled opportunity for students to take part in planning group activities and to assume responsibility for carrying plans into action. Most clubs are free from cumbersome and restrictive requirements, and their programs may develop largely

according to the wishes of their members. They are usually small groups of students held together by a few common interests. Their existence as clubs may depend upon the ability of their members to build plans around common interests and to translate these plans into satisfactory programs.

It is true that a club program may be managed autocratically by a teacher-sponsor, and some of those observed were so dominated. It is also true that a club program may become anarchic confusion, especially with younger and inexperienced students, when teachers erroneously suppose that they have no responsibilities for guiding the learning experiences of children outside the classroom. Clubs of this type were also observed. Many of the clubs visited, however, ranked high on one or several of the six criteria of democratic teaching employed in the preceding chapter, and especially on participation in planning, executing, and evaluating; responsibility in action; and cooperative action for the common good.

There is no simple formula for democratic organization and management of clubs and similar activities. Indeed, in external features there is often little apparent difference between the teacher-dominated group and the democratically controlled club or committee. The distinguishing features are found in more subtle matters which appear only when activities are evaluated by criteria such as those just referred to. We turn now to a few examples of clubs and related programs.

In the Mont Pleasant High School, Schenectady, New York, student interest centers in the clubs of the school. Although the school has a student council, most of the student activities are carried on largely through the clubs and the homerooms. Any group of students who have a common interest may take the initiative in organizing.

Before applying for approval, they must find a faculty sponsor who will act as adviser. The students make and carry out their own plans. A club continues to operate as long as its members participate actively. It is disbanded as soon as lack of student interest indicates that the organization has exhausted its usefulness. The programs of these clubs are purposely kept flexible in order to meet, as nearly as possible, the needs of all their members.

In the Sacramento, California, Senior High School, a similar plan exists for these student organizations. Students who wish to form a club file their statement of intention with the student council and are granted a charter. Here, as in most schools, the boys and girls are encouraged to express their interests through some form of club activity.

At the John W. Weeks Junior High School, Newton, Massachusetts, a questionnaire is made up at the beginning of the year to give the students an opportunity to state the activities in which they would like to engage. From the results, a list is compiled which is sent to the teachers. The teachers then write statements of the activities which they would like to sponsor. Using both students' and teachers' responses, the club committee prepares a club list from which students make their choices. Club meetings are planned and conducted largely by students, with teachers acting as advisers.

Plays, assemblies, and pageants also frequently give boys and girls valuable training in cooperative planning and in carrying out responsibilities. The assembly programs of the Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, are worked out by students and teachers together. Teachers from all departments of the school meet with students representing the various student interests, such as sports, music, clubs, journalism, and debating. They select about twenty per-

sons to serve as an executive committee. This committee is responsible for planning the program and the methods of presentation. Debates, forums, and motion pictures are among the methods which have been used. The executive committee members then select a smaller group to work out the details of each program. Each assembly is carefully rehearsed by the participating students. The presiding officer is always a senior student, and a different student is selected to lead each assembly. Other students are assigned other duties in connection with each program. Thus, in the course of the year, a large number of boys and girls hold positions of responsibility upon which the success of the group enterprise depends.

This assembly program is preceded by a formal ritual which has been developed by the students and teachers of the school. It is felt at this school that the opening ritual adds dignity and beauty to the program and symbolizes some of the democratic values which are the ultimate aims of this activity.

One major all-school production is presented annually by the students of this school. The faculty sponsor of this event is an English teacher. No other faculty member has a part in the project. This is primarily an entertainment event, but it involves a large amount of student initiative, planning, and responsibility, since students not only direct and present the program, but write the script as well.

Another type of production for which students carry large responsibilities is the mass outdoor pageant presented annually by the Phoenix Union High School and Junior College, Phoenix, Arizona. Students and teachers, on a basis of equality, share the work of planning and producing this pageant, which enlists the interests of the entire community.

Opportunities for Developing Leadership Are Found in Some Student Activities

Another civic value of some recreational and social activities is found in the wide opportunities which they provide for students to develop qualities of leadership. Most club groups are small enough to permit every student to have his turn in exercising whatever talents he possesses. It is not uncommon to see half the students in a club successively assume leadership in group activities in the course of a thirty-minute meeting, each one leading at the point where his or her particular skills are needed. Similar values are found in those intramural sports programs which enlist the participation of large numbers of students in a wide variety of activities.

In most schools, furthermore, the out-of-class program is more flexible than the work of the classroom, and allows students to spend a proportionately larger amount of their time in exploring new interests and capacities. Almost every principal can point with satisfaction to a few erstwhile "problem boys and girls" who have "found themselves" and become cooperative leaders through a club, or a sport, or a chance to perform with a musical or dramatic group.

Social Activities, Clubs, and Athletics May Help To Remove Class Barriers and Intolerance

These out-of-classroom activities frequently make a third civic contribution, by helping to remove barriers of race, nationality, and social and economic status which exist outside the school. A student from a minority racial group, president of the senior class in a large public high school, expressed his awareness of this contribution when he said, "The school is the only place I can go where I am allowed to forget my race."

The student body of the University High School in Oakland, California, is a cross-section of the city, including white, Negro, and Oriental, wealthy, middle-class, and poor. Recent studies of student leadership¹⁰ show that students from the poorer families attain high offices in student activities in about the same proportion as their representation in the student body. A Negro boy recently won the citizenship cup, the highest award for service to the school. At the time of the staff visit, a Japanese boy was assistant yell leader, and two Negro boys were on the football team.

During the visits to the Abraham Lincoln High School, in Los Angeles, California, staff members were impressed by the absence of social barriers in the many social and recreational activities of the school. The school draws its student body from a number of national, racial, and economic groups, and students from all these groups were found to be taking part in the school's social program. Such results do not happen of themselves. For a number of years the staff in this school has been giving a great deal of attention to social activities. A large and beautiful recreation room is used frequently for dances and for entertainments presented by students. Class breakfasts are held in the school cafeteria. Social events are scheduled so that practically all the students in the school are included in some activities in the course of each year.

This school, like the Tulsa school referred to above, seeks to give expression to some of its purposes and to foster loyalty to them, through a school ritual which is used at assemblies. The opening sentences of the ritual follow:

¹⁰ Brown, Marion; Martin, Vibella (directors); and others. "The University High School Study of Adolescents." *University High School Journal* 17: 181-233; June 1939.

Leader: We hold these truths to be self-evident that all men are created equal. God hath made of one blood all nations of men, and we are His children, brothers and sisters all.

Assembly: We are citizens of these United States, and we believe our Flag stands for self-sacrifice for the good of all the people. We want, therefore, to be true citizens of our great country, and will show our love for her by our work.

Sportsmanship and Disciplined Teamwork Are Possible Civic Contributions from Competitive Sports

A fourth possible contribution to citizenship is found in the ideals of good sportsmanship and the habits of disciplined teamwork, which may be developed through competitive sports. That such ideals and habits have an important place in democratic living is hardly open to question. Neither can it be doubted, from the evidence of this study, that most high-school coaches are deeply concerned that boys and girls shall learn to practice sportsmanship and teamwork on the playing field.

There is a question, however, whether the learning of good sportsmanship and disciplined teamwork is being associated with other learnings of democratic group behavior, so that it is likely to "carry over" from the playing field to other situations. On this point the evidence is not so encouraging. Time did not permit the observation of practices intended to facilitate transfer of learning, but conversations with coaches and instructors yielded little in the way of definite plans.

In many of the schools visited all important decisions seemed to be made for the student participants by coaches and faculty committees. This was true especially of inter-

scholastic athletics. Students usually had a larger share in planning intramural sports. In the interscholastic field, where the pressure is strong to put out winning teams, there is a tendency to keep important decisions in the hands of adults. Sportsmanship and teamwork may thus become associated with a total process which, from the students' viewpoint, is autocratic.

There is no thought here of dispensing with the coach in the role of expert, or of taking from the coach the authority which he needs to do his job well. There are, however, many matters of policy connected with competitive sports, about which students might properly have a voice—planning schedules, choosing opponents, determining rules of eligibility, deciding on the amount of time for training in relation to other school activities, and the like. Here the opportunities for students to learn to share in cooperative planning and responsible action are unusually great, because of the intense interest which many boys and girls take in everything associated with competitive sports.

6. INCLUSIVE STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

Student Organization Should Be Suited to the Needs of the School

We turn now to a few examples of inclusive student organizations. Many types of organization were observed, and often the question was asked, "What type of student association or student council do you consider best?" To this question there is no answer. The form of the student organization is far less important than its purpose and spirit. The characters and purposes of schools differ, and in any given school, that student organization is "best" which accomplishes most efficiently the purposes for which it exists in that school, and which at the same time exhibits most fully the characteristics of democratic education.

The illustrations which follow, therefore, are of student organizations which seemed both democratic and well suited to their schools. They are not blueprints for other schools.

The Student Council Is Usually the Working Agent of the Student Body

In the schools visited it was common practice to have a general student body organization, representing directly all members of the student body, under whose authority smaller working bodies of students are organized. The most common form of the smaller working student organization is the student council.¹¹ Occasionally it goes by another name, but there always is some provision for the setting up of a representative, functional group sufficiently limited in size so that it can work effectively on matters of detail. Representatives on the council are usually chosen by popular election, most frequently by the members of the homerooms or their equivalents.

In Some Schools, Authority Is Highly Centralized

The Pasadena, California, Junior College provides for three branches of student government—legislative, executive, and judicial. Executive authority is vested in the student body president, and in his absence, in the vice-president. Legislative power is in the hands of an elected board of representatives, composed of the presidents of each of the four classes, presidents and associate presidents of the men's and women's organizations, and seven representatives at large, one elected for each thousand students.

¹¹ Brogue, Ellen Boothroyd, and Jacobson, Paul B. *Student-Council Handbook*. Bulletin No. 89. Washington, D. C.: Department of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association, 1940. 193 p.

Judicial authority is vested in a minor court, consisting of four appointed justices, a superior court of one elected justice, and a supreme court made up of five justices appointed by the student body president and confirmed by the board of representatives. There is also provision for a cabinet composed of the secretaries of the different activities who are appointed by the president with the consent of the board of representatives.¹² This is an illustration of a type of governmental organization with centralized authority, frequently found in large institutions.

*In Some Schools, Authority
Rests with the Student Electorate*

Quite a different form of representative council is found in the Parker High School for Negro students in Birmingham, Alabama. Here there is no student council, but there is a functioning body made up of the presidents of all the homerooms in the school. These presidents are elected by the members of the homerooms and meet together once a week with a faculty sponsor, for the purpose of discussing matters pertaining to the welfare of the student body. Official action is taken by all students voting in their homerooms. This procedure has the advantages that it is relatively simple in organization and that it assures a prompt reference of all questions to the entire student body through the channel of the homerooms.

*Some Schools Seek To Maintain a Balance
between Centralization and General Participation*

Several cases may be cited in which there seems to be a balance between centralized executive authority and general participation in legislation and policy-making. The

¹² Pasadena Junior College. *Student Handbook*. Pasadena, Calif.: the College. p. 85-87.

representative student organization of the Benjamin Franklin High School in Rochester, New York, is known as the Junto, and is composed of two elected student representatives from each homeroom. From this larger group there is chosen a smaller working group known as the executive council. There is abundant opportunity for debate in the Junto and also within the executive council. Sometimes matters are referred to the student body at large for decision. Questions for discussion, debate, or action may originate either within the student body, within the Junto, or within the executive council. School officers are nominated at large by homerooms. Qualifications are set by the students, and the campaign speeches are made by the candidates before all students in school assembly.

In the John W. Weeks Junior High School, Newton, Massachusetts, the members of the student council are elected by the homerooms. The council acts as a whole, without an executive committee. All matters presented for action at the student council meetings must be referred to homerooms for consideration and action before the council can vote. This delays action for one week, but it assures the participation of the entire student body in all important actions, and it makes the school governing body truly representative. When this council was observed, every member was taking notes on proposals and actions, to report back to his or her homeroom at the next meeting.

A comparable situation was observed at the Shaker High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio, where several representatives on the student council, after voting on a certain question, stated that their personal choices were different from those which they had recorded, but that their homerooms, after full discussion of the matter, had instructed them as to the votes which they wished their representatives to cast.

The student council at the Holland, Michigan, High School is one of the oldest in the United States. It is patterned after city government organization. There are "wards" for student representation, corresponding to grade classifications, and from each ward there are elected two "aldermen" who represent their ward in the council. The president of the council and of the general student body is the "mayor." The student council meets once a week to consider matters of importance to the students. The simplicity of this form of "city government" protects it from some of the artificialities which characterize other attempts to model school organizations after highly complex city governmental plans.

All student councils are authorized to appoint committees for various purposes, but these committees are so many and so diverse that it will hardly be profitable to consider them.

The Homeroom Is Commonly the Local Unit of Student Organization

The local unit of student organization is usually the homeroom or some group corresponding to it. In a few schools, such as the John W. Weeks Junior High School, the Shaker High School, and the Parker High School just described, the homeroom plays an important part in policy-making and legislation. In many schools, however, its part is limited to electing representatives and hearing reports after action has been taken by the student council or the executive committee. Schools which permit the latter practice to prevail are apparently missing one of the most favorable opportunities for training in democratic citizenship, particularly in the processes of representative government and the formation of informed public opinion on the part of the electorate. Homerooms serve other

educational purposes than those discussed here, some of which have already been discussed in Chapter III.¹¹

A Class in Student Government Is Included in a School Curriculum

The importance of student participation in school government and the educational possibilities of this experience have been recognized in the Sacramento, California, Senior High School, where for the last four years a course in student government has been included in the curriculum. The class meets for one hour daily, and each student in the class receives social studies credit for the course. Any student who is eligible by virtue of his office in the student organization may take the course three terms for credit, and he may enrol for additional terms without credit. There were about twenty members of the class when observed. A teacher meets with the class as adviser, but the class works under its elected chairman. The content of the course is the collective life of the students of the school and all the problems which develop out of that life.

During the fall semester of 1939, the class studied the seating capacity and other arrangements of the school cafeteria, and worked out an improved plan, including certain changes which are being taken care of in the 1941 budget. In the preceding year, the class worked on the problem of transportation for students at the school, and laid facts before the transportation company which caused the company to put on two additional buses to serve the school. These projects are in addition to the routine matters of student elections, meetings, athletic contests, dances, finances, clubs, and the like, all of which come before the class for review. The principal and viceprincipal meet

¹¹ See page 139.

with the class frequently, to discuss some of the larger problems of school administration.

Girls and Boys Leagues Sometimes Perform Important Functions

Girls Leagues and Boys Leagues sometimes have responsibilities almost as important as those of the student body organization itself. In the South Pasadena, California, High School, the Girls League is responsible for the beautification of the school; conducts an annual program of addresses and excursions related to careers; provides an orientation service for new students on the "big sister" plan; gives teas for mothers of students; and does a number of other things in the interests of the welfare of the girls of the school. The Boys League has comparable duties in relation to boys activities.

Similar organizations were found in a number of other schools. Some of the activities of the Girls League at Phoenix, Arizona, Union High School have been noted earlier in the chapter.¹⁴ At the Theodore Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Iowa, the two leagues, among other activities, have raised funds during several years to buy books for the library, the boys furnishing books on occupations and vocational guidance, the girls books on personality development and psychology.

A School Provides for Continuous Revision of Its Student Constitution

One other observation related to student body organization deserves mention. The student council of the Fieldston School in New York City has a standing committee on constitutional revision. Each year the constitution and

¹⁴ See pages 223-24.

bylaws of the student body are reviewed and possible improvements are considered. "We try to keep the constitution suited to conditions as they are now," said the chairman, "instead of letting it be something set down by the founding fathers."

7. THE SELECTION AND USE OF LEADERS

An efficient democracy, we have seen, makes full use of the abilities of its members, chooses leaders on the basis of their qualifications for the positions to be filled, and wisely employs the services of experts.¹⁵ Admittedly most of our adult political organizations fall short at this point. Too often persons are elected to office for reasons that have little to do with their competence to perform the duties of office. Failure to achieve in the adult world, however, does not excuse the schools from efforts to improve upon prevalent practices. Several schools seemed to be well aware of their responsibility for educating youth in the wise selection and use of leaders. Three of these examples will be described briefly.

Student Organizations Require Evidence of Fitness from Candidates for Office

In the Abraham Lincoln High School of Los Angeles, students make formal application for candidacy for student body offices. The blank which is presented to the student cabinet includes such credentials as scholarship, physical fitness, social mindedness, service record, community service, and this statement, "I have shown improvement in achievement and attitude and effort during the last two years." It is necessary in this school, as in a number of others visited, for the candidate to submit to

¹⁵ See pages 23-26.

an examination on the student body constitution. The senior organization of this high school conducts a public hearing for candidates for the higher offices. The candidates appear together. The senior president announces a topic related to school welfare or student government, and each candidate makes an impromptu speech setting forth his views on the topic and explaining what his policy would be if elected to office. Other topics are announced until each candidate has appeared once as the first speaker. The senior organization then votes on the candidates and this vote becomes a part of the candidates' public records.

The Walton High School in New York City has an active board of elections, the members of which are volunteers, chosen by the preceding board after individual interviews. This board interviews all candidates for office and presents the nominees and their platforms to the members of the student body in a series of assemblies arranged for this purpose.

Distinction Is Made between Representative and Technical Officials

In the University High School at Oakland, California, the president and six student commissioners are elected by popular vote of the student body. These are the officers who are expected to represent the public opinion of the students. All candidates for elective offices must take a written examination on the student body constitution and the student government of the school. This examination is drawn up by a student civil service committee. A mark of seventy-two, out of a possible one hundred, is considered sufficient to qualify a candidate for the office. However, candidates who fall below the seventy-two mark are not thereby disqualified. The scores of all candidates are published prior to election.

Student officers who are to perform technical duties—financial and judicial, for example—are selected by the elected members of the student council on the basis of their technical qualifications as determined by their records and through interviews. Students make application for these appointments. At the time of the interview they are faced with their shortcomings as well as their qualifications. In making the appointments, the student council members take into account the policy that all groups in the school should be represented as far as possible.

At the time of the staff visit to this school, there was a discussion in the student council as to whether one of the commissioners was performing his duties in a satisfactory manner. The commissioner was himself a member of the council, and was present to hear the criticisms made by other council members. The students seemed to have the attitude that the welfare of the school took precedence over the rights of a council member to his office.

8. RESPONSIBILITY IN THE USE OF PUBLIC FUNDS

One of the lessons which can be learned in out-of-classroom activities is responsibility for the wise use and accurate accounting of public funds. A few examples, chosen from many observed, will serve to indicate the possibilities.

Students Learn To Expend and Account for Public Funds

The students in Tappan Junior High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan, pay a fee of fifty cents a semester which entitles them to admission to all auditorium programs, parties, and plays. The student council and committee chairmen make up a budget at the beginning of the year for the audi-

torium committee, the social committee, and the school plays committee. All voucher forms for expenditures from the student funds are signed first by the student business manager of the council, then by the faculty adviser, and finally by the principal.

At the senior high-school level, the funds involved are usually larger. The student council at the Fieldston School in New York City assesses the student activity fee each year, on the basis of budgets for the committees on athletics, publications, and social life. Budgets are submitted by these three committees and revised by a student finance committee. The council then holds public budget hearings. Full responsibility for the expenditure of funds according to the approved budgets rests with the council. Surplus funds are expended by the council for the benefit of the school. The student council at Pasadena, California, Junior College is similarly responsible for expending and accounting for over \$40,000 a year in students' funds.

At the Fieldston School the surplus from the student activity fee amounted, by 1939, to \$3600. The student council was authorized to spend this money for any purpose which it might choose. The council members decided to buy a spectroscope. Upon investigation, they found that the best spectroscope came from Germany. This raised the question of buying German products, at a time when there was strong feeling against the German government because of its seizure of Czechoslovakia and its treatment of Jews. This, in turn, led into an investigation of the effects of boycotts, a study which included Japan as well as Germany. So the act of buying a spectroscope turned out to be a valuable learning experience in foreign relations.

Students Learn Financial Responsibility in School Banks

At the Holtville High School, near Deatsville, Alabama, students handle and account for the funds of the multifarious community activities of the school, under the general supervision of the teacher of commercial courses. The Holtville students also operate a school bank, which gives them practice in the responsible use of money. Not only do they receive deposits and pay out on checks; they also make loans to students, using promissory notes and computing interest at a nominal rate.

Students in the Tilden High School in New York City, also operate a school bank, which serves as a laboratory for commercial classes as well as a training school in financial responsibility. The bank handles 8000 open student accounts, and 125 students daily take part in its work. In a period of ten years the bank has handled over \$280,000, with a total loss of less than \$25.

9. MOTIVATIONS OF STUDENTS' SERVICE ACTIVITIES

Schools differ widely in their uses of awards and other forms of recognition for achievement in out-of-class activities. A few schools have such elaborate systems of awards and honors that the winning of prizes seems to overshadow the intrinsic worth of the activities, in the minds of students. It is not these schools, however, that are reported here, but rather the schools which have given considerable thought to the use of a few significant awards.

Recognition Is Sometimes Given for Distinguished Service to the School

Framingham, Massachusetts, High School selects annually the senior students whose names are added to the

scroll on a pedestal, as the most distinguished school citizens of the year. Students and teachers join in choosing the individuals who are to receive this honor. Selections are based primarily on the extent and quality of participation in school activities, including service projects.

The University High School, Oakland, California, awards a citizenship cup annually to the student who has performed the greatest public service to the school. The award is made by a committee of twelve, including students, teachers, counselors, and an administrator. Each student keeps his own record of activities while in school. These records are turned over to the committee, which, after reading them, nominates twenty candidates for the award. The committee votes on these names until one is chosen.

The University High School in Ann Arbor, Michigan, grants the school letter for distinguished achievement in either citizenship, scholarship, or athletics. The Benjamin Franklin High School in Rochester, New York, gives service certificates which may be won by any student for any type of outstanding service to the school. The conditions of the awards are determined by the student council.

In Some Schools Students Render Distinguished Service without Expectation of Awards

It is by no means certain, however, that even these carefully considered awards contribute significantly to motivate students to their best efforts for the welfare of the school. Some of the most earnest, unselfish, and useful public service on the part of students was observed in the Tappan Junior High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan; the Holtville High School in Alabama; and the Atlanta University Laboratory School in Georgia, all three of which have eliminated awards and honors and rely for motiva-

tion solely upon the intrinsic satisfaction of the act of service.

CONCLUSIONS

Student organizations may be found in the schools of all countries, those which accept democracy and those which reject democracy. There is nothing in such organizations, *as such*, to guarantee good education for American citizenship. Like any other part of the educative process, such activities must be adjusted and directed to some end in view. The desirable nature of this adjustment and direction has already been indicated at many points in this chapter. A few comments which seem to deserve a concluding and repeated emphasis follow.

Student Activities Should Be Accepted as Part of the Educative Processes

1. The ultimate responsibility of the professional staff for the conduct of student activities in a secondary school cannot be evaded. For example, if a candidate for a student office conducts a campaign which reflects the cheap and harmful methods of some adult politicians, that activity should be discouraged and, if serious and necessary, even restrained. There is no more excuse for allowing students to practice bad government in their student organizations than there is to allow them to practice bad grammar in their English class or inaccurate addition in a mathematics class. This viewpoint, of course, does not by any means exclude the possibility of helping students to learn by making their own mistakes and by suffering the necessary consequences of their errors. But there is a vast difference between deliberate teaching of this kind and the abdication of professional responsibility on the specious plea that student government is undemocratic if the faculty takes any interest in it.

*Student Courts, Clubs, and Publications
Require Skilled Professional Guidance*

2. The first conclusion may be applied to a number of special cases. For example, unusual care on the part of teachers is needed in connection with student courts and student discipline. The enforcement of law and the administration of justice are necessary civic activities which youth should learn, if possible, through actual practice. Yet a student court which is more concerned with penalties than with prevention, or which acts in arbitrary fashion to override the rights of individuals to fair hearings, is not providing good education either for the members of the court or for the offenders. If schools are to have student courts and student police at all, skilled and watchful adult guidance should be provided in order that such activities may yield a maximum of desirable learnings to all concerned.

Again, student services to the school community may vary greatly in their educational value to students. All service activities have some worth, but their value is minimized when students simply run errands at the beck and call of the faculty. Their learning value increases in proportion as students have responsible parts in determining what services shall be rendered and why, as well as in the actual unselfish work of the services themselves.

Similarly, school publications, assemblies, forums, elections, and other means of forming student opinion can, with proper guidance, give effective assistance in developing civic skills of particular importance in a democracy. Without such guidance, they may be either activities without civic purpose, or thoughtless compliance with requirements set by the faculty.

In these and all other student activities, adult influence is best exerted through the guidance that is possible in

genuine "two-generation planning," rather than through compulsion.

*Duties of Leaders and Followers
Can Be Learned in Student Activities*

3. Activities of the kinds described in this chapter afford unusual opportunities for young people to practice intelligent choice of leaders and to grow in practical understanding of relations between leaders and followers. There is an observed tendency in many schools for positions of leadership to be held by a few students, far fewer than would be justified by differences in leadership capacities. Point systems and similar artificial checks seem to be relatively ineffective against this tendency. Because the selection and use of leaders is so important in a democracy, teachers need to give special attention to these processes in schools, at four points at least. Each student should have opportunity to develop his distinctive leadership capacities. All students should have equal opportunities to attain positions of leadership, if they are competent to fill them. Every process of choosing a leader should include public examination of the qualifications required for the position in question and some appraisal of the various candidates' abilities to meet these qualifications. Those not in positions of leadership should learn through practice the skills of intelligent, cooperative followership.

*Most Student Activities Carry Their
Own Satisfaction and Incentives*

4. The intrinsic satisfactions which most boys and girls derive from school activities seem to be so great that artificial motivation is not necessary to get students to take part. Elaborate award systems tend to hinder rather than

assist the process of civic education, for they center attention on individuals rather than on useful services. A few awards, wisely used, may properly be employed to recognize unusual public services already performed. But even these do not seem to be necessary as incentives, for young people were found to be no less active in student affairs in schools which had no awards whatever. Diffident students are likely to need encouragement and guidance on the part of teachers and older students, rather than the extra motivation of opportunities for personal recognition.

*The Life of the School May Yield Insight
into Democratic Social Processes*

5. The collective life of the secondary school exhibits many of the basic processes and problems of adult political societies—the establishment of authority and social control, the safeguarding of personal liberties, the formation of effective public opinion, and the selection of leaders and representatives, to mention only a few. The student who learns to be a good citizen of a democratic secondary school, and who comes to understand the ways in which the school community operates, will thereby progress far on the road to good adult citizenship. The life of the school itself is therefore a proper subject of study in the school, and is a potential source of insight into the nature and procedures of democracy.

*Changes in Practice Should Spring from
Examination of Purposes, Not from Imitation*

6. Educators are cautioned against putting their faith in particular forms and procedures of student activities. It would be a mistake to treat any of the practices described in this chapter as blueprints which might be followed in detail in other schools. Each school has its dis-

tinctive purposes and traditions. Changes in particular practices must either be consistent with these, or must be accompanied by changes in purposes and traditions. Purposes can be altered, but only when a large number of the people concerned understand what changes are proposed and why, and concur in wishing to see the changes effected. The thoughtful educator will first inquire whether his current practices are consistent with the fundamental civic purpose of producing the kind of citizens needed in the American democracy today. Only such a basic appraisal can point the way to the modifications of purposes and practices which are really needed.

*Classroom Teaching and Out-of-Class Activities
Are Inseparable Parts of Civic Education*

7. There is no separation, as far as purposes, methods, and motivation are concerned, between the *best* practices of the classroom and the *best* out-of-classroom activities. In both cases the purposes and conditions of learning are the same, and the teacher is equally responsible for desirable learning outcomes. Such differences as exist are incidental to the particular activities being carried on. Both classroom and out-of-classroom activities are parts of the school curriculum of civic education. In some schools the two become almost indistinguishable.



CHAPTER V

School
Activities
in the
Community



WHY IS IT?" asked a principal who had watched students come and go in one school for over twenty years, "Why is it that so many of our students who participate in student activities while in school have so little interest in civic affairs after they graduate? We try to make our school democratic. We try to give every student a chance to take a responsible part in class work and student activities. But the amount of carry-over to life after graduation is disappointingly small. There seems to be a gap between the school and the out-of-school world which we haven't been able to bridge."

*Realism in Civic Education Is Enhanced by
Relating the School to the Community*

Back of this question lay the recognition, shared by adults and youth alike, that the world outside the school is the "real" world, as far as citizenship is concerned. However stimulating and engrossing the life of the school may be, it is looked upon as a transient experience, leading to full induction into the enduring life of the community, the state, and the nation, where the individual may attain the full stature of citizenship. Furthermore, the youth is already living in that out-of-school world during most of his time, and he is already experiencing its influences and its problems, as they affect him directly and through the members of his family. If the school can relate its work closely to the life of the community, it will greatly increase the effectiveness of teaching, for learning is always facilitated when the learner is aware of the "reality" of the problem with which he is dealing. If the school can bring more of significant "out-of-school" experiences into the school program, it will infuse more vitality into all its activities.

*Many Schools Are Isolated
from Their Communities*

There is no single answer to this principal's question, which every thoughtful educator has doubtless asked many times. A part of the answer, however, unquestionably is this: Many schools are literally insulated in their communities. They are pedagogic islands, cut off by channels of convention from the world which surrounds them, and the inhabitants of these islands rarely venture to cross these channels during school hours. To be sure, they read about the surrounding world in books, and they return to live on the mainland when school is out. Few schools, however, have built bridges over which people may freely pass back and forth between school and community.

The insular life of the schools, moreover, often has little in common with the life about it. The school's environment is, and ought to be, a *controlled environment*—controlled to the end that its students may gain the maximum of needed learnings and growth while they are in the school. There is no justification for the school as a place where students do *only* the things they would do if they were not in school. But if control results in artificiality and isolation from social surroundings, it defeats its own purposes, for then the students are deprived of the most precious learnings.

Furthermore, few schools attempt to follow their students after the time of graduation. If the graduate goes to college, the responsibility for his further guidance is passed on to the higher institution. If he goes to work, or enters the army of unemployed youth, too often he is left to find his way alone in the network of economic and political institutions and practices which are vaguely familiar to him through reading and casual observation, but whose ways he has never before had to trace alone.

The Gap between School and Community Can Be Bridged

The principal was right. There is a gap between the school and the out-of-school world. Can it be bridged? Even better, can it be filled, so that the separation between school and community will disappear? The answers to these questions are of great moment to all persons concerned with education for citizenship. Our efforts at civic education through courses of study, classroom methods, and school activities profit but little, if the results are not apparent in the lives of students after they leave the schools. Answers have been sought in the practices of the schools visited in this study, and of a few other schools whose work has been reported in writing. The conclusion seems justified that in some schools the gaps are being bridged and that in a few they are already filled.

The most promising practices observed and reported will be described in this chapter. The criteria for selection of the "most promising," here as elsewhere, are the "hallmarks of democratic education," as stated in Chapter I. No attempt will be made to include all the schools observed, or even all the community activities of students in any one school. Furthermore, we shall be concerned only with community activities in which students engage as a part of their school programs. It has been impracticable, in this exploratory study, to examine what school youth do in out-of-school time through agencies other than the school.

The reports will be grouped according to communities in which schools are located. (1) First are three schools in large cities, each of which serves a community of varied racial composition, with a relatively low income level for the large majority of families. (2) Next is a group of

schools in cities of more than 100,000 and in their residential suburbs. The suburban schools are in relatively wealthy communities. Most of the others have cross-section student bodies. (3) These are followed by schools in small cities and towns, representing a variety of community types. (4) Finally come schools in rural districts, or in towns whose interests are primarily agricultural. Underlying the reporting of these practices is the conviction that what these schools are now doing, other schools in comparable communities can do also.

*A School Leads Its Community
in Great Social Advances*

Let us look first at the three public high schools in large cities, in communities of many races and nationalities with relatively low income levels. The Benjamin Franklin High School in New York City draws its boys from East Harlem and Yorkville, two communities composed of many racial and national groups, among which Italian and Spanish-speaking groups predominate. In East Harlem 15 percent of the children and youth between the ages of ten and nineteen are native-born of native-born parents, 10 percent are Negroes, while 75 percent are foreign-born or of foreign parentage. In this area the problems of education are complicated by many factors not present in most school districts. Diversity of racial heritage and tradition makes for racial misunderstandings and antagonisms. Unsanitary dwellings, congestion in housing, lack of play space, low income, and a high percentage of families on relief are other social factors which determine the conditions of life.

What should a school located in such an area attempt to do in leading youth to participate in community activi-

ties? What should be the nature of such activities? The answer of the Benjamin Franklin High School is clear.

To fulfil its functions . . . the school must necessarily become the center of community life in its own neighborhood, a clearing-house, if you will, for all neighborhood ideas, programs, and enthusiasms. It must aid in correlating these according to an effective plan through which the well-being of the community as a whole may be forwarded and insured. It must establish intimate contacts with the children, the adults, the homes, the welfare organizations, and even the business interests of the community. The range of such activities comprises the background of the educational process within the school itself.¹

The boys at Benjamin Franklin have carried on a number of community activities which show that this school is putting its policy into practice. Some years ago they helped to form the Friends and Neighbors Club. One of the chief purposes of this club is to help establish a friendly understanding between the different racial groups in the community. Let us hear what three boys of the school say about this enterprise.

It was formed about two years ago when two adjacent stores were taken over by the school with the agreement that they would be rent-free for a year if the school would put them in presentable condition. Many of the stores on our block had not been rented for years, and they were so dilapidated that they were useless unless they could be renovated. Since the Board of Education does not provide funds for any of these outside club activities, the people of the community joined with the students of Benjamin Franklin in making the necessary repairs. Moreover, they donated furniture, books, and magazines. The year being up, the school started paying a rent of ten dollars a month. The money for the rent, light, and other necessities was raised entirely by donations, from rich and poor alike, and all services to the clubs have been entirely voluntary and gratis.

This clubroom is used regularly every day of the week except Sunday, when it is open for special use only. Except for a few classes of adults from the neighborhood, the club is left free in the morning and early afternoon for use by high-school students and faculty.

¹ Covello, Leonard (Principal of Benjamin Franklin High School). "The School as the Center of Community Life in an Immigrant Area." *The Community School*. (Edited by Samuel Everett.) New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938. p. 127.

when, for example, they may hold an informal meeting or lesson during school hours. In the afternoon, however, the club has a definite program. Also, each day an hour or so is set aside for reading stories to the neighborhood children. Each Monday evening there is a meeting of the Housing Committee, which is composed of adults from the community and Franklin students. Its main objective is putting into effect the East River Drive Low Rent Housing Project. At various times during the week there are meetings of the WPA adult classes and first-aid classes.

The clubroom is also open to use by boys clubs of the neighborhood. The programs of such clubs are not fixed by the school; the only requirement placed upon them is that they maintain order and a democratic procedure. Only recently an important meeting was called by the Inter-Racial Understanding Committee at the Friends and Neighbors Club, at which all the nationalities of East Harlem were represented. Although many important results were reached at this meeting, among which was the setting of the date for an International Fiesta this fall, the most significant thing about this meeting was the tremendous amount of cooperation and understanding displayed by all, each group sacrificing its own interests for the benefit of the community as a whole.²

With the cooperation of people in the neighborhood, the boys of Benjamin Franklin also established the Community Friendship Club, another illustration of cooperative civic effort. Again we take the story from the boys themselves.

Another club, similar to the Friends and Neighbors Club, is the Community Friendship Club which got its start about six months ago. The clubroom . . . is also a store on East 108th Street. It, too, was an old, dilapidated, and junk-filled store and had not been rented in many years. With Franklin students and people in the community working together, the place was cleaned, plastered and painted, and furnished by gifts from the neighborhood people. As with the Friends and Neighbors Club, all funds for running expenses are raised by donations, and all services to the club are given without thought of personal gain.

This club is under the supervision of the Alumni Association and one of its chief aims is to keep "drop-outs" in a close friendly contact with the school and their former classmates. The dances fre-

² Lombardo, Michael; Bayza, Joseph; and Kramm, Leonard. "Franklin High is Community Centered." *Junior Red Cross Journal* 16: 54: October 1939. The three boys received \$25 for this article and gave the whole amount to the Community Fund for community-school work.

quently given here by the "drop-outs" and boys clubs have added a lot to friendliness and enjoyment in both the school and the community.³

Yet another group working for community improvement is the Housing Committee, which includes representatives of the student body, the faculty, community leaders, city housing officials, and parents. This committee has met regularly once a week for more than a year. The immediate purposes of the committee were to secure a government low-rent housing project for the area and a new school building to replace the present old and inadequate structure. Long-time purposes of the committee included the establishment of more effective zoning to prevent the further incursion of industry into the tenement district and the East River water front, and the general improvement of housing conditions in the whole area.

A school and community celebration marked the recent achievement of one of the committee's major goals, namely, approval of the government low-cost housing project. This had been accomplished after months of hard work, which included setting up booths in local stores where signatures to a petition were gathered by the boys of the school and their parents, sending the petition to the mayor, sending letters and telegrams to housing officials, and holding public meetings. When word was finally received that the housing project was assured, the boys of the school and adults working on the program staged an appropriate celebration in the form of a victory parade through the neighborhood.

The work of the Housing Committee, however, has just begun. At the time of the staff visit, the committee was negotiating with the mayor for the appointment of an

³ Lombardo, Michael; Bayza, Joseph; and Kramm, Leonard, *ibid.*

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administrative representative in the City Housing Authority who would push the completion of the new housing project. Methods whereby families shall apply for the new apartments were under consideration, and also plans for more satisfactory zoning for the district. Recent action of the New York City Board of Education guarantees the erection of the new high-school building in the near future.

Thus, through democratic group action, great social objectives are being attained by adults and youth working together in a type of neighborhood which the undiscerning often consider barren soil for the production of intelligent citizenship.

A School Creates Beauty and Fosters Goodwill in Its Neighborhood

On the edge of the East Harlem district in New York City is the Wadleigh High School for girls, an old school with highly revered academic traditions. It is surrounded by an old and neglected white tenement district which until recently showed few signs of attempts at cleanliness and beautification. The streets were dirty. Windows in the school were regularly broken in large numbers during vacations. Nothing in the schoolyard was safe from marauding bands of youngsters. Friendly relations between the school and the neighborhood were markedly lacking.

Here, under the leadership of an enterprising principal, pupils, teachers, and parents are working together to improve the poor housing conditions. In the initial stages of the project the girls who lived in the block on which the school stands came together and formed the Block Beautiful Club. They began with a survey of their homes. The halls, dumbwaiters, airshafts, and streets before the houses were all examined. A record was made of the number of

rubbish cans used, the number of helpers who took care of the homes, and the dates when apartments had last been painted. Reports of the findings of this survey were compiled and sent to the city Departments of Sanitation, Buildings, and Health.

Nor were the teachers of the school idle. A teachers Block Beautiful Committee wrote letters to property owners of the block, to the city Departments of Sanitation and Buildings, and to the precinct police headquarters, asking that they send representatives to meet with people from the school and to discuss the conditions surrounding the school. In the meeting which followed there was some disposition on the part of the owners to blame the tenants for bad conditions. It was suggested that owners buy more rubbish containers and provide more and better paid janitorial service. The Department of Sanitation considered ways and means of keeping the streets clean. Provision was made for a subsequent meeting to continue a discussion of ways and means.

Tenants and school representatives also met together a few weeks later, and discussed landlord and tenant relationships and the possibilities of getting more cooperation from the police and the Department of Sanitation. Thus, through the initiative of students, a long process of community improvement was set in motion, beginning with the collection of data and the airing of grievances, and leading on to constructive attacks on problems.

Another activity which brought the school and neighborhood closer together occurred at Christmas, when the teachers and students of the school gave a party for the very young children of the neighborhood. Every girl in the school brought an ornament for the Christmas tree. The girls also contributed toys and other articles to fill the stockings of the 300 small children who came. The

party was a great success. "The tree remained in the court throughout the Christmas holidays," said a teacher, "as a token of Wadleigh's good will to Wadleigh's neighbors. Much to the surprise of skeptics, not an ornament was broken and for the first time in the memory of teachers and the custodial staff, not a window of the school was broken during the vacation."

A Spring Party was given later, sponsored by the art, English, and biology departments of the school. To this party the older boys and girls of the neighborhood brought their younger brothers and sisters. In preparation teachers had brought soil, the girls cheese boxes, and the chairman of the biology department seeds for planting in the boxes. Members of the Biology Club taught the children how to plant the seeds. Each child departed with his own flower box and seeds. A teacher reports some of the results:

There has been a general increased good will and interest on the part of the community in the school from the smallest boy to the oldest individual. There has also been increased interest in their homes on the part of the people who live in the community. Window boxes with beautiful ivy and other plants are now noticeable, and attractive new curtains are observed in many of the houses. The Department of Sanitation and the police have shown their increased interest by the fact that the blocks on which the school is located receive pressure flooding by eight o'clock each morning, and there is also constant police protection about the school itself. Apartment buildings have been painted and stores have less cluttered and neater window displays.

There are two aims, however, that have not, as yet, been realized: (1) a low-cost housing project for this area; (2) a new building for Wadleigh High School. The cost of land in the area, and the fact that Harlem has already a low-cost housing project, the Harlem River Houses, mitigated against the fulfillment of the first goal. Although the interest and the desire to give Wadleigh a new building exist, retrenchment in the education budget prevented any definite plans for a new building.

Several factors are common to the experiences reported for Benjamin Franklin and Wadleigh. The activities commenced when students faced problems which were of im-

mediate concern to themselves and their families. In each case, students were free to do something about the problems, and their discussions soon led to action. But as they attacked their immediate and relatively simple problems, they found that these led on to more difficult and complex questions. Partnerships were formed with older people—teachers, parents, and other citizens—and adults and youth together forged ahead into regions that students could not have entered alone—housing projects, new school buildings, cooperation with a number of governmental agencies, and so on. The worth of these experiences, as citizenship education for youth, is self-evident. These students were *practicing citizenship in the community through the school.*

A School Reaches Out to Serve the Community

The Abraham Lincoln High School is located in a section of Los Angeles known as Lincoln Heights, but serves a much larger area. A recent inquiry at the school showed that in the cases of 60 percent of the students, one or both parents were foreign-born. The largest groups are of Mexican and Italian descent, but many other nations, including Japan, are represented.

In the Lincoln Heights district, there is a great deal of poor housing and several small, congested areas. Poverty is widespread, many families depending on small and uncertain incomes from casual employment. The delinquency rate in 1938 was 25.7 per 1,000 of the 6-17 age group. The most harmful conditions are found in small, somewhat isolated neighborhoods, cut off from the rest of the community by topographical peculiarities.

What can a school do under such conditions to lead youth to participate in community citizenship activities?

One answer is found in the Junior Coordinating Council, organized at Abraham Lincoln in 1933. The council is composed of students in the high school who serve the community in a variety of ways. Some go to hospitals to teach handicrafts to patients and to give programs for shut-in children. Some supervise playgrounds for smaller children, and teach them music and handicrafts after school. Some tell stories to groups of very young children and run toy loan libraries. Some lead clubs for younger boys and girls. In many cases the students make their own contacts and arrangements for their services, although the group is guided by a teacher sponsor and the principal of the school.

These services, some of which require as much as two afternoons a week and a part of Saturday or Sunday, are given without thought of reward, for there are no rewards other than "the reward we get inside of us," as one student put it. Honors, awards, and emblems have no place here. The members of the council stated the matter simply, "We want people to join us, not because of honor credit, but because they want to give service."

The Junior Coordinating Council is increasingly working in cooperation with an adult group known as the Community Coordinating Council. The latter group is made up of representatives from the schools, the churches, the P.T.A., the city recreation department, the branch library, the Lincoln Heights Chamber of Commerce, and a number of other agencies concerned with the general welfare of the whole area. Through this closer partnership of youth and adults it is believed that a more effective and comprehensive attack may be made upon the needs of the district.

The activities which have been described in these first three schools are those particularly intended to meet the

peculiar needs of the types of communities in which these schools are located—metropolitan communities with racially mixed populations and generally low family incomes. These three schools also carried on a number of the activities to be described in connection with other urban schools. The reader who is particularly concerned with the type of community just described will find other examples of possible activities in the subsequent sections.

Students' Horizons Are Broadened through Field Trips

We turn now to high schools in larger cities and their suburbs, which serve either well-to-do or cross-section residential communities. The work of large city school systems will also be reported here. First come the Midwest Studies of the John Marshall High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota. A number of years ago one of the social studies teachers of this school spent several months in England. While there he was impressed by the great stress which was placed upon students' field trips. Upon his return to John Marshall he inspired the students and later the teachers of the school to support a program of field trips. This project is carried on apart from any particular course. Juniors and seniors meet separately once a week after school for several months, developing and evaluating the interview techniques which are to be used in their visits. Each student follows his own interests in choosing a subject to be explored. These meetings are also used for planning money-raising projects, and for the study of communities and agencies to be visited. The climax of the year's work for the seniors is reached in a visit of at least a week to another city at some distance from Minneapolis. Juniors take shorter trips to agencies in Minneapolis and nearby communities.

There are no scholastic requirements for joining either group. Each person is expected to do his best in the study of his own problem and in the cooperative efforts to raise funds so that all may go on the longer visits toward the end of the year. There is also the rigorous requirement that each student must attend all weekly meetings if possible.

The activities necessary for raising funds for the excursions offer many opportunities for the development of good habits of cooperative work and individual responsibility. First, each pupil pledges the amount of money he feels he can afford. Emphasis is laid on the value of his earning this money himself. One year eighty-six pupils pledged and paid \$604. The City Council gave the students free use of a lot near the University Stadium, which a committee of boys operated as a parking lot, raising \$86 for the trip fund. Christmas cards were sold by students with a net profit of \$350. A winter variety program brought in \$250. Newspaper and magazine collections raised an additional \$320.

Students are also responsible for completing the advance arrangements prior to a visit to any other community. Initial contacts are usually made through the Junior Chamber of Commerce in the community to be visited. Students write individuals and organizations in advance to inquire whether or not they may be interviewed or visited. If the answer is affirmative, students mail in advance the questions which the group wishes to ask of persons to be interviewed.

Every member of every group is responsible for writing up interviews, and for reviews of books and summaries of other literature in the area of his special interest. Typical of these special interest fields are courts and crime, governmental agencies, journalism, medicine, public health, schools, youth problems, art, music, and the theater.

Teachers of social studies, music, art, journalism, science, and other subjects meet with these interest groups, according to their qualifications to be helpful. The records of these visits show clearly that these boys and girls are able to delve beneath surface appearances and to understand the basic purposes of agencies and the problems involved in their work.

Field Trips Aid in the Understanding of Industrial Conditions

Last year, at the Ohio State University High School in Columbus, the junior class took an educational journey which is another example of democratic planning, of efficient execution, and of the firsthand study of important social problems. In the course of an occupational orientation program, students proposed that the group visit some large population centers and study directly how people earn their livings. After discussion, the proposal was accepted.

The next question was, "Where should they go?" Detroit, Pittsburgh, Washington, Philadelphia, and the TVA all had their supporters who made preliminary investigations of costs and educational advantages. It was suggested by a student that the president of the group appoint a student committee to write to parents for advice. This proposal was favorably received and a letter was prepared, stating the problem and a number of questions to be answered, with two appended pages of information describing the range of trips and purposes. Parental returns were tabulated by the committee. There was no decided preference, but Washington and Detroit ranked highest. Detroit was then chosen by the students on the second ballot.

A chairman for the trip was elected, and the group

proceeded to decide on the committees needed to carry out their plan. Here is the report of their action.

A transportation committee was needed to determine whether bus or train should be used and to arrange for safe and cheap travel.

A committee on trips within Detroit had extremely important work in prospect—to arrange by letters for all visits, to schedule a balanced program, to arrange exact time and other basic details with plants and speakers after we arrived in Detroit.

An entertainment committee was suggested to plan for unscheduled hours a balanced program of diversified amusement, with an allowance for sufficient rest and sleep.

A hotel and food committee was needed to arrange for inexpensive material comfort. Five dollars per person for food and hotel was the tentative group allocation for the three-day period.

A finance committee was to have as its function setting an exact minimum cost, collecting money in prearranged installments to meet group needs for transportation and hotel, and coordinating the financing of other committees.

An agreements committee was instituted to set up standards of intelligent behavior for individuals in the group enterprise.

A new parent-student committee was formed to continue the work of the committee which wrote home for advice on the most valuable trip. Its function was to keep parents informed on all developments in planning.¹

Twenty-five of the forty-one students were members of active responsible committees. The group assigned to these committees the responsibility for thoroughly investigating possibilities. Final decisions were to be reached by a vote of the whole group following reports. The parent-student committee kept the parents informed, as in the following communication:

The Junior Class this year has planned to go to Detroit. The general purpose of our trip is to study life in an industrial city. We plan to stop at Toledo to see a glass factory, which is a subsidiary of the Ford Motor Company. In Detroit, we intend to visit the Ford plant, the Chrysler plant, the General Motors Research Laboratory, Greenfield Village, art galleries, museums, and housing projects.

We will hear representatives of the Ford and Chrysler motor companies, a speaker for the United Automobile Workers Union, a representative of the government on the relations between industry and labor.

¹ Van Til, William. "Youth Visits Industrial Detroit." *Educational Method* 18:266-71; March 1939.

We believe a discussion of student problems in which Detroit students would participate could be very valuable to us.

The trip, however, will not be all work, for we plan to take an excursion to Canada and we will also have some of the evenings for theaters and other forms of amusement. The entire cost of the Detroit trip will be approximately \$15. This figure includes transportation, food, hotel, and entertainment.⁵

Students interviewed both industrial executives and representatives of the United Automobile Workers on problems of labor relations in industry. They had studied these questions before going to Detroit, with the aid of a social studies teacher. They were prepared to talk intelligently on the matters to be investigated.

Nine months later, when planning a senior trip, the same group evaluated the Detroit visit. Here are excerpts from two statements, typical of the rest:

I think trips are loads of fun. This doesn't mean that I don't think they are educational too. It is because they are fun that we learn so much. Everything that we saw and heard during our trip was experienced in pleasant surroundings and came to us in a form that didn't seem like work. Thus we were more ready to listen and think about it. This experience and gathered knowledge will probably remain with us for the rest of our lives . . .

The main thing I got out of the Detroit trip was the ability to see two sides to labor and governmental questions. . . . After seeing myself what is good and bad in labor unions I can draw my own conclusions much better.⁶

Ten students in the class of fifty-one decided that they could not go to Detroit, largely because of financial reasons. These students met together and planned a series of local trips for the period when their classmates would be

⁵ Van Til, William, *ibid*, p. 269.

⁶ Van Til, William, *ibid*, p. 271. See also the following descriptions of educational field trips by students of the George School, in Pennsylvania, and of the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University: Abraham, Herbert J. "Let's Interview the Government." *Educational Method* 17:16-19, October 1937; and Lucke, Elmina R. "Travel Toward Economic Realities." *Progressive Education* 15:617-28; December 1938.

away. The following year, when the class as seniors planned to visit New York City, the problem of economic selection was vigorously attacked. The group raised money through class projects. Earnest discussions followed on what was the democratic thing to do with the money raised, and with the unnamed people who couldn't afford to pay all the costs of the trip. Should the group money be divided equally among all? Should the group money be used by those who needed additional assistance if they were to undertake the trip? Social-economic implications of each possibility were worked out in class discussions. The students finally adopted the following plan. They determined the total cost of transportation and hotel for the group. Each person contributed toward this pool, as best he could, an amount known only to the teacher. Most paid in the average amount. Some paid in more. Some paid in less. All money raised by class activities went into the pool. The treasurer used the total sum to pay for transportation and hotel. Beyond this each individual paid personally for his own food and recreation, and varying sums of money, of course, were spent. Through such an arrangement all who wished to could go on the New York City trip; yet no one was completely subsidized.

Students Make Useful Surveys of Their Own Communities

In Schenectady, New York, the upper classmen of the high schools make periodic job opportunity surveys of this industrial city. Here also careful advance preparation is considered necessary for the best results. The technique used by the students and teachers of the Mont Pleasant, Nott Terrace, and Vocational High Schools of the city, is outlined in a mimeographed publication entitled the *Job*

*Opportunity Survey.*⁷ This project is the joint enterprise of the Department of Public Instruction and the Chamber of Commerce. The upper classmen of the three schools visit more than three thousand business and professional enterprises in the city. A staff of teachers procures data from the larger firms.

Every employer receives a written statement prior to the interview, while canvassers are given thorough training in the interview technique. Upon entering an establishment, the canvasser goes directly to the person who seems to be in charge. He then shows a letter from the Chamber of Commerce explaining his mission and asks to talk with the employment manager. If the employer seems hostile or uncooperative, the interviewer explains the nature of the study and stresses the fact that the data gathered will be used for educational purposes only. The boys and girls carrying on this work are instructed not to enter "offices of doctors, dentists, chiropractors, or osteopaths; rooming or boarding houses; and large enterprises which obviously would employ more than fifty persons."⁸ They are also told to keep their eyes open for new business houses on the streets assigned to them.

In addition to securing and recording the factual information about employment, the interviewers attempt to get the opinions of employers as to the type of school preparation needed by young people whom they employ.

The data collected in the Schenectady job opportunity survey are valuable in guiding young people in that city into occupational fields. The high schools also use this information in revising their commercial and industrial

⁷ Schenectady Department of Public Instruction. *Job Opportunity Survey. A Manual of Instructions for Canvassers.* Schenectady, N. Y.: the Department, 1939.

⁸ Schenectady Department of Public Instruction, *ibid.*

courses. Of equal importance, however, are the students' educational experiences in doing a socially useful job, coming into close contact with the workaday world, and dealing with many different types of people. Additional values for citizenship appear when the social problems uncovered by the study—problems of unemployment, wages, hours of work, old age and health insurance, and the like—become the subjects of study in the curriculum of the schools.

Somewhat different in purpose, but employing comparable techniques, was a recreational survey carried on by the students of the five senior high schools in Denver, Colorado.* This project was initiated by the Denver chapter of the National League of Women Voters. School officials welcomed the opportunity for the schools to join with this civic group in working on a community problem.

Each of the five high schools was given the responsibility for surveying the recreational facilities, needs, and possibilities of its own district. One teacher in each of the schools was chosen to organize the students for this work. Each of these five teachers chose five student leaders in his school, who, in turn, explained the nature of the survey and of the questionnaires to the large group of boys and girls making the study. The technique of interviewing was similar to that used in Schenectady.

The questionnaires, one of which was filled out for each recreational unit, contained such items as sources of financial support; list of clubrooms, gymnasiums, and other facilities; days and hours open to the public; nature of activities carried on; age groups served; leadership, patronage, and recognized needs. Spot maps were produced showing all the recreational units, classified according to the types of supporting agencies. These maps readily indicated

* Harper, Florence S. "Students Make a Recreational Survey." *Educational Method* 18:279-83; March 1939.

the areas in which there were inadequate or poor leisure-time facilities.

Students engaged in the survey repeatedly raised the question, "Is this work going to be put on the shelf or will it be used?" They wanted it to be used, of course, but instead of leaving this matter in the hands of others, they took the initiative. A high-school sociology class wrote the script and broadcast a radio program which dramatized the effects of lack of recreational facilities and services in underprivileged districts. Other students invited representatives from every organized group interested in recreational matters to attend a meeting at which the students explained the survey and its findings. Here again students learned citizenship by grappling with a civic problem which lay close at hand.

*In a Summer Camp, Students Work
and Learn about Workers*

Many of the students in the Fieldston School in New York City, like thousands of others reared in large cities, would normally grow to adulthood without once doing a hard day's work with their hands. Some of their teachers are convinced that it is not a good thing to grow up without genuine experience of manual labor—especially if one follows an adult career which is likewise limited to intellectual labor. Furthermore, these teachers believe that the work situation has unique values as a base of operations for the investigation of problems of industry, labor, and agriculture, with which every citizen should be familiar, regardless of his occupation. So, for each of the past two summers, a group of students from this school, together with students from several other secondary schools, have spent eight weeks at a farm in nearby New Jersey, maintained by the Hudson Guild Community House in New York as

a place where underprivileged families and young people from the city may go for inexpensive vacations.

The summers at the farm were never looked upon as vacations for the students. There was work to be done, and the students were there to do it. Buildings and fences needed repairing, land needed clearing, and the farm was short of hands to do the regular work needed to keep it running. The students were willing to pay for the chance to do this work, because they believed they would learn things here that they could never get from books and classrooms alone.

These are a few of the jobs they have done. They took an old farm house, replastered the entire interior, put in new floors, new window frames, new screens, shored up the front porch, painted the house inside and out—and had the satisfaction of seeing a family enjoy the results of their handiwork. They cleared land for reforestation, repaired fences, and helped with haying, feeding, milking, cooking, dishwashing, and laundering, as well as in a nursery for small children. In addition, they took care of their own camp, pitched on a nearby hillside.

The work experience opened the door to other valuable learnings. Once a week each student went on an excursion, in the company of eight or nine other students and an adult counselor. Themselves workers for the time being, the students were better able to understand people who must live always by the toil of their hands. They visited the coal fields at Scranton, the slate quarries at Bangor, an iron mine, a silk mill, and the Jersey Homesteads, a cooperative community near Hightstown. They saw unemployed miners earning a bare subsistence by working abandoned outcroppings. They learned about unemployment, the need for relief, and the evils of relief when too long continued. They talked with workers in factories, on farms, and in underground

tunnels, and came away with deeper understanding of the workers' points of view.

Visitors were invited to the camp frequently, usually to talk to the students about social and economic problems of the surrounding area. One evening a week was set aside for discussion, and the subjects grew naturally out of the field trips, the talks by visitors, and the life and work of the camp. Teachers reported that marked changes were perceptible in these discussions as the weeks passed, the students growing more thoughtful, more tolerant, and more considerate of others.

Last but by no means least in educational value was the experience of living together for eight weeks in a democratic group, charged with the responsibility for managing its own affairs. The camp community made its own decisions as to work projects, assignments of jobs, length of the working day, social and recreational activities, rules of conduct, and all the other problems growing out of camp life. Counselors took their fair share of responsibilities, but no more. In the camp council, each counselor had one vote. So the camp became a laboratory for democratic living.¹¹

Youths Learn To Give to the Needy through Social Agencies

In Shaker High School, located in Shaker Heights, a well-to-do residential suburb of Cleveland, Ohio, teachers and students have been working to base their giving to the unfortunate on respect for the people who receive the gifts. It is common practice in American secondary schools for

¹¹ See also: Munzer, Martha. "A Second Year of Work Camp Education." *Progressive Education* 17:255-59; April 1940. Robinson, Ormsbee, and Munzer, Martha. "High School Students' Experiences in the Hudson Guild Summer Work Camp." *Progressive Education* 15:636-41; December 1938. Yarmolinsky, Adam. "Work Camp Holiday." *Junior Red Cross Journal*, April 1939.

students to help needy families through gifts of food, clothing, and other supplies, especially at Thanksgiving and Christmas. But in some such instances, the effects on both givers and recipients seem to be unfortunate. In making their gifts, students sometimes invade the privacy of the homes of the recipients in such a manner as to humiliate parents before their own children. A condescending, self-righteous attitude tends to prevent sympathetic understanding on the part of the giver and to damage the self-respect of the receiver.

At Shaker High School, efforts are being made to avoid these undesirable attitudes and practices, while increasing the amount of giving. Assistance to needy families is planned and carried out in cooperation with the Council of Social Agencies. The Council selects the families who are in need and reports their needs, but not their names, to the school. Each class then takes responsibility for one or more families, studying the food, clothing, and health needs as reported by the Council, and working out a plan for gifts intended to meet these needs.

Students at Shaker Heights are also active in Community Chest fund drives, the student organizations being responsible for carrying on the campaign within the school. Stress is placed in the campaigns upon giving as a social responsibility in the interests of the general welfare, and care is taken to avoid invidious distinctions between those who are able to give and those who benefit from the services of chest agencies.

Students Render Many Services to the Unfortunate

The singing of the 2800 Negro students of Parker High School, Birmingham, Alabama, was well described by Lawrence Tibbett as "a majestic symphony of voices." Once a

year these students give a choral concert in the municipal stadium in Birmingham, to which an admission of ten cents is charged. The proceeds from this concert, about \$300 a year, are contributed to a camp for underprivileged children. Every student in the school is a member of the Junior Red Cross, and through this organization, groups of students go out frequently to sing and otherwise entertain shut-in patients in hospitals and veterans' sanitariums. The Girl Reserve group gives programs of readings and music at the old people's home, and raises money to send six or more underprivileged girls to summer camp each year. Although most of the students in this school come from homes with low incomes, the boys and girls contributed \$328 to the Community Chest last year, as well as generous offerings of baskets of food at Thanksgiving and Christmas.

Students in another Negro school, the Atlanta University Laboratory School, show comparable concern for the welfare of the unfortunate. They take an active part in the seal-sale campaign of the Atlanta Tuberculosis Association, contribute to the support of a community center for Negroes in rural Georgia, help needy families at Thanksgiving and Christmas through the County Child Welfare Association, and renovate toys for a day nursery.

Youths Meet Parents across the Conference Table

In Rochester, New York, groups of students and parents have been attempting to solve some of the many complicated problems involved in relationships between the older and the younger generations. Here a series of weekly parent-youth conferences have recently been held, the chief purpose of which was to offer opportunities for parents and youth to work toward more sympathetic understand-

ings and wholehearted cooperation on matters of common concern.

This project began in February 1938 when a group of parents decided to go to their children for suggestions for their study program. Six boys and six girls from the twelfth grade were invited to sit on a panel to discuss the question, "What subjects might parents study together that would make them better able to help young people in meeting their everyday problems?" This meeting was so productive of helpful suggestions, that students were asked to take part in the subsequent weekly discussions of the subjects proposed at the first meeting. After that there were many requests from parents' groups for similar panels. During 1938-39 eighteen such discussions were carried on, with seventy-five young people participating.

Students Initiate Action for Civic Improvement

In Theodore Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Iowa, several teachers have taken the position that whenever the study of any subject in school leads naturally to a desire for social action on the part of students, such action should be permitted, even encouraged, when it is appropriate to the subject studied. On the other hand, these teachers insist that such action should never be forced by teachers. The administration of the Des Moines schools has been in general agreement with these views. As a result, at least three "social action" projects have originated in the Roosevelt School which have led students far into actual participation in the political life of Des Moines, and which have also extended to the other high schools of the city.¹¹

¹¹ Firsthand contacts of staff members is supplemented by an unpublished report made by Henry Harap to the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education.

In one class, during the study of various types of city government, the question arose, "Should Des Moines have a city-manager government?" This problem evoked a surprising response from the students. Their interest knew no geographical bounds. Several of them investigated at first-hand the city manager systems in Dallas and Kansas City during their Christmas holiday. Others secured written information about the city-manager plan in Cincinnati and other large cities. They found that a change in the city charter was necessary before Des Moines could have a city-manager government, and that this change of charter could be initiated by a petition.

The cooperation of students from two other high schools was enlisted. A group of fifty students drew up a petition, mimeographed it and went forth in search of signatures and recruits to their campaign. In three months' time they had collected 4500 signatures, which was about half of the required number. At this point the petition was turned over to an adult citizens organization for completion. Not all students favored the proposed change of government. A sizeable opposition group developed and the issue was debated freely.

School officials made it clear from the beginning that the schools were not advocating this change in government. The students carried on their campaign activities apart from class work and outside of school hours. The opponents of the plan were given the same opportunities to organize as the proponents. School officials, however, did not hesitate to defend the rights of students to undertake such a project or to approve their active interest in this civic issue. They understood that the students were gaining a practical knowledge of the operation of city government and an insight into the difficulties of effecting political

change, beyond anything which could come from classrooms and books alone.

In another class, students who were studying the franchise and popular government felt that the small percentage of qualified voters who exercise their voting privileges constitutes a threat to democracy. They decided to see what they could do about it in Des Moines. A get-out-the-vote campaign resulted. Over two hundred Roosevelt High-School students solicited six thousand persons in this school district, urging qualified voters to register and vote. Students also appeared before civic clubs and public forums, made radio appeals, obtained space in newspapers, and planned and staged an impressive parade through the downtown districts on the Saturday before election.

The War Stirs Youth to Concern over National Policies

Still another "social action" project was in process at Roosevelt High School at the time of the staff visit in December 1939. A senior social studies class was studying the European war, and students raised the question, "Is there anything we students can do to keep the United States out of the war?" As a result, committees of students were sent from Roosevelt to other high schools in the city, to discuss the question at school assemblies, after which delegates to an all-city meeting were chosen by the senior social studies classes of the several schools. At this general meeting, a committee was set up to get in touch with national peace organizations and with interested adults in the community. Plans were laid for drawing up a statement of the students' point of view which could be sent to their representatives in Congress.

We turn now to schools in smaller cities and towns. There is no fundamental difference between community

activities in these schools and the activities which have just been described. It is less difficult, however, in the smaller cities, to study the community as a whole and to deal with community problems in their entirety.

In the Burbank, California, High School, as in Des Moines, students had taken an active interest in the relation of the United States to the European war, just prior to the staff visit. In the fall of 1939, students in the senior class drew up a petition and sent it to their Senators and Representative in Washington. One hundred and six students signed the petition, which follows:

As students of Burbank Senior High School we keenly feel the need of making our voices heard in the affairs of our nation. We are so vitally interested because we realize that the decisions of you, our representative in Washington, will have a life or death effect on us, the future voters of America. We also realize, all too sadly, that the majority of people do not avail themselves of the right of self-expression given them by their Constitution.

Therefore, we hopefully submit the enclosed petition, which was drawn up and signed by our senior class.

We, the present students of Burbank Senior High School, under the right to petition granted us in Amendment I of the Constitution of the United States, do hereby respectfully submit our views regarding the American Foreign Policy:

- I. Since it is we who are to carry the guns and stop the bullets in the next war, it is we, therefore, who demand the right when we are citizens to vote whether or not we should go into an offensive war.
- II. The government of the United States should take immediate control of the manufacture of all arms and munitions.
- III. The President of the United States should invoke the Neutrality Act in the case of any foreign war, declared or undeclared. He should put it into effect at once in the Chinese-Japanese conflict. The Neutrality Act should be amended so that our country will not give aid to aggressor nations.
- IV. Excessive war profits by private concerns should be eliminated by taxation and fixed prices at time of war.
- V. We agree with the present foreign policy of considering North and South America our proper defense zone.
- VI. We pledge our support to the present policy of strengthening the Army, Navy, and Air Force for the protection of both coasts.

VII. We believe that the United States should have no military alliances with any nation, but that reciprocal trade treaties should be promoted with *all* nations.

We sincerely petition you to consider these, our views, as a basis for legislation in the present Congress.

Students' Efforts Bring Playgrounds and Better Health

Radford, Virginia, High School is located in a small industrial city with a population of approximately 5600 whites and 600 Negroes. During the past two years, students in this school have started movements for the improvement of public recreation and public health—movements which grew out of the needs of this community in the same way that campaigns for housing projects and better zoning laws grew from the needs of New York's Upper East Side.

The playground movement started in the fall of 1938 with the younger students, the ninth-graders, and their teachers. They were studying a unit on "Improving Urban Culture" and began to examine their own community. They found that Radford had no public playgrounds apart from the schools, and no supervision for playgrounds during out-of-school hours. So they invited the commonwealth attorney of the city to come to the school and discuss with them the possibilities of establishing a system of public playgrounds in Radford. With the aid of his suggestions, the class outlined the following steps and assigned a group of students to work on each:

1. Investigating present playground facilities
2. Estimating the amount of necessary equipment
3. Locating possible sites for playgrounds
4. Collecting statistics on juvenile delinquency and possible causes for it
5. Presenting the idea to the entire student body for approval

6. Issuing questionnaires to the leading businessmen on the need for a playground
7. Soliciting boys in school to give free help towards developing a suitable ground
8. Preparing a petition to be presented to the city manager and city council.

All signed petitions and promises of work on grounds were presented to the city council in May 1939 by a spokesman from the ninth grade, supported by twenty-five students from all four high-school classes. The city manager selected a committee from the council to meet with a student group for further discussion and planning. The superintendent of schools assisted by presenting the proposal to clubs and civic organizations.

As a result of these efforts, the Community Chest set aside \$500 toward paying the salary of a playground director, the city council passed an ordinance creating a recreation commission, and the commission appointed a playground director. The city council was also asked to help finance the costs. At the time of writing, comprehensive plans for the program were being formulated by the director and the commission. Thus within a year the students had the satisfaction of seeing their idea approach realization.

During the preceding year, when the ninth-grade students of Radford High School came to the unit on "Health Protection in an Urban Community," they decided to embark on a new project, a study of venereal diseases. The entire group of ninety-five students took part. To obtain the necessary factual background, data were collected on the effects of venereal diseases, the prevalence of these diseases in the United States and elsewhere, methods of diagnosing and treating them, and present efforts to combat them in the United States.

As the project developed, the students began to consider what they might do in Radford to help prevent, diagnose, and cure these diseases. Editorials were written for the local paper. Letters were written to state and national representatives requesting them to support bills requiring physical examinations before marriage. Requests were made at public eating and drinking places that paper cups be used instead of glasses for patrons. As a result, drug stores began to use paper cups. As a part of the project, approximately 90 percent of the ninth-grade class took the Wasserman test. Local physicians were consulted throughout the study, and gave the tests free of charge, after parents had signed blanks giving their consent.

The next year the eleventh grade made an even more intensive study of the broad problems of public health. As an outgrowth of their work, tuberculin tests were given to practically all the students in the school. One permanent result of these projects was the recognition by many students of the importance of scientific tests to detect and diagnose disease. Another result, of great value to the community, was the action of local public health officials in providing a clinic for testing and for the treatment of patients suffering from venereal diseases. A number of leading citizens have expressed the belief that the health projects begun by the students have done much to educate all the people of the community about health and to bring about proper acceptance of public responsibility in health matters.

Students Learn That Citizenship Requires Personal Service

The George School, a boarding school under the auspices of the Society of Friends, is located in a rural area in Bucks County, Pennsylvania, not far from Philadelphia, and

within walking distance of two villages. Under these circumstances, it would be easy for the school to become a self-contained world, lacking both concern and contacts with the community around it. The strong service traditions of the Society of Friends and the example and influence of the teaching staff have combined to prevent such isolation.

The Girls Social Guild is one of the most active of the school's organizations and through it students perform a variety of community services. The Guild keeps in touch with local relief officials and attempts to aid families in need in the nearby villages. On numerous occasions, girls from the school have gone to homes, in emergency situations, to clean, cook, take care of children, and render other necessary services. Girls from the school also assist in a nearby nursery school for children from low-income families. The Guild supports a classroom in a Negro school in South Carolina, and correspondence is exchanged frequently between the two schools. Children from a settlement house in Philadelphia are brought to the George School from time to time, for a day's vacation in the country, and students from the school visit the settlement house. Several students have been teaching Sunday School classes in a Negro church in one of the villages.

The point of view underlying the service program was expressed by one member of the faculty in these words: "It is the aim of the school to develop the idea that social participation is not primarily a matter of giving money, but is rather an obligation to give personal services. Furthermore, many of our students have but little money to give. Some, on the other hand, are able to give relatively large amounts. But all have services to give. So, when social participation is placed on the basis of giving personal services, all have equal opportunity to contribute."

Youths Help Plan a Community Recreational Program

In Dowagiac, Michigan, a town of 5800 population, high-school students are active in an extensive community program, serving both in-school and out-of-school youth. The problem of wholesome recreation for the young people of Dowagiac has been increasingly difficult. Thousands of people from nearby cities come into the region for week-ends at resorts. Many dance halls and beer gardens cater to the visitors and residents alike.

In the fall of 1936 an attempt was made to discover what the youths themselves wanted in the way of recreational facilities.¹² A questionnaire was given out to young people through the public schools, Sunday School classes, the county normal class, and other organizations that had youth membership. Every effort was made to get full and frank reactions to the listed questions. As a result of the needs revealed in the answers, the Dowagiac Youth Organization was formed. The three main aspects of the community youth program adopted by the organization were a recreational center, social dances, and forums. Funds were furnished through a local private foundation.

When the Dowagiac Community Plan was established in 1938, the Youth Organization became a member. Thus, the youth of Dowagiac are now actively cooperating with the many other member groups of the Community Plan in working out problems of adults, as well as of young people.

¹² Gulick, Leeds (Director, Dowagiac Community Plan). *Dowagiac Community Plan*. Dowagiac, Mich., 1939, 12 p. (Mimeo.) Includes "Community Cooperation," "The Community Plan in Action, 1938-39," "Report of Activities from October to June, Inclusive, 1938-39," and "The Dowagiac Youth Organization."

Schools Take the Lead in an Annual Community Festival

In Holland, Michigan, a city of some 16,000 people, largely of Dutch ancestry, school youth are participating in a number of useful community enterprises under the guidance of the teachers of the Holland public schools. Holland is widely known for its annual spring tulip festival, in which teachers and pupils of both elementary and high schools have a large part, and which originated with one of the high-school teachers. Here is a teacher's report on the festival:

Hollanders, young and old, participate in the city's annual Tulip Time festivities. Throughout the entire week the schools enter into the activities, beginning with the "Street Scrubbing" and "Parade of the People" on the opening day. When the "burgemeester" sounds the call for scrubbers, adults and school children, costumed as Dutchmen, respond with brooms and buckets. The scrubbing finished, three hundred wooden shoe dancers make their appearance and perform over the full length of the scrubbed street. These dancers are all physical education students of the junior and senior high schools.

A "Parade of the Schools" is held during Tulip Week. Sometimes each school represents a province of the Netherlands, sometimes an industry of the Netherlands. The parade invariably includes a group on bicycles, a group of skaters, and a group of hoop rollers, these all being popular Dutch sports. Each evening the park is the scene of an "On The Green" program, presented by the three hundred costumed and wooden-shod dancers from the schools.

One of the major projects of the week is "Tulip Tales," a pageant depicting "The Tulip in Nature" and "The Tulip in History." Six hundred persons are associated with this dramatic spectacle. School children from kindergarten through high school, teachers, citizens, and the mayor himself are all linked together in the cast.

A School Demonstrates Conservation of Forests and Wild Life

At the time of the tulip festival a conservation and nature exhibit is presented by students of the biology department of the Holland High School as a means of interesting the people of the community in conservation.

Each division of the exhibit is assigned to a committee of students who are given full charge of planning each booth, placing the exhibit in position, and demonstrating and explaining the displays to visitors. Student committees on common Michigan birds, game birds, enemies of birds, common insect pests, bird protection, and home landscaping indicate the scope of the students' conservation interests. The teacher whose students are in charge of the enterprise gives a running description of the exhibits:

As we enter the auditorium we are impressed by the natural woodland effect made possible by the artistic placing of scores of Norway spruce trees. An alert sophomore girl greets us and offers to guide us through the exhibit. At the first booth, in an appropriate setting of trees, mounted birds, and flowers, is displayed a model of the school forest, the work of one of the girl students. It is carefully worked out to scale, showing the forest as it will look when reforestation is completed. Here also is to be found a miniature apple tree rooted in a box of earth on which a group of students have so arranged leaves, flowers, fruits, and bare branches as to graphically represent all the processes of a tree through each of the four seasons.

In the next booth common song birds of the region are displayed with various pictures, charts, projects, and devices to show the economic importance of these birds. We move on with a stronger feeling that these bird friends should be protected. A group of girls have arranged the next display, which represents the correct ideas and methods in modern landscaping. A model house and lawn shows a suitably planned and correctly landscaped yard. Arranged across the front of the stage is a series of tanks in which is a large collection of common Michigan fish. These were installed and taken care of during the week by an attendant from a fish hatchery of the state conservation department.

The rural school display shows the fine work done along conservation lines in the classroom and in 4-H Club work in the county. We are told that the following Friday is set aside as rural school day at which time many school groups will visit the exhibit, view the motion pictures, and listen to a special program. A schedule is worked out for the week providing an opportunity for every child in the city to visit the exhibit in the morning either with his parents or in a school group.

The school forest, featured in one of the displays at the exhibit, is another constructive community enterprise. For many years, Holland boys and girls had engaged in the landscaping of school grounds and in the planting of

trees and shrubs around the athletic field, in city parks, and along the roadsides. But the field for activities of this type gradually decreased. Then came a suggestion from the Extension Forester at the University of Michigan, that the school develop a community forest. New possibilities for extending this type of activity at once presented themselves. Through the persistent efforts of a teacher and the generosity of a citizen, a forty-acre tract of land about five miles from town was secured. The soil is light and sandy and was covered by a scattered growth of wild red cherry trees at the time of its purchase. Numerous sand blow patches and a huge sand hill challenged the best efforts of students in erosion control.

In the spring of 1933 seedling trees were ordered from the state nursery, from the Michigan State College, and from the University of Michigan. With the advice of experts from these state agencies, the boys and girls of the school made tremendous improvements in this area. During the first year, they planted 1200 white pine seedlings, 3600 red pine seedlings, 250 white spruce, and 100 maples. An old orchard was pruned. Trees were trimmed along the roadside. The brush thus obtained was put in windrows on the sand hill. Beach grass was planted on sand blow patches. Maps were made of the future forest area. Fire breaks were plowed and clean-up work was done. Through each of the six succeeding years, the students have worked steadily and industriously on improving the forest. Let the teacher most closely associated with the project tell its story:

The work on the forest is done by the boys in the biology classes organized into squads, each with a squad leader who is directly responsible to the instructor in charge. Each year the number of boys at work at the forest increases, and the amount and variety of work increase as new experience is gained. Several types of work are now carried on: the planting of seedling trees and transplants, inspection and care of the trees, setting up and caring for seed and transplant beds, sand blow

control, fire protection, landscaping, and maintenance and clean-up work. When at work on the forest the boys are excused from their other classes and usually remain out all day, with lunch and a brief recreation period at noon.

The girls assist whenever the type of work permits. They have helped in mulching the young trees; in making landscaping plans; in cleaning the cabin and surrounding yard; in making curtains, quilts, rugs, etc., to furnish the cabin; in making models of the forest for exhibits; and in keeping "open house" for visitors.

Looking back six years to the beginning of the project, one realizes that much has been accomplished. The work was planned to extend over several years so that many classes could participate. To date more than three-quarters of the area has been reforested, requiring nearly 50,000 seedling trees. Some of the planting has failed during the dry seasons, but each year this has been replanted, and all of the sand blows have been successfully checked. The cabin has been furnished. Rustic seats, pergolas, and signs have been built and all have been given a coat of brown stain each year. The corner around the cabin has been landscaped. Norway spruce trees have been planted for Christmas trees, seed and transplant beds have been set up as an embryo nursery, and the completion of hard maple planting along the highway is going forward. Beautiful field stone entrance pillars and a four-unit outdoor fireplace have been built.

The project is providing an excellent demonstration of what can be done to reclaim the sand-blown areas of Ottawa County and to beautify, very cheaply, much of the resort property along Lake Michigan. The students are keenly interested in the work and besides acquiring valuable practical knowledge, they are afforded many opportunities for wholesome self-expression and are helped in developing a finer appreciation of the beauty around them. It has helped many to become definitely interested in forestry and landscaping as a vocation. Community interest in the project is steadily increasing and a fine spirit of cooperation between the townspeople and the schools has been promoted. Finally the forest is a distinct contribution to the scenic beauty of a fine resort area in the dunelands of Western Michigan and will remain an inspiration to the many people who have in any manner contributed to its success.

Schools Aid in Enriching Community Culture

Students in Santa Barbara, California, High School extend their activities into the community at a number of points. Santa Barbara is a wealthy city of about 35,000

population. It is faced, however, by many of the problems found in less wealthy communities. There is an unusual variety of nationalities and races. One-third of the population is foreign-born white, Japanese, Chinese, Mexican, and Negro. The foreign-born whites include sizable groups of English, Scotch, Irish, Norwegians, Swedes, Danes, Germans, Italians, French, and Canadians. Some of the residents, Mexicans particularly, fall in the low-family-income group.

The Santa Barbara public schools are alert to the educational opportunities resident in this diversity of cultures. A Community Cultural Studies Service has been established and a teacher assigned as coordinator. Through this teacher's wide contacts, cultural exhibits and programs are arranged, which enlist the participation of practically all the national and racial groups. Thus the people of Santa Barbara, native-born and foreign-born alike, are helped to a better appreciation of one another's arts, handicrafts, music, dancing, and literature. High-school students take part in these programs as performers, exhibitors, and observers. Those who do not have active parts attend the programs and exhibits, and so add direct observation to their classroom studies of other peoples and their cultures.

The high-school youth of Santa Barbara have recently taken a large part in a pageant which attracted the interest of the entire community. This production, "Design for Democracy," draws its materials from the history of Santa Barbara and of California, but the theme which runs through it is the ideals and practices of the modern democratic American school. In a variety of episodes, the standardization of an authoritarian type of education is contrasted with the democratic school's concern for the welfare of the individual. Students in the high school

have also written and produced radio programs for a regular weekly broadcast, which deal with such community matters as recreational facilities, architecture in Santa Barbara, and the contributions of the city to the San Francisco fair.

The architectural landscaping class of Santa Barbara High School gives students experience in doing socially useful work and at the same time teaches them a vocation. These students, many of whom are of Mexican ancestry, care for eighteen plots of land on a hillside overlooking the Pacific. Here they carry on landscaping projects and raise many plants and shrubs which are later planted in the city parks and schoolgrounds. The boys have built a lath house in which the more delicate plants are grown.

All the students in this group have regular duties to perform. The entire park area is divided into plots, each plot being cared for by one student for one semester. In addition, groups of students are responsible for performing such tasks as lath house work, construction work, field work, and shopwork. These assignments are rotated. Observation trips are occasionally made to other parks or private estates, while care of plants is studied in a classroom building within the park grounds. Most of the boys on this project plan to become gardeners when they leave school. But they are learning more than gardening. They are learning to work together, and in the process of learning and working, they are adding to the beauty of their own community.

Students Make a Housing Survey and See It Used

Students in a number of high schools are participating in projects which are intended not only to increase their own understanding of housing and homemaking, but also

to improve community housing conditions. One example has already been cited in New York City. Another is found in Quincy, Illinois, a city of 40,000 population, where the students in one of the social studies classes of the Quincy High School planned and completed a housing survey.

The teacher in charge of this project had helped organize the Quincy Housing Authority and the Quincy Housing and Planning Council. Under his guidance, the survey was planned by students with commendable thoroughness. The housing agencies of the city were invited to assist in the planning, and did so. The editor of the local newspaper, the mayor, and other public-spirited citizens were also consulted. This was essential groundwork in public relations.

The social studies class canvassed the possibilities for a survey. They worked out schedules of information to be secured and forms for recording it. They then decided, in consultation with interested adults, that because of its small size and the wide range of housing conditions, they would survey the Third Ward of the city. In the process of making these preliminary plans, a statement concerning the project was drawn up by the students and sent to various adult leaders of the city, with the approval of the superintendent of schools. The class early made a trip in the school bus to various sections of the city which illustrated different housing problems. During the trip, information on housing was furnished by a member of the Quincy Housing Authority Board and an official of the Quincy Housing and Planning Council.

The checklists of information to be gathered included type of building, condition of repair, name of occupant, race, number in family, occupation, earnings per month,

ownership of car, and the like.¹⁰ Students called on residents in pairs. Every attempt was made to give the persons interviewed a sense of the social importance of the survey and a feeling that interviewers were not trying to pry into their personal affairs.

Local and state housing authorities which had intended to make a housing survey in the city, when presented with the final report of the students' work on this project, found that they would not need to make the contemplated survey but could use the data of the students' report. This prompt acceptance of the report for practical use gave the students a satisfaction in their work which could hardly come from classroom study alone.

Students Investigate Standards of Living and Public Opinion

Another example of a useful social survey, made by students, is found in the Framingham, Massachusetts, High School. Framingham is partly industrial, partly suburban residential in character. There is accordingly a wide range of wealth, income, and living standards among its people. For several years, students in social studies classes have been making an annual survey of standards of living in Framingham, using information gathered from the students of the high school.¹¹

The sociology classes determine the questions to be included in a questionnaire on living standards. The questionnaire is then prepared and is filled out anonymously

¹⁰ Persons undertaking similar surveys may choose to omit earnings per month and to estimate economic status through such items as ownership and age of automobile, radio, and washing machine, whether or not family has a telephone and employs help, and the regularity and nature of employment.

¹¹ Ellis, Mildred P. "Studying the Local Standard of Living." *Harvard Educational Review* 9:175-83; March 1939.

by all students in their classes. Insofar as the high-school pupils represent a cross-section of the homes of the community, a fairly accurate picture of economic conditions is obtained. In the 1938 study, data were collected and classified under five headings: the home, wages and income, living standards, health, and education. Under each of these headings, there is a schedule of specific items of information. All quantitative data are exhibited in charts and graphs. Several students made trips through the community to take photographs of various types of dwellings, which were used to illustrate the report.

Inasmuch as comparable data have been collected for a number of years, instructive comparisons of economic and social conditions can now be made. Students also compare the living standards of Framingham with those of other cities for which data are available, and show a genuine concern for bringing their own standards at least up to the average at all points.

In the Hillside, New Jersey, High School, students are using the community as a laboratory for practice in estimating public opinion, especially on political issues.¹⁵ Some time ago the people of New Jersey were to vote on the question of legalizing race tracks in the state. Students in one class, after discussing the matter themselves, set out to find what the people in Hillside thought of it. They interviewed three hundred townspeople, using the technique of the American Institute of Public Opinion, and the results of their investigation were published in the local paper. Encouraged by this experience, they next made a study of what the people of Hillside thought about problems of war and peace, and particularly about the relations of the United States to the war in Europe.

¹⁵ "New Jersey Students Deal With Local Problems in Practical Way." (Reported by Weyman O. Steengraef.) *The American Observer* 2:7; February 5, 1940.

These students took a practical part in the political life of their community through another project. They interviewed candidates for the local board of education, asking each one what he considered to be the major problems facing the schools and what he proposed as solutions. These replies were also published in the local paper. As a result, the adults of the community as well as the students were in a better position to vote intelligently for school-board members. This was followed later by the gathering of similar statements from candidates for other local offices.

Excursions and Surveys Acquaint Students with Their Community

Tappan Junior High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan, makes frequent use of excursions in Ann Arbor and to nearby rural areas and industrial centers, including Detroit. A list of possible excursions for junior high schools, issued by the superintendent of schools, contains 83 local trips and 21 out-of-town excursions. These trips cover a wide variety of interests, chiefly the following:

1. Manufacturing and distributive industries, e.g., an automobile factory, a packing plant, a department store
2. Farming
3. Government, e.g., city offices, a meeting of the county board of supervisors, the state capitol
4. Health, e.g., the sewage disposal plant, the city health laboratory, a state hospital, a dental clinic
5. Education, e.g., the senior high school, the state university
6. Recreation and welfare, e.g., playgrounds, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A.
7. Religious institutions
8. Culture, e.g., art exhibits, museums
9. Historical places
10. Communication, e.g., a radio station, a telephone exchange
11. Transportation
12. Public utilities, e.g., a water filtration plant, an electrical power station
13. Vocations, small groups of students observing the vocations in which they are particularly interested.

Excursions are scheduled so as to coincide with classroom study. They are preceded by careful preparation and are followed by class discussions of what has been seen and heard.

In recent years, the excursion program has been extended through the affiliation of the school with the National Youth Hostel Movement. One group of ten girls, with a teacher, made a 350 mile bicycle trip which introduced them to many institutions in their state otherwise known to them only through reading.¹⁶ Tappan students also make frequent trips to a lake camp in the woods, which serves the school as both a recreational center and a laboratory for nature study, conservation, and life science.¹⁷

Tappan students have made a number of community surveys of practical value. One of these was a traffic survey, undertaken at the request of the mayor and used by the police in developing improved traffic regulations. Another was a survey of recreational facilities in Ann Arbor, a study in which the Chamber of Commerce was interested.

Two classes carried out a survey of the factories in Ann Arbor, which led them into a study of labor policies and problems as well. We quote from a report of this survey:

As a phase of the unit, "Ann Arbor's Adjustment," a 7A class made a survey of the factories. They used their own knowledge of the factory zones to make a list of all the factories in town. The class then divided into committees to work on each factory to find out:

1. Why the factory was located where it was
2. Its complete name
3. Its product or products
4. The use of those products

¹⁶ Vredevoogd, L. E. "Education Enroute." *Michigan Education Journal* 15:454-57; May 1938.

¹⁷ Vredevoogd, Laurence E. "Adding a Camp to the Curriculum." *Curriculum Journal* 8:54-58; February 1937.

5. The number of people normally employed, the peak employment, and the low point
6. The raw material used to make the product
7. How the raw material is transported to Ann Arbor
8. How the completed product is transported from Ann Arbor.

The children used various methods to gain their information. They talked to friends or relatives who worked in the factories; they made inspection trips to several of the larger factories, asking questions of the guides who accompanied the trips; they used the city directory and chamber of commerce bulletins; and in some cases they interviewed personnel managers of the factory. On the transportation aspects, they talked to station and freight agents at the town's two railroad stations.

Using this 7A factory survey as the basis, the 8A class studied labor conditions in those factories as part of its unit, "Control of Production." Through conversations with workers in the different factories, many of whom were relatives and friends, and, through trips to plants and talks with foremen, the children sought to find for each factory:

1. The percent of skilled labor
2. The percent of unskilled labor
3. The hours of labor
4. A rating of the working conditions, including light, heat, ventilation, rest periods, lunch periods, rest and recreation rooms
5. The use of safety devices
6. Factory provisions for compensation in case of injury
7. The steadiness of employment
8. The labor turnover
9. The presence or absence of labor unions and their national affiliates
10. The actions of labor unions.

Another class recently completed a survey of Ann Arbor which was presented to the school in the form of a large exhibit. The study included manufactures, employment, accidents, population growth, new buildings, utilization of land, and sources of food supply. The exhibit consisted of maps, charts, graphs, posters, samples of manufactured products, samples of foods, newspaper clippings, and photographs.

A Rural School Serves as a Center of Community Life

Villages and farm areas, as well as cities and towns, have their community life and their problems of economics

and government. In rural districts, as in urban, we find here and there a school which is alert to the need for bridging the gap between classroom and community, and which is acting to meet that need. We turn now to descriptions of some community activities of rural schools.

The Lincoln Laboratory School in Ypsilanti, Michigan, is a consolidated rural school serving an area of 63 square miles and a population of 10,000, many of whom are workers in the automobile plants of Detroit. Farming on small tracts is carried on by many of these workers to supplement their income from industry.

The Lincoln school building is used for community gatherings of all kinds—religious services, recreational events, adult education programs, the community fair, and meetings of clubs and other organizations.¹⁸ Five church groups in the area, both Catholic and Protestant, cooperate during the summer in carrying on religious services in the school building or on the school grounds. The ministers were highly commendatory in speaking of the unifying influence which the school is exerting in the community.

One of the earliest community projects was the landscaping of the school grounds. The boys of the school and the men of the community turned out with their shovels, teams of horses, and wagons to do the job, while the women and the high-school girls took over the duty of feeding the workers. After the plowing and grading were completed, the students planted shrubs and trees which beautify the grounds. A recent cooperative activity of this kind has been the erection on the school grounds of an original statue of Abraham Lincoln, marked by simplicity and beauty.

¹⁸ Tape, H. A. "A Consolidated Laboratory School." *The Community School*. (Edited by Samuel Everett.) New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938. Chap. 9, p. 340-77.

The boys and girls of the school, their teachers, parents, and other citizens cooperate regularly in the "Fall Festival," a community fair. At this time children and youth display and describe their school activities and products. They and their mothers and fathers show their pets, poultry, and live stock. The women bring their best needlework and canned fruit and vegetables, the men their cattle, woodwork, and handicraft products. A historical drama or pageant is usually presented by adults and youth together.

Dramatic and musical programs bring the people of this district often to the school on "Community Nights." High-school boys and girls have responsible parts, sometimes the leading parts, in planning and presenting these programs. Recently the students have written and produced two plays dealing with American ideals and history, entitled "The American Way of Life" and "America Steps Toward Democracy."

A Rural Village Is Transformed into a Place of Beauty

Ellerbe, North Carolina, High School is a rural consolidated school in a town of 473 persons, drawing many of its students from a much larger rural area. The town has never been highly prosperous. The homes are modest. One of the continuing school projects has been the beautification of homes and church grounds as well as the school property itself. At no time has there been money for this beautification program. The work was begun in 1927 when the principal took a group of students to some estates in a nearby community to get cuttings of shrubs and other plants, such as abelia, spiraea, euonymus, weigela, and willows. By spring hundreds of these plants had rooted and were then moved to open ground. The following fall they

could be moved to permanent locations on the school, church, and home grounds.

Special instruction in landscaping was needed and a class in this subject was added to the school program. Here students learned the proper arrangements of walks, shrubs, vines, and trees. Approximately one hundred boys worked on the job of beautifying the school grounds—grading, building roads and walks, and planting trees, shrubs, and Bermuda grass. So great was the satisfaction in the beautification of the school grounds that students and parents expressed an interest in similar work for their homes. In the years since the initiation of this venture thousands of plants and shrubs have been grown by students at school and transplanted to the grounds surrounding the homes and churches of the community. To date, 285 homes have been beautified. A love of beautiful plants and joy in their care and propagation has thus been fostered. The school nursery and beautification projects have also stimulated comparable projects in other sections of North Carolina.

*Far into the Mountains a School
Sends Youthful Agents of Service*

The Pine Mountain, Kentucky, Settlement School is a boarding school attended by boys and girls, who come for the most part from rural and mining camp homes. All the students join in helping to perform the services necessary to community living. The girls care for the houses, cook and serve meals, and assist in other domestic work. The boys care for the school herd, raise hogs, and till the land on which vegetables are raised for school consumption.

Besides performing these homely tasks in the school, students render a number of useful services to the community, in connection with courses taken in their last two years. In a third-year course, students study the co-

operative movement and conduct a school cooperative. When interviewed, these boys and girls were obviously proud of the fact that they were studying not only the cooperatives of the United States but "those located all over the world." These students have written and printed in the school printshop a descriptive statement of their consumers cooperative store.¹² They have reconditioned a room in one of the school buildings for use as a salesroom, and keep it clean and neat. Students do the necessary book-keeping. They have the added experience of helping to buy both school supplies and household necessities for staff members.

Many of the students are undertaking to educate their parents in better buying practices. Their efforts are made difficult, however, by the economic organization prevalent in some localities, where coal companies own not only the mines but also the homes and stores. As one boy put it, "We can't do much at home when dad has to buy in a company store which does not carry the cheapest and best brands of goods." In their attempts to educate their parents, these boys and girls come up against some of the realities which make difficult the extension of citizenship into economic life.

The fourth year of the school is enriched by a course in community service. A vivid description of the activities carried on in connection with the course has already been published.¹³ Here is a sample.

A girl rides fourteen miles on horseback once each week to provide library service to a one-room log schoolhouse as part of her training. A boy and girl go to a home to cut the logs and place a window in one of the two rooms in a cabin where someone is ill. Another student spends

¹² Pine Mountain Settlement School, Co-op Class of 1938-39. *A History of The Consumers' Cooperative Store*. Pine Mountain, Harlan County, Ky.: the School, 1939. 14 p.

¹³ Morris, Glyn A. "Community Service in the Curriculum." *Curriculum Journal* 10:161-63; April 1939.

some time each week reading to an aged man who cannot read; and still another gives a bath to a sick mother in a lonely mountain home. These are a few of the activities of the "Community Group" organized as part of the curriculum of Pine Mountain Settlement School. Now entering upon its third year, the group is growing as it assumes more responsibility and its contribution to the life of the community and to the growth of the students who participate becomes increasingly significant.

It was an inspiring experience to be conducted by a boy and a girl from this school to visit two Kentucky one-room rural schools and to talk with the pupils and teachers who are regularly helped by the students of the Pine Mountain School. These youthful ambassadors of good will help teachers and pupils build much-needed tables, benches, book cases, and sheds in which a warm noon lunch is prepared. They instruct the pupils in better health habits. They teach the children sportsmanlike conduct in games. They help beautify unsightly classrooms.

In the course of the staff visit, one member of this community service class was encountered as she was starting over the rough mountain road on foot to visit several remote homes. She had a knapsack over her back, stocked with first-aid supplies. "There are always colds, cuts, and burns to care for," she said. These girls bring good cheer to the lonely mountain homes, and welcome news from a larger world, as well as needed health information and care for the sick.

Younger Citizens of an Entire County Learn To Work Together

To the Moultrie, Georgia, High School, is given the difficult task of serving youth from both town and farm. The town of Moultrie has about 10,000 population, 7,000 white and 3,000 Negro, but the high school for white students is attended by boys and girls from the entire county. Of the 830 students in the high school, about half

are from Moultrie and half from surrounding farms. Of the farm families, about 70 percent are tenants. The school is undertaking to meet the needs of both groups with equal adequacy. A faculty committee makes an annual business survey of Moultrie, and the courses for town children are planned with the findings of this survey in mind. Particularly noteworthy are the efforts of the school to prepare the sons of farmers to wrest a living from the soil in the face of all the obstacles which confront farmers today. In this educational process, the lines between school and community practically disappear.

There is no prescribed course for the boy who enters the vocational agriculture classes in Grade VIII or IX. When he joins the group, the instructor talks over the home situation with both the boy and his father, and attempts to plan a program of farm projects suited to that home situation. Fathers commonly agree to furnish land, fertilizer, and a small amount of working capital, for projects in the raising of hogs, beef calves, poultry, cotton, corn, oats, vegetables, and tobacco. Each boy then plans and carries on his own project under the supervision of the instructor and with a careful accounting of expenses and income. The boys must contend with the same economic conditions as their families. Usually they make money, but sometimes they lose. In 1937-38, an average year, the cost of their farm projects totaled \$4437.75; the income from products sold, \$9175.76; leaving a profit for the boys of \$4741.32.

Although each boy has an individual course, as far as projects are concerned, he does not work alone at all times. Future farmers, as well as future city dwellers, need to learn to work together, to recognize common problems, and to benefit from collective action. So there are many common jobs on which boys work together in the school.

such as fertilizing crops and feeding animals, and including also the study of government agricultural programs and their attendant problems, taxation, farm tenancy problems, and other economic and political questions.

Most important of all for teaching cooperation and community of interests are those projects in which students, teachers, and parents work together on some enterprise for the benefit of all. For example, the school operates a community cannery. In the winter, meats are canned and in the summer, vegetables and fruits. This project is operated on a non-profit basis. The people who use the facilities pay a small fee for fuel, lights, and replacement of equipment. People use the plant as they would their own kitchens. Children come in along with their parents. Boys in vocational agriculture classes can their own products on shares during the school year. In this case, the board of education furnishes the cans and all the expenses of canning. The boys bring in their fruits and vegetables and do the labor. The school receives half the product and uses them in the cafeteria. The boys then take their half of the product home or turn their share in to the cafeteria and get meal tickets in payment.

Another activity which involves boys and girls, teachers and parents is the field work done by the agriculture and home economics teachers. These teachers have a regular schedule of meetings with adults in elementary-school centers throughout the county. As they go to these meetings, they visit the homes of their students and of recent graduates of the school, talk with them and their parents, and see their projects in action. Students frequently come to the adult meetings with their parents. These meetings, like the classes at the school, are devoted both to technical matters of farming and to economic and political affairs affecting the farmers' welfare.

In its concern for the welfare of the county, Moultrie High School does not overlook the town and its possibilities as a field for community activities. One class made a survey of all the departments of county and city government by visits and personal interviews, supplemented by reading. One committee studied both county and city jails. Another visited the county home for the poor. Others attended meetings of the city council, and visited courts and public utilities plants. In another class, a study was made of the status and problems of Negroes in Moultrie. This involved firsthand study of Negro schools, and led to closer cooperation between the white high school and the Negro high school.

Some of the most useful community activities have had their origins in science classes. Several years ago, science students in the high school launched an attack on mosquitoes which has resulted in a marked decrease in malaria in and about Moultrie. Students continue to work on this problem, refusing to be satisfied until malaria is eradicated. During the year 1939-40 a science class undertook to rid the community of a pest of rats, and practically completed the task by mid-year. In these activities which have to do with government, health, and public welfare, children from farms as well as from the town take part, for these are matters which concern not only Moultrie, but the whole of Colquitt County.

Students Improve the Health and Conserve the Wealth of Their Community

Another school that serves as an educational center for both a town and its surrounding farm community is the Norris, Tennessee, School. The town of Norris, which has a population of about 1200 persons, is four miles from Norris Dam and twenty miles from Knoxville, Tennessee.

Originally built by the Tennessee Valley Authority to house workers on the dam, it has become a permanent community largely of professional people employed by TVA. The student body of the school is composed of two different economic groups, including children from the agricultural area within a radius of ten miles as well as the boys and girls from the town.

Through its community program, which aims to improve local conditions, this school is attempting to develop civic responsibility on the part of its students. One example of this effort is the mosquito control project of a recent ninth-grade class. After the class had decided on the unit, the students grouped themselves into inspectors, sprayers, dusters, and a research committee. Two students were elected to be coordinators. A map of Norris was divided into six sections, and inspectors were assigned to each subdivision. They went over their territories for possible breeding places for mosquitoes and made written reports of their findings to the coordinators, who in turn sent sprayers and dusters to service infested areas.

The research committee furnished the group with all available material on mosquitoes. The members of this committee also planned and led the discussions and had charge of the bulletin boards. At the conclusion of the unit, the coordinators filed a written report with the library as reference material for future projects. Four boys of the group were recommended to the Employment Division of the Tennessee Valley Authority to continue the work of mosquito control during the summer.

Another ninth-grade class decided to work on game conservation. Following classroom study of the subject, the students were able to carry out a small project for game conservation. One hundred acres of land were obtained for use by the class. Members of the advanced agriculture

classes taught the students how to survey and map the land. The class then divided into five groups, each advised by a specialist from the Tennessee Forestry Department as to the work which should be done on the plot assigned to it. The men from the department went onto the land with the students to study the conservation needs. The activities carried out by students included identification and planting of game food, reforestation, erosion control, thinning of trees, construction of rabbit retreats, clearing of fire lanes, grafting of fruit and nut trees, identification and conservation of wild flowers, and surveys of the possibilities of pasturing certain sections.

A School Brings Larger Opportunities to Its Community

Another rural school which is close to the life of its surrounding community is the Allen-White High School for Negro boys and girls in Whiteville, Hardeman County, Tennessee. Whiteville is a village of approximately 800 population. The school is half a mile from the village. It serves the village children but draws most of the school population from the rural area. Some children walk as far as seven or eight miles a day going to and from school. The one school bus travels seventy-two miles each day bringing forty-eight children to school.

Most of the Negro farmers in this district are tenants. Some formerly owned their farms, but lost them with the drop in the price of cotton since 1929. In spite of their limited opportunities, they believe in education. They have given generously from their meager resources to establish the school. It was these farmers who signed a note for five thousand dollars to match Rosenwald Fund money to erect the first building on the campus. The county gave nothing toward this building. When the cotton crop failed the

people gave chickens, eggs, and other farm products to pay the debt on the school building. They made good on their note, but some of them, it was reported, might have been able to keep their farms, had it not been for their gifts to the school.

Negroes in Hardeman County may vote in the final elections but not in the primary elections, where the important issues and choice of candidates are usually decided. The poll tax is \$2 and is not cumulative. All teachers are required to pay this tax whether they vote or not. This background of civic restrictions and limited economic resources is needed to understand the real achievements of the Allen-White High School.

About 25 percent of the graduates of the school go to college. The proportion going to college is, however, not now as large as formerly, especially since the domestic service training course has been added to the school curriculum. The critical period for leaving school is the fifth and sixth grades. Girls who drop out of the sixth grade commonly do so in order to marry. Leaving school for marriage at this age is said to be largely a matter of gaining increased economic security.

The principal and the teachers of the school have long been concerned over these conditions. Over a period of five years, 1934-39, 305 students entered high school and only 93 graduated. The school is not responsible for the contributing economic factors in the situation, but feels that it is responsible as far as the curriculum of the school may improve the situation. In accordance with this belief, more work in the trades, domestic service, and music have been added to the curriculum. Many of the boys and girls who left because of economic conditions and a too rigid curriculum are now back. An NYA resident work

project has made possible the return of many who are now learning domestic service and the trades.

These NYA youth, as well as the regular students, participate in numerous activities which definitely improve community living. Forty NYA boys and thirty-five girls live on the campus, and each earns \$11.95 a month net. Here they have completed many socially useful projects, in addition to acquiring useful training. The boys first built a dormitory for themselves. Then they built showers, a septic tank, and a porch for the girls' dormitory. They laid a thousand linear feet of concrete sidewalks and constructed a barn to house the livestock of the school. They did all the work on a new building, known as Cheek Hall, which was to have housed the home economics and domestic service department, a baby clinic, the school lunchroom, and a large auditorium for community as well as school use.

The NYA girls have made hundreds of garments for needy children from cloth taken from old army uniforms supplied by the Surplus Commodities Corporation. They have also made mattresses for the dormitories from materials from the same source. Many of these girls are also taking the training course for domestic service, which was described in Chapter II.²¹ As part of this training, they do the cooking, laundry, and mending for all the NYA workers.

The boys commonly continue on these NYA projects for one year, and the girls for seven or eight months. They come from every section of Tennessee. Many of the farm boys and girls leave when the farm season begins, return to their homes, and come back to the project again in the fall.

²¹ See page 79.

The boys in the agricultural department of the school do a great deal of work which benefits both the school and the community. They care for the hogs, the chickens, and a cow, and for two acres of potatoes, five acres of corn, and a truck garden—all of which furnish the food for hot lunches for elementary-school children, many of whom have inadequate nourishment at home. These boys are also responsible for the care of the school's lawns, shrubbery, and flowers.

Boys in the woodworking department have built a house for the principal, are now building a duplex house for teachers, and plan to build a model one-room rural school where student teachers from Tennessee State, Le Moyne, and Lane colleges, and Fisk University may get practical experience. They look after all carpentry repairs about the school, make useful articles for their own homes, and will build sanitary toilets for any person who will supply the materials. They also go out to the homes of students and assist in repairing houses, barns, and sheds.

Real tragedies sometimes come to the schools, as well as to the individuals, who can least afford to bear them. Shortly after the visit of the staff to this school, Cheek Hall, the new building which was just approaching completion, was burned to the ground. This building represented the dreams and efforts of many years. The materials had been bought through private gifts totaling ten thousand dollars. There was no insurance on the building, as the county furnished no money for this purpose. It was reliably reported that insurance premiums are paid, if at all, from the principal's salary; that of the ten buildings on the school campus, none has been built with public funds; and that only NYA labor, some machinery for wood and cement work, and equipment for the NYA workers' dormitory have been furnished at public expense.

One must give his respect and admiration to the administrators, teachers, boys, and girls of such schools as this, who are carrying on the work of American citizens with high courage in the face of perennial obstacles and occasional disaster.

A School and Its Community Become Inseparable

The Holtville High School is part of a consolidated rural school, located five miles from the nearest town of Deatsville, Alabama. "This school has one objective," said the principal, "namely, to improve the living conditions—economic, social, and recreational—in this rural community." The program of the school is built around this purpose. Consequently there is scarcely a class which does not carry its students into some form of community activity, while in many courses the community is the laboratory or field of operations for students' work.

"As soon as we had set up our objective, we started to make a study of the needs of our community," added the principal. As a result of this study and the action which followed, the students of Holtville are now doing so many things directly connected with the community that we can scarcely do more than mention them within the space of this report.

Let us commence with the economic and social activities. It was found that one-fourth of the meat produced in Elmore County was lost through spoiling, and that a large proportion of the fruits and vegetables consumed here was canned goods, shipped into the county. Specialists from the Alabama Polytechnic Institute estimated that farm families could add an average of \$300 per year to their income by the proper growing and canning of fruits and vegetables. A loan of \$7500 was secured by the school

from the Farm Security Administration. A good canning outfit was procured without charge from the State Relief Administration, which had given up canning projects. An NYA work project was set up for the construction of needed buildings, employing forty boys, practically all of whom took this opportunity to enrol in high-school courses when they were not working on the project.

The cannery was properly housed, and is now operated by home economics teachers and students. Fruits and vegetables are canned during the summer and fall, meat in the winter—either upon the payment of a small charge or on a share basis. A meat refrigeration plant and cold storage room for meat, fruits, and vegetables was constructed. Lacking a teacher to take charge, the principal arranged for special training for a group of students and turned the plant over to them. The small charge to farmers simply covers the cost of operations and payments on the loan. A large chick hatchery unit was purchased and installed—likewise managed by students on a cost-of-operation basis. The loan made possible also the purchase of a tractor and a power-spraying outfit. For a small fee, students will spray peach orchards and do contour plowing for neighboring farmers.

Students work closely with the teachers of vocational agriculture in all their services to farmers. They are available to assist farmers in terracing, in planting cover crops, in planting and pruning fruit trees, and in killing peach tree borers. In the school's wood shop, students are likely to be found making milking stools, repairing farm implements, or building playground equipment for the elementary school.

Home economics students likewise go out into the community for practical experience. Each year one class re-decorates the home of one of its members, sometimes aided

by boys from agriculture classes who look after the planting of shrubbery, flowers, and a kitchen garden. Girls in sewing classes refashion old woolen garments into warm clothing for children in the primary grades whose parents are unable to afford new clothing. Girls in art and crafts classes fashion draperies for schoolrooms and for their homes. The girls also conduct a nursery school for small children each spring.

A student staff edits and publishes a weekly newspaper, which, as the only paper in the community, carries local as well as school news. The "Holtville Institute of Public Opinion," similar in character to the project in Hillside, New Jersey, High School, described earlier in this chapter, publishes its reports in this paper. Students also manage a cooperative store. Many of the products which are sold in the store, such as toothpaste, shaving cream, and shoe polish, are prepared in the chemistry classes under competent supervision.

This school is also the chief center for community recreation. The nearest commercial motion picture theater is many miles away, so the school has purchased a projection outfit, rents films, and gives five showings a week—one in the school, one in each of four neighborhood centers. The cost of admission is five or ten cents, depending on the rental of the film. Students operate the projector and manage the finances.

The school maintains a game loan library, from which school children check out games at the end of the day, taking them home for the enjoyment of their families. In a typical week in January 1940, 153 games were checked out and 679 people played them in their homes. A bowling alley has been built back of the spectators' seats in the gymnasium and both the gymnasium and the alley are open to the public in the evenings. On the spacious school

grounds, students have built an archery range and a barbecue pit, for community as well as school use. They are now developing a four-acre arboretum, which will be a community park, and plans have been made for a community museum.

The teaching staff of the school is not large enough to give personal supervision to these many and varied activities. Fortunately, continuous adult supervision is unnecessary. Senior students have shown repeatedly that they are competent to give the needed supervision, when they are entrusted with the responsibility.

CONCLUSIONS

Five Characteristics of Effective Programs of Community Activities May Be Named

I. From this review of current school practices, it is evident that schools *can* bridge the gaps which too often isolate their teaching and other activities from the life of the communities about them. To be sure, few if any schools have yet erected broad and permanent highways whereby they are inseparably united with their communities. But it must be remembered that this is a new development in American education, that only in recent years has it been understood that effective citizenship education requires continuity between the school and its environing world. Many readers, inspired by the examples of the schools reported here, will doubtless be moved to begin at once to build or to strengthen the connections between their schools and their communities. To guide such persons, a few conclusions may be offered, drawn from the experiences of the schools whose work has been described above.

1. In effective programs of community activities, the *participants are facing problems which are vital to them*. The problems may directly affect the students' own welfare and that of their families, or they may concern them primarily as members of a community, a state, or a nation. Whichever the case, they are not mere exercises to be solved for the sake of producing the right answer. The students are convinced that what they do will make a difference, and an important difference, in some people's lives.

2. In effective programs of community activities, *the participants are able to do something about the problems they face*. To be sure, they may not be able to solve a problem in its entirety. But they can at least take a first step toward a solution, or perform their part in carrying through an action that requires the cooperation of many people. Nothing is more destructive of morale than to find, after considerable investigation of a problem, that some outside and arbitrary authority prevents any action, even the most tentative, in seeking a solution. On the other hand, nothing is more exhilarating than a feeling of freedom and competence to deal with problems which one recognizes as vital.

3. In effective programs of community activities, *participants are guided by democratic values in making their decisions*. Chief among these values, as has been stated in the opening chapter, are concern for the general welfare, respect for the rights and worth of every individual affected, and the safeguarding of inalienable human liberties.

4. In effective programs of community activities, *demonstrable social benefits result from the action taken*. It is not enough that a problem be faced, or that a solution be worked out in words, or that a plan of action be mapped. The plan of action must be carried out, and its effects must be observed to be beneficial, in terms of democratic values.

5. In effective programs of community activities, *participants go beyond the immediate problem and seek to define and grapple with deeper issues.* This is especially important when the activities consist of help of some sort to the unfortunate. Assistance is needed, of course, but rarely does it do more than alleviate symptoms. Problems such as poverty, sickness, ignorance, and unemployment will be solved only as we seek to understand and remove their causes.

Four Types of Student Participation in Community Activities May Be Identified

II. Four types or levels of community participation appear among the examples cited. The simplest form is the firsthand study of community conditions and problems by means of excursions, field trips, and informative surveys, planned and directed by adults. This may involve no action by the students beyond the recognition of the facts discovered. A second type is the participation of school youth in community activities which are under the direction of adults. Civic festivals, clean-up campaigns, and safety drives are often of this type. These involve action by students, but the action is determined by others. A third level is represented by activities in which school youth help to plan and execute, sharing responsibility with adults. The playground and health campaigns at Radford, Virginia, and the malaria control project at Moultrie, Georgia, are examples. Finally, there are some activities which students initiate, plan, and carry out, taking advantage of the counsel of adults, but nevertheless bearing the responsibilities themselves. The campaign for a city-manager form of government, reported from Des Moines, Iowa, seems to be of this type.

When these four types are compared with the hallmarks of democratic education set forth in Chapter I,²² it is seen that only the last two unmistakably bear these hallmarks. As a first step in the process of learning to take part in the life of the community, it is doubtless necessary to provide introductory experiences under adult control. But it should be recognized that such experiences are preparatory. Only when students share largely in making important decisions as to what they shall do, and particularly as to how they shall attack some community problem in order to solve it, does participation in community activities assuredly become education for democratic citizenship.

²² See pages 35-39.



CHAPTER VI

Administration



IN AN EARLIER PUBLICATION, this Commission has presented a statement of principles for the administration of American education.¹ Among these principles the following are particularly pertinent to this study of education for democratic citizenship.

1. The ideal of equality of opportunity through education largely determines the structure of the school system in the United States, and provides a fundamental criterion of efficiency in school administration.²
2. Educational policy, in the long run, is determined by the people, through the exercise of the franchise. The people, however, place the authority to control educational policy in the hands of a lay board.³
3. The lay board selects a chief executive officer and holds him responsible for presenting policies and programs to the board for discussion and approval, and for carrying out these policies and programs after the board has approved.⁴
4. Educational policies should be formulated initially by the professional staff of the school system, through "a cooperative process capitalizing the intellectual resources of the whole staff. This participation in the development of educational policy should not be thought of as a favor granted by the administration, but rather as a right and an obligation. After policies have been developed by the staff, they should be submitted to the board of education for final review and approval."⁵
5. When a policy has been so formulated and approved, every member of the school system for whom it has implications becomes responsible for carrying it into effect. This responsibility is centered in the superintendent through whom account must be rendered to the board and the public.⁶
6. The superintendent will require that broad policies be carried out throughout the school system, but he will place large responsibility in the hands of principals as to details of policy and means to be employed. The principal, in turn, will allow a large degree of freedom to individual teachers. The aim of administration is to

¹ National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*, Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938, 128 p.

² *Ibid.*, p. 1, 41.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 42, 59.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 59-61.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 67.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 67, 61, 62.

secure cooperation in working for common objectives while encouraging resourcefulness and ingenuity on the part of all.⁷

7. The right and duty of teachers to take part in formulating educational policy is closely related to one of the basic purposes of American education. "Our schools are organized for the purpose of educating children, young people, and adults for participation in a democratic society. Any significant realization of this purpose will require independent thinking, a large degree of cooperative endeavor, and broad sympathy and understanding on the part of all who are enrolled in educational institutions. Certainly these virtues may not be expected to abound among those who are taught unless they are found also in the experiences of teachers. Surely in no area may teachers more certainly exercise independence of thought, cooperation in action, and social understanding than in their daily professional work. It is sound procedure to provide for the active participation of teachers in the development of policy."⁸
8. Back of the professional staff, back of the board of education stand the people as the ultimate judges of educational policy. In a democratic school system, therefore, the board and staff will "seek the cooperation of parents and other citizens in developing the educational program." "It is essential that the professional staff of the school system be supported in its work by the participation of intelligent citizens in the development of curriculums" and in determining educational objectives."⁹
9. The persons who control the school budget thereby determine school policy. Therefore the control of the budget must be in the hands of the same persons who control the policies, namely, the board of education."¹⁰

These principles are in substantial agreement with the "hallmarks of democratic education," stated in the opening chapter of this report,¹¹ and with the discussion of education and efficiency in that chapter.¹² The earlier report and the present agree that widespread democratic participation is to be sought in the formulation of educational policy, while the execution of policy should follow assignments of responsibility according to functions and

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 70-71.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 66-67.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 42, 78, 68, 71.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 52.

¹¹ See pages 35-39.

¹² See pages 15-34.

competence. Both reports agree also that opportunity for participation in policy-making should be extended to the entire professional staff and, as far as practicable, to the lay public.

The examples which follow are largely illustrations of participation in educational policy-making, including always the professional staff and, in a few cases, the lay public and students as well. In general, the principles of administration, summarized above, have served as the criteria for selection of democratic administrative practices, and most of the examples are consistent with these principles.

It is recognized, however, that experimentation is going on in school administration, as in all other aspects of education. Some experiments, while not conforming to all the accepted principles of school administration, may be first steps in the direction of new administrative practices of enduring significance. Intelligent experimentation should certainly be encouraged and its results observed closely. A few cases of such experimentation were found in the course of this investigation, and these will be included. Since evidence for adequate evaluation was lacking, they are reported without either approval or disapproval, as ventures worthy to be noted and watched.

The practices to be described will be grouped under six headings: (1) The first and largest group consists of examples of cooperative procedures in developing educational policies, including curriculums. (2) This will be followed by some cases in which teachers share in planning and promoting their own professional growth. (3) Next come examples, including several of the "experimental" type, of participation in planning related to budget policies, personnel administration, and building plans. (4) The practices whereby several school systems have sought to include lay citizens in policy-making will then be reported. (5) A

few cases follow in which administrative action has sustained free and impartial inquiry on the part of teachers and students. (6) Finally come some instances of school administrations which seek to provide equal educational opportunities by suiting their curriculums to the diverse needs of students.

1. COOPERATIVE PROCEDURES IN DEVELOPING EDUCATIONAL POLICIES

There was general agreement among administrators visited that the professional staff of the schools has both the right and the obligation to share in educational policy-making. It was also agreed that good administration will provide effective means for making such participation possible. But practice tends to lag behind theory, for in some schools there was no evidence of the means through which teachers could have a responsible part in policy-making. A number of school systems, however, have made notable advances, either in adapting old methods such as teachers meetings to new purposes, or in developing new types of cooperative organization and methods. The practices of these schools present many variations. Their purposes seem to be in close accord.

Educational Plans Are Shaped through Frequent Teachers Meetings

The teachers of Moultrie, Georgia, High School have the major responsibility for shaping the educational policies and the curriculum of the school. The entire faculty meets one evening a week to discuss some professional subject which has been planned in advance by a committee of teachers. In recent months the meetings have been concerned with the school's policies in five areas: health, recrea-

tion, economic life of the community, ethics, and citizenship. The elected chairman of the faculty presides, and the superintendent and principal take part as regular members of the group.

One such meeting occurred at the time of the staff visit to this school. At the end of the meeting, the principal announced that she had been asked to go to Chicago, to attend a meeting of coordinators of the institutions engaged in the experimental program of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. She asked that the next meeting be given to the consideration of the report which she was to present at that meeting, since she wished this report to represent the views of the entire staff, and not of herself alone.

Teachers of freshman students at Moultrie meet weekly, as do also the teachers of sophomores. There is no formal plan for "integrated courses" in this school, but the interrelation of learnings in the various classes is the matter of chief concern at these meetings. For example, shortly before the staff visit, the home economics classes had been studying foods in relation to health. At the same time, the general science classes centered their work on health, and the mathematics classes had studied the calories in articles of food and the needs of the body for calories in relation to age, weight, and exercise. In this school, willing cooperation among teachers seems to be more effective than any pattern of organization as a means for unifying the learning experiences of students.

In the course of the staff visit, one group of Moultrie teachers was asked by a visitor if there were not some resentment against the administration's requirements of four or five hours a week for the various faculty meetings. The chairman, with the obvious support of the other teachers, replied: "Who said anything about the administration re-

quiring these meetings? We teachers are responsible for these meetings ourselves. We found that we needed them in order to do the sort of job we want to do. As far as faculty meetings are concerned, we are the administration.”

Teachers Are Consulted on All Matters Related to Educational Policy

In the University High School at Oakland, California, there are about one hundred members of the faculty. No changes are made in any of the fundamental policies or practices of the school without the knowledge of teachers, and without opportunity for teachers to participate in determining what the changes should be. Whenever a question comes up which concerns the faculty as a whole, a statement of the problem to be discussed is mimeographed and sent to members of the faculty. Within a day or so faculty meetings are held, at teachers' free periods. Usually there are four such meetings a day, attended by approximately twenty-five teachers each. Attendance at these meetings is voluntary and no roll is kept. Some teachers attend more than one meeting.

In all matters of educational policy, the judgments of the teachers carry great weight. There is no limitation upon the types of questions which may be brought before the teachers at faculty meetings, or which may be introduced into faculty meetings by teachers themselves. The administrative viewpoint of the school was stated succinctly by the principal, when he said: “The chief thing which the administration can do is to create conditions favorable to good teaching, and set the teachers free to teach.”

A Weekly Superintendent's Round Table Shares in Planning the Entire School Program

Regularly on Saturday mornings during the school year, approximately thirty administrators, teachers, custodians, nurses, and parents come to the office of the superintendent of schools in Lincoln, Nebraska, for a meeting of the Superintendent's Round Table. Since its first preliminary meetings in 1938 this organization has steadily extended its responsibilities and services in the Lincoln school system, until there is now scarcely an activity of the schools which is alien to its agenda. The Round Table includes four types of members: (1) *ex-officio* members of the administrative and supervisory staff: the superintendent, two assistant superintendents, the director of elementary education, the director of research, and the secretary of the board; (2) *organization representatives*: the presidents or other representatives from four voluntary organizations whose interests are primarily educational, namely, the Lincoln Teachers Association, the Supervisors and Principals Forum, the Parent-Teacher Association Council, and the Operation and Maintenance Employees Association; (3) *elected* members of the school staff: two teachers and one principal from elementary schools, one teacher and one principal from junior high schools, and one teacher and one principal from senior high schools; (4) *appointed* members of the school staff: twelve area chairmen, selected by common agreement of the *ex-officio*, representative, and elected members.

The Round Table is now working in twelve areas: (1) aims and objectives of education; (2) fiscal and administrative guides; (3) stimulating in-service growth; (4) measurement and research; (5) evolving the curriculum; (6) evaluating educational material and equipment; (7) interpretation and publicity; (8) pupil classification and

accounting; (9) health, safety, and recreation; (10) visual and radio education; (11) extension education; and (12) social and personal adjustment of pupils. For each area there is a committee, with a chairman who becomes a member of the Round Table upon appointment, several members representing the elementary, junior high, senior high, adult and special fields, and one person particularly concerned with research in the area. These persons serve as a planning committee for the area, and may arrange with the superintendent for the appointment of temporary committees or larger councils to work on special problems as these arise. All such committees and councils are discharged as soon as their work is completed.

Matters for consideration by the Round Table may originate in the area committee, in the Round Table, or outside both. Proposals are ordinarily carried first to the Round Table, and there assigned to the appropriate areas. If the matter is one which requires a recommendation to the board of education, it is referred back from the area committee to the Round Table for further action. When a recommendation has been approved by the Round Table, it is presented to the board by the superintendent.

A Central Council Represents the Staff of a Large City System in Policy Formulation

Since 1923 the public school system of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, has had a Public School Council, the stated purpose of which is "to aid in the formulation of educational policies; to foster the development of the highest professional ideals in the Philadelphia public schools; to convey to the superintendent of schools and to members of the Board of Public Education constructive suggestions for the improvement of public school conditions; and to organize the necessary mechanism for the formulation and

presentation of such suggestions.”¹³ The council’s representative body, known as the House of Delegates, has thirty-five members and three members ex-officio, twenty of whom are teachers and the remainder representatives of the superintendent’s office, the supervisory staff, principals, the health and attendance departments, and the school secretaries. This body meets monthly. There is in addition a “correspondent” in each school, who is the liaison officer between the school and the council. The correspondents meet as a group at least once a year.

During November and December 1939, the council, through the House of Delegates, examined its opportunities for service to the professional employees and attempted to improve and make better known its services to the school system. With this in mind, the executive committee discussed the possibilities of making its service more effective. The representatives believed that, despite the distribution of the council’s news-sheet, *The Council*, since May 1937, and other occasional bulletins, there was still much to be done to place clearly before all school employees the opportunity which the council affords them to have a constructive part in the determination of educational policy.

The January 2, 1940, issue of *The Council* states that at the last meeting there had been a vigorous discussion concerning the enlargement of the actively participating group. The school correspondents and delegates agreed that the matter should be taken back to the individual school organizations for further discussion, and that the superintendent of schools be asked to state officially the attitude which he himself would assume toward any future policy recommendations that might grow from the deliberations of a council which had established for itself the confidence of the professional employees.

¹³ Philadelphia Public School Council. *Constitution*. Adopted 1924, revised 1935, revised 1937. Philadelphia: the Council, 1937. p. 3.

The same publication reports a statement from the superintendent, defining two essentials for an effective policy-making body:

1. That it be large enough to represent the whole school system and closely related in order that the whole system might make its thinking known.
2. That membership be large enough to reach back to the whole school system and report for discussion, consideration, and approval, the policies that are in the process of formation or completely formulated.

“Emphasis was placed,” the report continues, “upon the need for the organization of proper working committees within such a group. This arises from the fact that all ‘stuff’ received is not policy-making material. Therefore, a very important factor is the adequate sifting of material and the discovery of problems incident to the making of policy.”

A Representative Policies Council Receives Suggestions and Makes Recommendations to the Superintendent

The School Policies Council of the Denver, Colorado, public schools is composed of one hundred and sixty-five members, as follows: all members of the administrative and supervisory staff, all principals, one teacher for each building or one for each twenty-five teachers, the president of the Denver Classroom Teachers Association, the president and secretary of the Clerks and Secretaries Association, the president and secretary of the Denver Public School Custodians Association, and a representative of the lunchroom employees. The council meets once a month, sometimes in the evening and sometimes during school time.

Beginning with the general purpose of providing a means whereby all employees could offer proposals for the improvement of their schools, the council has developed

two main divisions of work. One division deals with proposals relating to curriculum and other matters of educational policy, the other with suggestions on administrative matters. In each division, a committee receives all proposals, reviews them, and refers those which are considered promising to a committee on arrangements for inclusion in the agenda of council meetings.

An illustration of the work which this council is doing is found in the recent action on the problem, presented through the policy division, of how best to utilize community resources. General discussion in the council was followed by intensive work on the part of a committee, which brought its recommendations back to the council. After review and approval by the council, the recommendations were sent to the superintendent. As a result of the council's recommendations, the Denver public schools have appointed a director of special school services for the city system.

Citywide Councils of Teachers and Students Advise the Superintendent

In New Rochelle, New York, there is a citywide Teachers Educational Council, made up of elected representatives of teachers from the various grade levels. The council functions as an advisory rather than a recommending body. There is full and free discussion of problems which are to come before the superintendent and the board, and every point of view has a chance for a fair hearing; but there is no attempt to make recommendations by majority vote. During the last school year the council was chiefly concerned with the school calendar, the school budget, and the exchange plan, the last being a practice of making temporary reassignments of teachers for one year only which was initiated with the general support of the coun-

cil. It is interesting to note also that on October 19, 1939, the council went on record in recommending that teachers give evidence of their interest in municipal affairs and that they register and vote in the coming November election.

Teachers spoke freely of the values of the council plan. Here are some representative statements:

Through our opportunity to study the budget we have a very much better understanding of what it is costing to run our school and how money should properly be used. It also has caused us to be more careful of the use of supplies.

I think it was a definite advance when the council decided to give the federation of teachers a representative on the council since this represented a very small minority group. It is an expression of real democracy.

The greatest contribution has been the understanding, given to the council member, of what really are the educational problems of the community.

The most important thing is the spirit in which the whole plan is undertaken. If the spirit is lacking no amount of organization will be adequate. Proper enlightenment and information is very important to the success of such a plan. Another matter of very great importance is the opportunity given to disagree; that is, to have opposite points of view presented for careful evaluation and study. Another value is the fact that a problem may be personal to one teacher, and can be presented to a member of the council who in turn may present it to the council in an entirely impersonal manner.

The chief difficulty, in the judgment of those interviewed, lies in getting adequate reports back to the teachers who are not members of the council and drawing these teachers into the deliberative process.

The superintendent in New Rochelle has departed somewhat from commonly accepted administrative practices by organizing an all-city advisory council of students. This is quite consistent, however, with the principles of democratic education accepted in this study, provided that the students' limitations in maturity and experience are recognized by administrator and students alike.¹¹

¹¹ See pages 36-37.

In this superintendent's weekly bulletin for November 15, 1937, we find this statement:

The first meeting of the All-City Student Council was held last Tuesday morning at which time the superintendent was privileged to listen to suggestions for the betterment of the system from fourteen girls and boys representing the public schools of New Rochelle. Utilizing student leadership within the system, the council seeks to provide an opportunity for the exchange of pupil opinion and for crystallizing thought. Constructive ideas proposed included tangible ways of developing good citizenship, respect for property and the rights of others, promotion of safety and the encouragement of building and community cleanliness. It is hoped that the council representatives will report before school assemblies the results of this and future council deliberations.

Since 1937 the All-City Student Council of New Rochelle has met with the superintendent on an average of once a month. Let the students tell the story of the way they work and some of the things they have done, as they told it to a visitor from our staff.

Visitor: What do you like about this council plan?

Student 1: The thing I like about the council is that our suggestions are not just pushed aside. Something is really done about them.

Student 2: It helps the students to get an idea of what the problems of the school really are.

Student 3: It links up our interest with the superintendent and helps us all to get better acquainted.

Student 4: It gives the students something to say about how their affairs shall be carried on. An illustration of this is the part that the students had in determining the Easter vacation for this present school year.

Visitor: What kinds of problems have you discussed with the superintendent?

Student 1: We have discussed traffic problems in the city and around our school building. We have discussed plans for improving lunchrooms, both in student conduct and in the general handling of lunchrooms. We have also discussed the improvement of our schoolgrounds. In this connection the annual "clean-up week" or "clean-up day" is held in all public schools and our students take a real interest in it. This is a part of the program put on in the entire city.

Student 5: We have discussed what qualities we would like to see in an ideal teacher. A list was made of these qualities and was published in our report. Later the educational council,

that is the faculty group, had an opportunity of making a similar list for students.

Visitor: Do you think this is a good thing?

Student 3: I think it has done a great deal toward helping us to understand each other.

Visitor: What happens after your meeting with the superintendent?

Student 6: Each member of the all-city council reports back to the principal of his school and to the student council of the school or to the whole student body, whichever way the school happens to want it done. In this way all the students are informed as to the work of the all-school student council.

The student council, like that of the teachers, is advisory. It is intended to give the superintendent the benefit of students' judgments on matters which concern students closely, and to give the students practice in taking responsibility for the planning of their own affairs. The chief question which it raises is practical: Is it preferable to have students work with the administration directly through an all-city council of this type, or would it be better to begin with separate councils organized by the several principals and then to let the all-city council develop out of these school councils?

It is of interest to note the reaction of the president of the board of education to the superintendent's practice of consulting with councils of teachers and students. The board president told a staff visitor that the present administrative policy was highly satisfactory to the board. While admitting that there were some people in the community who could not understand the reasons for the councils, he stated as his own view that these practices on the whole make for high morale in the schools and strong community support for the school system.

The examples cited thus far show teachers at work along with administrators in the shaping of educational policy. In New Rochelle, students also had a part suited to their capacities. The next two cases also illustrate participation

by teachers in policy-making, bring in students at a number of points, and extend the circle of policy-formulation to include interested laymen as well. This is in agreement with sound administrative principles.¹²

*School Staff and Citizens Work Together
To Define Educational Aims and Shape Curriculum Policies*

The superintendent of schools in Shaker Heights, Ohio, has sought to provide a channel through which all members of the staff may contribute to the making of policy, in the form of a staff council, composed of twenty-four elected representatives and twenty-four ex-officio members. The elected members of the council are chosen for two-year terms, one-half of which expire each year. The ex-officio members include officers of teacher organizations, and committee chairmen, principals, and supervisors. On the council at the time of writing there are thirty-two teachers and sixteen administrative officers. The superintendent is chairman of the council.

In the first year of its existence the council discussed problems but made no recommendations. At the end of the year it was made a voting body, authorized to determine policies on matters delegated by the board of education to the staff and to make decisions as to recommendations to be made to the board of education on matters which the superintendent must present to the board for final approval.

A review of the activities of the council during the last four years shows that seventy-three major questions have been considered by the council. These questions fall into four main categories: (1) curriculum problems, including a study of the needs of pupils and needs to be met in the community; (2) questions involving teacher welfare,

¹² See page 332, item 8.

salary schedule, sick leave, and the like; (3) school calendar and similar organizational matters; and (4) fiscal problems, including some aspects of the school budget.

This council, it should be noted, departs from the administrative principles cited earlier in this chapter, in both of its authorizations. Most of the councils described in this section make proposals or recommendations to the superintendent of schools, the responsible executive officer of the board of education. If approved by the superintendent, these recommendations are transmitted by him to the board of education, as the source of final authority in all matters of policy. The Shaker Heights council, however, possesses delegated authority to make final decisions on some matters, and on other matters, to decide on the recommendations to be made to the board. In these respects, it is to be regarded as an experiment in new administrative practices, the outcomes of which cannot yet be evaluated but are worthy of being observed.

Here, however, we are primarily concerned with the enterprise, which grew out of the work of the Shaker Heights council, relating to educational objectives and curriculum, a three-year project still in progress. This program of policy-making and curriculum-planning is quite consistent with the administrative principles set forth in this report. It enlisted the cooperation not only of school administrators and teachers, but of large numbers of students, parents, and other citizens as well.

During the first year the teachers were asked to work on the problem of improving the entire curriculum of the Shaker Heights public schools. A series of teachers' conferences was held, to which all teachers were invited but for which no attendance records were kept. The teachers met chiefly by subject groups: English, social studies, mathematics, science, home economics, and so on. They prepared new teaching materials, which were mimeo-

graphed, distributed, and then reviewed at general meetings. Through this experience, all the teachers gained a good understanding of the schools' program at all levels. Toward the end of the year, the teachers suggested that students and parents should be brought into the process.

Accordingly, early in the second year of the program the superintendent appointed, with the advice of the principals, two small working committees, one on the educational needs of a democratic society and the other on the particular educational needs of boys and girls in Shaker Heights. The membership of each committee included the superintendent, a principal and several teachers, students, parents, and other citizens.

The committee on needs of boys and girls asked students of the sixth, ninth, and twelfth grades to write down the things which they need most to learn. Approximately five thousand such items of need were reported. With the aid of many students and some parents, these items were eventually reduced to twenty statements of educational needs, such as, "Learn to study efficiently and independently and to think individually," and "Have an understanding of civic attitudes and of the responsibility of the individual." These twenty statements were then sent to the children who had originally submitted the five thousand items, to their parents, and to all teachers in the school, with the question for each statement, "Is this a responsibility of the school?" Only the statement, "Acquire some basic religious belief," was eliminated by this referendum. The remaining nineteen statements were then returned to the same people with a second question, "Does the school now make adequate provision for meeting this need?" These statements and the replies to the two questions became the basis for the first of five conferences described below.

Meanwhile, the committee on educational needs of a

democratic society had drawn up ten statements which, in its judgment, best defined these needs. These statements were submitted to the entire high-school student body, to the parents of high-school students, and to all teachers in the public school system with the request that each statement be marked "Agree," "Disagree," or "Undecided." The ten statements and the responses of students, parents, and teachers provided the material for the second conference.

A series of five monthly conferences was then announced, to which representative parents and students were invited by letter. The topics follow:

1. What are the educational needs of boys and girls in Shaker Heights?
2. What are the educational needs of a democratic society?
3. What types of experiences will best meet these needs?
4. How shall we know what we have accomplished? (The problem of evaluation)
5. What should be the program of studies in the Shaker Heights schools?

The reports of the two committees described above were placed in the hands of all conference members prior to the meetings. Three other committees were appointed, each responsible for preparing for one of the last three meetings.

Attendance at each of the conferences varied from 300 to 350, almost equally divided between parents and students, on the one hand, and teachers and administrators, on the other. Conference members were assigned to twenty small working groups, each with from fifteen to twenty members. Teachers acted as permanent chairmen and secretaries for the groups, and one teacher served as discussion leader in each group for each of the five topics. Thus the services of 140 teachers were employed in the group meetings. Twenty additional teachers were on the general committees, so that practically all of the teaching staff of 180 had an active part in the conferences. Careful records were kept of each group meeting, and these were combined into

a complete report covering each conference, a copy of which was sent to each conference member.

In 1939-40 the program was turned back to the several building faculties. In each school, the faculty was asked to take the results of the last year's conferences and see what they meant in terms of that school. During the second semester, various special committees with representatives from elementary, junior high, and senior high schools have prepared a series of reports on educational topics. One report set up a complete program of studies from kindergarten through senior high school, with several new features growing out of the community conferences and the recommendations of the faculties of the several schools. Other reports dealt with English language, social studies, the arts, the sciences, mathematics, foreign languages, and the commercial studies. These reports have been approved by the board of education and will be rewritten in uniform style for wide distribution in the community.

A School Revises Its Curriculum After Studying Educational Needs

An approach to the revision of the curriculum similar to that at Shaker Heights, was made in the Carpinteria, California, Union High School. Beginning in 1933, this project has continued down to the time of writing. The principal, the viceprincipal, and a committee of teachers commenced work on the problem: To what extent is the program of this school meeting the needs of the children of the community? Recognizing the importance of community understanding and support, the committee membership was enlarged to fifteen, including a number of parents and other interested citizens. All of the students and many parents and other citizens were interviewed by members of the committee, and a series of public meetings

was held, to which parents were particularly invited. Special attention was given to the needs of students who did not intend to go to college.

As a result, a part of the curriculum has been reorganized in the form of "Foundations" courses, combining the traditional subjectmatter fields of English and history in one case, science and mathematics in another, but with new organizations of materials directed toward meeting the needs revealed by the investigation. In 1938-39, all but two members of the faculty of sixteen were either members of curriculum committees or were carrying on related research.

All the teachers of "Foundations" courses, together with the librarian and the principal, meet weekly to work on the building of source units. The principal's influence is exercised through his participation in the work of faculty committees. He stated that it is his policy never to veto the report of a faculty committee. At the time of the staff conference with teachers in this school, one teacher seemed to be speaking for all when she said: "It is fun to get ideas when you are free, as we are here, to go ahead and use them."

The Importance of Shared Planning Is Recognized through Various Practices

Many other practices might be cited, but space permits only the mention of a few. In the schools of Radford, Virginia, the teachers meet for fifteen minutes each morning at 8:30 o'clock to discuss the problems of the day and plans for the days just ahead. These meetings go on whether the administrative officers are present or not. At 8:45 there is a homeroom period of fifteen minutes in which pupils and teachers plan the day's work and discuss school problems.

The teachers of the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School at Gainesville, Florida, carry almost complete responsibility

for formulating the educational philosophy and planning the curriculum of the school. Committees of teachers have issued a series of statements of policy during the past five years, and the present curriculum has been built largely in accordance with these policies.

The staff of the Atlanta University Laboratory School in Atlanta, Georgia, has met weekly during the past ten years. The experiments in curriculum and method carried on in this school have been the products of the thought and planning of the staff, rather than of one or a few persons.

At the George School in Pennsylvania, a small executive committee, on which the teaching staff as well as the administration is represented, undertakes to act on all matters of routine business, thus leaving the faculty meetings free for the more important professional matters. The teaching staff is also represented on the committee on instruction and student life, a subcommittee of the school's committee of management.

At the Radnor Township High School, Wayne, Pennsylvania, teachers have an important voice in shaping educational policies as well as full responsibility for curriculum building. At the time of the staff visit, teachers of English, social studies, music, and art were working together on the construction of new units for the "core" course, and it was stated that this was common practice in the school.

The Birmingham, Alabama, city school system has a well-planned committee system for teacher participation in policy-making. These committees function through building meetings which occur weekly and at which teachers have opportunity to express and register their views. Once a month, on a Saturday morning, there is a meeting of all teachers of the system. A steering committee helps to set up this program. The first part of the session is given over to grade meetings and departmental groups; then all teachers meet together. Problems of administrative nature,

as well as classroom problems, are discussed at these meetings.

In the Pasadena, California, Junior College the major policy-forming body on educational matters is the Principal's Council. This consists of the fourteen department chairmen, the head librarian, and all members of the administration staff—twenty-seven in all. This council meets bi-weekly to discuss and act upon all new policies and major changes in policy which affect the educational program. While the principal technically has the right of veto, it is a prerogative which is rarely, if ever, exercised. This body, being representative in character, gives opportunity for a democratic discussion and framing of the policies of the college. As a result, the policies adopted are regarded as the products, not of a single administrative officer or small group of such officers, but rather of those persons responsible for carrying out the policies in the several departments of the college.

2. PROMOTING THE PROFESSIONAL GROWTH OF TEACHERS

Most school systems have programs of some sort for encouraging and aiding teachers to grow in professional knowledge and skill while on the job. Here, if one accepts the principles of administration quoted at the beginning of this chapter, is a field in which teachers may properly cooperate with administration in shaping policies and programs. A major aim of most such programs is professedly to help teachers grow in understanding of democracy and in skill in democratic practices. This aim can be achieved only through a program which is itself the product of democratic planning and which provides for widespread participation by teachers in its conduct. This section will be concerned primarily with examples of democratic

methods used in planning for teachers' professional development, rather than with the content of professional training programs.

The professional growth of the teacher is fostered by work on councils and committees responsible for curriculum revision and for formulation of other educational policies. All the examples cited thus far in this chapter are, therefore, relevant to this section also. In addition to such cooperative work, many schools are providing for the professional development of their teachers through various types of planned programs of "teacher education." Among the schools visited were several which not only had such programs, but also were developing them by methods which gave to all concerned the opportunity to share in determining their purposes.

Teachers Share Responsibilities for Planning and Programs in "Workshops"

At the time of writing, teachers in the public schools of Des Moines, Iowa, were planning a workshop for the summer of 1940, in cooperation with Drake University. The board of education had agreed to contribute a building, custodial services, and the full-time services of at least two staff members, together with part of the time of several other staff members. Drake University was to provide the library and give regular credit for the six weeks of work. The regular summer school tuition fee was to be charged, but except for a three dollar registration fee to Drake and two hundred dollars to the Drake library, the income from tuitions was to be used to employ the staff for the workshop. The teachers expected to get at least four full-time staff members and the time of several other persons for two or three weeks each. It was expected that successful classroom teachers would be used in some positions of leadership.

Possibilities were being explored for an exchange of such teachers with the public schools of other cities holding similar workshops. The planning for this workshop was largely in the hands of a committee which included ten teachers from the secondary schools, ten teachers from the elementary schools, one secondary-school principal, one elementary-school principal, and one member of the superintendent's staff.

Workshops resembling that in Des Moines were also being planned in similar fashion by committees representing both teachers and administration of the school systems of Los Angeles, California, and Denver, Colorado.

A teachers workshop at the George School, in Pennsylvania, in the fall of 1939 was likewise planned by a committee of teachers. Although attendance was voluntary and teachers received neither credit nor extra pay, thirty-five of the forty-one members of the staff were present at the ten-day conference. "The experience in this workshop," said one teacher, "reinforced the faith of the members of the faculty in the democratic process."

The emergence of the workshop in American education within the last five years is in itself evidence of growing democratization of the in-service training of teachers. For the workshop, in theory at least, is essentially a democratic institution, all the members of which may share equally in determining their aims and may contribute toward achieving those aims according to their abilities and experience. Summer workshops are being attended by increasing numbers of teachers from schools connected with the experimental studies of the Progressive Education Association, the Southern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges, and the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. These teachers are carrying both the spirit and the methods of the workshops back into their own school systems.

Teachers Grow Professionally through Committee Work on Educational Problems

The department of instruction of the Denver, Colorado, public schools has, during the past year, directed a large share of its attention toward developing a year-round in-service program of teacher education. A large, representative system of committees has been set up for this purpose. A Planning Committee of about twenty representative teachers, principals, supervisors, directors, and administrators is responsible for inclusive planning and coordination of the work of other committees. Next come the three main working committees, known as Committees on Instruction—one for elementary schools, one for junior high schools, and one for senior high schools. Each committee has thirty members—teachers, principals, and supervisors.

In each of the junior high schools and senior high schools, there is a building committee on instruction, chosen by the faculty of the school. The sixty elementary schools are placed in nine groups, and there is a representative committee on instruction for each of these groups. Each secondary school and each group of elementary schools has a number of subcommittees on such matters as evaluation, objectives, and courses of study, which include all the remaining secondary teachers and most of the elementary teachers in their memberships. Thus practically every member of the professional staff of the schools has some responsibility in this organization.

The nature of the work of these committees may be illustrated by a statement taken from the minutes of the meeting of the Senior High School Central Committee on Instruction on October 10, 1939:

Possible functions of this committee. There seemed to be general agreement that this committee might perform the following functions:

- a. Serve as a clearing-house and a coordinating body for experimental work in Denver
- b. Coordinate the work of the senior and junior high schools
- c. Set down general principles and values which seem basic to the Denver program
- d. Be concerned with the total program of instruction in senior high schools and its relation to general education
- e. Survey the areas in which there has been experimentation to discover fields not represented
- f. Bring together methods and procedures for organizing and administering the general education program in relation to the total school program
- g. Make plans for citywide evaluation of the Eight-Year Study
- h. Study the relationship of the special departments to whole school program
- i. Arrange for meetings with: (1) members of the curriculum staff, (2) members of the evaluation staff, (3) the Stanford staff, (4) the coordinator of the Commission on Teacher Education, and (5) other educators of prominence who may be available at times and who may contribute definitely to our program.

There seemed to be general acceptance of the policy that in carrying out these and possibly other functions, this committee should operate in two ways—serving as a clinic for problems coming from the teachers in the various buildings and formulating policies to be taken back to the buildings, in order to evolve a common basis for the work of the different schools.

Recent meetings of the three Central Committees on Instruction have been devoted largely to the reports of subcommittees on evaluation, educational principles, clearing-house of practices and procedures, and curriculum for general education. Plans were also being made for a summer workshop for teachers. The in-service education for Denver teachers during the school year apparently comes largely through their active work on these committees dealing with professional problems.

Teachers Meetings Have Great Educational Possibilities

Conflicting opinions were encountered as to the value of teachers meetings as a means to professional growth. In

some schools, principals reported that they held faculty meetings "only when something comes up that the teachers need to talk over." Further inquiry in such cases often showed that meetings were held three or four times a year, and that the time was spent largely in routine "school business." Although these principals sincerely believed that teachers preferred as few faculty meetings as possible, their teachers usually said that they wished there were more teachers meetings devoted to professional matters.

On the other hand, visits were made to a number of schools in which teachers meet regularly for the consideration of educational problems, under the guidance of representative committees. In none of these schools did teachers express dissatisfaction because of the time required for teachers meetings. One example of such meetings, in Moultrie, Georgia, has already been described.¹⁶ Another is found in Burbank, California, High School, where the teachers meet weekly after school. Attendance at these meetings is recognized by the Burbank school system as the equivalent of graduate study. For the year 1939-40, the following schedule of topics for study and discussion was worked out by the principal and a committee of teachers. Each topic required several meetings, of course.

Topics for Study and Discussion

Adolescent Psychology
Techniques of Guidance Interviews
Vocational Guidance Information
Tests and Testing Materials
Raising the Level of Scholarship
Evaluation of Reports
Home Work
Leadership Training
Evaluation of Materials

¹⁶ See pages 334-36.

3. PLANNING RELATED TO BUDGETS, PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION, AND BUILDINGS

Budget Control and Policy Control Are Inseparably Related

The school budget is a statement of the program of the school system, expressed in terms of income and costs, and reflecting educational aims and policies. Whatever may be the purposes which a school system may profess, these purposes can be achieved only as funds are made available for their attainment. Educational policy is therefore determined to a considerable degree by the persons who control the budget. For this reason, final authority for the control of the budget, as for the control of policy, should rest with the board of education.¹⁷

Budget-Making Requires Both Technical Competence and an Inclusive View of Educational Policies and Program

Good administration requires, furthermore, that the superintendent of schools shall be responsible for preparing the budget and presenting it to the board, as well as for administering the schools in accordance with the budget which the board has approved.¹⁸

The superintendent, to be competent to carry out this important responsibility, must meet two requirements. First, he must be skilled, by reason of experience and training, in the techniques of budget planning and budget control. Second, he must have a complete grasp of the schools' educational policies and a balanced over-all view of the educational program, so that he may be guided by educational policies in framing the budget, and may reconcile conflicting interests without favoritism or prejudice.

¹⁷ See page 332, item 9.

¹⁸ See page 331, item 5.

The drawing up and administration of a school budget is an executive function which the superintendent should not be expected to share with anyone other than the technical assistants whom he appoints and who are directly responsible to him. To turn this function over, in whole or in part, to committees of untrained persons, teachers or others, would be inviting unnecessary inefficiency.

It does not follow, however, that the professional staff should have no part in the shaping of the budget. Indeed, the contrary is the case. In addition to technical skill, the budget administrator must have a grasp of educational policies and an understanding of the entire educational program. This grasp and this understanding can never be gained in isolation from the professional staff. They will come best when superintendent and staff work together on the job of policy-making in ways such as those described in the first section of this chapter.

In brief, then, democratic administration requires that there shall be a wide base of participation in the formulation of educational policies; that budget-making officials shall themselves take active part in this policy-making process; and that these officials shall be both *sensitive* and *responsive* to the judgments of policy-forming groups.

Teachers' Representatives Share in Shaping Budget Plans by Advising on Educational Policies

Several of the examples described in the first section of this chapter show how the professional staff, by advising the superintendent on educational policies, can share in shaping the main provisions of the school budget, without becoming involved in the technical work of budget planning.

One of the permanent "areas" in the Superintendent's Round Table at Lincoln, Nebraska, is designated as "Fiscal

and Administrative Guides.”¹⁹ This area group prepares reports on financial policies which are in turn presented to the Round Table for discussion. The superintendent thus has the benefit of the advice of this entire representative body as a background for preparation of the budget. The records of the policies councils in Philadelphia, Denver, New Rochelle, and Shaker Heights show that these bodies, responsible primarily for formulation of educational policies, have frequently advised their superintendents as to the implications of proposed policies for school budgets, and, conversely, the effects of budgets on policies.

In Two Experiments Teachers Have Shared in Planning Salary Schedules

Two schools visited in the study reported participation of teachers in budget-planning which might be characterized as “experimental.” Both cases represent approaches to the solution of special problems, rather than established practices. As yet there is insufficient evidence to warrant conclusions as to their permanent significance.

The teachers of the Burbank, California, public schools recently took part in the determination of a salary schedule for the system. It was generally believed that a new schedule was needed, but the superintendent agreed that a schedule would not be recommended to the board, until it had the approval of at least 90 percent of the teachers. All teachers had opportunity to share in the deliberations which accompanied the making of this schedule. When the vote was finally taken, the faculty voted unanimously for the schedule and shortly afterward it was adopted by the board.

The superintendent of schools in Springfield, Missouri, likewise found that certain fiscal problems were better

¹⁹ See pages 337-38.

solved by representative committees than by a single administrative official. The experience is described in a Springfield report.

In the spring of 1937 it became evident that there would be available about \$42,000 to be distributed in salary increases to teachers for the school year 1937-38. This presented a difficult problem, for all teachers were receiving meager salaries, and all were feeling the pinch of increasing living costs. There had been no salary increases for nine years, and many superior teachers had been in the system that long without having received a single salary increase. There had been administered in 1932 salary cuts ranging from 5 to 16.67 percent, and the recipients of these cuts were eager to have their salaries restored. The problem was solved by asking the teachers themselves to make recommendations as to how and where the increases should be allocated. Members of the instructional staff selected a representative committee of teachers and supervisors, and the conclusions arrived at were generally acceptable to all concerned.

Again in the spring of 1939 a representative teacher committee made recommendations later adopted by the board of education for the spending of \$25,000 on annual increases to school employees. The work of this committee was as satisfactory as that of the committee of 1937. Many people served on both committees and very apparent was the individual growth which had occurred in the qualities of tolerance, human sympathy, and capacity for understanding an opponent's point of view.

All told, according to the report, these committees of teachers have arranged for the distribution of over a hundred thousand dollars in salary increases in the last five years. They have also brought about a modification of the payment schedule to a twelve-payment plan, and have arranged for changes in the salary schedule to adjust old inequalities.

The sharing of these responsibilities with the teachers has given new life to the Springfield Teachers Association. Teachers and administrators alike testified to this. The membership of the association has grown to include practically all of the teachers in the schools. The association has developed a system of standing committees and has grown increasingly professional in its activities. The superintendent added that through these experiences he has

learned that he can accomplish far more with the complete and intelligent backing of the teachers, and so, he said, he was continuing to share responsibilities with them for the sake of greater efficiency.

Teachers Help To Evolve Plans for Better Personnel Administration

Personnel administration is similar to budgetary administration, in that it requires technically competent executives and at the same time must be consistent with broad educational policies. Again we find that the cooperative policy-making councils described earlier in the chapter have frequently been concerned with policies relating to the employed personnel, such as retirement, sick leave, and assignments of teachers.

In addition, several experiences were reported from the Rochester, New York, public schools, which show teachers taking part in making personnel policies. One committee of teachers was appointed to study the problem of assigning teachers to school buildings. Before preparing its report, this committee invited suggestions from every teacher in the system who cared to make them. Another committee of teachers worked out a group hospitalization and insurance plan, which was adopted. Still another committee, on which teachers were represented, developed a new and more satisfactory plan for the professional rating of teachers.

The People Who Use School Buildings Help To Plan Them

It was not possible, within the scope of the present study, to examine all aspects of school administration with equal thoroughness. Attention was given primarily to those administrative functions most closely related to instruc-

tion. Some functions were omitted altogether. Others, like the planning of buildings, were studied only incidentally. Therefore, only one example will be given of teachers' participation in the planning of buildings.

In Burbank, California, one new elementary-school building and additions to all elementary and two secondary-school buildings were recently completed. As soon as the decision to build was reached, the elementary and secondary teachers and supervisors were invited to take part in planning the buildings and their equipment. All the secondary teachers and practically all the elementary teachers accepted the invitation and worked on plans for several months. As a result, the plans which were finally prepared by the school architect and recommended by the superintendent were drawn against the background of the thinking of this large group of teachers. The entire procedure was based on the following considerations: What are the experiences which are essential to the wholesome development of the child? What physical facilities are desirable in achieving this total development? This procedure in no way reduced the authority of the superintendent or infringed upon the technical work of the school architect. Rather, it placed at the disposal of the administrator and the architect the knowledge of people who were experienced in using school buildings for educational purposes, and who were going to use the new buildings. In other words, it recognized that in educational planning the technical competence of teachers as educational specialists should be taken into account, along with the technical competence of architects, engineers, and business managers as specialists in their respective fields.

4. INCLUDING LAY CITIZENS IN POLICY-MAKING

Democratic education, it was said earlier, when efficiently administered, recognizes its ultimate responsibility

to the source of authority in the people, and widens the circle of educational policy-making to include the public as well as the school.²⁰ Only a few schools were found, however, in which lay citizens, other than members of the boards of education, have had any considerable part in working with the professional staffs to shape school policies.

*Parents and Other Citizens Take an Active Part
in Studies of Educational Objectives and Curriculums*

Two examples of public participation in educational policy-making have been described earlier in the chapter. In the study of educational needs and objectives in the Shaker Heights public schools,²¹ a considerable number of parents and several other interested citizens worked with administrators, teachers, and students throughout, and contributed notably to the results of the study. The comparable study of objectives and curriculum at Carpinteria, California,²² likewise enlisted the services of members of the board of education, parents, and the local press. Beginning with a joint meeting of the school staff, the board of education, and the executive committee of the P.T.A., the study later brought parents into regular membership on the working committees.

Two other examples have been cited in Chapter V of this report.²³ In both the Benjamin Franklin High School in New York City and the Abraham Lincoln High School in Los Angeles, parents, alumni, and other citizens were members of committees which guided the community service programs of the schools.

²⁰ See pages 33-34 and 331-32.

²¹ See pages 345-49.

²² See pages 349-50.

²³ See pages 266-70 and 273-75.

School Administrators Share Their Plans with Interested Citizens

Over a period of three years, the public schools of Newton, Massachusetts, conducted a course of meetings for parents characterized as "adult education about education." Ten public meetings were held each year, with an average attendance of about four hundred parents. Following a lecture presentation of the subject of the evening, discussion usually led into the consideration of educational policies.

In developing the present program in the schools of Radford, Virginia, the former superintendent of schools accompanied each proposed change by a series of conferences with parents in the community. Only when parents became convinced as to the wisdom of the proposals, were the changes put into effect. It was reliably reported that when the superintendent resigned in 1939, there was a public demand that his successor should be a man who would continue the type of program which had been developed. By using the slower method of bringing the public into the process of program-planning, the superintendent had built a more enduring program.

Teachers and Board of Education Members Talk Together about the Schools

An example of close cooperation between the teaching staff and the board of education is found in Ann Arbor, Michigan. Believing that the average board of education thinks too little in terms of educational policies as compared with fiscal matters, the superintendent arranges from eight to twelve board meetings a year at which discussion is confined, as far as possible, to educational problems which confront the schools. These problems include

curriculum, promotion, classification, health, teacher welfare, public relations, and so on. Groups of principals and teachers are invited to most of these meetings. Frequently they are chosen by their fellow principals and teachers because of their particular interest in or fitness to discuss the questions up for consideration. This practice gives the members of the board, who are the official representatives of the public, opportunity to become more familiar with educational matters and to hear the views of teachers at firsthand. It also helps the teachers better to understand the administrative and financial aspects of the school system.

5. SUSTAINING FREE AND IMPARTIAL INQUIRY

The teacher who comes to grips with the economic and political problems inextricably bound up with American democracy will hardly escape occasional public criticism, however honest and impartial his teaching may be. Some criticism may come from those who sincerely believe that high-school boys and girls of sixteen and seventeen are too immature even to discuss the problems on which they will be expected to register informed judgments as voters at the age of twenty-one. Some objections may be inspired by those who fear that the open and unbiased discussion of controversial questions may pull aside the protective covering which silence throws over their vested interests. Whatever the source of criticism, it is important that persons responsible for the administration of the public schools of a democracy decide to what policy they will adhere regarding the teaching of debatable public issues in the schools.

A Board of Education Adopts a Policy on the Teaching of Controversial Issues

Of particular significance, therefore, is the following statement of policy, submitted to the Board of Education of Ann Arbor, Michigan, by the superintendent of schools, and adopted by the board in 1936:

A Policy for Teaching Controversial Issues in the Public Schools of Ann Arbor, Michigan

Any democracy, if it is to remain a democracy, must expect and anticipate change—politically, socially, and economically.

The American people have always believed that change should come through law and through an orderly procedure rather than through revolution and the use of force.

There are controversial issues inherent in change which, if correct solutions are arrived at, must have free and open discussion.

A majority of people end their formal school period on or before graduation from high school. Therefore, if the majority of our pupils are ever to consider and discuss controversial issues under conditions which normally exist in the school room, this must be done during the high-school period.

An individual may best be inducted into a consideration of controversial issues under conditions prevailing in a public school classroom. Here partisanship and propaganda are much less in evidence than outside the classroom, and scientific techniques of attack on social, political, and economic problems are not only used but their uses are likewise taught.

All high-school pupils should have an opportunity

- (1) To collect factual material
- (2) To record this factual material
- (3) To organize this factual material
- (4) To interpret this factual material
- (5) To generalize upon the basis of factual material.

No teacher should use his position of teaching to propagandize in the interests of any religious, social, economic, or political creed.

Every teacher has the right to express his own personal views on controversial subjects, but this should not be done during the developmental period of the topic under consideration.

The techniques of dealing with controversial issues are among the most valuable outcomes of these classes and include an ability to collect information, to refrain from passing judgments before sufficient facts have been secured upon which to base these judgments, to organize materials, to see relationships, and to draw inferences and conclusions.

No teacher should express his personal views at a time or in a manner that would interfere with the achievement of these outcomes or that would condition the thinking of the pupil upon the controversial issue under consideration before that pupil has his basic facts.

Teachers in Many Schools Are Encouraged in Sincere Efforts To Deal with Debatable Questions

Although no comparable statements of policy were found in other school systems, teachers in most of the schools visited seemed to be free from constraint in the teaching of controversial questions. For example, a remarkably fair discussion of the policy of the Roosevelt administration in relation to business was observed in a wealthy community reported to be 90 percent Republican; two white schools in the South were studying the Negroes and their problems; and a class in a generally conservative community, when visited, was objectively discussing the question whether those American citizens who are communists or fascists have a constitutional right to protection in their civil liberties. Several teachers and administrators stated, however, that criticism is more likely to come from the study of local problems than from discussion of national or international issues.

The Support of Administrators Is a Powerful Factor in Building Teachers' Morale

A number of cases were reported of severe public attack on teachers or principals, in all of which the superintendent defended the person under fire. The support of the superintendents in these cases seemed to be powerful influences in building morale on the part of the teaching staffs. Two illustrations will be related briefly, without giving the names of the schools. A social studies teacher was unjustly accused of being a communist propagandist, and her dismissal was

demanded by several influential organizations as well as a leading newspaper. She went to the superintendent, laid her side of the case before him, and was told, according to her statement: "Don't worry about these complaints. If we took these things seriously, we would send for you. As long as we don't send for you, keep on teaching in the way you have been teaching." She has "kept on teaching" for six years and has never been "sent for." When observed, she was found to be doing a superior job of education for democratic citizenship.

A principal recounted that he had twice been under fire, once for using a school newsmagazine in social studies classes which was attacked on the grounds of alleged "radicalism," and once for permitting students to make chemical analyses of advertised commercial products, in a course on consumer education. In each case, the superintendent supported the principal and his teachers, both in public and with the board of education. The effect, the principal added, has been to strengthen the devotion of the entire teaching staff to citizenship education as a major purpose.

6. PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR ALL STUDENTS

Do the schools have as their purpose the welfare of all, as against every claim to special privilege? Do they provide equal educational opportunities for all, regardless of intelligence, social status, economic conditions, race, religion, or vocational plans? These crucial tests of democratic education have concerned us throughout this volume. Earlier chapters have described classes and out-of-class activities in which all students seemed to enjoy equality of opportunity; have reported schools and classes where principals and teachers apparently had the welfare of each student in mind; and have given examples of course-of-study mate-

rials which deepen appreciation of the dignity and worth of the individual.

Such practices usually indicate efficient administration, as well as good teaching. Effective teaching most often occurs where administrators select able teachers, encourage their professional growth, and seek to maintain conditions favorable to good teaching. Indeed, this Commission has repeatedly affirmed that the chief purpose of school administration is to provide the conditions which make equal and adequate educational opportunities available to all the children of all the people.¹

A large part of this volume may therefore be said to consist of evidences of democratic school administration. The classroom teaching and guidance practices, the out-of-class activities, and the community programs described in Chapters III, IV, and V, which help to provide educational opportunities for each according to his need, have in most cases flourished because the school administration has maintained conditions conducive to their growth.

There remains one other administrative practice, which aims to equalize educational opportunity, and which could not properly be included in earlier chapters. This is the attempt of school officials to suit the curriculum to the diverse interests and needs of all the students. Examples of this practice, to be described in this section, should be added to the three preceding chapters to make the record more nearly complete.

Programs Suited to Students' Interests and Abilities Help To Equalize Opportunity

Equality of educational opportunity obviously does not mean that all children shall have identical education. It does mean that all children shall have education of like

¹ See pages 35 and 331.

quality, suited as nearly as possible to their particular abilities, aptitudes, interests, and plans. The Abraham Lincoln High School in Los Angeles, California, attempts to give equal educational opportunity to all members of its heterogeneous student body through its "five-track plan of education." The school offers courses and programs leading to (1) high-school graduation with certificate of completion, for students of limited ability; (2) high-school certificate with diploma; (3) high-school graduation with trade certificate and recommendation; (4) high-school graduation with business training and recommendation; and (5) high-school graduation with recommendation to college.

At the University High School in Oakland, California, courses of study are differentiated in the last two years, four programs being offered: one for students planning to go to college, one for those intending to enter business after graduation, one for those expecting to follow manual occupations, and one for those looking forward primarily to homemaking. A continuous and unusually thorough guidance service, which has already been described, prepares students to make their choices intelligently.²⁵

The George School in Pennsylvania, a private school, the majority of whose graduates go to college, offers several courses or "sequences" adapted to the needs of various types of students. Three of the four "sequences," "Language and Mathematics," "Social Studies," and "Science," are primarily college preparatory, differentiated according to students' chief interests. The fourth sequence is carefully planned to suit the present and future needs of students who do not go to college, and receives a fair share of the teaching time of the ablest instructors. Guidance is also an integral part of the students' programs in this school.²⁶

²⁵ See page 137.

²⁶ See pages 136-37.

School Traditions Tend To Eliminate Distinctions Based on Wealth

The example from the George School leads to a moment's digression, to comment on the equalizing effects of school traditions in this school and another. The George School was founded, under Quaker auspices, so that the children of Pennsylvania farmers in moderate circumstances might have educational opportunities comparable to those of more fortunate city children. Today, many of the students come from wealthy city homes, but about one-third have "working scholarships," whereby they earn a part of their tuition by labor about the school, such as pantry service, cleaning, and caring for the grounds. Some of the students have no spending money whatever. The tradition of the founders still acts as a democratizing influence in the school. In spite of the wide range of wealth now represented in the student body, there was no observable distinction within the school between the students who work and those who come from homes of wealth. Principal and teachers affirmed that it was their aim to give opportunity to all alike for achievement in classroom, social life, athletics, and other student activities.

A similar tradition exists in the Fieldston School in New York City. This is one of the schools of the Ethical Culture Society, founded by the late Felix Adler as "a working-man's school." In his later years, Dr. Adler thought of the school community as "a cross-section of the American social tree," in which all classes of people would study and learn together. This school also draws many students from wealthy homes. One-third of the funds of the school, however, are used for scholarships, and 36 percent of the students receive scholarship aid. No distinction between students from wealthier and poorer homes could be recognized at the time of the staff visit; nor do racial differences

seem to constitute a barrier. A group of "representative students" was called together for a conference with the staff visitors, and this group included a Negro girl and a Chinese boy.

*Flexibility within Courses Permits
Adaptation of Work to Individual Needs*

In the Holtville High School near Deatsville, Alabama, the adaptation of courses to the abilities, interests, and plans of students is unusual. Practically all the classes visited were workshops instead of formal classes. As soon as a student decides what goals he wants to work for, his work in all classes is suited to those goals, as nearly as possible. For example, a girl who is planning to be a musician was doing most of her science work on sound. Another girl, preparing to be a dietitian, was concentrating her science for the term on experiments with rats, to determine the effects of various diets. In a class in chemistry were found students who were preparing for college, boys who intended to be farmers, and girls who expected to be homemakers. Although the general topic of study was the same, each group was doing different things, according to its particular interests.

A group of boys who were uninterested in any academic subjects, and who were on the point of leaving school, were guided into the constructive project of building a log cabin to serve as their classroom, then clearing and planting five acres of forest which is being made into an arboretum, quail farm, and park. In the cabin was a shelf of books on trees, flowers, birds, camping, and the like, which have become the written course of study for these boys. College preparatory students have special classes in their senior year, to equip them with the particular knowledge and skills required for success in college.

Some schools, we have seen, seek equality of educational opportunity by way of curriculum organization, with its many and diverse "courses" converging on the common goal of education suited to individual needs. Others pay little attention to formal reorganization, but permit such freedom within old forms that each is able to find his own course and follow it at his own speed. Organization is doubtless important, and will become more so as our exact knowledge about education increases. In our present state of experimentation, however, the particular approach and type of organization of the curriculum seem to be of far less moment than the clear purpose to provide adequate and equal opportunity for all, and the will and freedom to achieve it.

CONCLUSIONS

Democratic Administration Requires Superior Competence

1. The importance of the work of the administrator is enhanced, rather than diminished, when administration is conducted in accordance with democratic principles. A higher order of administrative competence is required to lead a group of teachers to pool their knowledge and experience, resolve their differences, and agree upon a constructive plan of action than is needed to give orders to those same teachers and see that the orders are carried out. Greater administrative capacity is demanded when the administrator shares problems with laymen and employs their cooperation in working out solutions than is called for when he undertakes to convince the same people of the soundness of solutions reached without consulting them. No administrator with confidence in his own powers need hesitate to practice democratic administration for fear that it will too narrowly confine his abilities.

*Democratic Administration Results in
Better Policies, More Intelligently Executed*

2. Participation of teachers in policy formulation, in schools in which this practice was observed, has resulted in improvement of educational policies. Furthermore, co-operation in the execution of policies has become more widespread and more intelligent. Teachers who have shared in shaping policies respond promptly and with understanding when administrators undertake to put these policies into effect.

*Democratic Administration
Builds School Morale*

3. Democratic administration is one of the most potent factors observed in this study for building school morale. Teachers, it was generally observed, are most likely to work and think to the limits of their capacities when they have voices that count in deciding the purposes of their work, and when they feel that their efforts are indispensable parts of doing jobs which they have helped to plan.

*Organization Must Be Suited
to the Aims of Democratic Administration*

4. Democratic administration calls for more than a general disposition on the part of the administrator to be democratic. In all but the smallest schools, organization is required which provides for genuinely representative bodies to share in policy-making; open channels of communication between representatives and those who choose them; reciprocal exchanges of ideas between administrative officials and the representative bodies; proper use of the knowledge and skill of experts; and assignment of executive responsibilities on the basis of competence.

Democratic Administration Safeguards Equality of Educational Opportunity for All Children

5. Democratic administration must be concerned with the rights of children as well as of teachers and administrators. Foremost among these is the right of every child to educational opportunity suited to his needs. This right, moreover, needs to be translated into specifics, lest we take unmerited refuge in easy generalizations. These are examples of the hard questions which administrators and teachers alike should never forget:

What does the physical education and athletic program offer to the boy or girl who is below par physically?

How does the program of music care for the pupil who has limited capacity for performance but who has a love for music?

What does the school do to meet the needs of the child whose talents lie in the direction of manual activities?

What does the school provide for the exceptional boy or girl whose capacity for learning far exceeds that of the majority of the pupils?

Students Have a Rightful Place in Democratic Administration

6. Democratic administration should admit students, as well as adults, to participation in policy-making, up to the limits of their abilities. This is not a mere generous gesture to youth. The schools which have received young people into adult councils have found that students contribute thoughtfully and capably to deliberations on matters within the range of their experience and understanding. Furthermore, the experience of working with adults has great educational value to the young people. Mature citizenship cannot be achieved through juvenile activities alone. Long before reaching legal adulthood, youth should begin to work with older people in shouldering the responsibilities for affairs which concern young and old alike.

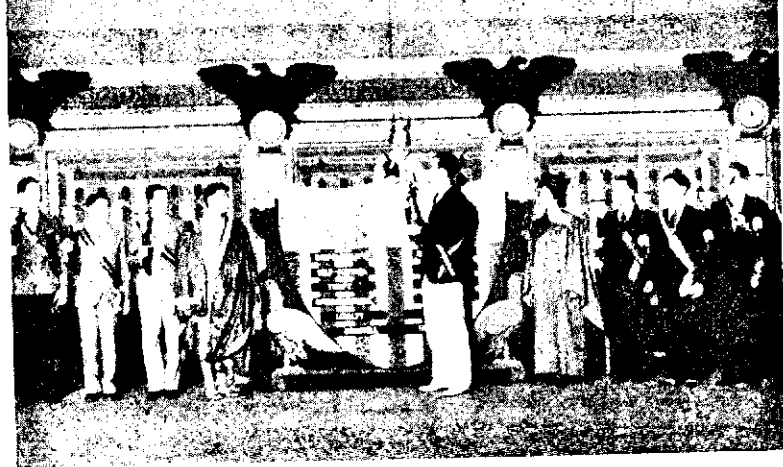
Democratic Administration Lays Responsibilities on Teachers

7. Democratic administration lays obligations on teachers as well as administrators. Every right to take part in policy-making is accompanied by responsibilities. Teachers who would merit such rights must first of all recognize that the job of the teacher includes more than the teaching of classes. They must become familiar with the programs of their own schools and with the operation of the whole school system. They must know the main educational problems on which they will be expected to pass judgment, and must ascertain the crucial facts relating to these problems. They must act efficiently in electing their representatives, in formulating their instructions to their representatives, and in holding their representatives responsible for performing the duties for which they were elected. They must understand that administration and teaching have one common purpose, to provide the conditions most favorable to adequate education for all children.

Laymen Can Help To Advance Civic Education

8. Only rarely, in the schools observed in this study, have laymen been brought into the process of educational policy-making. Yet it is not likely that schools will make great progress in civic education without the understanding and support of at least that portion of the public which is deeply concerned for the future of American democracy. While it may be true that the voice of laymen in the inner councils may sometimes hold the schools back for the time being, there is evidence from this study that thoughtful laymen are often willing to move ahead more rapidly in civic education than school officials have supposed.

TO THE UNFINISHED WORK WHICH THEY WHO FOUGHT HERE HAVE TRUSTING WE SHOULD AS
THE HONORED DEAD WE TAKE INCREASED DEVOTION TO THAT CAUSE FOR WHICH THEY GAVE
THEIR LIVES - THAT THIS NATION UNDER GOD SHALL HAVE A NEW BIRTH
FROM THE EARTH.



CHAPTER VII

Evaluation

of

Outcomes



THE SCOPE of the term "evaluation," as used in this report,¹ is well set forth in the following quotation.

Evaluation is not limited to the giving of examinations. It involves the collection of any pertinent evidence which indicates the degree to which the school is attaining its objectives, that is, the degree to which the desired changes in pupils are actually taking place . . . Instruments of evaluation include observations of pupils, records of their activities, products which they make, tests which they take, and other procedures for noting their reactions and their development.²

Evaluation and Teaching Are Interdependent

The importance of evaluation to education is fundamental and its influence is pervasive, for evaluation is more than a technique subordinate to the purposes of education. To an extent not often realized, evaluation influences the purposes, contents, and methods of education, and sets the goals for which students strive. The teaching practices in a school almost invariably tend to follow the lead of those evaluation methods which have the greatest prestige in that school. For example, the reactions in recent years against a narrowly academic tradition, entrenched behind batteries of academic achievement tests, have been profoundly influenced by new techniques of evaluation. These new techniques are likely to help make the new philosophies actually more widely operative in the schools. Conversely, the use of inappropriate methods of evaluation may seriously limit or cripple the best of citizenship programs. Thus educational goals and techniques of evaluation be-

¹ In planning field observations with reference to school evaluation programs the staff was greatly assisted by a one-day conference with an informal committee consisting of Howard R. Anderson, Louis J. Rath, and Phillip J. Rulon. These advisers, however, are in no way responsible for conclusions drawn in this chapter or elsewhere in the volume.

² Tyler, Ralph. "Appraising Progressive Schools." *Educational Method* 15:413; May 1936.

come inextricably intermingled. The concept of civic education here presented and an improved approach to evaluation must proceed hand in hand. A vital civic education cannot be assayed alone in paper-and-pencil tests or wholly in terms of information acquired, important as these are. Where school examinations and marks attach themselves solely or even primarily to verbal achievement, a full program of education for citizenship cannot develop. Evaluation which goes beyond the measurement of single factors in the complexity of citizenship is a necessary concomitant of successful civic education in the schools.

Important Evaluation Studies Are in Progress

The appraisal program developed by the Progressive Education Association, in connection with its current study of the relations between high school and college, exemplifies in many respects the new movement in evaluation. A staff of specialists, working with and through a group of selected schools, has produced a variety of tests and other instruments, focused on important aspects of educational growth in addition to memory. Techniques have been suggested for the evaluation of students' interests and attitudes, work habits and study skills, abilities involved in applying facts and principles to concrete situations, and sensitivity to significant social situations and problems. While these tests are not to be regarded as perfected instruments or as adequate devices for the evaluation of civic education, they have had a stimulating effect on the schools which are using them. They were found in use in all the schools included in the Progressive Education Association's study and in some schools not included in that project.

Among the tests developed by the Progressive Education

Association study³ which have particular value for citizenship education are the following:

Tests 4.2, 4.21, 4.3, and 4.31. Scales of belief dealing with the social issues centering around democracy, economic relationships, labor and unemployment, race, nationalism, and militarism. Each of these tests takes the form of a series of categorical statements concerning which the student is directed to indicate agreement, disagreement, or uncertainty. In the scoring of these tests, it is possible to group the responses in such a way as to measure "liberalism," "conservatism," "uncertainty," and "consistency of opinion."

Test 1.3—ability to apply principles. This test is designed to measure the ability of the student to reach a sound conclusion regarding a particular situation and then to indicate appropriate reasons for reaching this particular conclusion.

Test 2.5 is an effort to secure a measure of the ability of students to draw inferences from data in natural and social sciences.

Test 1.41 deals with the ability of the students to apply generalizations which express social values to certain controversial social problems. The test consists of a series of eight problems in the field of social education, concerning which students are to select a desirable course of action and to indicate their reasons for making the selection. The problems deal with the conservation of mineral resources, unions, the German-American Bund, the speed-up in industry, unemployment insurance, the effect of improved machinery on employment, and the distribution of incomes.

Test 8.2 is an interest questionnaire designed to bring to light the interests of the student, including civic and social interests.

Tests 5.1 and 5.11 are tests of ability to apply the principles of logic and the methods of mathematical reasoning to personal and social situations and to secondary-school subjectmatter.

The Progressive Education Association study is only one of many which have been instrumental in reorienting educational measurement and appraisal. One of the best summaries of trends in evaluation and of contributions to that field is to be found in the report of a committee of the faculty of the School of Education at the University of Michigan.⁴ Fifteen years ago the social studies teachers of

³ Further information about these tests may be obtained from the Evaluation Project of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

⁴ University of Michigan, Bureau of Educational Reference and Research. *The Evaluation of Instruction*. Ann Arbor: the University, 1939. 42 p., plus tests. (Lithoprinted.)

Rochester, New York, had developed and were using tests of study skills. The Cooperative Test Bureau and the Iowa Every-Pupil Testing Program have had widespread influence with tests of study skills and of pupils' knowledge of current affairs. Wrightstone developed techniques for carrying the appraisal of achievement directly into classroom procedure.⁵ The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York sought to deal with civic education through a broad evaluation approach.⁶

Some of the tests of vocational aptitude throw light on the problems of measuring citizenship, although direct tests for the vocation of citizenship are largely lacking. Many individuals, research groups, and test-publishing agencies in recent years have produced many instruments potentially useful in evaluating civic education in its broader aspects.⁷

This chapter is based on examination of cumulative records, marking systems and report cards, tests and examinations, award systems, and guidance activities, and on conversations with teachers, research directors, and administrators in the schools. This study made no attempt to collect information regarding the ordinary type of achievement test of information learned in the social studies or other subjects relating to citizenship. The use of such tests has become so general in secondary-school practice that little purpose would be served by repeating here in-

⁵ Wrightstone, J. Wayne. *Appraisal of Experimental High School Practices*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936.

⁶ See Spaulding, Francis T. *High School and Life*, and Wilson, Howard E. *Education for Citizenship*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1939.

⁷ For a catalog of available tests see Buros, Oscar K. *The 1938 Mental Measurements Handbook*. New Brunswick, N. J.; Rutgers University Press, 1938.

formation about them which is readily available from many other sources.⁸

In general it appears that the schools are developing their programs of evaluation along three converging paths.

1. They are trying to *widen the basis of evaluation by bringing into consideration all the kinds of changes they seek to make in pupils.*

2. They are seeking to *make marks or the records of achievement less vague and unreliable, more definite and precise.*

3. They are endeavoring to *reestablish some measure of unity between teaching and evaluation, to break down the isolation of measurement and its separation from the teaching function, and to make evaluation more consistent with the controlling purposes of the educational process.*

Obviously these three efforts overlap one another and combine in their actual operation, but, for purposes of clarity, this chapter will deal separately with them, and will describe selected evaluation practices of schools in each of these three fields of development.

1. THE WIDENING BASIS OF EVALUATION

Cumulative Records Include Citizenship Information

The best evidences of the widening basis of evaluation can be found in the types of materials that are increasingly finding their way into the schools' cumulative records of pupils. No longer do cumulative records in good schools show only a collection of marking symbols representing

⁸ For a list of standard tests in the social studies with some indication of the frequency of their use at different levels of instruction, see: National Education Association, Research Division, "Improving Social Studies Instruction," *Research Bulletin* 15:187-260; November 1937. "VII. Standard Tests in the Social Studies," p. 232-37.

estimates of achievement in courses. To these have been added not only mental measurements in the form of standardized test scores, but also health indexes, personal ratings, and records indicative of general student activities. For example, in the cumulative record of pupils in the high school of Holland, Michigan, will be found the following report of student activities:

ATTAINMENT RECORD OF Years

	10B	10A	11B	11A	12B	12A	13B
Honor Roll.....							
Attendance.....							
Council Member.....							
Boards, Managers.....							
Student Offices.....							
Class Offices.....							
Group Offices.....							
Club Offices.....							
Music Offices.....							
Athletic Honors.....							
G. A. A. Honors.....							
Gymnasium Awards.....							
Band Honors.....							
Orchestra Honors.....							
Choir Honors.....							
Commerce Honors.....							
Publications.....							
Programs, Plays.....							
Tulip Time Service.....							
Girls League.....							

The "extracurricular" activities of the Holland High School are a vital part of its civic education program and require high standards of performance, whether in music, athletics, photography, or student government. Achievement in these activities has obvious prestige in the school—a prestige based in no small part on the inclusion of activity reports in the evaluation records. These activity reports, moreover, are used in the school's guidance service and are

included in statements sent to parents, colleges, and prospective employers as a part of the school's appraisal of pupils.

Somewhat similar record forms are in use in the Collinwood High School in Cleveland, Ohio. Cumulative reports on pupils' personal appearance, habits, and characteristics are kept along with records of such school activities and services as the following:

1. Student control as indicated by services as:
 - a. Member of the Student Council
 - b. Monitor
 - c. Homeroom officer
 - d. Classroom officer
 - e. Committee member
2. Other services, involving:
 - a. Clerical help, paid or unpaid
 - b. Tutoring
 - c. Assemblies
 - d. Publications
3. Athletics:
 - a. Interscholastic
 - b. Intramural
 - c. Gym leadership
4. Clubs and societies
5. Honors and recognition
6. Outside interests:
 - a. Work
 - b. Recreation
 - c. Special aptitudes
 - d. Hobbies.

A bulletin from the office of the principal at Collinwood, dated October 18, 1939, emphasizes the value and extent of these records:

No real picture of a pupil's school career is possible unless cognizance is given to the services performed and to the non-classroom interests of the pupil while in school and out. For that reason, the Cumulative Activity Record Card was devised.

The keeping of this card is the duty of the homeroom teacher. It is a distinctly erroneous idea that this card needs little attention. To turn those cards over to pupils and let them fill them out as a group, without

Achievement in Subject Fields		Evaluation of Aptitudes		Evaluation of Adjustments	
School Level		School Level		School Level	
6A	7A	6A	7A	6A	7A
TOE APTITUDE:					
18 Dictation		12 Creativeness		46 PERSONAL ADJUSTMENTS: Poise, Stability	
19 Free Arts		33 Intellectual Capriciousness: Inspiring Mind		47 Self-reliance Self-reliance	
20 Home Arts: Industrial Arts		34 Initiative		48 Faces Facts Objectively, Open-minded	
21 Music: Instrumental		35 Ability to Appraise and to Use Evidence		SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS: 49 To Others of Own Age	
22 Vocal		Social Aptitudes: 36 Persuasive Ability		50 To Adults and Adult Society	
ENGLISH LANGUAGE:		37 Ability to Influence Others		51 To Authority	
23 Oral		38 Sense of Humor and Proportion		52 To Social Responsibility, So- cial Concern, Trustworthiness	
24 Written		39 Social Acceptability		HEALTH: 53 Physical	
READING AND LITERATURE:		40 Physical Skill		54 Mental	
25 Reading Ability		41 Energy, Stamina		55 WORK HABITS AND PROCEDURES	
26 Reading Interests and Activities		Mechanical Aptitude: 42 Understanding of Mechanical Appliances		56 ATTENDANCE, PERSISTENCE	
FOREIGN LANGUAGES:		43 Ability to Manipulate Tools and Materials		HOME: 57 Stability of Residence	
27		44		58 Economic Conditions	
COMMERCIAL:		45		59 General Spirit and Character	
28					
MATHEMATICS:					
29					
SCIENCE:					
30					
SOCIAL STUDIES:					
31					

Directions: Ratings should include pertinent data. Compare with all pupils of like C. A. in your entire school and modify the rating up or down, if necessary, on the basis of standardized test scores. The aim is to evaluate

achievement with those with whom the pupil will compete in higher school levels and, secondarily, with those with whom the pupil will compete in later chronological age.

H = Highly favorable adjustment, upper 25%
M = Medium or normal adjustment
L = Has problems that justify special help and guidance
(Give suggestions under 6A)

the personal aid of the teacher, is to fail to get out of them the possibilities in them. Just as personal conference is essential in educational guidance, so it is necessary for social and extracurriculum guidance. For that reason the maximum value will accrue from this card only when it is made out individually with the help of the homeroom teacher. . . .

Two types of cases need attention: the overactive and the inactive. The pupil often loses some of the most valuable possibilities in this type of activity by trying to do far too much. This is due to failure to recognize that the result is mediocre, and also to pressure on the part of teachers wishing the pupil's service. The balance must be maintained by the homeroom teacher. On the other hand, there is much latent power for service in our pupils which has gone untouched, either because of the pupil's hesitancy to volunteer for it, or because he is unaware of the service possibilities. . . .

Often it is wise for a pupil to change from one type of activity to another. This may be due to a need to contact different types of personalities. Again it may be because of the narrow nature of the service being given. And lastly, it may be because the characteristics of the pupil unfit him for the type of activity being engaged in. No one is as well able to balance these matters up as is the homeroom teacher.

In order to make certain that the data on the card are valid, the homeroom teacher must be certain that the pupil is actually in the activity reported and, if possible, how effective he is. No system of rating is employed. . . . Such a system tends to become burdensome, and the only really significant ratings are those of extreme worth or weakness.

An unusually comprehensive cumulative record is kept for pupils in Denver, Colorado. It provides for compact recording of all quantitative data, and for elaboration of teachers' judgments and observations in the more elusive, qualitative aspects of growth. The first of four pages is given over to home and health records and test data. The second page, part of which is reproduced on page 386, records ratings on achievement in subject fields, on aptitudes, and on adjustments, as well as information about educational and vocational plans. The third and fourth pages are largely blank and are used for written comments, under the following headings:

Supplementary Information for Pupils with Special Problems. (Nature of Problem, Treatment Tried, Results, Recommendations. Date and sign each entry.)

1. Problems Relating to Scholarship
2. Problems Relating to Individual and Social Adjustments
3. Special Handicaps and Disabilities; Transfers and Withdrawals

Additional Data and Interpretations Significant for Guidance. (Date the first entry of each school year. All entries should be signed.)

1. Resources That Can Be Capitalized
 - a. Special talents, attitudes, appreciations, and opportunities significant for guidance and planning
 - b. Nationality culture
2. Special Activities and Interests
 - a. Hobbies, recreations, offices, notable achievements, both in and out of school
3. Employment History
 - a. Specify place, type, and duration of any employment meeting real work conditions. Check and indicate degree of success.

Evaluation May Be Related to the Guidance Program

In the Sacramento, California, Senior High School, the program of evaluation, the instruction in the orientation units of the curriculum, and the guidance services proceed hand in hand. Early in his high-school career each pupil fills out a lengthy questionnaire. The items indicate the broad base of the school's program, and the effort to be as realistic as possible in the school's work in guidance. The questionnaire, which is similar to that used in a number of schools, becomes a part of the pupil's permanent record. Excerpts follow:

A. Background

Name Address

Year of Birth Month Day

Father's Name Nationality

Year of Birth Country of Birth

Occupation Education (.....) (.....) (.....)

Elem. High School College

(Same information for Mother.)

Language spoken in the home

Number of children in the family: Girls Boys

Check the forms of recreation the family enjoys together:

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1. Auto rides | <input type="checkbox"/> 6. Picnics | <input type="checkbox"/> 10. Working on hobbies |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 2. Radio | <input type="checkbox"/> 7. Indoor games | <input type="checkbox"/> 11. Dancing |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 3. Reading | <input type="checkbox"/> 8. Outdoor games | <input type="checkbox"/> 12. Movies |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 4. Music in home | <input type="checkbox"/> 9. Walks | <input type="checkbox"/> 13. Others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5. Concerts | | |

B. *Health*

Height

Ft. In.

How many days' schooling did you lose the past year on account of illness?

Have you had your eyes tested? When?

Do you wear glasses? Should you?

Is it easy to read work on the blackboard from your seat in every class?

Is the print in your textbooks easy to read?

If not, give names of books not easy

Do you hear the bulletins easily? Do you always get the

teacher's directions? If not, is it due to inattention or difficulty

in hearing? Do you find it difficult to study steadily for

an hour? If so, what do you think is the reason?

Have you ever had a severe injury? What?

Have you ever had an operation? For what?

C. *Interests*

What outdoor games do you like to take part in?

What outdoor games do you like to watch only?

What other activities aside from games do you enjoy?

What subjects do you enjoy?

What school subjects do you dislike?

Name three or four books you have read and enjoyed the past year

What types of movies do you like?

Name three or four you have enjoyed recently

What magazines do you read fairly regularly?

What parts of the newspaper do you read?

What types of boys or girls do you choose for your friends?

What school clubs would you like to join?

Do you belong to a club outside of school?

Have you ever held a club or class office? What?

Do you think you would like to hold office?

What? Why would you like this?

D. *Out-of-School Work*

Do you work after school? On Saturdays?

What kind of work?

What hours? to Do you work to help out at home?

To earn your own spending money? To save for your future

education? How long have you had this work?

What share of the work around the home do you accept gracefully?

- | | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 1. Washing dishes | <input type="checkbox"/> | 7. Mowing the lawn |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 2. Preparing meals | <input type="checkbox"/> | 8. Gardening |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 3. Cleaning up | <input type="checkbox"/> | 9. Stacking wood |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 4. Marketing | <input type="checkbox"/> | 10. Cleaning car |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 5. Making beds | <input type="checkbox"/> | 11. |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 6. Caring for younger children | <input type="checkbox"/> | 12. |

E. *Personality*

Check the characteristics below that you honestly think fit you and add others.

- | | | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 1. Studious | <input type="checkbox"/> | 6. Stubborn |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 2. Quick-tempered | <input type="checkbox"/> | 7. Willing to give in |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 3. Easy-going | <input type="checkbox"/> | 8. Impulsive |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 4. Calm | <input type="checkbox"/> | 9. Bashful |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 5. Fidgety | <input type="checkbox"/> | 10. Fond of talking |

(Sixteen other characteristics follow.)

The types of items included in the Sacramento questionnaire stress learning as revealed through behavior and indicate the school's concern with all aspects of the child's well-being. Obviously the collection of these data—as in the case of test scores and marks in courses—has little value unless pupils are made to feel the educational importance of the range of qualities with which the data deal, and unless the teachers use the data in making judgments of the child and in giving him adequate guidance.

*Systematic Handling and Use
of Pupil Records Is Important*

In a report to the Committee on Evaluation of the Progressive Education Association, made in May 1939, the University High School at Oakland, California, presented a chart of the types of reports and records kept at that institution and of the uses to which they were put. The chart-summary of that report indicates a widened basis for evaluation of pupils. The last column, showing the *use* of these detailed records, is particularly significant.

TYPES OF REPORTS AND RECORDS KEPT AT UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA

<i>Title of Report or Record</i>	<i>How Obtained</i>	<i>How Recorded</i>	<i>Use</i>
I. Routine records for all students			
A. Cumulative records			
1. Standard tests	By qualified members of school staff	By clerk on standard forms filed in central file folder	By school staff for basis for conferences with students and parents; for educational and vocational guidance
2. Health records	From school physician's examination	By physician on special form filed in central file folder	By school staff for general school and classroom adjustments; for planning school and home load and kinds of experiences
(a) Physical status	1. Routine examination 2. Examination on request of school staff		
(b) Health difficulties	Notes from private physicians; by observations of school staff; from students; from parents	Notes filed by clerk in central file folder	By school staff for advice on correction of poor health conditions; for educational and vocational advice
(c) Absences due to illness	From teacher in charge of school health service	Recorded by health service teacher on forms in health office	For health service teacher to select cases for examination by school physician; for educational guidance with reference to school and social load

<i>Title of Report or Record</i>	<i>How Obtained</i>	<i>How Recorded</i>	<i>Use</i>
3. Scholarship marks	From teachers at regular marking periods	Teachers record on report cards; homeroom teachers copy marks on term record cards; school secretary puts marks on permanent record card, sends copy to counselor and files one in central file folder	To inform student and parents of progress; to inform viceprincipal and counselors; official records of work completed; for program guidance and educational and vocational planning
4. Activity survey blanks	By each student each semester	Filed by clerk in central file folder	To help teachers to understand students' social life, vocational plans, money earning activities and special interests; to indicate patterns of vocational and educational choices; to show changes in interests and friends
5. Attendance records (a) Absence record (b) Partial day permits	Written by student; stamped by clerk Illness checked by health service teacher Through viceprincipal	By attendance clerk in attendance office and transferred at end of semester to central file On standard form filed in central file folder	By teachers and counselors for symptoms and causes; to send assignments to students and to adjust programs By teachers to understand students' problems; for educational and vocational guidance
6. Record of home contacts	By viceprincipal and counselors	By attendance clerk and counselors on standard form	To keep record of home contacts centralized; for school and home adjustments

<i>Title of Report or Record</i>	<i>How Obtained</i>	<i>How Recorded</i>	<i>Use</i>
B. Personal rating sheet for graduates	From teachers selected by each individual senior plus viceprincipal, counselor, and physical education teacher	By those selected on special blank	By principal and viceprincipal for recommendations for employment and for entrance to collegiate institutions; in employment and educational guidance
II. Special reports and records			
A. Photographs (Details omitted)			
B. Special reports on scholarship	From teacher on request of viceprincipal or other teacher or parent, or submitted on own initiative	No permanent record	To check on current standing of pupil; indicates necessity for change of educational plan or confirms current plan
C. Samples of students' work	Class assignments or voluntary projects	1. Filed in central file folder 2. Kept in department files	To indicate students' interests and abilities; to help in determining educational and vocational plans
1. Written work			
2. Art, craft, shopwork			
3. Projects in music			
D. Rank order lists of students in particular classes	From teachers as needed	Filed in principal's office	To determine marks for report cards and for college, for sectioning according to ability

<i>Title of Report or Record</i>	<i>How Obtained</i>	<i>How Recorded</i>	<i>Use</i>
E. Anecdotes	By school staff on observations in classrooms, halls and playgrounds, homes, street cars, etc.	On regular forms to be filed in central file folder	By school staff as part of description of behavior; in conferences with parents and students, by school staff to follow developmental changes, to analyze behavior symptoms for causes, to suggest change in home or school plans
F. Daily schedules	By students in classes	By teachers, especially in core courses and given later to counselors Finally in central file	To improve curriculum; for individual guidance; to help students manage their affairs with foresight and success
G. Diary records	Made by teacher usually while student teacher is in charge of class	In central file No special form used	By teacher or counselor in conference with student and/or parent to analyze learning and behavior assets and difficulties; to understand behavior or study habits
H. Questionnaires about pupils' backgrounds, interests, and aptitudes	By students in science classes	Filed in central file folder	By school physician in conference with school staff or parents, for health guidance, determining need for test period
		Filed by teacher in charge	For selecting topics and methods of learning suitable to particular class and individuals

- I. Observations of students' conduct in specific situations
By staff of trained observers watching student, class situation, and physical environment
- J. Estimates of individual student's achievement against outcomes expected
Observed and tested by teachers and student teachers
- K. Activity ratings for girls in games and sports
By girls once a semester
- L. Program cards
By students
- M. Assessments
By counselors
- In counselor's conference with students, parents and staff members; to produce objective evidence of behavior; to call attention to apparent weaknesses or success; to assess individual against the group
- In U. H. S. adolescent study files
- No regular recording kept by teachers
- Kept on forms in physical education department
- Collected by counselors
Recorded by secretary
- On special form
- In conferences with students to show progress
- By physical education staff; for recreational guidance and to encourage participation
- For making school program; by counseling staff, for social, educational, health, and vocational guidance
- To indicate goals and interests and responsibilities and their apparent significance to a student; by counselors, teachers, and administrators for educational guidance.

Testing Programs and Report Cards *May Indicate a Wider Base of Evaluation*

The Pipkin Junior High School in Springfield, Missouri, has made marked progress in adapting its evaluation program to the full-rounded growth of the child. A bulletin issued by the principal of the school for the use of teachers tabulates the testing instruments and techniques which are available in each of the following fields:

- A. *Social development*, as shown in relation to
 - 1. Getting along with others
 - 2. Acquiring and applying tolerance
 - 3. Cooperating when cooperation is needed
 - 4. Showing courtesy toward others
 - 5. Developing self-control
- B. *Intelligent self-direction*, as shown by
 - 1. Thinking clearly
 - 2. Proceeding with work without constant supervision
 - 3. Working diligently either alone or in a group
 - 4. Caring for materials and equipment
 - 5. Undertaking difficult work and continuing until finished
 - 6. Recognizing the importance of practicing neatness and accuracy
 - 7. Appreciating the value of promptness and regular attendance
 - 8. Using leisure time advantageously
- C. *Progress in functional knowledge*, as indicated by
 - 1. Improving in understanding and appreciating literature
 - 2. Improving social-civic understandings
 - 3. Increasing appropriate scientific information
 - 4. Appreciating good workmanship and good design
 - 5. Using mathematics in life situations
 - 6. Developing an appreciation for music
- D. *Progress in functional skills*, such as
 - 1. Numbering
 - 2. Speaking
 - 3. Writing
 - 4. Improving study habits
 - 5. Using library resources
 - 6. Maintaining health
 - 7. Reading
- E. *Special interests*.

The evaluation instruments actually listed under each of the above headings are distinctly limited in number and

variable in worth. This school, like all others observed, still has far to go in order to achieve a comprehensive evaluation program. But the outline is significant, because it shows that the school has a plan for evaluation deliberately and definitely related to its professed objectives, a plan which can serve to guide the efforts of the school to gather and develop adequate measuring devices over a period of time.

In discussing the above system of records, a committee of teachers in the school stated:

We use our records, first, with the student in the immediate high-school situation; second, for transfer to other institutions; and third, for purposes of research. This philosophy of the use of records started when the school opened its doors. Our progress has been commensurate with our teachers' in-service training. Thus, as skill in formulating and handling records has increased, we have advanced from the early days of the few simple records to the present extensive ones. We have traveled a long distance from the days when a secretary sent only I.Q.'s to teachers.

Fortunately, we have never built up an elaborate system of records for the sake of records. They have developed to meet the exigencies of interests and needs of individuals and of groups. In fact, so important have we considered recording educational experiences and measures of capacity and interest that we had in most cases a committee of teachers and administrators meeting regularly to discuss what, why, and how records should be made and kept. We believe that our policy of gathering multiple evidence and of indicating trends, makes it possible for us to have records for some interpretation of the child as a whole. Our philosophy of guidance opposes the use of records in which I.Q.'s, personality ratings, or information about vocational interests are isolated or over-emphasized.

A final example of the widening of the basis of evaluation can be given from the work of the Shaker High School at Shaker Heights, Ohio. This school system has an unusually extensive program of testing, carried on under the direction of the research division, and emphasizing the wide reaches of evaluation. The battery of tests used during the first semester of 1938-39, bearing on civic education in the secondary school, included tests of intelligence, reading ability, and general achievement in world affairs,

American history, economics, and other school subjects; tests of critical-mindedness, application of principles to specific situations, and interpretation of data; interest questionnaires; and scales of beliefs. The Progressive Education Association tests, referred to above,¹⁹ were used in many of these areas of growth. These tests are, of course, only one element in the general program of evaluation.

The report card sent to parents of Shaker Heights pupils, shown on the opposite page, also illustrates the widening of the basis of evaluation.¹⁹

These materials, selected from the cumulative records, the testing programs, and the reporting procedures of various schools, illustrate means by which the basis of evaluation may be extended to recognize civic skills, habits, and attitudes, as well as civic knowledge. Other illustrative materials will be given throughout this chapter.

Before leaving the question of a comprehensive basis for the evaluation of citizenship education, it is desirable to emphasize again that civic education cannot, in itself, be a broad and inclusive affair, convincing and effective for the students, until the actual basis of evaluation is broad. On the whole, though with some exceptions, students tend to think, to act, and to learn in terms of the evaluation instruments which are set up and given prestige by the school. Teachers are as sensitive to these instruments as the students are.

If the evaluation instruments differ from the stated purpose of the school, it is probable that instruction by the teacher and effort by the pupils will be directed toward meeting the requirements of the evaluation instruments,

¹⁹ See page 381.

²⁰ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, and Research Division. *New Developments in Pupil Report Cards*. Educational Research Service Circular No. 4, 1934. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1934. 36 p. (Planographed.)

SHAKER HIGH SCHOOL

Report to Parents

Pupil _____ Date of Report _____ 19____

Teacher _____ Homeroom _____

I. *Work and Study Habits*

(Seriousness of purpose—initiative—self-reliance—recognition of problems—planning of work—attack on difficult problems—use of tools and other materials—use of time—neatness—accuracy—thoroughness—concentration—persistence—promptness—completion of work)

Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
------	------	------	-----------

II. *Social Adjustments*

(Recognition of group problems—acceptance of responsibility for solution of group problems—respect for rights and property of others—respect for opinions of others—ease or confidence in group—attitude toward criticism and suggestions—ability to work and play alone in some situations)

Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
------	------	------	-----------

III. *Achievement in (Social Studies)**.....

	E	D	C	B	A
A. Command of information.....					
B. Evaluation of evidence.....					
C. Ability to report significant results of study and investigation					
1. Oral.....					
2. Written.....					
D. Constructive attack on controversial issues					

Preliminary estimate of semester mark in achievement — _____

Explanation of marks. The terms "poor," "fair," "good," and "excellent" are used to rate the child in terms of his own capacity rather than in comparison with others in his class. The letters E, D, C, B, and A are used for rating a child's achievement in relation to the achievement of all pupils in his grade.

* This section varies according to the subject.

rather than toward achieving the stated purposes. This is especially true as far as classroom instruction is concerned; there are many exceptions to the rule when extracurricular activities are considered. In some schools the administration has set up citizenship as a "primary goal," giving "citizenship marks" to all pupils, but still bases all matters of promotion and tangible school recognition on scholastic and athletic achievement. In such a school, the civic education program cannot possibly be as effective as it would be if the evaluation instruments were adapted to the same general ends as the program of instruction itself.

2. MAKING EVALUATION MORE ACCURATE AND SPECIFIC

"One of the most effective criticisms that can be made of traditional marks is that they do not tell anything," reported a committee of teachers of the Springfield, Missouri, High School, adding, "The marks 'satisfactory' and 'unsatisfactory' with no additional qualifications are probably open to the same criticism." Traditional marks and such general marks as "Fail," "Pass," or "Honors" lump together a great number of factors and do not, in themselves, reveal the standards or criteria against which they are judgments. In the schools visited—even those which retained generalized marking symbols—there has been considerable effort to make evaluations of pupils in more specific terms, and to report evaluations in terms of definite traits or skills or attitudes or other achievements. Obviously this effort to make evaluation more specific is closely related to the effort, already discussed, to extend the basis of evaluation; it is, in the minds of many, also related to a democratic concern with the worth and dignity of the individual pupil. It is in part an attempt to avoid a blanket judgment against an individual in whose favor specific good points may be made.

*"Citizenship Marks" Should Emphasize
the Peculiar Qualities of Democratic Citizenship*

One way in which many schools seek a greater degree of specificity in their marks of pupils is by the establishment of "citizenship marks" as separate from scholastic marks. Thus, on a report card, "citizenship" is listed along with the school subjects in which pupils are rated with a percentage mark or with a letter symbol. There is difference of opinion among the schools visited as to the value of the citizenship mark. A number of schools which have tried it have abandoned it, primarily on the ground that "citizenship," while distinguished from scholastic achievement, is nevertheless too vague and general to be honestly marked with a single symbol. A confusing factor, too, is the extent to which, in actual usage, a "citizenship" mark is only the old "department" mark under a new name. Unless the term is carefully described and defined, citizenship, to many teachers, means roughly "obedient and respectful behavior," or perhaps, "cooperation," without reference to the source of authority or the purposes of the cooperative activity. Under such conditions citizenship marks are not likely to help to develop the kinds of citizens a democracy requires.

Some schools have sought to make the citizenship mark more meaningful and honest by defining it in specific terms. At the University High School in Ann Arbor, Michigan, for example, a detailed description of the citizenship marks has been prepared. Excerpts from this description follow:

The Meaning of Your Citizenship Mark

Stated simply, "good citizenship" means "good *cooperation*."

Your mark should depend upon which of the following classifications, or combinations of them, you maintain most consistently:

- I. A 1 in citizenship means that you cooperate actively with your classmates and your teachers:
 1. You volunteer to bear your full share of the class and homeroom activities, willingly accepting the less desirable tasks.
 2. You serve loyally on committees, and you cheerfully manage any special duties assigned to you.
 3. In case of enforced absence, you take the full responsibility for finding out the back work and turning in the assignments promptly to your teacher, with full explanation of the delay.
 4. You are entirely dependable, working industriously whether or not your teacher is present in the classroom.
 5. You are neat and orderly in the care and arrangement of your working materials, always respecting the property of the school and of your schoolmates.
 6. You are courteous and well-mannered, kind and thoughtful to those about you, an agreeable follower and an unselfish leader.

- II. A 2 in citizenship means that you cooperate cheerfully, but only when asked to do so by your classmates or your teachers:
 1. You are interested in the extra activities of your classes and homeroom, and you will take part if asked to do so; but you usually wait for others to suggest these activities and to manage them. (Five other items follow.)

- III. A 3 in citizenship means that you are quiet and unobtrusive, apparently indifferent to participation in the activities of the school:
 1. You cause no disturbance, but neither do you help actively to carry along the class discussions and other activities. (Five other items follow.)

- IV. A 4 in citizenship means that you cooperate poorly if at all:
 1. You avoid all responsibilities if possible and are inclined to grumble if pressed to take part in anything more than minimum activities. (Five other items follow.)

- V. A 5 in citizenship means that you are both thoughtlessly and deliberately non-cooperative:
 1. You are irresponsible, and indifferent to most of the classroom and social activities of the school. (Five other items follow.)

Students in the Ann Arbor University High School may be awarded the school letter for scholarship, for citizenship, or for athletics. The director of instruction in this school believes that most pupils, if given a choice, would prefer to win the award in citizenship.

At the Thomas Jefferson High School in Council Bluffs, Iowa, several new types of citizenship rating scales and report cards have been devised. One of these, now published commercially, differs from some other citizenship rating scales in the emphasis which it places on initiative, resourcefulness, self-discipline, and responsibility.¹¹ Such qualities are more important in a democracy than the virtues centering in conformity and obedience which might characterize a school in a totalitarian country quite as well as a school in a democracy.

*Descriptions of Student Behavior Are Used
To Make Evaluation More Specific*

Other schools, avoiding the difficulties of a general citizenship mark, have sought to make their evaluation of pupils in specific terms through the use of descriptions of behavior and anecdotal materials. For example, a group of teachers in the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School at Gainesville, Florida, working under relatively favorable, experimental conditions, are making detailed records of the behavior of their pupils and are reporting to parents in concretely descriptive form.¹² One item of their record is simply a brief chronological description of observed items of behavior. Another item, based upon the *Personality Report, Revision B*, of the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., is given on pages 404-405, together with illustrative comments made by teachers.

¹¹ *Jones Personality Rating Scale*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1939.

¹² University of Florida. *The Social Behavior Program of the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School, 1938-1939*. Gainesville: the Florida Curriculum Laboratory, University of Florida. 13 p. (Mimeo.)

P. K. YONGE LABORATORY SCHOOL

1939

Social Behavior Trial Program

Instructor: Mr. Jones

Student: John Doe

Check below the item that seems to answer best each question asked

Record below instances that support your judgment

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>I. To what extent is the individual socially acceptable?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Sought by others2. Well liked by others3. Liked by othersx4. Tolerated by others5. Avoided by others6. No opportunity to observe | <p>John is usually with several boys. However, these boys don't wait for him or go to him between class periods or after class; is rarely chosen for a committee, but is accepted by the group when placed on a committee.</p> |
| <p>II. Does the individual get others to do what he wishes?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Plans for and directs others; usually wins support for his cause; adds to the enthusiasm of the group; "makes things go"2. Leads occasionally in important affairs3. Leads occasionally in minor affairsx4. Lets others take the lead5. Prefers plans made by others; fails to secure support for his cause; lessens enthusiasm of the group6. No opportunity to observe | <p>John is always one of the few students that neglects to give suggestions for class activities.</p> <p>Has rarely offered a solution for a class problem or difficulty.</p> <p>Has never volunteered to act as chairman of a committee.</p> |
| <p>III. How does the individual function in the group?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Participates voluntarily in worthy group activities; subordinates self to group; seems happy and willing in teamwork | <p>Never volunteers to work on a committee but is always willing when asked.</p> |

Check below the item that seems to answer best each question asked

Record below instances that support your judgment

- x2. Works with the group when asked
3. Contributes little to group activity
4. Contributes nothing
5. Reacts in an anti-social manner; avoids all worthy group activities
6. No opportunity to observe

IV. How does the individual attack his problems?

1. Has a well-defined program with well-formulated objectives in terms of which he distributes his time and energy
2. Directs energies effectively with fairly definite program
- x3. Works sporadically; habitually neglects work; uses time injudiciously
4. Reacts in an anti-social manner
5. No opportunity to observe

V. How well adjusted is the individual emotionally?

1. Unusual balance of responsiveness and control
- x2. Well balanced
3. Usually well balanced
4. Tends to be unresponsive
5. Tends to be over-emotional
6. Unresponsive
7. Too easily moved to fits of depression
8. No opportunity to observe

These incidents refer wholly to work of an intellectual nature.

John was given an hour to write a paper. He spent his time disturbing the class; consequently, at the end of the hour the paper had not been started.

Habitually turns papers and problems in late.

In the many times that John has been reproached in class and in the halls he has never become angry or sullen.

In the quarrels and controversies on playground he remains cool and level-headed.

The use of such anecdotal records, on a scale large enough to be of practical value, seems to involve more time than most teachers can give. There is some danger that prolonged maintenance of such records leads to a certain rigidity of observation and expression. Yet for experimental purposes and in situations in which teachers have time to develop and interpret their materials, anecdotal records seem to have the important value of focusing evaluation on concrete behavior.¹³

Joint Grading by Students and Teachers
May Encourage Definiteness

The Secondary School of the Colorado State College of Education at Greeley reports an extended experience in marking which is pertinent to civic education and the attempts to place evaluation on a basis of more specific judgments.¹⁴ "The need for some departure from conventional practice in assigning marks is apparent to any one who realizes that the philosophy of American secondary education has changed," says the report. "The seeming simplicity of the solution to the problem has undoubtedly encouraged many schools to undertake prematurely the introduction of new practices. The mistake has been made in assuming that the manipulation of symbols and the modification of the style of the report form is indicative of real progress."

Since 1932 this school has repeatedly revised its marking system, trying steadily to find a means of making evaluation more precise and at the same time more practical. The

¹³ Traxler, Arthur E. *The Nature and Use of Anecdotal Records*. Supplementary Bulletin D. (Revised and reprinted.) New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1939. 30 p.

¹⁴ Wrinkle, William L. *Eight Years of an Experiment in Marking and Reporting*. Greeley, Colo.: Secondary School of Colorado State College of Education, 1940. 23 p. (Mimeo.) 25¢.

forms now in use illustrate the inclusion of some types of pupil behavior and achievement which are involved in citizenship. One of these forms, a large part of which is reproduced below, is filled out by pupils and teachers jointly. It contributes to the report sent periodically to the students' parents.

Student Evaluation

Secondary School of Colorado State College of Education, Greeley

19

Student Course of activity Date

Directions: This evaluation form is to be used by the student in evaluating himself and by the teacher in evaluating the student. The student should mark a +, —, or 0 in the left margin in front of each item to indicate that his response is "Yes," "No," or "Unable to answer." The teacher should cover the student's answers and indicate his responses in the right margin following each item. Any differences in the two evaluations should be the subject of a conference between the student and the teacher.

Self-Direction

1. The student is regular and prompt in attendance except for approved cause.
2. Moves from one work situation to another without wasting time.
3. Begins work promptly and continues until it is time to stop.
4. Engages in effective activity with a minimum of supervision.
5. Meets his responsibilities promptly and carries out agreements.
6. Is intelligent in the selection of problems for study and in the organization of his study plans.
7. Intelligently follows plans and directions after they have been set up and explained.
8. Is critical of his own activities and seeks advice and criticism in the interest of making improvement.
9. Reacts in a positive manner to and profits by criticism.
10. Utilizes previous experiences in meeting new problems.
11. Has justifiable confidence in himself but is not over-confident.
12. Has courage and perseverance which keeps him on the job even though the work is difficult.

Social Adjustment

1. The student participates democratically in group activities.
2. Is considerate of the rights of others.
3. Is willing to sacrifice his personal interests if they are in conflict with the best interests of the group.
4. Does not submit to the judgment of others without an intelligent understanding.

5. Does not demand or expect favors or special consideration from his associates.
6. Creates a favorable impression in his contact with strangers.
7. Conforms to reasonable social standards.
8. Does not lose his temper, grumble, sulk, or show other negative emotional responses.
9. Maintains the respect and friendship of his fellows.
10. Has good manners and is courteous in his association with others.

Participation

1. The student eagerly takes part in the varied activities of the school.
2. Engages in activities which are new to him.
3. Recognizes the limits of his ability and intelligently limits the extent of his activities to the amount which he can do effectively.
4. Cooperates in group activities.
5. Is not satisfied with an acceptable minimum or anything that will get by.
6. Recognizes that participation has two aspects, e.g., speaking and listening to others speak, doing and permitting others to do, etc.
7. Interests and encourages others to engage in activities.

Breadth of Interests

1. The student has an inquisitive attitude which causes him to seek out new activities and experiences.
2. Is interested in a variety of activities beyond the requirements of his program.
3. Has more than a passing curiosity in other things.
4. Has the courage and drive to follow up his interests.
5. Makes personal sacrifices in order to follow up his interests.
6. Takes advantage of his educational opportunities.
7. Intelligently cooperates with others to improve the school program.
8. Supports and promotes worthwhile school activities.

Personal Attractiveness

(Details omitted)

Written Expression

(Details omitted)

Oral Expression

(Details omitted)

Basic Reading Skills

(Details omitted)

Location of Learning Materials

(Details omitted)

Care of Materials and Equipment

1. The student returns materials to the proper place when he is through using them.
2. Leaves the room in good condition at the close of a period of use.

3. Goes out of his way to keep the physical situation attractive.
4. Does not deface materials or equipment nor subject them to unnecessary wear.
5. Shows respect for the property of others.
6. Does not appropriate for his own use materials and equipment that belong to or are reserved for someone else.
7. Returns materials when they are due; reports loss or damage and pays any penalties promptly.

Another report form which stresses individual skills and attitudes essential to citizenship is that used in the Fieldston School, New York City. It provides a basic checklist of "habits of work" to be marked by every teacher of a pupil. In the Thomas Jefferson High School in Council Bluffs, Iowa, and in the Central High School of Tulsa, Oklahoma, each department or subject of the school has developed its own checklist of traits and skills.

Some Teachers Are Developing Their Own Evaluation Instruments for Specific Purposes

The search for a more specific set of factors in evaluation is not confined to report forms for use in informing parents of pupils' achievements. As already seen in the preceding section, it extends also to the testing fields. While many of the schools visited were placing heavy reliance on tests of information, they were aware that such tests dealt with only one criterion for evaluation, and they were beginning to supplement them with tests which measure other factors. The tests of mental operations developed for the Progressive Education Association find increasing use, as do other published tests of specific skills and attitudes.

Some few teachers are themselves attempting to devise tests for specific purposes. At the West High School in Denver, Colorado, a coordinator has been developing tests for various phases of citizenship practice. These tests are not used to give students grades in their school work, but rather to ascertain certain attitudes and knowledge held by

the students, which will form a starting point for the program of instruction. Among these tests are included some which deal with information about current domestic and foreign policies, with social, political, and economic beliefs, with characteristics of home life and with the understanding of school clubs, the latter being prepared in response to a request from the freshman class. In Rochester, New York, one teacher has specialized in developing tests of ability to read social studies materials. In Benham, Kentucky, High School a group of teachers has sought to isolate, in testing, the factors of critical-mindedness in reading, location of reference materials, ways of sharing knowledge, and the interpretation of graphic data. In Shaker High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio, a mathematics teacher is working with tests for appraising pupils' facility in applying rules of logical thought to social situations. In the John W. Weeks Junior High School, Newton, Massachusetts, a history teacher is developing a test of knowledge and appreciation concerning the Bill of Rights.

In other sections of this chapter are references to the efforts of teachers and school-research bureaus objectively to evaluate adjustment to the school, participation in school life and student government, attitudes toward school traditions and administration policies, civic beliefs and loyalties, and many other factors. Most of the teacher-made tests are not highly polished, statistically perfected instruments. They indicate, in the schools using them, a greater fear of allowing evaluation to be narrow and sterile than of allowing it to be subjective.

Citizenship Awards May Be Based on More Accurate Evaluation

Further illustrations of the attempt to evaluate in more specific terms may be cited in connection with the grant-

ing of awards. In many schools, awards are granted not alone for athletic prowess or scholastic achievement, but also for quality of citizenship within the school. The award is often based on a careless balloting, by teachers or by students or by both, for "the good citizen," but in some schools the attempt has been made to base the awards on specific civic acts and attitudes. In the University High School at Oakland, California, civic awards are made by committees of teachers and students who review the pupils' activity and service records from the cumulative files. In Benham, Kentucky, High School the seniors act as a committee each year to formulate specific criteria of citizenship which are then used as the basis for selection of outstanding school citizens. In Framingham, Massachusetts, the principal of the high school asks students to express their preferences for seniors to serve in various responsible positions in student organizations, and these preferences are taken into account in making the annual awards for distinguished school citizenship.

These means by which schools seek to make their evaluations more accurate and specific are promising but not by any means comprehensive. They tend to relate evaluation to educational objectives over a broad range, and, in many cases, seek to assay progress toward those objectives in terms of behavior. Obviously, much remains to be done in even the best of schools to identify the aspects of pupil growth which are demanded by good citizenship, and then to recognize these in cumulative records, reporting systems, testing programs, and the giving of awards. Efforts in these fields will be richly rewarded in improving the quality of the civic education program in a school.

3. EVALUATION AS A PHASE OF TEACHING

Significant and promising are those developments in the field of evaluation which reunite appraisal and the teaching

process—the practices which find evaluative data in the study of pupils as they are learning and which utilize evaluation as a guide in teaching. In very few of the schools visited was the traditional and unfortunate dichotomy between teaching and measuring maintained. “Final examinations” counting “a third” or “a half” of a course mark are fading from the practices of superior schools. The extension of the bases of evaluation and the attempt to evaluate in relatively specific terms inevitably emphasize the relation of evaluation to educational objectives and procedures. Said two teachers from the high school at Carpinteria, California: “The entire program of evaluation is a part of the educative process and as such must be seen as a continuous process. Cooperation of the teachers and students is essential. . . . The process of evaluation is more than a perfunctory inventory or a system of organized surveys. It is a portrayal of the growth and adjustment of the individual pupil. It is a teacher-student function.”¹³

The first indication of this emphasis naturally lies in the recognition by teachers of the evaluation function of classroom activities, student relationships, and the various learning exercises which are undertaken. Not only do tests become learning exercises, but all such exercises as writing themes, making maps, giving reports, and carrying out projects are also tests, valuable as instruments of appraisal. In the good teaching situations which were observed, teacher and pupils jointly regarded their day-by-day work, formal and informal, as evidence of their progress and growth. Appraisal was made not only of the “assignments” completed by pupils, but also of the learning and teaching process.

¹³ Hawley, Jesse M., and Southworth, A. E. “The Program of Evaluation in One School.” *California Journal of Secondary Education* 15:162-65; March 1938.

Student Participation in Evaluation Is Encouraged

One striking development lies in the ways in which various schools have brought students themselves into the process of evaluation. In a ninth-grade civics class in Lincoln School at Teachers College, Columbia University, for example, students and teachers consulted as to "what the important things are" that the teachers should tell the parents about the students. In a ceramics class in the Abraham Lincoln High School of Los Angeles, an honor roll was established some years ago to which the name of one student is added each year. The name of the best student is modeled on a large shield in the ceramics studio. Each year the students cooperate in selecting the recipient of the award by nominating a student, in writing, and explaining why he should receive the award. Among the recent nominations were these:

In my judgment I think that Lawrence is deserving to have his name on the honor roll. (1) He would cooperate with you. (2) He had an interest in ceramics. (3) He had ability.

1. His work was outstanding in his field. A beautiful molder and clay modeler. His fingers were made for the clay industry.
2. He needed no one to watch him while the teacher was out.
3. He was very intelligent. He tackled any problem that came to him while he was on the job.
4. There is no doubt as to whom I'm speaking of; it's Harold.

Such comments as these, prepared by students for the instructor, were not only a basis for awarding an honor, but, in generalized class discussion, led to the clearer formulation by the group, of standards of workmanship, character, and social conduct.

The public schools of Shaker Heights, Ohio, last year held a series of conferences on objectives, program of

studies, and evaluation policies for the schools.¹⁶ Teachers, parents, and students took part in all of these conferences. At the conference on evaluation policies, the following questions were discussed:

1. To what extent should students be given an opportunity to evaluate their own progress? What use should be made of such evaluation?
2. In what ways can the schools use more effectively the evaluation of students by parents?
3. Should the evaluation program include published tests which are widely used by the schools?
4. Should a curriculum which has been planned to meet student needs in Shaker Heights be modified to enable students to make better scores on tests published for nationwide use?
5. What use should be made of test results? Should they be given to parents? To students?
 - (a) Intelligence tests
 - (b) Tests dealing with habits of thinking, study skills, interests, appreciations, and attitudes
 - (c) Tests of academic achievement.

The report of the conference showed that students took an intelligent and helpful part in the discussion of all these basic questions of evaluation policy.

In a home economics classroom in the Lewis and Clark High School at Spokane, Washington, where twenty-five girls had spent almost a semester together studying problems of personality, a score card on personality items was prepared. Each girl then rated five of her classmates, and returned the score cards to the teacher, who gave to each girl a combined estimate based on her classmates' ratings. Skilful teaching and the development of a friendly class spirit are obviously prerequisites of such evaluation.

Self-appraisal by individual students is more common than group appraisal. In the Hamtramck, Michigan, public schools a questionnaire was used for the purpose of guiding both students' self-analysis and teaching. It dealt with

¹⁶ See pages 345-49.

classroom discussions and is typical of a number of other direct approaches to the evaluation and development of classroom procedures. The questionnaire used is as follows:

This questionnaire has been made for the purpose of finding out why more students do not take part in class discussion. If we are able to find out the reasons, we may be better able to help students develop the ability to express themselves in the presence of others. The survey will be useless *if you do not answer truthfully*.

I. Check one word only.

How often do you take part in class discussion?

- a. Always b. Frequently
c. Seldom d. Never

II. If you seldom or never take part in class discussion, check the reason or reasons for not doing so.

1. I am not sufficiently prepared.
2. I am afraid to talk in front of any large group of people.
3. I am afraid the teacher will criticize me.
4. I am afraid the class will criticize or laugh at me.
5. I am not interested enough in the class to bother taking part.
6. I think it is foolish to take part in discussion when I can pass the course without doing so.
7. I am too lazy.
8. The class is so disorderly and noisy that it is useless to try to take part in a discussion.

Add any other reasons that are not listed above.

III. If you take part in discussion frequently, check the following reasons for doing so.

1. I take part in discussion so that I will get a better mark.
2. I take part in discussion because I like to express my ideas.
3. I take part in discussion because I believe it helps others to hear my ideas.
4. I take part in discussion because I believe that everyone has something worth while to contribute and that if I do my share others will do theirs.

Add any other reasons.

IV. Do you feel that small group discussions help you to understand the problems? Yes . . . No . . .

V. Whom would you rather have conduct the discussion? Teacher . . .
Chairman . . .

Girls in a home economics class in the Holtville High School, Deatsville, Alabama, prepared a "high-school girls' personal appearance and personality rating chart" near the beginning of the year. Each girl rated her present status

on each of the items, and also indicated where she hoped to stand on that item at the end of the year. When the close of the year approached, she rated herself again, after which she was rated on each item by a group of her classmates. These ratings were then turned over to the girl, who was thus able to compare her own judgment as to her status and progress with the composite judgment of her fellow students.

The tenth-grade English classes in the Shaker High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio, carried on a program of self-evaluation in which, at the beginning of the year, students agreed upon the desirability of certain goals with respect to reading, writing, speaking, and listening. At the end of the year they were asked to appraise their progress toward these goals and to provide specific examples of things done during the year which led to the goals. One of the evaluation papers, as filled out by a member of the class, follows. In some cases, the "examples" given by the students are omitted to save space.

Last fall we, as a group, set up certain goals to try to attain in English this year, and the types of experience through which we thought they might be reached. In answering the following questions, I shall honestly and frankly try to evaluate my own progress toward these desired ends.

A. *Reading*

Through the reading of books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, etc., to what degree have I progressed toward the following goals? What specific examples can I give in each one?

Examples

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--|
| 1. <i>Knowledge</i> | (Omitted) |
| 2. <i>Pleasure</i> | (Omitted) |
| 3. <i>Broader interests</i> | In the fall, I would never read any type of book except a historical novel. Now I have added plays, adventures, poems, current events, biographies, and the like to my list. |
| 4. <i>Greater discrimination</i> | I never was very interested in current events, or world affairs before, but now I am very much. |

5. *An increased vocabulary* I don't feel that my vocabulary has increased measurably since last fall.
6. *An acquaintance with more varied types of literature* (Omitted)

B. Writing

Through the writing of themes, essays, book reports, letters, stories, poetry, summaries, etc., to what degree have I progressed toward the following goals? What specific examples can I give on each one?

Examples

1. *Ability to write correctly* As far as grammar goes, I hardly ever made mistakes before, anyhow. I don't think I have improved at all this year.
2. *Ability to write clearly* I have learned to write shorter, clearer, more to the point sentences.
3. *Ability to organize ideas* I have gained here more than in any other point, I believe. From practice I have improved greatly.
4. *Neatness and attractiveness of arrangement* (Omitted)

C. Speaking

Through conversation, public speaking, broadcasting, discussion, oral reading, story telling, and dramatics, to what extent have I achieved the following goals? What specific examples can I give on each one?

Examples

1. *Poise* Our regular Friday talks have done more for me than any other thing. I used to be petrified in front of an audience, and now I am not nearly as frightened.
2. *Ability to speak correctly* (Omitted)
3. *Ability to speak clearly (enunciation and pitch)* (Omitted)
4. *Logical organization of thought* Social science discussions have helped me in this point, for in debates, thoughts must be organized quickly.

D. Listening

Through listening to class discussion, the radio, music, conversation, assemblies, plays, recitations, etc., to what extent have I progressed toward the following goals? What specific examples can I give on each one?

Examples

1. *Knowledge* (Omitted)
2. *Courtesy* (Omitted)

3. *Ability to follow the thought of others*
4. *Tolerance—respect for opinions of others*

Discussions, debates, and the like, both in class and on the radio have helped me in this respect a great deal. I vary here, for if a person's opinion seems absolutely too ridiculous, I have not much tolerance.

Evaluation and Teaching Procedure Are United in the Use of Tests as Learning Exercises

As part of the study of parliamentary procedure in the English classes of the Clayton, Missouri, High School, the following matching test was given:

In the blank space to the left place the number which appears before the matching part.

- | | | |
|-------|---|--------------------------------------|
| | The right to speak | 1. Quorum |
| | The presiding officer | 2. In order |
| | The term used in referring to a member | 3. Point of special privilege |
| | The number of members necessary to be present to enact business | 4. Before the house |
| | In accordance with parliamentary law | 5. Session |
| | A member calling attention of the chairman to a violation of the rules | 6. Pending |
| | A request by a member to do something not bearing on what is before house | 7. Meeting |
| | Being considered by the assembly | 8. Two-thirds vote |
| | A meeting or series of meetings closed by a final adjournment | 9. Roll call vote |
| | More than half the votes cast | 10. Vote by ballot |
| | The largest number of votes received when more than two things are voted upon | 11. The floor |
| | A vote that can be counted | 12. The chair |
| | Endorsed by the chair as acceptable to him | 13. The gentleman (or the lady) |
| | A request by a member for a vote of the assembly on a decision by the chair | 14. Point of order |
| | The right to prior consideration | 15. Out of order |
| | | 16. Majority vote |
| | | 17. Common consent |
| | | 18. Division |
| | | 19. Sustained |
| | | 20. Precedence |
| | | 21. Appeal |
| | | 22. Minutes |
| | | 23. Motion |
| | | 24. Privilege motion |
| | | 25. Motion for the previous question |
| | | 26. Unfinished business |
| | | 27. Main motion |

- The record of the happenings of a meeting
- Business carried over from previous meeting
- A measure presented for consideration by the assembly
- A motion bringing new business before the house
- In order at any time
- Motion to close debate and vote at once.

The test furnished an index of students' familiarity with parliamentary procedure but at the same time, in the minds of both teacher and students, it was a means of learning about parliamentary law. It was discussed at length in class as soon as students had recorded their first score, and the markings of the test guided further teaching on the topic.

Likewise, for teaching purposes, West High School in Denver, Colorado, has developed a variety of tests to be used in the orientation course for Grade X students. The titles include "The Correct Thing To Do," "Personnel of the School," "Understanding School Clubs," and "Family Beliefs." Of particular interest are the "Application of Principles" tests, employing the technique of the Progressive Education Association Test 1.3.¹⁷ Here is a sample of a group of half a dozen such tests, each of which may serve as the basis for a thoughtful class discussion.

Problem: Marie has just entered West High School. The student ticket campaign is under way and Marie is asked to buy a ticket. She has to work her way through school but wishes also to do her share in the school program. The price of the ticket, which includes all student activities, is \$4.50. This may be paid in fifty-cent installments.

Directions: Below are four choices, A, B, C, D. Select the choice which you believe is most consistent with the facts given and most reasonable in accordance with whatever knowledge you may have. On the line to the left place an (x) before the choice selected.

Choices

- A. She should refuse to buy a ticket.
- B. She should buy only the parts which she will use.
- C. She should buy the full ticket and pay for it in cash.
- D. She should buy a full ticket and pay for it in installments.

¹⁷ See page 381.

Directions: Which of the following statements would you use to explain or support your choice? Mark these statements by placing an (X) on the line to the left of each such statement.

Reasons

- _____ 1. It is more necessary for Marie to attend school than to buy a school student ticket.
 - _____ 2. Unless all students support the activities they may be eliminated.
 - _____ 3. School loyalty demands that certain financial sacrifices be made.
 - _____ 4. If the ticket cannot be used there is no justification for buying.
- (Six other "Reasons" follow.)

In the Grade X social living class of the Eugene, Oregon, High School, an attitudes test involving local school affairs, personal relations, and general principles of group living is given to students and is then used as a basis for class discussions and study. A selection of a few items, from the eighty in the complete test, follows:

Attitude Survey

To the student: This survey will show your attitude on many subjects that will be discussed in your social living class this year. In answering, do not stop to consider exceptions to your usual opinion, but give your belief in general. Do not answer in any certain way because you think it is expected of you, but answer as you really feel. In the blank preceding each item write the letter *A* to indicate that you agree with the statement, *D* to indicate that you disagree, or *U* to indicate that you are uncertain or do not understand the implication of the statement.

- _____ High-school students should not be required to do home study.
- _____ Other students have left marks on school desks; it doesn't matter if I put my initials there, too.
- _____ In a democratic society each person is free to regulate his own conduct.
- _____ Teachers should be strict at all times and punish all disturbers without fear or favor.
- _____ Why shouldn't I throw my lunch remains on the floor? The janitor is paid to keep the building clean.
- _____ In a democratic school the rights and personalities of classmates and teachers are respected.
- _____ The school should definitely limit the number of activities in which students may engage outside the regular classwork.

- School is a phase of life itself, not merely preparation for life.
- Each student in Eugene High School should feel responsible for making new students feel at home.
- Student government means that the student council makes and enforces the rules.
- In a school conducted according to democratic principles, rules are not necessary.
- Since others in this class understand the rules of parliamentary procedure and since I dislike putting myself forward, I plan to take no part in class business meetings.
- The best way to teach young people to become good citizens of a democracy is by methods of very strict discipline.
- Democratic living requires self-control, and respect for the rights and personalities of fellow-men.
- Student government means individual self-discipline.
- In a democracy there are no restrictions on people's conduct.
- A democracy cannot endure unless its citizens are educated.

Another illustration of tests used in teaching is taken from the Santa Barbara, California, High School. This test deals with "Attitudes and Dispositions on Labor Problems" and indicates a possible technique for sharpening the issues involved in complex social problems. It is intended to show students' attitudes and consistency of thinking, as well as their knowledge.

We should like to know what you think about labor problems. Wherever you turn, you hear about them, read about them, and talk about them. Newspaper headlines feature labor stories. Dinner table conversation frequently turns on questions of right and wrong in labor disputes. You undoubtedly have formed some opinions. Will you give us those opinions with regard to the questions we shall ask you in this paper? Remember that there are no right or wrong answers. Of course, these questions do not represent the opinions of the teacher. They are simply views and opinions some people have, and you have probably heard many of them expressed before. Your mark will in no way be determined by what you say. Therefore, please tell us exactly what you think.

Directions: Read the paragraphs on the story of a strike. Then turn to the list of questions which follows. In each case, if you agree with the statement, place an A in the space to the right of the item. If you disagree, place a D. If you really are uncertain about your opinion on the matter, place a U in the space.

The story of a strike—The Associated Manufacturing Company employed 77 men. It had always paid good wages and treated the men with consideration. The management was opposed to labor unions on prin-

ciple, however, and maintained a spy system in order to find out which of their men, if any, were connected with union organizations. They found out that three of the men were active in union affairs and were trying to get all the men in the plant organized. These men were promptly dismissed.

Fifteen other men promptly called a strike and walked out of the plant. The remainder of the employees said they wanted to keep on the job. The local union headquarters demanded that the company reinstate the dismissed men and permit the employees to join the union. The company refused. The union headquarters established a strong picket line around the plant. The other employees stayed away, and the plant shut down.

The union appealed to the National Labor Relations Board at Washington, D. C. The company defended itself by saying that the men who had been dismissed were "agitators." The investigator from the labor board ordered a secret ballot election on the question of whether the men wanted the union to be the collective bargaining agent. The election was held, and on secret ballot, 62 out of the 77 men voted for the union. The labor board ruled that the men be reinstated with full pay for the time they had lost and ordered that the management recognize the union as the collective bargaining agent. No employee was forced to join the union, but all were bound by a contract made between the employer and the union representatives.

Mark the following statements A, D, or U depending on whether you (A) agree, (D) disagree, or are (U) uncertain about them.

1. Since the company paid good wages, it was wrong for any of the workers to want to join a union.
2. Even if workmen are paid good wages, they still have a right to belong to a labor union.
3. It is utterly wrong for an employer to spy upon the men working in his plant.
4. Since the employers own the machinery and pay the wages, it is quite all right for them to deal with the men as they please, even to the extent of spying on them.
5. It is none of the business of the United States government whether or not an employer chooses to let his men belong to unions.
6. All employees who try to work for union organization are agitators and should lose their positions.
7. The only strikes which should be permitted by law are those which involve wages, hours, or the physical conditions of employment.
8. It is unfair for the labor board to step into a dispute between the employer and his workmen.
9. The reason why many of the employees stayed on the job even though they later voted for the union was probably that they were afraid of losing their jobs if they expressed their opinion openly.

- ... 10. It is perfectly legitimate for workmen to try to get their fellow workmen interested in union organization.
(Ten other true-false statements follow.)

These are but a few of the tests used in teaching situations in schools visited by the staff. They are included here, not as statistically perfected instruments or as illustrative of the wide range of possible test forms, but as suggestive of an informal use of tests as teaching instruments (as contrasted with their use as measuring instruments alone), which use seems likely to have beneficial effects on education for citizenship and is worthy of further experimentation.

Evaluation Is Essential to Effective Guidance

Repeatedly in this chapter it has appeared that evaluation has a close relation to guidance and that both bear a relationship to civic education. In the statement from the principal of Collinwood High School dealing with the activity reports for pupils' cumulative records, the relation of evaluation to guidance was emphasized, especially as guidance functions in adjusting the student to the school group.¹⁸ The chart-summary of types of reports and records used at the University High School in Oakland showed the close relation of evaluation to guidance in that institution.¹⁹

In guidance programs in many schools, various personality indexes of pupils are accumulated. Often these personality records are self-rating scales filled out by students, and almost invariably the scales deal with personal traits which are basic to good citizenship. One such scale is the "Personality Chart" to be filled out by students in the Sacramento, California, Senior High School. Excerpts from

¹⁸ See pages 385, 387.

¹⁹ See pages 390-95.

the chart which have a fairly direct bearing on citizenship education follow:

Personality Chart

Directions: Below are listed selected traits of personality. For each trait there are three questions asked, lettered *a*, *b*, and *c*. Ask yourself each of these questions. For each trait decide which question best fits you. Then for each quality place a score in the proper column. If you are strong in the trait, and the question lettered *a* fits you, place a 5 in the first column. If you are in the middle class, place a 3 in the second column. If you are weak in the quality and deserve only a *c*, place a 1 in the third column. Be honest with yourself. Give yourself credit for all that you deserve, but no more. You will not be graded on this. The purpose of this analysis is to make you conscious of your strong and weak points so that you may develop them.

	$\frac{a}{5}$	$\frac{b}{3}$	$\frac{c}{1}$
1. Dependability			
When you are assigned something to do			
a. Can you be depended upon to do what is expected?	—		
b. Do you start out well, but not quite finish?		—	
c. Must you be watched every minute to keep you from loafing?			—
5. Initiative			
a. Can you see what ought to be done, and go ahead and do it, without being told?	—		
b. Do you usually wait for others to tell you what you should do?		—	
c. Do you always have to be told, sometimes two or three times, exactly what you should do?			—
8. Self-control			
a. Can you keep from showing your feelings when you are made angry?	—		
b. Do you sometimes allow yourself to have fits of anger or some other violent show of feelings?		—	
c. Do you frequently give way to outbursts of temper which you later regret?			—
15. Tolerance			
a. Can you be friendly with people who disagree with you?	—		
b. Are there a few subjects on which you are strongly prejudiced?		—	
c. Are you decidedly unfriendly with people who disagree with your opinions and beliefs?			—
16. Interest in people			
a. Are you really interested in other people and what they like?	—		
b. Do you show interest in only a few friends?		—	
c. Are you snobbish?			—

18. Cooperation

- a. Can you work with other people on a common project? — —
- b. Do you insist upon working alone? — —
- c. Do you interfere with classmates who are trying to work out a project with you? —

In the guidance handbook prepared by the John W. Weeks Junior High School in Newton, Massachusetts, are self-rating scales indicative of pupils' interests in activities, interests in school subjects, achievement in subjects, estimates of ability to do various types of school work, and estimates of personal traits and work habits. The first part of one of the scales is reproduced below; it is similar to those in use in many of the observed schools.

Self-Rating Scale

Name.....

Here is a self-rating scale of ten personal characteristics, which should help you to decide what kind of work habits you possess. For each personal trait or characteristic there are descriptions of a person who is *below average*, *average*, or *above average* in that trait. Place a check mark (x) on the line opposite each trait at the point which you think describes you best.

· *Below Average* · — — *Average* · — — *Above Average* —
 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

DEPENDABILITY

Never does what he promises. Always blames others for his own failures.	Will be responsible if supervised.	Can always be relied upon. Truthful. Never knowingly distorts facts.
---	------------------------------------	--

INITIATIVE

Makes no contribution to class work even when urged. Always has to be told what to do.	Frequently makes contributions to class work and is pleased when he does, but at other times is satisfied to follow lead of others.	Always contributes to class work. Is full of life. Sees jobs to be done.
--	---	--

(Similar analyses of eight other personal qualities follow.)

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Trait	9	10	11	12	9	10	11	12	9	10	11	12
COOPERATION	Actively works for class and school betterment.											
COURTESY	Cooperation passive rather than active. Does his share.											
INDUSTRY	Considerate and thoughtful of others at all times. Gives good attention.											
INITIATIVE	Effort superior in all activities											
RELIABILITY	Can originate projects, develop suggestions, and carry them through to a conclusion.											
SELF CONTROL	Can always be relied upon to carry out assignments without supervision.											
HEALTH	Shows good poise. Decides definitely between time for work and time for play.											
	Rugged and up to weight. Better than average.											
	Unwilling to cooperate. Indifferent and troublesome.											
	Slight consideration for others. Possibly disrespectful.											
	Poor effort. Inclined to be lazy.											
	Lacks initiative. Must be forced to do work.											
	Unreliable. Does as feelings dictate.											
	Often speaks and/or acts without thought.											
	Poor health. Subject to frequent illness.											

Records of pupils in the Framingham, Massachusetts, High School are filed in heavy envelopes, on which a cumulative rating scale of personal characteristics is kept. The scale is reproduced on page 426. Each year the reports of teachers are recorded on the blank, not as an average rating but with a separate entry for each teacher's rating; for example, a pupil may be rated high in cooperation by three teachers, average by two, and low by one. This recording of variations in judgments is essential to the wise use of any rating scale. Most of the scales reported in this chapter are utilized, not to make final appraisal by one individual or by a composite single rating, but to discern trends and variations in the judgments made, as a basis for intelligent guidance.

Evaluation Is Sometimes Employed in Formulating Educational Policy

Only a few cases have been found in which evaluation studies are undertaken because of their bearing on educational policy. At the time of writing, the principal of Elyria, Ohio, High School was conducting an investigation, the purpose of which was "to find out whether any conclusions can be drawn for the improvement of the curriculum of the high school, for the purpose of providing better opportunities for students to develop points of view concerning these important problems—the meaning of democracy, economic relations, labor and unemployment, race relations, nationalism and militarism." The instruments employed were a questionnaire and the Progressive Education Association Test 4.2, "Scale of Beliefs." The subjects of the investigation were five hundred unselected seniors from five high schools. The study will undertake to discover what relations, if any, exist between the responses to the tests and (a) the students' average scholar-

ship standing in high-school subjects, (b) the amount and possibly the quality of work done in the social studies, and (c) the background of parents as to birth, education, economic status, and political viewpoint. Students were also asked to estimate the relative importance of the school and other influences in the formation of their conceptions of democracy and their opinions as to the solutions of important American political, social, and economic problems.

In the Cincinnati public schools a testing project, intended to discover the concepts of democracy, the social understandings, and the listening and reading habits of 1,929 high-school seniors, was developed late in 1939 and is now being used not only for purposes of individual appraisal but in the reconstruction of the curriculum in the field of civic education.¹⁷ In the John W. Weeks Junior High School in Newton, Massachusetts, one member of the faculty is surveying the civic life of the school by securing, for each pupil, ratings on academic achievement, indexes of participation and leadership in school life, and other evidences of citizenship. He expects to compute correlations among the various factors in order to analyze the life of the group and to discover what seem to be the dominant drives to civic action within the school.

The "Study of Adolescents" which was made at the University High School in Oakland, California, and which has been reported in a number of articles in the *University High School Journal* during the past two years, contains considerable information pertinent to civic education, especially the studies of student leadership in school activities. In the Pasadena, California, Junior College a student self-survey was under way late in 1939, to determine the "civic activities" of students—their membership in clubs and informal groups, their morale, and the extent to which

¹⁷ Society for Curriculum Study. "Current Affairs Test Reveals Gaps in Curriculum." *Curriculum Journal* 11: 97-98; March 1940.

they were "forgotten men." A similar study of student participation in school activities was made last year by teachers at the University High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan. In connection with the Michigan Study of Secondary Education, the faculties of fifty-three schools have recently made detailed and illuminating analyses of their institutions. The list of items covered in this self-study may be obtained from the Michigan State Department of Education.

Evaluation of the Schools' Civic Products Is Unexplored Territory

Little evidence has been found, in this study, of efforts on the part of schools to evaluate the civic behavior of their graduates, or even to keep informed on the subject. To be sure, the evaluation staff of the Progressive Education Association's Eight-Year Study has been closely following the college careers of graduates of the thirty experimental schools. These studies, however, are concerned primarily with scholastic performance, and only incidentally with civic conduct; furthermore, these high-school graduates are still engaged in the process of formal education. Many other schools also attempt to keep in touch with their graduates while they are in college.

Some schools have records on the trends of crime and juvenile delinquency in their districts. A few observe the practice of sending a letter to each alumnus, as his twenty-first birthday approaches, reminding him to register and vote. Three of the schools visited were attempting annual public observances of "new citizens' day" patterned after the Manitowoc, Wisconsin, plan for public recognition of the coming-of-age of young citizens. These efforts, as yet, have borne but little fruit, probably because these schools have not gone through the long process of educational preparation which preceded public action at Manitowoc.

A closer and more enduring relation in civic matters, between the school and some of its graduates, is found in the cases of two schools described in Chapter V, Benjamin Franklin High School²¹ in New York City and Abraham Lincoln High School²² in Los Angeles. Each of these schools has numerous committees and councils drawn from both school and community, and on these the graduates of the school are almost always represented. The chairman of the Housing Committee at Benjamin Franklin, for example, was an alumnus of the school, a college graduate who had returned to live in the neighborhood of the school. In Des Moines, Iowa, high-school seniors are eligible to attend the "Youth Forums" which are a part of the public schools' program of adult education, and do so in considerable numbers. As a result, many of them continue active in the forum program after graduation. But these examples only begin to reveal the possibilities of follow-up and evaluation of the performance of high-school graduates *as citizens*. In this field lies the real test of effectiveness of civic education; and this field is largely virgin territory, awaiting exploration by educational pioneers.²³

CONCLUSIONS

Evaluation of Civic Education Requires Definite Civic Goals

1. Evaluation of instruction bearing on civic education should be made in terms which are related to and consistent

²¹ See pages 266-70.

²² See pages 273-75.

²³ The American Youth Commission's studies have thrown some light on the civic behavior of youth in certain states and communities selected for experimental study. See especially: Bell, Howard M. *Youth Tell Their Story*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1938. Chap. 7, "Attitudes." These are largely studies of attitudes, rather than behavior.

with the stated purposes of the instruction. These purposes of instruction, in turn, should be shaped by the ultimate aim of civic education, namely, to develop the kind of citizens needed for the advancement of American democracy. The first step, therefore, in evaluation of civic education, is to answer the question: What kind of men and women does American democracy require as citizens? This done, we can fashion appropriate specific aims and methods of instruction, and measure progress toward our objectives in terms suited to the maturity of learners.

*Evaluation Should Be as Objective as Possible,
but Not Limited by Objective Instruments*

2. Valid and reliable objective instruments should be employed whenever they are available. We should not depend on such instruments exclusively, however, lest our objectives be determined by the availability of instruments. When the objective instruments available are only remotely, if at all, related to the basic purposes of citizenship education, we should give much greater weight to the judgments of observers who are thoroughly familiar with the program and its purposes. All evaluation is, in the end, human judgment. Instruments are only means to supply information on which to base judgment, and wise judgment always includes evaluation of the instruments also.

*Purposes of Evaluation Should Be
Democratically Determined*

3. The purposes of making any evaluation should be understood by all who are parties to it—students and parents as well as teachers and research specialists. Here as elsewhere we should observe the principle that “democratic education guarantees to all the members of its community

the right to share in determining the purposes for which they shall work." By no means, however, should we dispense with the services of the expert in selecting or developing the techniques whereby we shall move toward these purposes. Democracy makes full use of the expert in executing policies democratically conceived.

*The Process of Evaluation May
Be Educational*

4. Whenever appropriate, those who are evaluated should share in developing the means and processes of evaluation, since this may be an experience of great educational worth. The citizens of a democracy need to understand the means whereby they can estimate progress toward social objectives, and this they can best learn through practical experience. Such participation is appropriate, for example, when students wish to observe their own success in working toward the objectives of a unit of study which they have helped to plan. It would hardly be suitable in measuring progress toward meeting college entrance requirements.

*Evaluation of Civic Education
Is Concerned with Growth*

5. Evaluations of civic education should be used primarily to determine growth rather than status. When teachers interpret the results of such evaluations to pupils, emphasis should fall on individual growth in civic understanding and behavior, rather than upon the comparative standings of pupils in relation to one another. If a student fails to improve or retrogrades, disapproval may be expected from the members of a group genuinely concerned about

the common welfare; but such disapproval should be tempered by understanding guidance on the part of teachers.

*Democracy Requires High Standards
and Strict Evaluation*

6. High standards of achievement and rigorous evaluation of achievement are not repugnant to a democracy, if the above conditions have been met. On the contrary, they are essential if a democracy is to attain that efficiency of which it is believed to be supremely capable.

*Expert Research Is Needed,
Closely Related to Teaching Aims*

7. The construction of the many tests, scales, inventories, and records which schools will need for the evaluation of their work in citizenship education is a large, technical, and continuing task. It is rarely possible or desirable for individual teachers to conduct this work unaided. The construction and scoring of standardized tests is a part of the services which local and state school systems should render in order that instruction may be improved. The task calls for a somewhat unusual combination of qualifications, including expertness in the technical aspects of test construction and administration, intimate knowledge and appreciation of the practical problems of classroom teaching, and a clear vision of the civic information, attitudes, and habits required by this democracy. Existing national agencies in education might well extend their services to include a clearing-house of information regarding progress made in evaluation by local and state school systems.



CHAPTER VIII

Things

To

Be

Done



THE CHIEF AIM of this book, as of the investigation from which it springs, is to tell how citizenship education is practiced by superior schools in various types of communities and in various sections of the United States. Accordingly, the preceding chapters have described in succession the nature of democratic ideals as applied to the conduct of education; the subjectmatter relating to democracy which is included in the course of study; the methods of teaching which contribute to democratic learning and living; the out-of-class student life and its effect on citizenship; the community activities of students which are sponsored or encouraged by the school; the administrative relationships and practices which have importance for learning good citizenship; and the methods used in the schools for determining the effect of education on pupils' civic attitudes and conduct.

This chapter is in no sense a summary of previous observations. Instead, it shifts the center of attention from the large and fairly clear-cut area of procedures and achievements toward the equally large and far less definite area of needs and problems. To describe things which need to be done, is not to ignore the excellent work already in operation in many American schools. But the story of accomplishment is told elsewhere in this book; this particular chapter faces the future.

Urgent unfinished business with reference to civic education confronts the American people in general, and workers in secondary schools in particular. To identify and explore these needs should be an antidote for any undesirable complacency which may arise from the inspiring records of pioneering accomplishment.

One further preliminary word should be added. Although the emphasis in this chapter differs from that of the remainder of the volume, the chapter, too, draws its

material from the schools themselves. The needs and problems of civic education, as recounted here, are not derived from theoretical analysis. They emerge again and again from hundreds of interviews with teachers, administrators, and responsible lay citizens who are close to the problems of education for citizenship in their own communities.

Civic Education Should Advance on All Fronts

No one of the schools studied in this investigation is using all possible avenues to effective citizenship education. In some places where excellent teaching methods were observed, the community relations were poor or lacking. Where the course-of-study material was unusually rich and significant, the administration of the school might be autocratic or the teaching mediocre. Where student activities functioned at a high level of democratic efficiency, the grading and marking system might be based solely on memorized information. Even the best schools have their blind spots. Education for citizenship does not consist merely of an effective curriculum or of effective teaching methods or of an effective relationship between the school and community. A comprehensive policy will consolidate the scattered advances in the curriculum, the teaching, and the school's relationships to the wider community.

Good Citizenship Education Requires Far-Reaching Curriculum Changes

All the usual subjects of instruction *can* make valuable contributions to a well-informed and loyal citizenship. But these subjects *actually deliver* their full potential values only when the materials to be taught are properly selected, organized, and presented. Selection of material

in terms of valid educational purposes and presentation of that material by skilful and well-informed teachers are essential. The study of American history, for example, can be useful for acquiring information and developing attitudes related to good citizenship. But it can also be, and sometimes unfortunately is, an exercise in verbal memory, uninspiring, unrelated to current issues, quickly and mercifully forgotten. The same possibilities of value, or the lack of value, reside in other subjects. Pedantic and doctrinaire views to the contrary notwithstanding, there is no virtue in any subjectmatter as such.

The time for half-hearted measures and palliatives is past. The principal of a large metropolitan high school said flatly: "Our curriculum is at least thirty years behind the times. We ought to be building a new program of general community education. Instead, we are trying to meet human needs with time and energy squeezed from the grip of certain external and traditional requirements."

College entrance requirements are often blamed for preventing desirable curriculum changes. The evidence on this matter is inconclusive. In some schools, particularly in small ones, it is felt that, although only a few students will enter college, the program for the entire school, in effect, is subject to college regulations. As a result, it was said, the most able students receive the least civic preparation, because of their concern with other subjects required for college.

On the other hand, some school officials feel that the colleges have been cooperative and helpful, that it is possible to develop good citizenship education within the general framework of college entrance requirements, and that the colleges are willing to permit thoughtful experimentation in the secondary-school curriculum. These people declare that college entrance requirements are

being made the scapegoat for the failure of the secondary schools to deal intelligently and forcefully with their problems. The memory of earlier requirements which have not been in general effect for many years is far more harmful, they think, than the actual requirements of the present.

In part at least, these differing views are due to differing conditions and standards prevailing in various sections of the country.

Greater Unity in Civic Education Is Desirable

"Our school," said a junior high-school principal, "is a *school*, not just a collection of classes. It is more than the sum of its parts. There is deep appreciation by every department for the work of the others. There is unified responsibility for the welfare of the children. Candidates for appointment to our faculty," she added emphatically, "are made aware of this viewpoint and of the necessity for preserving it."

The Educational Policies Commission has pointed out elsewhere¹ that there is emerging in the secondary school a new type of common or general education designed to meet the needs of all American boys and girls, a program of education as universal as the older program of common elementary education, a program in which citizenship is a major purpose. To reduce the chaotic mass of new materials which are groping their way into the secondary-school program to a cohesive series of learning experiences is the next major curriculum problem, both for civic education in particular and for secondary education as a whole. We must avoid excessive and unnecessary overlapping, care-

¹ National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938, p. 11-18.

less or superficial study, lack of definite purpose and content, misleading or confusing labeling of courses. The mental hygiene of the child requires a reasonable degree of system in his instruction. There is a vast difference between being willing to depart from tradition on the one hand and the absence of sequence, logic, and standards on the other.

Secondary schools, generally, greatly need a better organization of the new materials of instruction. New subjects of instruction such as mental hygiene, sex education, home and family education, safety education, conservation, personal regimen, propaganda analysis, consumer education, and others are being added to the program of studies. These are important matters; yet it is undesirable and impractical to organize them as additional separate courses.² These essential new topics of instruction, together with the most valuable elements of the older offering, need now to be assimilated into an ongoing program which, with due adaptations to local need, will be provided for all the children of America.

One obstacle to this new program of secondary education is the necessity for re-educating teachers whose whole professional education and experience has been in terms of compartmentalized subjectmatter.

This last aspect of the problem of securing cohesion among the various subjects of instruction is illustrated by the head of a certain social studies department who remarked acidly, "I am in favor of teaching consumer education in this school; but unless it is taught by my depart-

² Particularly unfortunate is the attempt to revise the school program by piecemeal state legislation requiring the teaching of specific topics at specified grade levels and with fixed time allotments. "The way for a community to keep its program of education in accord with the needs of the times is not to mandate the details of the educational program by legislation but to set up adequate machinery and competent professional service to bring the desired program into actual fulfillment."—National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, p. 82.

ment I propose to fight its introduction into the course of study.”

Such subject-centered, tradition-bound, compartmental thinking is not typical. However, until the last vestige of it has been rooted out of our secondary schools, civic education will be severely handicapped. Enthusiasm for one's own field of scholarship is an admirable trait, but no one should be called a teacher who permits that enthusiasm to thwart desirable changes in the education of boys and girls.

*Protection of the Teaching Personnel
from Partisan Pressures Is Essential*

Teachers should be accorded responsible freedom in discharging their professional duties. It is an asset to the citizenship education program to have such freedom recognized by the public and by the administrative officers. In several communities it was believed that the presence of an institution of higher learning with liberal traditions of freedom in research and teaching was a helpful influence in this regard. In other communities, Ann Arbor, Michigan; Cleveland, Ohio; Des Moines, Iowa; and Newton, Massachusetts, for example, adult forums appear to have a similar wholesome effect in demonstrating the possibilities inherent in a reasonable discussion of controversial questions.

Schools must be free to select the best teachers. In the schools of Ithaca, New York, the 193 teachers had been educated in 66 different colleges. This diversity of training and background is regarded by the school board and administrators as a valuable asset. Some school systems, unfortunately, are severely limited by residence qualifications and other irrelevant matters.

For example, one school system reported that, although a

policy of non-political selection of professional personnel had been in effect for many years, a strong, relentless, and growing pressure is exerted to use political and even religious affiliations as a basis for appointments to the teaching staff. The superintendent regarded this pressure with great anxiety. He felt that, if it were yielded to, the excellence of the schools would be materially impaired. When asked what characteristics he would prefer to consider in the selection of teachers, he listed, in addition to the usual requirements of training and maturity, such questions as these:

Has this applicant a democratic viewpoint?

Has he reserves of mental and physical energy?

Has he cultural interests which would aid the school program?

Is he reliable?

It will be a tragic wreckage of many years of progress in this and many another community if such standards are thrust aside in favor of the "right" religious, political, and residential qualifications. As it is, the superintendent, without benefit of publicity or gratitude, is taking a good deal of punishment in order to maintain the integrity of his staff and to give the teachers the greatest possible sense of security in their work.

Candor, moreover, requires the reporting of many cases of failure or inability to deal freely with controversial questions, due apparently to control of school policies by partisan political powers. "We are having an election soon to deal with our city charter," said a city manager. "Are the schools tackling the issues of good government which are precipitated by this election? They are not. And why not? Because our school board depends on the city council for its budget and its membership. And since the city council doesn't want the new legislation, you can readily see that

the school board is in no position to countenance the discussion of these important issues, much less to suggest that they be discussed.”

In another city a prominent and well-informed layman declared with a thump of his fist on the table, “Yes, sir, the efficiency of our schools dates from the day the legislature took them out of politics!” By “politics” he meant the selection of school-board members by city officials and on partisan, political grounds.

Other Personnel Policies Affect the Teaching Service

Having selected good teachers, it is necessary to keep them. Some schools with poor salary schedules find it difficult to do this. The high school in one southern community, for instance, had to replace nearly half of its faculty last fall. The salary schedule in that school ranges from \$720 to a maximum of \$1000 a year.

The great importance of competent teaching service should make it obvious that any personnel policy will have immediate repercussions in the civic education program. The education of teachers both before entrance into the profession and afterwards is closely related to civic education. Fortunately the Commission on Teacher Education is launching a study of problems in this area.³ The recruitment, placement, and assignment of teachers, their economic, social, and intellectual security, their opportunities to live lives of normal culture and independence, their working conditions, and their associations with colleagues, students, and the public are all intimately related to the

³ Commission on Teacher Education (American Council on Education) and Educational Policies Commission (National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators). *Cultural and Social Elements in the Education of Teachers*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1940. 51 p.

effectiveness of education for citizenship. Provisions should also be made in every state for adequate teacher retirement systems. When such provisions exist, a compulsory retirement age of sixty-five would be desirable.

Teachers should be good citizens. They should take part, on a basis of equality with other adults, in the civic activities of organization, discussion, voting, and the formation of public opinion. Anything which keeps teachers from being active citizens, whether it be misguided public opinion, minority pressure groups, or the inertia and timidity of the teachers themselves, is a barrier to good citizenship education in the school.

Good Citizenship Education Rests on Public Support

When the teachers of Greeley, Colorado, leave town for the convention of the state education association they have in their company a group of parents and other citizens interested in education. Before they leave, these parents and teachers meet to discuss how they shall "cover" the various programs to best advantage, what kinds of help their schools might secure from the experience, and what contribution they could make to the discussions.

In another small city a citizen of long experience in the community was asked what one factor was most clearly responsible for the success of the school. Without hesitation he replied:

The superintendent of schools has an active program of telling the community about the school. He helps us to remember that modern education is concerned with citizenship, good character, health, and a great many things besides the three R's. He often calls people together to discuss local educational problems. There is no elaborate machinery for such discussions; we do not need such machinery in a small town like this.

The only time we have been in danger of losing the advances recently made in our school system was when the superintendent dis-

continued for a little while his unremitting effort to keep the work of the school properly reported to the community.

The dangers of neglecting public relations are also illustrated by the experience of another excellent school. A citizen's committee began a series of public attacks on this school. Most of these attacks arose out of ignorance of the nature of a good school in general and of the facts of this case in particular. It was alleged that students lacked respect for authority, that they made their own schedules, ignored work, destroyed school property, failed in college because of inadequate preparation, and so on. Most of the accusations were untrue; others arose out of circumstances quite beyond the control of the school authorities. Yet these charges precipitated a serious crisis in the little town. Strenuous efforts were required to reestablish public confidence. A special committee of the board of education was appointed to review the whole controversy and, after answering each of the charges in detail, concluded its voluminous report with the following declaration:

Much of the misunderstanding concerning the schools arises out of a lack of reliable information. We recommend to the staff a proper program of publicity which will keep parents and citizens generally more adequately informed about the program and activities of the schools.

School Authorities Should Control Citizenship Education in the Schools

The relations between the public and the schools, particularly in the area of civic education, involve the attitudes of certain civic and patriotic organizations which have definite programs of citizenship training. These programs are often excellent in motive, even though they may be sometimes badly proportioned and faulty in technic. One superintendent described this problem and his way of dealing with it as follows:

The (*name of organization*) is much interested in good citizenship. They are powerful, locally and nationally. They wanted their program of citizenship in our schools. We welcomed their interest. But we made it clear to them that the schools already had a citizenship program which had been professionally developed and which must not be impaired. The organization readily agreed.

We then pointed out that no one society could have exclusive prerogatives in the making of citizens. This principle was also accepted. With these understandings and limitations our policy is to cooperate with all patriotic groups but to keep the school citizenship program squarely under the board of education.

Schools Should Meet Community Needs as a Basis for Public Support

A school which really meets the needs of its people is the best element in a program of public relations. The account of the Allen-White High School at Whiteville, Tennessee, as given in Chapter V, illustrates how far people will go to support education if they are convinced of the importance of that enterprise to them.

A similar illustration is provided by the experience of the Holtville High School at Deatsville, Alabama. Formerly the school had difficulty in getting the parents to understand what the school was trying to do and met some opposition to the program on the part of parents. Now the parents are giving good cooperation because the school has carried a number of valuable services directly to them. Where there is no gap between the school and the homes of the students, the opportunities for misunderstanding are greatly reduced.

Civic Leaders Should Be Enlisted in the Interest of Civic Education

In one small city which is the site of a state teachers college, the professor of government is a member of the city council, a prominent civic leader, and an ardent ex-

ponent and defender of public discussion as part of the democratic process. In Rochester, New York, a wealthy businessman; in Radford, Virginia, an attorney interested in crime prevention; in Phoenix, Arizona, a liberal minister; in Waynesboro, Virginia, a newspaper editor; and in Newport News, Virginia, an influential industrialist, have given leadership and financial assistance to citizenship education.

Community organizations, if they are effective and disinterested, may be of much help. Organizations of parents, of school alumni, and of students may be either formal ornaments or real adjuncts to professional leadership. Generally speaking, such lay participation in leadership for the good of the schools is achieved when laymen are given real responsibilities with reference to education.

Respected citizens of the community, when they lack adequate information and interest, can and sometimes do make a good deal of difficulty for the more progressive forces in the public schools. They are impatient with student-teacher planning; they want traditional courses such as they experienced and profited by—or think they did. Such people exert leadership—backwards. Every effort must be made to interpret a modern program of education to them and to win their support. At the same time, the presence of a reactionary minority is not an adequate excuse for inaction or lethargy in the schools.

Public Understanding Is Better Than Super-Salesmanship

One of the methods of study used in this investigation was to call together a group of lay citizens, with a few educational representatives, for an evening dinner and discussion meeting. At these meetings, discussion was informal and the lay people were encouraged to state their views regarding the effectiveness of citizenship education

in their communities and the ways in which it might be strengthened. Almost invariably, after such gatherings one or more of these laymen has come to the representatives of the Educational Policies Commission and, after making the usual polite remarks regarding the evening's program, has continued substantially as follows:

You know, I have lived in this town for fifteen years and have always been proud to be a friend of the public schools. The superintendent and the board of education know that I will help out whenever I can.

This, however, is the first time anyone ever asked my opinion regarding the general purposes which the schools ought to serve. Always, before, when I have been called in, it has been to help to float a bond issue or to raise a tax levy. After this evening I begin to understand what the schools are trying to do. I think my efforts to secure public support for the schools will be far more effective in the future.

The Minneapolis public schools have attempted to bring together, for the public information, a non-technical and brief, but systematic and comprehensive, account of their work in civic education.⁴ An outline of this document follows:

1. Recognition of the public school's responsibility for education for democracy
2. Democracy in administration
 - Staff responsibilities
 - Pupil responsibilities
3. Democracy in organization
 - Recognition of individual differences
 - Special education
 - Adult education
 - Use of school buildings for community activities
 - Professional organizations of school employees
4. Instruction for democracy
 - Provided through all courses
 - Curriculum planning
 - Field trips by teaching staff
 - Forums
 - Classes for the foreign-born

⁴ Minneapolis Public Schools, Public Information Office. *Education for Democracy*. Minneapolis, Minn.: the Public Schools, 1939. 6 p. (Mimeo.)

- Social studies
 - School journeys
 - Cooperation with Foreign Policy Association
 - Freedom of pupils in exploratory courses
 - Cooperative spirit among religious groups
 - Week-day religious instruction
 - Character training
 - Guidance and homerooms
 - Extracurriculum activities
5. Program to be enlarged.

Other effective means in use for securing public cooperation and understanding in the school program are described throughout this book, particularly in Chapter VI.

Conferences with groups of representative citizens in many of the cities included in this study indicate that the American people, on the whole, are deeply concerned over the outlook for democracy. They recognize that we dare not leave preparation for citizenship to chance. They welcome any proposal which gives promise of educating youth for civic responsibility. Public opposition to the efforts of some schools to provide this type of education often has been due to lack of public understanding of the schools' methods, rather than to hostility to their purposes.

Community Influences on Citizenship Should Be Improved

Some aspects of community life are detrimental to good citizenship education. To some degree, the schools can offset these undesirable influences. Illustrations of this process, as brought out during one of the meetings of laymen and educators, are given below:

1. Authoritarian attitudes in the home and on the job are often deeply ingrained. Schools should prepare for wholesome home and family life.
2. The imperfect operation of our democracy in its economic aspect has resulted in some cases of giving people liberty without bread.

or at least without butter. Schools should be concerned with the study of these economic dislocations.

3. There is a degree of public cynicism, which youth sometimes copies, with reference to people in public office. Schools should teach the values of disinterested public service, call attention to outstanding examples of it, and give to some of their capable students preliminary training and guidance for the public service occupations. If public officials are incompetent or dishonest, there is a remedy in public opinion. The great majority of public servants who are doing an honest and respectable job should not be forgotten, nor be made to suffer, because of the shortcomings of a minority.
4. The public fails in practice to act upon the ideals regarding tolerance and equal opportunity which it insists the school should teach. This applies particularly to differences of racial, national, and religious character. As one member of the group put it, "You cannot teach a child from a minority group to love ideals which you deny to him in practice at every turn."

These conditions simply mean that some of the implications of democracy for immediate conduct are but dimly seen and feebly executed. The attitude of the public toward civic education must be based on more solid ground than uncritical faith. There must be intelligent public understanding of the ideals which the schools serve.

One may go further and say that this public support can become fully effective only when it extends beyond the school into the life of the community. When one finds, for example, that fathers of boys in a school encourage certain types of anti-democratic organizations of the young people, there is grave doubt as to how far that school can go in developing democratic relationships, at least with those particular boys. A similar example was related by the principal of one of the best schools visited, who stated that the father of one of the boys in the school had said to him: "My boy is ready to graduate from your school. If he were just about to enter instead of just about to leave, I doubt if I would send him here. There are too many undesirables and foreigners in the school these days."

It cannot be too strongly emphasized that although

schools may rise somewhat above the general level of community citizenship and intelligence, they cannot rise very far without taking the community along with them. One of the most discouraging things reported by many communities, particularly in the larger cities, is the fearful deterioration in citizenship qualities which sets in among the young people when they graduate. Glowing with patriotism and devotion to democratic ways of doing things, eager to work for their own support and the welfare of their community, the young people are often plunged into a world marked by insecurity, poverty, unemployment, and a struggle for subsistence which often disregards the ideals they have been taught to revere. The school should assume the task of educating the community while it educates the community's children.

Civic Education Should Be Linked with Adult Responsibilities

The activities of youth in dealing with civic problems in their own communities have been the subject of an entire chapter in this volume. It is highly desirable that preparatory citizenship schooling be related to the actual activities of citizenship as they occur in adult life. On the whole, the observations of this study indicate that young people graduating from good American secondary schools possess a considerable degree of civic competence. They are well informed on many political and economic questions. They have had practice in carrying on democratic activities through discussion and in managing their own affairs. They are loyal to the ideals of democracy and are little burdened by prejudice and intolerance. Such qualities as these should be kept bright by immediate use. They are likely to rust and tarnish during years of inaction.

Communities should, therefore, engage the interests of

their young people in worthwhile civic activities. In this process the schools should occupy a position of constructive leadership.

One of the most important aspects of adult civic responsibilities is the attainment of the suffrage. There is a distinct problem involved in the gap between the age of approximately eighteen when secondary education is now commonly completed, and the assumption of the suffrage at the age of twenty-one. This gap is being reduced, in part and in some cases, by the extension of the secondary school. The signs of the times also point toward a lowering of the voting age, and in the opinion of the Commission, there is a reasonable presumption that such reduction in the voting age would raise the average level of civic effectiveness. However, a reduction in the voting age involves many considerations which the Commission has not had an opportunity to analyze and the Commission does not make any specific recommendation on the matter other than to call attention to the existence of the problem.

Any proposal to extend the suffrage to younger people would no doubt be required to run a gamut of opposition similar to that encountered in the past whenever changing conditions have made a broadening of the suffrage desirable and just.

A nationwide movement is rapidly developing to hold local citizenship induction ceremonies in which recognition is given to those who have fulfilled the legal requirements for naturalization and to those who have attained the age of twenty-one. The Commission believes that ceremonies of this kind should, as a matter of policy, be placed in the hands of the public schools and that the public schools should be encouraged to accept that responsibility immediately. As a corollary to this responsibility, the school should provide for a continuing program of guidance and educa-

tion between the time young people leave school and the time when they accept the full responsibilities of adult citizenship. Ceremonies of induction should be regarded as the culmination of an educational process rather than a mere incident that is "staged" once a year as a ritualistic show.

*Professional Leadership
Should Be Exercised*

In a certain city there are two senior high schools. They have similar buildings and equipment; are almost identical in size; use the same basic course of study; have teachers selected by the same standards and by the same administrative officers. In all outward respects they are substantially identical institutions. Yet to go from one of these schools to the other is like stepping from the brilliant sunlight into the uncertain gloom of a closed room. One school hums with cheerful and purposeful activity; the other is a treadmill. In one school the students and faculty are eagerly participating in various aspects of the citizenship program; in the other the meeting of day-by-day requirements in subjectmatter learning is all that is desired or expected. One of these two schools is known as a center of leadership throughout the region in which it is located. The other school is completely unknown, except to the people in its immediate vicinity. Both schools cost the same; both enrol a general cross-section of the entire population of the community; both have the same general organization.

Many factors are associated with good citizenship education in the schools visited. One, and only one, is universally present. It is just possible to have a good program of citizenship education with a shortage of other factors, but no school which lacks competent leadership can con-

duct an efficient program of education for citizenship or for any other purpose. Such leadership can and often does triumph over the lack of the other elements which are desirable. If all the other elements which are desirable are added together, and if leadership is lacking from the total, good citizenship education will not ensue. This leadership may flow from the principal, the superintendent, from both of these officers, and not infrequently from a teacher or group of teachers. Always and everywhere, whatever its source, leadership exemplifies in its own actions those qualities which it seeks to develop in others.

The quality of supervisory and executive services provided by the superintendent of schools, and in the larger school systems by his immediate staff, can be extremely important. The principal also occupies a key position. The function of these officers in retaining public support and confidence has already been discussed. Furthermore, they often decide whether the school system shall only preach democracy or whether it shall *be* democracy, whether superior teaching shall be recognized or ignored, whether textbooks shall be good or poor, whether teaching supplies shall be adequate or lacking, and whether the necessary regulations shall be helpful aids to efficiency or snarls of annoying, obstructive red tape.

Few of the schools in this study which have achieved greatness have done so without great leaders in the administrative and supervisory positions.

Continuity and Diffusion of Leadership Are Desirable

Wise leaders work consciously and steadily to develop the abilities and insights of their colleagues and possible successors. In many schools, however, the disturbing thought arises, "What would happen to this fine program

if —— were to be called away tomorrow?" A great personality seems to make itself indispensable; yet there may be others in reserve who require nothing but opportunity to attain equal stature. In any case, it would be well for superintendents and principals who are sincerely concerned about the schools with which they are associated, to develop and encourage a group of colleagues who may share in their work now and be able in the future to carry that work onward. This function of leadership can and should be done without apparent "grooming" of some supposed favorite for a position soon to be vacated. It should be a conscious and continuing process extending over many years and involving in leadership activity as many different persons as possible.

State and National Leadership Efforts Are Needed

The principal of Denby High School in Detroit, Michigan, remarked: "The inclusion of Denby in the Michigan Twelve-Year Study of Secondary Education will give us the best chance we have ever received to develop a good citizenship education program. It will mean a great deal of work for us all, but it will be worth it." In several California schools the Cooperative Study of the California State Department of Education, Division of Secondary Education, was reported as a stimulating and helpful clearing-house. In Rochester, New York, the reports of the New York State Association of High-School Principals helped to change the requirements for graduation, making possible more work in the social studies and a more highly effective guidance program.

On a still wider basis, testimony was offered, for example, at the Collinwood High School in Cleveland, Ohio, at the Parker District High School at Greenville, South Carolina,

at the Santa Barbara High School in California, at the Radnor Township High School in Wayne, Pennsylvania, and in the Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, public schools, regarding the values of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, the Southern Association's Cooperative Study, the Stanford Social Education Investigation, the Progressive Education Association's Study of the Relation of High School to College, and the work of the Commission on Teacher Education, respectively.

From the viewpoint of the schools directly involved, the money and effort expended in such activities in recent years have been of great value, enabling these schools to do quickly and effectively work which, if limited to local financing and initiative, might never have been started. On the other hand, the influence of the experimental schools on other schools outside the experiments has been, as far as this study shows, distinctly limited. Future efforts of this type should achieve more fully the possibilities of national and state leadership, by using selected schools as demonstration centers as well as experimental centers, by sponsoring interschool conferences, and by systematic planning for school visits and tours.

Systematic Experimentation Is Required

In a certain city a minister who was evidently an intelligent and penetrating observer of education made the following opening statement at a meeting where citizens and school people were represented:

It happens that my church serves the area covered by two schools—the one you have been visiting today and another. I see a distinct difference in the citizenship and the character of the young people in our church who come from these two schools.

At this point the speaker was interrupted by a question. Someone asked, "What is the nature of the difference you

observe?" Responding promptly, the speaker continued:

Why, I notice, for example, that the pupils from the school that you have visited are more conscious of social problems; less disposed to form snobbish cliques; more liberal on economic and political questions; more tolerant; inclined to use self-discipline in the management of the Sunday School; and in general more concerned for the common welfare. There must be something in one school which does not exist in the other school.

Let me ask you this question: How does it happen that one school turns out good citizens, while another school is undistinguished in this respect? What are the possibilities for making all our schools as effective as the one that you have been observing?

The minister's question had not been clearly answered when the meeting adjourned. What, after all, are the elements that cause a school to achieve greatness?

The student of plant life can place a series of similar seedings in identical soils. By adding first one nutritive element and then another, he can encourage or check their growth. He can make one plant vigorous and fruitful and another weak and sterile. By long-continued, but still essentially simple, experimentation he can find out the elements which that plant requires and the amounts of each substance which are desirable. If we could trace the evolution of a school from poor to mediocre and from average to excellent, noting the influence of this factor and that, we might develop a scientific program for making all schools better.

A study of education, particularly with reference to so complex a field as the development of civic responsibility, differs greatly from the task of the student of plant growth. We cannot add or subtract at will the elements of greatness. Our observations are always relatively short, while the effects which we seek to trace may require a lifetime, or even several generations, to mature. Our data are few, often subjective, always subject to some range of differing interpretations, rarely expressed in quantitative units. The control of factors outside of the school—factors which often

powerfully affect citizenship—is a vexing and omnipresent difficulty. And yet, difficult as the road of experimentation and evaluation may be, there is no other way to basic improvement in education.

As a matter of fact, not one of the schools visited had a comprehensive program of its own for the evaluation of its work in citizenship education. All were experiencing; none was experimenting. The only large-scale, systematic experimentation in these schools is being conducted by a few state and national agencies. The schools themselves are so busy in the doing that they have neither time nor money nor personnel for adequate study of their results. For example, no schools were found which make long-time studies of the citizenship of their graduates, although comparable vocational follow-up studies are quite common. Other studies are needed in many areas which are as yet relatively unexplored; for example, the uses of radio and motion pictures; the uses and misuses of rituals, symbols, slogans, drama, pageantry to develop emotional attachments to democracy; continuity and development in citizenship education from elementary school, through high school, and on to college or post high-school adult life; how to relate vocational education and citizenship education effectively; and methods of bringing representative lay citizens into the process of planning and evaluating citizenship education.

Instruments for Evaluating Civic Outcomes Should Be Developed

The standardized tests now available for general administration in the field of social education are largely tests of information. The schools use these tests for certain purposes but they do not suppose that such tests are satisfactory indicators of civic attitudes, loyalties, ideals, and habits.

The lack of tests for the most important outcomes of civic education is reflected back into the program of instruction. Most teachers regard testing as indispensable to good instruction. As one teacher put it, "When teachers start to try anything new, they soon get scared, because they realize that they may not be able to test the results, and since they can't test them, they are afraid to teach them."

If, as a result of efforts now under way in the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association and elsewhere, there should become generally available some usable and reliable tests of civic attitudes and conduct, local experimentation would probably show some improvement. Until this occurs, the principal stream of experimentation, in all except the very largest school systems, will continue to flow through state, regional, and national inquiries which can summon personnel and funds quite beyond the reach of most individual schools and school systems. There is every indication of willingness on the part of local school officials to cooperate actively in such fundamental studies. The extraordinary interest and enthusiasm which greeted the field work of this study is abundant proof of that. Granting that there are limitations on the amount and character of quantitative evaluation in citizenship education, methods of recording and observing could probably be sufficiently improved to yield useful clues concerning the success of particular programs.

*Practices of Good Schools and Good Teachers
Should Be Disseminated*

While national, state, and regional agencies possess certain obvious and important advantages for speeding up the process whereby democratic purposes, efficient pro-

cedures, and competent personnel may become more influential over a wide area, possibilities of contributing to this purpose through local action should not be minimized.

The simplest and most welcome type of supervisory leadership and assistance was described by a Cleveland, Ohio, principal in these terms, "Successful school supervision is a continuing effort to find the best practice anywhere in the city and to give it a chance to spread within the school and from one school to another." As an example of such practice, this principal mentioned the plan whereby each high school in the city has been designated as a curriculum center for one of the subjects of instruction.

There is, on the whole, surprisingly little effort being made to spread good practices even within a single school, to say nothing of contacts extending from one school to another within the same school system. Mistaken beliefs that such efforts would impair academic freedom, sharp distinctions and rivalries among subjectmatter departments, absence of vital professional staff meetings, unnecessary antipathies between teachers and other school workers, personal rivalries, the development of secondary schools which are merely the visible extension of a single dominating personality, as well as inability to recognize good work and inertia in disseminating it, are among the factors which account for this unfortunate isolation. It is entirely possible for teachers to be doing excellent work and to receive no recognition whatever for it. Even more serious, in some instances, is the fact that superior work is not only unhonored but literally unknown. Even in good schools, a visitor may sometimes discover promising procedures (or bad ones) of which the administration of the school is quite unaware.

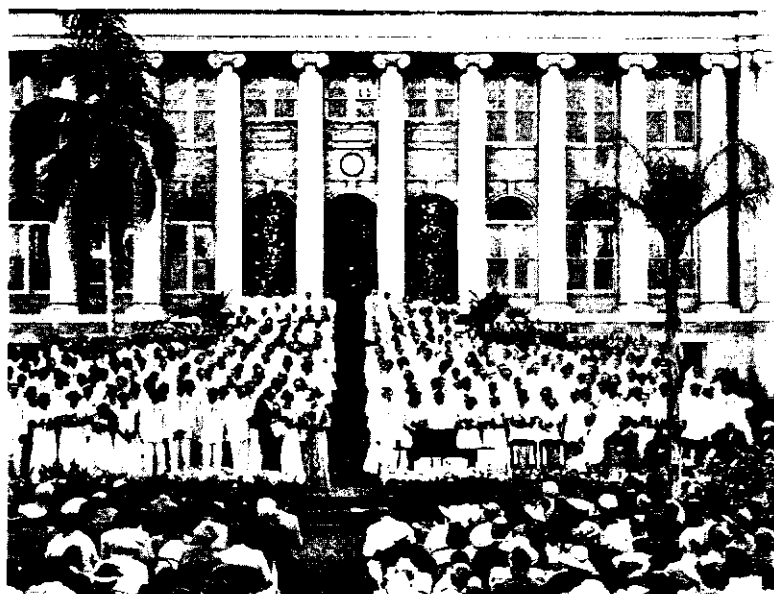
Local recognition of teachers who contribute in significant ways to good citizenship is desirable. If, in addition,

superior teachers, schools, and school systems might be made to feel that they are part of a national movement, rather than isolated workers, great forward strides would certainly occur. Small investments in providing consultative assistance, information services, and some measure of inspiring leadership, would yield high returns in effective citizenship.

*Educators Need To Think Deeply and
Care Sincerely about Democratic Living*

That the protection and improvement of the American democracy depend on education is a well-worn maxim which may conceal an extremely vital issue. Not just any kind of education will suffice. Education may be called "training for citizenship" and yet fall far short of that purpose. The label on the package does not guarantee the quality of the substance therein. To identify democratic citizenship casually with obedience to the teacher, with orderliness in the school auditorium, with good manners at the senior "Prom," with memorized words and phrases about American history and institutions, with industry and scholarship, with activity in student affairs, desirable as these things all may be, probably does more harm than good. Democratic citizenship requires certain qualities of mind and spirit, qualities that may be effectively taught only by those who possess them, understand them, and cherish them.

Education which produces an active and intelligent loyalty to democracy must be built upon hard, clear thinking about democratic ideals and upon resolute, devoted application of those ideals to the common, garden-variety problems of life in school, community, state, and nation.



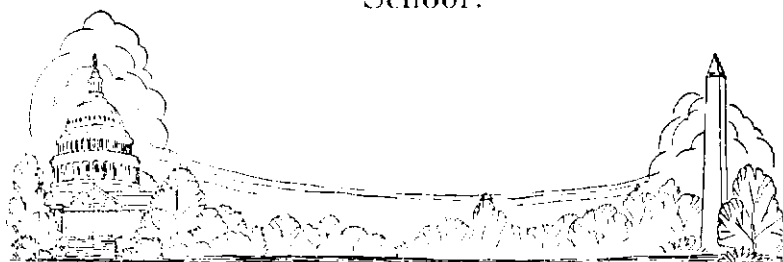
CHAPTER IX

Where

Stands

Your

School?



THIS BRIEF CHAPTER is offered as a guide to the study and improvement of schools with reference to their work in developing among young people an intelligent and active loyalty to American democracy.

Three Levels of Excellence

We begin by identifying three levels of excellence.

First, there is *the routine level* of schooling. Most of its procedure is determined by tradition. Things are taught because they always have been taught; things are not done because they are "just not done." This is not necessarily an abysmally low level of efficiency. There are lower levels which we shall not explore. There may well be much of value in past experience, much of good in solid tradition. But the school at the routine level proceeds largely *on the assumption* that a venerable custom is necessarily a good one. Given this assumption, it is often easy to rationalize conduct into line with professed objectives. Such a school says, in effect, "We want very much to develop good citizens; we have been proceeding in such-and-such a manner for a long time; therefore, it is perfectly clear that our procedure has been developing good citizens."

Second, there is *the imitative level* of schooling. At this level the school is determined to depart from routine and to discard tradition. It therefore looks about for some other school that has likewise broken its shackles, and follows eagerly along the same path. This new level may or may not be superior to the routine level. The school at the imitative level is free from the dead hand of its own past and, if it finds some living, friendly hand to cling to, all may be well. It runs the danger, of course, of dupli-

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cating harmful practices. It has exchanged the chains of tradition for the bonds of fashion. Being merely imitative, it has no solid criteria for choosing what models it will emulate, no means of distinguishing unimportant details of procedure from more essential elements, no basis for adapting new procedures to local circumstances, and no clearly defined goal toward which its second-hand devices are supposed to move.

Third, there is *the constructive level* of schooling. Here, too, the despotism of venerated usage has been dethroned. In its place there has been raised a new standard, not the standard of the current average, but the standard of experimental success. At this level the goals of education must be clearly grasped. Toward these goals the school moves, not without many delays and stumblings, to be sure, but still retaining a sense of direction. The school at the constructive level recognizes the pragmatic test. It does not adopt a new procedure just because others have done so; it does not discard procedures just because they are old. It is imaginative, venturesome, creative.

The routine level, the imitative level, and the constructive level are not separated by unambiguous boundaries. All schools partake in some measure of the characteristics of all three. However, judgments regarding the approximate position of a particular school with reference to these levels are possible, especially if some division of the school's activities is made as a guide to analysis.

Six Areas of Citizenship Education

For the purpose of examining civic education programs, a classification of school activities similar to that used in

this volume is suggested. Thus one may recognize the following six areas:

1. *The course of study*
What is taught about democracy
2. *The teaching methods*
Classroom experiences in democracy
3. *The student life*
Democracy outside the classroom
4. *Community activities*
Participation of school youth in the civic life of the community
5. *School administration*
Democracy in policy-making
6. *Evaluation of results*
Testing the achievement of democratic citizenship.

A school may be functioning at the routine level, at the imitative level, or at the constructive level in each of these six areas.

Our plan of analysis now begins to take form:

	<i>C. Routine level</i>	<i>B. Imitative level</i>	<i>A. Constructive level</i>
1. Course of study ...	C1	B1	A1
2. Teaching methods	C2	B2	A2
3. Student life	C3	B3	A3
4. Community activities	C4	B4	A4
5. School administration	C5	B5	A5
6. Evaluation of results	C6	B6	A6

How may a particular school be located within this plan? We shall ask a few illustrative questions to define the eighteen categories which are provided for by the six rows and three columns of the above chart. We shall use the numbering system indicated on the chart itself.

1. *The Course of Study*

C1. *The course of study: routine level.* Does your school offer a course of study in citizenship education which has been accepted largely on the basis of tradition? Does it stress memorizing information *about* democracy as a substitute for democratic behavior? Does it teach large amounts of detailed factual material, simply because these facts are conveniently available in a few books? Does it shy away from relating social studies to current social issues? Is its teaching equipment limited largely to textbooks? Is civic instruction left exclusively to the social studies classes? Are all other subjects exonerated from responsibility for citizenship training? If you must answer "yes" to these questions, you have a routine school as far as the course of study is concerned. Chapters I, II, and VIII of this book may be of help to you in building your course of study to a higher level.

B1. *The course of study: imitative level.* Does your school collect citizenship courses of study from other places, far and near, and copy uncritically their "units," "problems," "activities"? Do you lack a coherent plan and a constant purpose in selecting and arranging the elements of the citizenship course of study? Do you have a good deal of new teaching materials, films, pamphlets, recordings, and the like, but no clear scheme for utilizing these tools in shaping good citizenship? In your desire to teach everything that everyone else thinks is important have you sacrificed thorough teaching of citizenship essentials? Do you encourage democratic busy-work at the expense of hard study and straight thinking about the nature of democracy itself? If so, your school has reached only the middle level of effectiveness; it is an imitative school as far as its course of study is concerned.

2. *The Teaching Methods*

C2. *Teaching methods: routine level.* Are your teaching methods a general average of the way in which you were taught in high school or in college? Do you take it for granted that the teacher must do all the planning and most of the talking? Are there social distances between students and faculty and between groups of students, gulfs across which a friendly voice rarely calls? Do you encourage intense and continuous competition among students? Do you avoid the discussion of controversial questions or of questions on which the students might justifiably differ from the teachers? Do you emphasize the totalitarian virtues of uncritical, instant obedience? Are you more concerned with keeping your students under control than with helping them to grow in self-control? If so, you may have a very good school in other respects, but you are not creating by example the qualities of democratic citizenship. Chapter III of this book tells you how some other teachers have tried to do that very thing.

B2. *Teaching methods: imitative level.* Do you teach by the "activity" method or by some other new formula without knowing why? Is your school frequently upset by far-reaching changes in teaching method, handed down to you without adequate explanation and study? Are you aware of the shortcomings of traditional methods, eager to have better ones, and vigilantly watching to see whether the school in the next county or in the nearby city will develop these new methods for you? When you read about the "freedom-by-formula school" and the "busy-work school" in Chapter I, did you recognize yourself in those mirrors? If so, you are ready for great gains in teaching method. Though you are now only on the imitative level you have at least developed a willingness to change for the better.

3. *The Student Life*

C3. *Student life: routine level.* Did you set up a plan of student government in your high school and then leave it to run itself? Do you regard student life outside of regular class hours as no particular business of the school? Is the one really big and important student activity the interscholastic athletic contests? Do most of the members of your faculty regard student clubs as a waste of time that might better be spent in home study? Do they regard student government primarily as a useful accessory for securing conformity to school regulations? Are your school social functions chiefly for the social elite of the school and the community? If the answer to these questions is "yes," your school is functioning at the routine level. You have made the barest beginning of extracting from the extraclassroom activities the great potential civic values that reside therein. Chapter IV has some suggestions that might interest you.

B3. *Student life: imitative level.* Have student activities grown up rapidly in your school, but grown without plan or purpose? Do you introduce new student activities because other schools have them rather than because your students need and want them? Do you swing between the extremes of a benevolent dictatorship over student life (in the name of efficiency) and complete abdication of responsibility (in the name of democracy)? Are your student elections primarily beauty or popularity contests, lacking real issues and exhibiting the seamy campaign practices of adult politics at their worst? Are your student courts concerned with punishment, careless about prevention? Are you constantly trying to modify the rules and bylaws so as to make your student activities more valuable, and are you constantly disappointed by the results obtained in this way? If so, you are still operating this part of your citizen-

ship education program at the imitative level. But, in being willing to break with the past and to try out new procedures, your school has made a beginning.

A3. *Student life: constructive level.* Have you developed out-of-class activities in terms of the needs of your students and your communities? Is the student activity program a fully recognized, highly prestigious part of your school's work? Do you use student activities as laboratories of civic education so that the line between curricular and extracurricular is indistinguishable? Is the school paper a means for forming and informing public opinion on school and community problems? Are your student elections conducted with high standards and based on real issues in the work of the school? Do you extend to student organizations all the freedom they can take, stopping, however, before the point where practice is given in undemocratic procedures? Are your student clubs conceived and operated in terms of service to the group and enrichment of individual lives? Do you protect your student activities from exploitation by commercial or other special interests? If you can answer "yes" to questions like these, your school has achieved the constructive level in one of the most difficult yet most rewarding phases of citizenship training.

Comments on Your School

4. *The Community Activities*

C4. *Community activities: routine level.* Is your school insulated by ignorance and indifference from the surrounding community? Does your school consider that the effect of community life on the students is none of its affair? Do you accept with resignation the evil effects which some community contacts may have on your students? Is your faculty only vaguely aware of students' home conditions? Do you know little about the libraries, settlement houses, health clinics, housing projects, playgrounds, and other agencies which serve your students? Do you direct the attention of your students inward toward books and papers, rather than outward toward human needs and problems? If so, however excellent the job your school is doing in a narrow field, it is missing a glorious opportunity for wider service. It is functioning at the routine level in community activities. To rise above that level will require that you do some things that are different and difficult. Perhaps the experience of some other schools, in cities, towns, villages, and open country, as given in Chapter V, will be helpful.

B4. *Community activities: imitative level.* Do you have frequent excursions into the community for the students in your school? Do the students regard these excursions merely as a lark? Does the faculty regard them as a necessary but unpleasant interference with "regular" duties? Are such activities only vaguely related to the classroom instruction? Do the students on these excursions admire or deplore what they see, as the case may be, but fail to draw conclusions or to develop programs of action? Is your school very busy with good deeds for charity's sake, but little concerned with the conditions which make charity necessary, or with possible remedies for these conditions? If so, your school is at the imitative level. You have the community activities but not the community action. You have only the scaffold-

5. *The School Administration*

C5. School administration: routine level. Do teachers in your school always wait for instructions before varying one iota from the standard procedure? Do they feel that the making of educational policy is a job for some one else—anybody else except themselves? Do the administrative officers doubt the good judgment of their own staffs? Do they take the public into account but never into confidence? Would they be shocked at the idea of consulting the students themselves on any important question related to student life? Is the program of professional study and growth legislated in the superintendent's or principal's office? Are teachers organizations discouraged and their activities limited? If your school gives rise to affirmative answers to questions like these, it is jogging along at a routine level. It is trying to teach democracy by precept alone. Chapter VI describes how some schools have been lifted above the level of routine in this respect. But if you do not have the spirit of democracy in your school, it will not help a great deal to copy from some other school the outward form of it.

B5. School administration: imitative level. Has your school built elaborate machinery for democratic policy-making but little enthusiasm for making that machinery work? Is there confusion and wasted effort because of failure to distinguish between policy-making and executive functions? Do you have endless and innumerable committee meetings on unimportant details while really important matters are settled by small groups meeting behind closed doors? Are the teachers organized in so many different groups that effective and united action is difficult? Have your attempts to achieve democracy resulted in uncertain responsibilities, bungling administration, or other symptoms of inefficiency? If they have, you have been looking for democracy in the wrong places. Your administration

6. *The Evaluation of Results*

C6. *Evaluation of results: routine level.* Is outstanding ability in the mastery of subjectmatter the only means of winning scholastic approval in your school? Are the examinations based exclusively on the textbooks? Are the students kept in practically complete ignorance as to why the things they are asked to learn are important? Is the testing regarded as an end in itself rather than as a means of guidance? Do the examinations, grades, and report cards emphasize civic information, rather than civic ideals and attitudes? If so, your school's program for evaluating the results of civic education is at the routine level. Instead of helping you, as it should, to do a better job in civic training, the evaluation program is a stumbling block. Chapter VII describes some of the better practices discovered in this area. A study of these practices may be helpful if they are applied with discrimination in the light of your local situation.

B6. *Evaluation of results: imitative level.* Does your school collect and administer a great many "new-type" tests, score-cards, profiles, and the like, without being quite sure what to do with the results? Do you award a grade in "citizenship" which is really the old-fashioned "deportment" mark under a new name? Are your files filled with elaborate student records which you do not know how to use? Are you eager to find a new method for evaluating the outcomes of civic training but uncertain as to the outcomes you would like to attain? If so, you are on the right track but headed in the wrong direction. If you would rise higher with reference to evaluation you must look to your purposes *before* you try to improve your measurement of results. You cannot deal with the question of educational purposes by adopting any par-

ticular system of evaluation. Your school is still working at the imitative level of efficiency.

A6. *Evaluation of results: constructive level.* Has your school based its program of evaluating results squarely on a clear statement of valid purposes? Do you use objective tests when you can, yet remain willing to teach for results which cannot be objectively weighed? Does everyone connected with the process of evaluation, including the students themselves, understand its purposes? Do you make full use of expert skill in developing techniques of testing outcomes? Do you make all the testing in your school a valuable educative experience? Is your testing concerned with maintaining the highest possible standards of competence on important matters of civic information and skills? Are you concerned with rate of growth toward desirable civic standards? Are your examinations gateways opening on new fields of learning rather than barriers to keep people in their places? If you can answer "yes" to such questions as these, your testing and your teaching are becoming unified into a single process. You have a method of constructive evaluation suitable to a democratic school and a democratic society.

Comments on Your School

Evaluation Should Lead to Action

Teachers, administrators, school-board members, parents, and members of the general public often wish for some simple measuring device by which the quality of their schools might be "scientifically" determined. No such yardstick has been presented here. Education is too complex, its effects too diverse and long-delayed, its applications too intensely personal, and its purposes too broad for appraisal by simple formulas.

The judgments which may be recorded with reference to any particular school can be no better than the information, impartiality, and competence possessed by the person recording the judgment. The ultimate purpose of this chapter is to encourage self-analysis, with a view to securing better civic education. Any evaluation which failed to emphasize the improvement of practice would be a complete misapplication of these pages. The chapter will become of value chiefly in proportion to the amount of constructive thinking and action which it stimulates.

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