A study of prevailing practices in the presentation of contemporary problems in elementary schools.

MAI - 1951


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHAPTER</th>
<th>TABLE OF CONTENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Preface ................. I 1 - 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Thomistic Philosophy of Education and the Teaching of Current Affairs.... I 1 - 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Most Recent Thinkers in Education Through Social Study............... II 1 - 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Critical Evaluation of Seekers of Education Through Social Reform ........ II 3 - 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Critical Survey of Contemporary American Thinkers...................... II 7 - 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A Critique of Contemporary American Society......................... II 9 - 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Resume Regarding the Teaching of Current Affairs..................... II 21 - 23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>Review of General Writings on Teaching Current Affairs............... III - 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Patriotism and Classroom Games................................ III - 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Critique and Procedure.............................................. III - 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Current Affairs and History....................................... III - 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Current Materials in the Classroom............................... III - 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>American Historical Association on Current Affairs Teaching......... III - 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Review........................................................... III - 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>Pioneer Schools................................. IV - 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Community in Miniature.............................. IV - 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Function of the School in a Democratic Society................ IV - 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Curriculum......................................... IV - 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Curricula Illustrating Current Affairs Teaching.................... IV - 23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conclusions.......................................... IV - 27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHAPTER</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>V</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of Public School Social Studies Units</td>
<td>V - I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preliminary Conclusions and Principles of Evaluation</td>
<td>V - I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Santa Monica Course of Study Grades One and Three</td>
<td>V - 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of Santa Monica Course of Study</td>
<td>V - 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Bend, Indiana Grade Six</td>
<td>V - 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of South Bend Course of Study</td>
<td>V - 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minneapolis Course of Study Grade Four</td>
<td>V - 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of Minneapolis Course of Study</td>
<td>V - 29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manhasset, Long Island Course of Study Grades Four and Seven</td>
<td>V - 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of Manhasset Course of Study</td>
<td>V - 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York City Course of Study Grades Three and Four</td>
<td>V - 36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercultural Education</td>
<td>V - 42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of New York City Course of Study</td>
<td>V - 43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oregon State Course of Study</td>
<td>V - 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of Oregon State Course of Study</td>
<td>V - 47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bremerton, Washington Course of Study</td>
<td>V - 48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of Bremerton, Washington Course of Study</td>
<td>V - 51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VI</th>
<th>Conclusions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current Affairs Teaching at Various Age Levels</td>
<td>VI - 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Best Way of Teaching Current Affairs</td>
<td>VI - 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Affairs Specialist</td>
<td>VI - 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Partisan Teacher</td>
<td>VI - 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevants of News</td>
<td>VI - 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| VII | Bibliography | I - IX |
Throughout the nation in the last twenty years the pressures of world events have come through schoolroom doors and lain more and more heavily on teachers' curriculum requirements. Pupils themselves demand to discuss affairs that they know to be of utmost significance in their present and future lives. Although they feel from all sides and from their own interests, that current affairs must be taught, there is a growing confusion among educators concerning the aims and methods of teaching current affairs. One of the major problems involved in current affairs teaching is to clarify among educators its objectives. At the same time the increasing use in state, county, and city school systems of modifications of programs and of integrated curricula makes it advisable and valuable to relate the aims and techniques of the two trends: that of current affairs teaching and that of activities and integrated curricula programs.

1. "So far as we were able to determine the majority of teachers still do not fully understand the real purposes of teaching current affairs." Delbert Clark, editor, CURRENT AFFAIRS AND MODERN EDUCATION, (New York, The New York Times: 1950) P. 156

2. At the Atlantic City meeting of the Department of Superintendents in 1935 Dr. Fred Ayer of the University of Texas reported on a questionnaire "sent out to superintendents of schools to discover to what extent integration, which is one of the basic ideas underlying the experience curriculum was affecting school practices. His estimate that four out of five schools in America are affected to a greater or less degree by the ideas of integration is supported by the evidence which has been collected by the Committee on Integration". L. Thomas Hopkins, INTEGRATION, ITS MEANING AND APPLICATION, (New York, D. Appleton-Century: 1937), pp. 197, 8
This investigation will eliminate, for reasons cited below, a review of the European and American theorists and educators of the nineteenth century from whose work came the great impetus to modern American educational experiments and developments. Note may merely be made of the emphasis in these early forebears on manual and domestic arts education, an emphasis that was rejected per se by later educators who embodied it rather as a functional principal of "education of the all-round man".

Francis Wayland Parker is generally regarded as the father of modern American education, believed in the combined value of education as a long-term social palliative and as an open way for the spontaneous expression. This combination runs through all theories of modern education and is apposite to a consideration of the function of current affairs teaching.

The endeavor of Parker, writes one commentator, "was to build up a small community in which the children would conduct themselves as thoughtful, cooperative members". The significance to the study at hand of the theory of the community in miniature must not be overlooked. The thinking of such educators as Caroline Pratt, was that since in modern industrial society the child has been alienated from his status and function in a going community, these must be restored by the construction in the school of a community in miniature.

3. Cf. this chapter Section IV
5. Cf. Chapter IV, Section I
In the case of the Modern School, this concept was supplemented by a high faith in the educational value of experience. The problems to be solved by the various age groups were worked out in kitchens and laboratories, in free dramatic play, at the looms, and on the sand tables, in the school and larger communities.

Junius L. Meriam, whose school, the Laboratory for Professional Study at the University of Missouri, substituted student reports on current topics for the usual recitations, and by Marietta Johnson's Fairhope School where creative activity was stressed and curiosity of the pupils stimulated.

The influences of Parker and Meriam have spread wide in some places; rather thin during the last decades. Activity programs vary from the requirement for students to master a specific subject matter supplemented by secondary activities suggested by the teacher, to more or less facsimile reproductions of the principles of the three. Integrated programs too, vary from subject-matter curricula enriched with supplementary materials, through broad fields programs and core programs, to project or problem programs.

Through all these gradations of modern educational techniques, there is a growing emphasis on: problem-solving; integration, elimination or modification of the old subject-matter fields; conformity to the child's deepest personal and social needs and learning psychology; use of the three R's as tools rather than as primary objectives; substitution of discussion and group work for formal recitation; and as an aim, the developing of independent persons working in and toward a more cooperative society.
While the educational innovators concerned themselves more and more with the broad social functions of education, even orthodox educators were beginning to introduce a study of current affairs into the elementary school curriculum. In the early 1900's the journalist Charles Palmer Davis undertook the publication of *Current Events*. Since that time the "school weekly" has been widely proliferated, and supplemented by educational use of radio and documentary films. While current affairs teaching in elementary schools is now rather the rule than the exception, it is largely limited to once-a-week supplementary work, even in those cases where the more advanced principles govern the teaching of regular social science courses. This is not universally true, of course, and the *New York Times* survey found many cases of highly integrated and resourceful teaching of current affairs.

**II**

**SUBSIDIARY PROBLEMS**

A number of subsidiary questions must be considered in this work, the answers to some of which will not only illumine the major question but also will have independent value as investigations in this field of educational theory.

1. The term "current affairs teaching" must be given a definition, a content, and an aim.

2. The investigator must derive from this content a set of standards whereby the teaching and the learning of current affairs may be evaluated.

3. The interests and capacities of the various age-level groups

6. Cf. Clark, *op. cit.*, passim
must be considered in terms of the subject-matter and the techniques of current affairs teaching adaptable to each group.

4. The objectives and techniques of the selected educational programs must be examined.

5. The role of the teacher and the degree and kind of leadership required of him must be analyzed.

III
POSSIBLE CONCLUSIONS

The value of an investigation of the breadth projected lies mainly in the general conclusions at which it might arrive. There are many questions in connection with the effective teaching of current affairs that are of wide interest and are much noted at the present time.

1. Is there one best way to teach current affairs?

In the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago, current affairs were taught to the thirteens as a special subject. In the tens, the then current trouble with Spain came up in connection with a study of the Westward movement and the territorial expansion of the United States. In the fifth grade of the Inman School at Atlanta, Georgia, the teacher and the group decided to devote some time from the work on their transportation unit to discuss the Berlin Airlift. In one group free dramatic play is used to work out some problems of current affairs, in another projection slides. Many teachers welcome the use of the omnipresent "school weekly"; others

7. cf. Chapters X, VII, passim
8. Clark, op. cit., p. 122
deplore it.

2. Is the study of current affairs bound to a particular age level? What techniques and content are adaptable to the various age levels?

The subject matter, specific informations, and techniques of learning vary with age groups. The investigator will observe the favorite themes and techniques of teaching various age groups in order to answer these and subsidiary questions.

3. Does the teaching of current affairs require the services of a specialist?

It is better for the regular teacher to limit himself to the teaching of matter over which he has a thorough command and to call in a current affairs expert to teach a subject that requires special background information? Or is it more effective for teacher and pupils together to go after the background information that does not appear in the morning headlines? Are occasional lectures by and discussions with visiting experts a satisfactory substitute for a regular visiting expert?

In order to answer these questions the investigator will determine the role and required capacities of the teacher under an experience or integrated-curricula program. He will determine the extent to which the teacher is supposed to be a collaborator or a fount of information in the pupils' studies.

4. Does the effective teaching of current affairs require an ultimate neutrality or an ultimate partisanship on the teacher's part toward controversial issues?

While no final and definitive answer can be expected to this
question, which is the essence of a wide present split among American educators, an analysis of the uttermost aims of current affairs teaching may provide some tentative conclusions.10

5. Does the learning of current affairs demand of the pupil complete grasp of all major news events at any given moment?

Since the purpose of this investigation is to derive some generally valid conclusions regarding the subject at hand, and not merely to examine in minute detail highly limited evidence, the principle of selection will be as important as that of delimitation.

A. Delimitations

Some limits, however, are erected:

1. Elementary education alone will be considered.
It is in the elementary grades that the educational movements considered have had their beginnings and their flourishings, and it is the work of these grades that is of particular interest to the investigator.

2. The investigation will be limited to the present century, taking the lead from the University Laboratory Schools.

3. European writers and experimental work will be excluded. While they have profound historic significance for the American movements, this investigation has not the purpose to provide a historic survey of the educational schools involved, but merely to examine those previous

10. For example, the following may be considered: In a survey on curriculum changes conducted by the Joint Committee on Curriculum of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction and the Society for Curriculum Study, a "belief that education theory and practice should be thoroughly in harmony with the social philosophy of democracy was reported as characteristic of all but a very small number of the more than three hundred teacher populations! This is not surprising in view of the long postulated and oft-repeated declaration that the chief purpose of the school is to prepare good citizens". The Joint Committee on Curriculum, Henry Harap, editor, THE CHANGING CURRICULUM, (New York, D. Appleton-Century: 1937), p. 5
experiments and works that have immediate contemporary relevance.

4. Questions of the psychology of learning will not be considered in this investigation. Each type of program will be presumed to stand on its own feet in terms of psychological rationale.

B. Principles of Selection

The writings and educational experiences will be selected on the basis of two criteria:

1. Those that appear to the investigator to be most important because of their direct and widespread influence on educators and educational practice.

2. Those that appear to be typical of growing practices in public and private schools.

In all cases where an investigator deliberately leaves his problem wide enough to require selection within the limits, he is open to charges of bias or faulty judgment in the actual selections made. In this case, the investigator considers the wide limits to be justified by the significance of the problem at hand.
CHAPTER I

CRITERIA OF CURRENT AFFAIRS TEACHING

The Thomistic philosophy from life and education for life spiritual happiness is especially significant to the discussion of the teaching of current affairs. For although nowhere in the readings covered is this subject treated as an educational problem, the entire orientation of this educational and general philosophy is eminently social, in the sense in which social includes political and economic, and the spiritual. "Education is essentially a social and not a mere individual activity". 1 The late Bishop Spalding of Catholic University said, "to have a cultivated mind to be able to see things on many sides to have wide sympathy and power of general appreciation, - is most desirable, and without something of all this, not only is our life narrow and uninteresting but our energy is turned in wrong directions".2

The core of scholastic philosophy of education may be summarized in the doctrine of learning as experience and learning as social experience, and the idea of human perfection. The meaning of these doctrines can best be approached, by consideration of the function and locus of education in the life of the individual and of society. "Society is a natural means to which man can and must use to reach his destined end". 3

The factor of education for the preparation of life is, ipso facto, but that it ends there is disputable. Pius X said, "whatever a Christian

2. Quoted from Catholicism in Education, Bengizer Bros.1934 p.473
does even in the order of things of earth, he may not overlook the supernatural, indeed he must, according to the teaching of Christian wisdom, direct all things toward the supreme good as to the last ends.  

A factor that is but another aspect of growth, the learning of human children serves a peculiar requirement of the human species as a group. The human young is born immature and is separated by a span of many years from the capacity to satisfy its own life requirements. As many other writers have pointed out, the human being does not, as do other animals, instinctively attain to adulthood in these respects, but must learn from other adults how to perform these functions.

"The nature and end of education is to cultivate, train, develop and refine all the higher powers, physical, intellectual, moral and religious which form the nature and human dignity of the child; to elevate them to the strength of their natural integrity; to set them up in the fullness of their power and activity."  

"The school becomes more responsible in the role of society, - but something else must be added, namely the education of the offspring."  

In primitive or more simple cultures the young learn by observing, assisting, and participating in all or most of the activities of their elders. There is thus no questions of teaching the young current affairs, for the most significant part of their daily activities are involved with the recurrent and pressing concerns of the adults. It

4. Quoted in the Encyclical, Christian Education, Pius XI, Supernatural Motherhood, Par. 3  
6. Journal of Religious Instruction XVII No. 3 Nov. '46 P. 304  
is only when civilization has advanced to the point that the incapacities of the young and the complexities of adult pursuits renders almost impossible direct participation in social activities and when the heritage of an old and involved civilization must be imparted to the young by way of symbolistic teaching, that the current affairs of society are reduced as an element in the long curriculum of childhood. There are conspicuous dangers attendant upon the transition from indirect to formal education. Sharing in actual pursuit . . . is at least personal and vital. These qualities compensate, in some measure, for the narrowness of available opportunities. Formal instruction on the contrary, easily becomes remote and dead . . . What accumulated knowledge exists in low grade societies is at least put to practice; it is transmuted to character; it exists with the depth of meaning that attaches to its coming in urgent daily interests.

A major object of a high degree of literacy pedagogical methods may be said to be the restoration to education of the vitality and immediacy of primitive education without the loss of the complex symbolistic heritage. The attempts made in many private and public schools including the attempts made in the Laboratory School to fulfill this object will be described in subsequent pages. At this point the relevance of the object to our broad definition of current affairs must be noted. The combined intent to conserve the vitality and utilize the historical knowledge would have definite implications, derived below, concerning the importance and manner of teaching current affairs.

I

Learning, is an activity in which the learner must in some way participate. He must apprehend the relationships and the problems
only to the extent that he is himself involved in them, and that the subject matter is pertinent to some aspect of his own life. This does not mean that all subject matter that is taught in school must be of immediate and practical use to the students, but merely that the student must be able to recognize what use it is to him as an individual and a member of society.

Learning by experience does not imply either the substitution of automatic physical activity for the more orthodox automatic mental activity, or memoniter learning. On the contrary, the experience itself is to be the route to a more serious and individual apprehension of relationships than memoniter learning could ever provide. Experience can be best passive however good teaching stimulates experiences to desired relationships. The intellect is perfected not by knowledge but by activity.

The student is asked to rise, as man has risen, from the realm of the specific to the realm of the abstract, rather than to grasp the abstract ready-made from the hand of his teacher. But the teacher must help him in this ascension. Self activity is the indispensable condition of improvement, and education is only education, that is it accomplishes its purpose only by affording objects and supplying incitements to spontaneous exertions. "As then a doctor is said to cause health in a sick person through the operation of nature, so man is said to cause in another through the operation of the learner's natural reason and this is to teach," says St. Thomas.

8. Aristotle, Passim
10. Mary Ellen Mayer, The Philosophy of Teaching of St. Thomas Aquinas (Bruce 1929) P. 630
The success of the student is dependent upon his ability to engage in independent research, by which is meant, not research upon a heretofore unconsidered, albeit inconsiderable, question, but research that is original with him, research upon a problem to which he does not know the answer prior to the beginning of his personal investigations.

The object of pedagogy by inquiry is not simply to burden students with a laborious means of finding answers that they could more simply discover in any textbook, but to reveal to them the problems involved in their own lives and society before the answers to the problems are revealed and, in view of the eternal recurrence of personal and social problems, to cultivate the spirit of inquiry rather than of passive acceptance.

The notion of inquiry in pedagogy may fail when the guidance of the teacher is weak and the philosophy of the inquiry is shallow.

The real aim of education is neither to impose dogmatically a package of unalterable solutions to all problems, nor to leave all questions open to unalterable inscrutability. It is rather to develop in the individual that combination of self-assurance and humility that will enable him to accept tentative conclusions, without abandoning the search for solutions to his problems.

The entire idea of education and the scientific spirit must be carefully considered in relation to the teaching of controversial issues in current affairs. In the first place, it would follow from this that current affairs could not be taught by the simple presentation of current events data, but would require a serious discussion
of such fundamental problems of modern life as are appropriate to
the very course of study and the age group involved. For these
facts themselves have reference to the process of education only in-
ssofar as they illumine the actual concerns of the students and the
society in which they live. Students must not be seduced unaware
into the preoccupation with lessons, they must be instructed that
the real reasons exist behind the problem and there is more than the
matter of learning certain factors to be achieved. It is a part of
the student's life situation, is it not?

The problems must be considered as actual problems to be pursued
in the spirit of a scientific inquiry. This means, in the second
place, they must not be presented to the students either as problems
that have already been solved, or as problems that will never be
solved, but as problems to which the students individually or as a
group will seek answers to which they will be willing to adhere until
further evidence or more convincing lines of reasoning require a re-
vised opinion.

The sources of solutions to controversial issues must be histor-
ical and contemporary data subjected to logical inquiry. The study
of history makes a more pressing and serious affair than if it were
simply "wool-gathering in the Middle Ages."

Historical knowledge as it pertains to current affairs should be
viewed as a means of understanding the background of present day
problems and to add meaning and significance to affairs as they occur.
The point here is that the use to which knowledge is put is always
in achieving a perspective of the future. The obverse of the coin
is this: that any understanding of the present and perspective toward the future must draw heavily upon knowledge of the past. Thus: "Just as the individual has to draw in memory upon his own past to understand the conditions in which he individually finds himself, so the issues and problems of present social life are in such intimate connection with the past that students cannot be prepared to understand either such problems or the best way of dealing with them without delving into their roots in the past. In other words, the sound principles that the objectives of learning are in the future and its immediate materials are in the present experience can be carried into effect only in the degree that present experience is stretched, as it were, backward. It can expand into the future only as it is also enlarged to take in the past.

Thus, a historical lesson seriously considered is a lesson in current affairs, and a lesson in current affairs is without depth unless it also is a history lesson. The technique known as the "backwards history lesson", to be considered below, has its philosophic origin in these considerations. But the superficiality of some uses of the technique must conscientiously be avoided by the teacher. There is often the tendency to preface the remote study with a casual reference to some possibly related morning headline, on the assumption that the interests of the students in the serious matter at hand can be satisfactorily stimulated by a few remarks about a current matter that has an immediate dramatic appeal. The San Francisco Conference is not an exact twentieth century replica of the Melanesian debate
although a number of appealing parallel circumstances and tactics may pique the mind. It is a kind of treachery practiced upon the student's interest and naivete to open a study of this historical event, for example, by a brief and careless reference to the contemporary parallels. Serious consideration of the parallels would require a full-dress investigation of fundamental political and military circumstances that pertain, a consideration that if carefully conducted should draw the student to a fuller appreciation of the wider social problems of his own times and the ancient Greeks'. The point that is made here is that the student's interest in contemporary matters must not be misused simply to trick him into a study of remote matters whose real contemporary significance is thereupon ignored.

The Hand Book of School Policies of the Diocese of Pittsburgh defines discipline as the "art of being disciple", "And views it as a thing that must be carefully studied and cultivated". Discipline is understood as the act of being a disciple. It involves the selection of leadership and rational determination to follow insofar as that leadership does not run counter to the law of God. Discipline is therefore not something merely to be maintained but something to be learned."11 The former techniques of harsh methods involve a physical violation of the student, and the latter a more insidious mental one.

If indeed learning is a natural activity of the young, then the young do not need to be violated in any way in order to be taught. And if the matter that is offered to the young to be learned must be

forced into them in either of these ways, then the matter itself is a violation of the natures of the new learners. "Interest is the key method but the pupil's needs, as an individual and a member of society, is the key to content". 12

The real interest of the student is to learn in order to grow, individually and as a social person, and what helps him to grow is ipso facto interesting. Interest is something that evolves from the true meaning of the lesson rather than deliberately seeking it out. When one aims for interest within himself it does not mean that it is transmitted to the students.

Thus to return to the hypothetical example given above, if the problem of the restoration of international stability after a period of nationalist wars is involved in the intellectual and social growth of students of a particular age and time, then this problem is interesting to them. If the question of Athenian peace efforts is presented to them as a preliminary step in the consideration of the peace efforts of their own time, then it will be an interesting question to them. It will not necessarily be interesting if spurious parallels are drawn simply to catch their eyes, and then dropped without further question and consideration.

Depending upon the age-level of the students, the immediate interest has not to be always uppermost. A prior problem may be investigated for some length of time before a later one can be taken up. For if they are really interested, the students can be expected to expand considerable effort to reach their goal -- in the case under consideration, the problem of peace in our time.

The real interest of the student is not to be confused, however with his mere caprice of the moment. The function of the teacher is not simply to stand by while his students follow their whims hither and yon, but to be the guardian of their growth to guide them to the consideration of the most serious relationships and problems of their personal and social lives. The teacher cannot think for his students, nor can he teach unless they learn. Learning is not only the mere accumulation of facts, but the actual doing and participation of the learner. The teacher guides the learner and arrives at conclusions with him. The teacher must recognize that problems are essential, as opposed to those merely accidental, to the life of his pupils, and he must know how to impress upon the pupils their significance. He must know which are the main roads and how to guide the travellers through the main roads.

"Probably the point on which there is the greatest amount of controversial difference concerns the opposition often set up between the child's desires, preferences, and experiences on one side and social values and demands on the other. According to some, an activity program must grow directly out of the existing attitudes and contacts of those under instruction. To others, this course appears to be antagonistic not only to acquisition of subject matter in any organized way but also to preparation for meeting the inevitable requirements of later life... "The very dependence of the young establishes within their own make-up response to social demands.

"Much of the practical difficulty and conflict that exists is due to a false idea of the definite and fixity of the desires and interests of childhood. When children are asked in an overt way what they want or what they would like to do, they are usually forced to a purely artificial state and the result is the deliberate creation of an undesirable habit. It is the business of

the educator to study the tendencies of the young so as to be more consciously aware than are the children themselves what the latter need and want. Any other course transfers the responsibility of the teacher to those taught. Arbitrary 'dictation' is not a matter of words or of form, but consists in imposing actions that do not correspond with tendencies that can be discovered within the experience of those who are growing up. The pupil also makes an arbitrary imposition on himself when, in response to an inquiry as to what he would like, he, because of ignorance of underlying and enduring tendencies and interest, snatches at some accidental affair. On the other side, those who insist strongly upon the priority of social claims and values to present experience usually overlook the leverage they might find in the latter for an uncoerced approach to their end, and they also exaggerate the fixity of social demands. There is nothing that society itself needs more than self-reliant personalities and habits of initiative, re-adaptibility, and inherent decisiveness."

Education by activity or experience is not a matter of aimless flexing of the muscles or wandering about. The experience or the activity must have a definite educational orientation, and it is the duty of the teacher to select and fashion it in line with some educational aim. A major concern of education is the selection of experiences, manual, visual and spiritual that will stimulate the desire to discover and achieve; they who are adept at selecting experiences from within existing environment will find them most conducive to growth. They must implement all learning with the stability of experience.

Thus, in the realm of current affairs, the content of the lesson must not be left to the momentary fance of the students, but must be selected by the teacher, perhaps taking hints from the expressed interests of the students, in accordance with the recognition of what matters illumine or exemplify fundamental concerns of the

students' lives. Otherwise, the current affairs lesson must be no more than an aimless wandering around among chance headlines, or in the case of superficial activity programs, local factories, political offices, picket lines. - this is not to say that any headline or any trip is totally insignificant, but only that its significance lies in the ability of the teacher and students to rise from the immediate and practical to a higher theoretical understanding of basic social relationships and problems. In addition the teacher must not rely upon the students to choose those headlines or those experiences that have the greatest educational value, but from his understanding of the depths of their immediate interests, must lead them to a greater understanding of themselves in their world. "With good reason therefore, did St. Chrysostom say, "What greater work is there than training the mind and forming the habits of the young and his preparation for the future". 15

The focal point of learning is the child. It is not preconceived or a merely tried derived pattern of education to which the child's mind is to be fitted. The child's needs, his capacity for understanding, for learning, for growth are given. And in terms of these the matter and the manner of best educating him must be contrived.

At first glance it may appear that the resulting product would be a social being who required that his entire environs conform to

his requirements and wants. For if, throughout his childhood, his teacher caters only to his needs, and teaches him only what he as an individual requires, he will grow up self-centered, and without the capacity to consider or understand his society or to adapt to the needs of other persons. This criticism arises from a miscon­ception of the child's requirements and wants. Education is essen­tially social and moral, spiritual and, his growth is the growth of an eminently social being, not an individualized one. Hu­man life is social life; more than that, it is a particularized so­cial life, that is, life in a particular society. And, while no society is or can be regarded as unalterably fixed, all societies have certain limits by which he lives, and therefore the education, of its members are determined. Thus, while the child is the focal point of education, it is never the child in abstract or even this particular child in the abstract, but always, this particular child, or this particular group of children in this particular community at this particular time.

This, in essence, has been the focus of schooling from time immemorial. And we may return at this point to a consideration of education in general, or, let us say, of education in primitive societies. Here the recognized, if perhaps not the expressed, aim has always been to enable the children to develop into functioning members of society. Education is practical, immediate, and concrete. Its relationship to the real affairs of society is easily demonstrable, and there is no question of educating children to prepare for a place

society and the opportunity to serve his fellow beings. Here they must learn by performing, and by doing those very things that society prescribes as their future roles and to prepare himself for his mission in life. There is, perhaps, no depth to their learning, but there is certainly a pressing and constant contact between education and the family.

This contact has been released by the development on one hand of a civilization too complicated and too remote to be revealed in its entirety to anyone, least of all to children, and on the other, of a system of education so overspecialized, and at times so materialistic as to lose sight of the place of the child in society. The school must serve its true function, that of initiating children into the civilization of which it is a part, - the preparation for family, civil and spiritual life.  

The training of children for "life perfection" by drawing upon the inner resources of the child himself is declared to be an important function of the school: "One of the functions of the school is to train children in living and mutually helping eachother and to foster the idea of brotherhood and interdependence. A school atmosphere should prevail wherein youngsters will practice the idea of solving the situation together.

The relationship between school, society and spiritual, between the system of education and the spirit of civilization must be direct, immediate, local. More than that, the school itself must as nearly as possible approximate the actual conditions of community life: Pope Pius XI in his encyclical on education reasserts that education to be effective must be complete, it must train all the faculties of

the child - talents and abilities. It must fit the child for good citizenship and not to forfeit his spiritual obligations. The curriculum must reflect the assumption of the felt needs of the community; it must enlarge the experience of boys and girls with the full intention of preparing them for a place in society.

Interest of the school and family must always be directed not to the educational process in the abstract. A serious philosopher, and a serious social thinker, their interest is in all of life and all of society, and social and spiritual. While, in the immediate sense, the function of education is to secure the best possible development and adaptation of those being educated, in the wider sense, it must move to understand the conditions of the society within which it operated.

If, in a relatively stable society, the educational system simply trains each boy to play in the future the role played in the present by his father, and each girl the role played by her mother, then that educational system merely perpetuates a given status quo. But if the conditions of the society itself preclude such perfect stability, if the society is in a state of flux, and requires constant change, then the educational system should prepare its students to meet new ways of earning a living. The social uses of education let us call it, is carried to great lengths by materialists who, lacking philosophic moderation, saw in education nothing much more than a tool for effecting certain social changes. There can be no denial of the importance of meeting the changes of material activities of society however in the words of Pius XI, "Such men are miserable deluded in their claim
to emancipate as they say, the child, while in reality they are making him the slave of his own blind pride and of his disorderly affections, which as a logical consequence of this false system, come to be justified as legitimate demands of so-called autonomous nature."

Teachers must undertake to acquire a greater understanding of their society and its problems in order to be equipped to formulate their educational, social and spiritual aims, and to be adequate to the task of introducing young persons to the intricacies of a constant material change of society. The preoccupation of educators with problems of mere techniques has in recent decades distracted them from the consideration of more basic problems of life. Educators must live and understand fully the life of the community, economic, social and spiritual. The method of instruction is superficial, unreal and to a degree worthless without the background of the teacher. "For education is a vital process; the teacher communicates to the pupils the spiritual life that he himself possess; he gives to him his ideas and ideals, his standards of conduct, his belief and his hopes, and his scale of values". It seems evident the teacher's personality determines in a large measure his full value as an educator.

III
CONCLUSIONS
EDUCATION AND THE TEACHING OF CURRENT AFFAIRS

Some conclusions regarding the applications to the teaching of current affairs may now be drawn.

18. On Christian Education, Encyclical, Pius XI False Naturalism, Par. IV
1. Current affairs are composed of all the significant affairs of the individual and his society.

If one considers a narrower, more conventional definition of current affairs, Pope Pius XI offers advice into the proper method of instruction . . . "in social-economic field has left much to be desired, this has often come about because they have not known and pondered sufficiently the teaching of the Sovereign Pontiffs on these questions. The fulfillment of this goal may best be illustrated when current affairs instruction is drawn from the environs of students, and study of source material. Much of the current affairs of society can be fully understood only by a serious consideration of its actual processes. According to this theory, students in the schools can be given a thorough grounding in the essentials of current affairs by reason of their intensive work in actual processes of life's works.

The study of current affairs is not limited to children of over a certain age-level. Since all education is concerned with life processes and interests of the students, current affairs, broadly defined, must be the basic curriculum component for all ages. For young children, whose attention span and capacity for protracted effort are limited, all teaching must have an immediate and readily perceptible relationship to their own lives. While part of their time must be occupied with the acquisition of the basic skills of liter-

20. Atheistic Communism, Encyclical Letter, Pius XI Social Study and Propoganda, Par. I
acy, the bulk of the subject matter with which they are concerned must be "current".

In the case of older children, on one hand longer periods of time may be devoted to symbolistic learning and thinking, and to historical and scientific matter. But, on the other, even such an approach avails to child the opportunity to see how situations were corrected or neglected in earlier source. It can be said that this in the final analysis is the understanding of current problems through the backwards history lesson; - relatively more remote material must have some relationship to their own lives. They must be able to understand what that relationship is. In addition, since one of the objectives of education is to create an active and intelligent citizenry and to prepare people for integration in their society, the pupils can be expected to devote some part of their time to the actual problems and questions of every day political and economic affairs. A long grounding in the nature of the actual processes of their society should enable them to have a clearer understanding of these current affairs.

The grounding in the actual processes of society is a study based upon actual activities and participation in productive processes, however, simplified. To an understanding based upon whole-hearted activity is added through the years an intellectual grasp of the historical development of these activities in the culture. This combination is intended to conserve the vitality of more primitive forms of education, while utilizing the symbolistic heritage of our com-
plex civilization. They should combine them to produce in the maturing student a lively interest in and desire to comprehend the manifold current affairs of our day.

This is not the same as, and does not even always require, intense memorization of names, dates, and places mentioned in all eight columns of the daily papers' front pages.

Since our society is one of conflict and change, some of which may be directed, no study of our society can ignore controversial issues. There are clashes of interest and partisanship on all sides; they are the woof of our social life, as the given physical and historical conditions are its warp. The interweaving of the entire fabric must be watched in its constant making, and not merely the flecks of color that appear and disappear on its changing design.

One may argue that nevertheless the students may be presented with some of the facts of current affairs, while the troublesome issues are passed over in the school room. To pretend to teach current affairs while ignoring the basic "stuff" is simply a dishonesty.

The teacher must be a guide to his students' developing understanding, not a purveyor of facts or opinions. This prescribes his role in the teaching of current affairs. He must know where to go for factual information, and what information is relevant. He must be himself searching for a greater understanding of the great matters of public life. "The illustrations, comparisons, and stories which the teacher selects must be extracted from the child's concrete experiences and be adapted to his mental capacity."

It may be assumed that as an intelligently interested citizen, the teacher will himself have some opinions regarding the conflicts and uncertainties of our time. At first it seems evident that the teacher must guide and yes, even cast, definite opinions but as the child progresses and advances, the matter of teacher opinions will be less and less needed. It may be argued on one hand that the teacher's function is merely to direct the attention of his students to the issues that are, and to encourage them to form at least tentative opinions; or, on the other, that since the teacher too, is one of the investigating group, he must participate in the search for solutions. Later writers to be discussed in this work are less ambiguous on this point.

The interest of students in current affairs, supposing the study to be appropriate to the age level, is natural and has not to be manufactured.

There has long been a habit in the teaching of current affairs to instill the data in the students' memories by the use of a variety of classroom games and tricks. Such tricks are employed where a real interest is lacking and a false, though superficial one, must be manufactured by the teacher in order for him to accomplish his purposes. For if they must be employed, then it may be supposed that the matter is not presented in such a way as to touch the student's real interest.
CHAPTER II

THE MOST RECENT THINKERS IN EDUCATION THROUGH SOCIAL STUDY

The need for social study instruction has been placed high on the agenda of basic school study. Pope Pius XI in his encyclical "Atheistic Communism" states, "To give to this social activity a great efficiency it is necessary to promote a wider study of social problems in the light of the doctrines of the Church and under the aegis of her constituted authority". "Therefore it is of utmost importance to foster in all classes of society an intensive program of social education adapted to the varying degrees of culture".

The Pope is very outspoken in the matter of promoting and studying social issues of the day. It follows that the children of school age should participate, work out, study through economic and social problems which in a broader sense are current affairs. It seems quite evident Pius XI attributed many of the underlying conquests of communism thru the ineffective educational social programs and the ignoring of the basic philosophy of the church. In another section of the encyclical there is discussion concerning the tactics and "trickery of various forms, hiding its real designs behind ideas that in themselves are good and attractive". At this point the papal warning can only be heeded when the matter of issues social and economic are part of actual discussion and understanding rising from students' needs.

Doctor Conroy mentions a notable procedure that will help the cause of understanding in the classroom. "We can show children how this works in the rule of the classroom, rule which brings benefit to all by making
it easy for good to do good and hard for bad to do evil". He further states, "We can show our children how inhuman a classroom tyranny might be by indicating the effect on them of a rule which prevented good and encouraged evil". ¹

Conroy's method would make the classroom atmosphere in actuality an experimental place where good or bad would be practiced to add meaning to the lesson. Obviously, a discussion of a current problem would precede this situation, if not the objective of the lesson would be devoid of aim. Conroy further stresses this point by saying, "He must be shown how difficult it is to be a Christian in fact and made to apply the principal of individual dignity and work in his dealings with his fellows, and in the study of government and society."²

The factors that make for government in a democracy are derived from the governed. There are times when a citizenry have fallen in the trap of trickery as mentioned by the Holy Fathers, is a direct causation in many cases to poor classroom instruction, confused philosophy on the part of the teacher and in some cases a lack of patriotism. The discussion of patriotism follows.

Reverend Thomas J. Guigley, Diocesan Superintendent of Schools at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania said, "Patriotism is always a part of the work of our schools". It must manifest itself in doing. Patriotism is always a virtue that is not passive not active."³ A virtue not passive but active is significant to the study of current affairs. It is for the teacher to participate, develop and evolve with children the ideas con-

². Ibid. P. 154-F
³. Ibid. P. 167-F
cerning our society. They may make studies of national, local, and spiritual leaders whose contribution to the development of the resources of man can not be questioned. Naturally, the teacher must be of the highest social, moral, and spiritual being lest the classroom be the rostrum for the study of distorted issues. The love of country is best taught by experiences in children's lives that ultimately mature to that objective. Good school programs are not necessarily the result of good methods as much as they are a product of good teaching of those of whom possess the intellectual and moral convictions required by their important office."

I

A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE SEEKERS OF EDUCATION THROUGH SOCIAL REFORM

An outstanding criticism of reformist activity education rests in the fact that there is a complete absolvement from the problem of the true meaning of life. They place social problems in the field of philosophy, therefore, weakening the certitude of philosophy. They seem intent to impose their social ideas on the group and the individual is subordinate to the group; they feel that all the ills of society will be cured by social philosophy. The basic fallacy is their consideration of the individual as the source and end of life. It is true that there must be an adaptation to the whole world and to every period of time, but the social reformist ignores man in its entirety. There is no emphasis on the conception of reality, of man and of life. They place a complete faith on the particular phase of life, a particular phase of man's nature, a particular need of an era, a phase of reality. They deal with a part of the object rather than the whole, this renders education

5. Catholicism in Education (DeHoure & Jordan, p. 39
It is difficult to speak of the purpose of education without questioning its underlying philosophy. The Social Reformist affirms that man is a continuous nature and completely rejecting the supernatural life. They differ with those who see in man a material body continuous with nature, but a spiritual soul destined to live a supernatural life.

Here we see from the outset the two most general misconceptions against which education must guard itself. The first misconception is the lack or disregard of ends. If means are liked and cultivated for the sake of their own perfection, and not as means alone, to that very extent they cease to lead to the end, and art loses its practicality; its vital efficiency is replaced by the process of infinite multiplication, each means developing and spreading for its own sake. This supremacy of means over ends and the consequent collapse of all sure purpose and real efficiency seem to be the main reproach to contemporary education. The means are not bad. On the contrary, they are generally better than those of old pedagogy. The misfortune is precisely that they are so good that we lose sight of the end. Hence the suppressing weakness of education today, which proceeds from our attachment to the very perfection of our modern educational means and methods and our failure to bend them toward the end. The child is so well tested and observed, his needs so well detailed, his psychology so clearly cut out, the methods for making it easy for him everywhere so perfected, that the end of all these commendable improvements runs the risk of being forgotten or disregarded... The scientific improvements of the pedagogical means and methods is in itself outstand-
ing progress. But the more it takes on importance, the more it re-
quires a parallel strengthening of practical wisdom and of dynamic
trend toward the goal". 6

Maritain is stated at length because of an excellent exposition
to the subject of instruction without true and sound philosophical
basis. Then again Maritain points out, "The wrong begins when the
object to be taught and the primacy of the object are forgotten, and
the cult of the means - not to an end, but without an end - only ends
up in a psychological worship of the subject". 7 Inherently this basis
of education leads to the pragmatic and materialistic ideal above all
else, all things must be useful in the present. Aim here being to es-
ablish a goal of education on the utility to man as a full realiza-
tion. Again Maritain shows the weakness of the pragmatic concept when
he says, "It should be pointed out that if we tried to build educa-
tion on the single pattern of the scientific idea of man and carry it
out accordingly, we could only do so by distorting or warping this
idea; for we should be pressing the only idea at our disposal, that
is the scientific one, for an answer to our question. Then we should
try, contrary to its type, to draw from it a kind of metaphysics.
From the logical point of view, we would have a spurious metaphysics
disguised as science and yet deprived of any really philosophical in-
sight; and from the practical point of view, we would have a denial or
a misconception of those very realities and values without which ed-
ucation loses all human sense or becomes the training of an animal for
the utility of the state.

6. Jacques Maritain, Education at Cross Roads", (Yale Union Press,
   New Haven, 1943), pp. 3-F
7. Ibid., pp. 4-F
Thus the fact remains that the complete and integral idea of man which is the prerequisite of education can only be a philosophical and religious idea of man. I say philosophical, because this idea pertains to the nature or essence of man; I say religious, because of the existential status of this human nature in relation to God and the special gifts and trials and the vocations involved.\(^8\)

The means of education as they see it devoid of any metaphysical aspect and therefore it lacks the code of objective morality. They condemn the teachers' guidance in the realm of moral values. The teacher is an important person in guiding the children in the right principles and motives. The serious objection with the reformist is the "harrow conception of interests and experiences in which they are made to be-all and end-all of education, the very source of values, of moral standards of conduct, and the sole basis of discipline."\(^9\)

The pragmatic approach to perfection in the child by the sole means of education is answered in the encyclical letter on education of Pius XI. "This perfection they seek to acquire by means of education. But many of them with, it would seem, too great insistence on the etymological means of the word pretend to draw education out of human nature itself and evolve it by its own unaided powers." The child must be led and shown the means to obtain the mode of living a life beyond itself. Their philosophical theories hold that human experience is the only valid test of truth; that changing circumstances dictate what is true and false—good or evil—according to this then society is the judge of good and evil. Of course this is not the

8. *Are Catholic Schools Progressive?* L. J. O'Connell, p. 120-121
9. Ibid., pp. 119 ff.
case because that would lay claim to complete knowledge. In a manner the theories are atheistic since they hold that science and human experience is the only valid test of truth and knowledge. They completely ignore the demonstrated truths; the supreme value of human reason, the religious interpretation of life signified by a belief in the existence of God, and an unchangeable moral law, the freedom of man's will and the immortality of man's soul. These are important principles in the human and American way of life.

A CRITICAL SURVEY OF THE CONTEMPORARY AMERICAN THINKERS

Theories of the relation of education to the culture are accepted and their contemporary consequences considered. Hook states education is an assimilation of culture and its transmission from one generation to the other. Educational practice must meet the demands of society, and be a part of civilization.

Accepting the fact that school methodology bears an intimate relationship with the ideology of the society, and rejecting in large part the dominant ideology of contemporary American society, these writers aim to remake American educational theory in the process of remaking the America ideology. They are the last analysis seeking to reshape society to meet their own thinkers.

Thus over the decades many have attempted to forge an educational theory that will fit the pattern of democracy as they conceive it, and to employ methods of instruction in a struggle against totalitarianism abroad, and Counts expresses that educators reject the idea of neutrality, and direct its energies without reservation to the strengthening of the democratic way of life.
The conception of the democratic tradition, held by these men, is clear (although not always historically accurate). The American tradition that they would preserve is the tradition of John Locke, The Declaration of Independence, and the faith of Jefferson -- this was the constant emphasis of the years, let us say, 1925 to 1935, after which a new element began to seep into their writings, the fight against the foreign dictatorships. And in the years since the ending of the war there begins to be a preoccupation with the question popularly dubbed "one world". Statesmanship in education today, according to John Childs, requires that educational programs be related to life and the actual human societies. It must take into account national and regional cultures.

To gear educational theory to the dynamics of a changing society whose members do not recognize the requirements for change so acutely as do the proponents of educational theory is an intricate political problem, not only those recognized by the theorists. For, as we shall see below, these reformists aim not only to advance a backward theory to the point reached by a rapidly changing civilization, but more than that to advance beyond the advances of civilization and to draw the changing civilization after it. That this aim has involved some educators in difficulties with the community is publicly known: And Rugg, whose textbooks have been involved in some of these difficulties, warns against going too fast. "No superintendent, principal or teacher can expect the community or the neighborhood to cooperate with his educational program unless the community understands and accepts the theory underlying it."

The educator then is no longer the tool and the mouthpiece of society, quietly transmitting its culture from generation to generation. He becomes, rather, a kind of prophet, telling evil and pointing the way, and in order to be allowed to perform this function through the children, he must at the same time convince the adults. He would then be a leader of social reform, and what he does and says in the school room and out a matter of public interest, or a current affair. He then must be trained to understand that education must have a purpose beyond the phase and participation for citizenship and the development of social know-how. Are not these writers assuming the school society and as just purely social and ignoring the moral and religious nature of man?

A CRITIQUE OF CONTEMPORARY AMERICAN SOCIETY

The first function of the social reformer is to submit a critique of the social scene as is, and the ends to which man is mostly obligated. This function, the writers under consideration have been reluctant to perform.

The individualistic standards of American life are exposed and criticized. Counts, is concerned with the degree of success of the individual — economic. He feels that the individual is so geared to his own success that he loses sight of his place and his obligations to society. At this point he stresses the need for indoctrination in the schools, lest the individual be molded by the mechanics of industrial life.

Rugg, too, is concerned with what he considers to be the absence of a sincere moral tone in American society.
"The youth of our cities are growing up in a climate of 'getting something for nothing'. The antagonistic ideas of competition, and of laissez faire conformity, are gripping the American mind and are producing a thorough-going climate of hypocrisy. Complete and conform -- two mutually inconsistent ideas and ideals!" 11

Whereas the writings of Counts and Kilpatrick, however, tend to make a narrow analysis of this phenomenon ascribing it to the baneful influence of the middle class, Rugg is more realistic, less socially aggressive in his analysis of the class structure of American society:

"There are, on the contrary, a kaleidoscope of many shifting groups, some of which from time to time are mutually exclusive and antagonistic, but most of which overlap in membership and interest are both partly conflicting and partly cooperative. In our present state of democratic experimentation this is government". 12

The great positive element in contemporary American civilization, through which all efforts of educators and social reformers seem directed is the element of change. There is an almost pathological absorption with the fact of change, as though it were a unique characteristic of modern times. Kilpatrick is concerned with changes that should take place in society and the necessity of orderly change. He claims intelligent change is the great task of our civilization.

The factor of change, Kilpatrick argues, is proposed by the nature of the society; the kind, direction, and degree of change can be disposed by man. And in this disposition the process of education -- of educating the young as well as the mature -- has a major place.

12. Rugg, AMERICAN LIFE, op. cit., p. 99
Citizens must be trained to critically study their institutions with the eye to its improvement to serve the needs of man. This should be done by preparing the children to meet changes.

Distinctions tend to blur these writings. The education of adults and the education of children is discussed in the same breath. The processes of self-government and of self-education are not only not distinguished by them but are identified: "... in a democratic society education is not only an essential element of sound government. One can go even farther and say that government is education, social life is education -- - if the democratic process is to be anything more than the will-o'-the-wisp-like political fluctuation of a blind and credulous people, the process must take on the very nature of education". ¹³

While it is undoubtedly true that in the larger sense a democratic process of self-government is educational to the extent that it is democratic, the development of a theory for educating young persons requires stricter categories of definitions than this statement undertakes. If the remarks were to be applied only to the education of children, they would again lead to an unsound educational theory. For while, some degree of "self-government" can be expected to lead children to a better realization of the process of life, it is surely not true that children can be best educated by the most democratic process of group determination. While democratic theory denies that normal adults require a leader to tell them what they really want and need, this is exactly what children do require. The discussion of this point has been indulged in with the purpose of demonstrating the

¹³. Rugg, AMERICAN LIFE, op. cit., p. 15
impasses to which the confusions of categories lead.

The aims of adult and childhood education are confounded. Children and adults alike are to be educated to manage the flux of society. "Schools exist (at least in a democratic society) to help the young grow up into intelligently self-directing members of the culture group, able and disposed to join with others in the continual task of remaking the community culture and life into something ever finer".

Kilpatrick reiterates this point a number of times in the course of this short book: "Any intelligently managed society, especially in our modern times of rapid change (again the emphasis of the unique phenomenon of change in our times) and divided culture, must take conscious provision on the one hand for the study of its institutions that these may when necessary be improved, on the other for the education of its citizens that they may be intelligent in such matters and disposed to seek and foster desirable changes. A public system of education for a democracy exists, largely at least, to serve just these two ends. . . ." 14

It is important to note that there is a complete absence of the spiritual aim of society. Rugg discusses at length the problem of educating the community to change its own ways. He says,

"we confront two problems, that of developing in the masses of the population, at the same time, a sufficient understanding of problems and issues for the forming of intelligent decisions concerning them." 15

He proceeds thereon to discuss the difficulty involved in such an undertaking. The only way out, therefore, is for the educator "to lead the community in the study of society".

The short coming of the discussion by the social reformist is that it repeatedly is directed toward freeing and developing the

14. Kilpatrick, REMAKING THE CURRICULUM, op. cit., p. 117
15. Ibid., p. 44
personality of the child but in the final analysis it is releasing the animal or material instincts and as such only develop the individuality. Personality is opposed to individuality. Man's rational nature is by which he is rendered a person, while his material nature renders him individual.¹⁶

One aim of education then is to enable the citizenry intelligently to direct the course of society. The question then is in what manner this may best be done. The method of critical evaluation must be employed throughout the educative process, in considering subject matter of all types. This method consists of formal training in semantics, "How to read intelligently, how to recognize good from bad reasoning, how to evaluate evidence, how to distinguish between a definition and hypothesis, and between a hypothesis and a resolution can be taught in such a way as to build up permanent habits of logic in action",¹⁷ plus serious application of critical thinking to all subject matter fields. "Although in certain fields," says Hook, "the subject matter itself may be methods of thinking, the importance of the attitude of critical evaluation must not be lost sight of in any field. It must pervade the curriculum as the fundamental allegiance of both teacher and student".¹⁸

Harold Rugg, too, emphasizes that the direct study of immediate

¹⁶. This is the opinion of St. Thomas who held matter is the principle of individualism, C.F. Summa theol. I A G 39 a i Ad.3
¹⁸. Ibid., p. 112
issues in a critical light is the only way to develop a truly educated citizenry. While his remarks on this subject do not directly contradict those of Hook, who believes that critical thinking must pursue all subject matter, including presumably historical material, he tends rather to stress a critical study of contemporary affairs. "A generation of research has taught that training in tolerance, in generalization, must be given through the direct study of contemporary issues and problems and their historical development. The formerly prevailing conception of general mind-training through content remote from American life is being discarded." 19

Kilpatrick, writing in 1928, when to superficial social critics it appeared that all social ills could be cured, in fact were being cured by the application of the so-called scientific method, says, "The growing body of tested thought serves to give a sense of inevitability to the all-inclusive criticism." Whatever Kilpatrick may have meant when he wrote this sentence, to this reader, considered in the light of his entire writings, it means that the conclusions, he, Kilpatrick, reached by means of his "tested thought" are inevitable. He has a kind of naive nineteenth-century faith in the power of the scientific method, which, even aside from the great epi-Phenomenon of the atomic bomb, has not demonstrated its alleged capacities. "A pronounced characteristic of this new attitude (he refers here to the changed mental attitude characteristic of the modern world) is the tendency to criticize our institutions, with

19. Rugg, AMERICAN LIFE, op. cit., p. 207
increasing tendency to change them according to the results of criticism." 20

The evidence of the past two decades quite contradicts the certainty of Kilpatrick, which was characteristic of many writers of that time. Despite the undermining of faith in the scientific method of these years, there remains a good deal of validity to the thesis that current affairs must be observed with a keen and critical eye. To this thesis has been added in recent years a greater stress upon the necessity to infuse into the education of the young in a democracy a sense of abiding values.

From the discussion of critical evaluation one is led again to the question of the teaching of controversial issues in current affairs. The writers with whom we are here concerned are the vocal and unequivocal on the subject. For Rugg, controversial issues continually constitute the hub of the social sciences curriculum: "... the most effective way to bring the school program into touch with contemporary life is to organize it around controversial issues. If the social sciences were organized about controversial issues, then the history that would be selected and taught would be relevant to present modes of living and problems." 21

Hook, too, speaks clearly in favor of the teaching of controversial issues: "Little would be left in the curriculum besides mathematics and science if we were to demand that only problems which

20. Ibid., p. 18
which can be definitely solved should be taught. . . Intelligently studying of social problems is possible even if it generates other problems, even if no more can be seen than that some solutions are inadequate, even if judgment is suspended." It argues for the serious consideration of moot questions with the aim, although not necessarily with the certainty, of reaching workable conclusions.

The further question, considered above of the teacher's position in regard to controversial issues is now reached. The teacher, according to these writers is expected to be a well-informed citizen. Further, most of the writers here under consideration expect the teacher to be a leader of change. But reform itself is a controversial issue, and if the teacher is by intent a reformer, he has then arrived at the conclusions even before introducing his students to the questions. The logic of this position is that the teacher teaches controversial issues only in order to advocate a particular solution to social issues. This is not the teaching of current affairs, but is indoctrination, the acting out of current affairs. In the words of Pius XI . . . "The teacher, whether public or private, has no absolute right of his own, but only such as have been communicated by others. And whoever disturbs the pupils' faith in any way, does him grave wrong, inasmuch as he abuses the trust which children place in their teacher, and take unfair advantage of their inexperience." 22

Hook, unlike Counts and Kilpatrick, does not adopt this propagandistic line. He accepts clearly the position that the teacher may be expected to have personal views on controversial issues, and

22. Christian Education of Youth, Pius XI, Tra.Arm.Par. 4
even that the teacher has the right to state his conclusions, with one major proviso: "No matter how controversial a subject may be, the teacher is justified in reaching or stating conclusions provided he has honestly made accessible to students the relevant data and arguments of the conflicting positions." 23

The course which Hook proposes that the teacher follow under such circumstances is that he first deliberately advocate the position opposed to his own, supporting it with all possible evidence, before presenting his own views. Of course, in the hands of a skillful polemicist, such a technique rather enhances than reduces the strength of his own position, inasmuch as the final rebuttal always has the possibility to be the strongest. By the terms of this theory, however, the teacher is not asked to be neutral, nonetheless fair, and there is nothing **ipse-facto** unfair about this building up of his own position providing he states adequately the opposite one.

On the contrary, Counts and Kilpatrick argue, the nature of education is indoctrination, into the way of life and a set of beliefs, and the teacher's function is thus something in the way of a propaganda agent.

All education, says Kilpatrick, is indoctrination. The proponents of a new social order which Kilpatrick rather vaguely calls "planning" ask "... whether or not there does not now go on in this country, partly unconsciously but partly intentionally, an actual indoctrination in outworn and now hurtful institutional forms and theories, particularly in the matter of economic system, and whether

23. Ibid., p. 123
or not it is necessary for the educational profession, as of right and duty the protagonist of the best possible culture and civilization, to take effectual steps to supplant this hurtful indoctrination with a better . . . amid such times as these (this was written in 1932) when selfishness sits entrenched in tradition, can men of insight rest in such scholarly impartiality? Must they not — the teachers as well as others — so burn with conviction and zeal that they will seek in season and out to tear down the selfish tradition and build instead the needed tradition of supreme allegiance to the common good?" 24 The reasoning here is somewhat confused. Is it propaganda or counterpropaganda that the writer advocates? Would he be content for the teacher to maintain a neutral attitude of scientific indifference were it not for the "entrenched selfishness?" Or would their burning conviction and zeal move them to indoctrinate for the new social order even in a completely impartial school atmosphere? And how, in the last analysis, can the proponents of the new social order be at one turn scrupulous seekers after the truth and at the other, convinced disciples of a given school of political philosophy?

The writer feels that it is a violation of young minds to put forth this effort in school life.

Counts, too, is an outspoken proponent of this position with all its possible confusions. He claims, like Kilpatrick, that all education is in essence indoctrination: " . . I am prepared to defend the thesis that all education contains a large element of imposition, that in the very nature of the case this is inevitable, that the existence and evolution of society depend upon it, that it is conse-

24. Kilpatrick, EDUCATION AND THE SOCIAL CRISIS, op. cit. p. 69,70
quently eminently desirable, and that the frank acceptance of this fact by the educator is a major professional obligation." 25 Counts proceeds to place the school in the vanguard of social reformist government. He would have the school check abuses of society and place the teacher in the position of vanguard. He wants teachers to reach out for power and take control.

**RESUME**

The entire conception herein described and illustrated involves a lack of modesty singularly ill-adapted to a scrupulous search for truth. That, on the one hand, a teacher may have convictions founded upon a sense of values that is beyond truth and untruth, and still maintain an attitude of critical evaluation is easily admitted. For there is no life and no teaching without a sense of values. But on the other, to suppose that education with respect to change is identical with indoctrination into settled convictions is surely a violation of the children. It is one thing to criticize the society as is in terms of a stated set of values, and quite another to pronounce final judgment regarding an unknown future. This distinction Counts and Kilpatrick do not make. That education trains the growing child to accept and defend certain standards and values of life is not a proposal but rather a recognition of an omnipresent function of education in all societies. For the education of children from earliest infancy in all societies has always been habituation to the standards and mores of the group.

MAJOR OBJECTIONS TO SOCIAL REFORM PHILOSOPHIES

I. Lack of emphasis on the function of the intellect in abstracting sense knowledge.

II. The training of the will is ignored by a complete insistence that education should be based only on the "felt needs of the child".

III. It rejects anything else beyond "citizenship" as a main goal of education.

IV. A complete disregard for the duality of man - existence of the rational soul distinct from the body.

V. A confusion of the concepts of individuality with personality.

VI. The subscription to the idea of biological evolution of man.

The social reformers see society as an end in life rather than the means to the end. Man has a function beyond his life in society. More the life is personal, the more it is social. God is common "good" of Jerusalem and in no ways singular good. Man must try to perfect himself and as such needs the help of others. Community life can be good and helpful and desirable to man. Social life is a part of man, as much as any portion of his body. 26

The social reformists neglect the fact that man has many inequalities that are native with him. St. Thomas writes, "The universe would not be perfect if only one grade of goodness were found in things". 27 A sound society is operative when a natural order flourishes from functions that man can fulfill.

27. St. Thomas Aquinas, Sum. Theol. I. q. 47 a. 2
RESUME REGARDING THE TEACHING OF CURRENT AFFAIRS

A summing up of these implications is here offered.

1. The entire curriculum of the school child is not only concerned with current affairs. It is a current affair - in a dual sense. On the one hand the subject matter and the slant of education are very much a matter of public concern. Many groups, aside from the parents and the teachers - not to speak of the children - have an interest in the subject matter and the slant of the curriculum should be employed in the service of society, and the promotion of family life.

2. Specifically current affairs involves a study of the past with one's feet in the present and the eye on the future. The study of history may serve contemporary needs. Whether this is done by the backwards history lesson or vice-versa is not significant. The value of the past is the knowledge it provides of the present and the vision of the future. The past, recent and distant, must be called for what it may offer to the solution of the problems of the present.

3. At the same time, current affairs must be studied per se. The problems of the present are a legitimate object of study, and a necessary one. That the present world is a legitimate object of study for those who are going to live in it, with the view that the present is in a large measure a result of the past. But the problems of the present must be studied in such a way that their roots in the past and fruits in the future may be observed by the students. The fundamental and not merely the incidental, problems of the present must be the
concerns of the students.

The fundamental relationships of present life may be employed not only for the better understanding of specific current affairs but as a skeleton for an entire course of study. Thus: "Studies of basic concepts, generalizations, institutions, and problems are needed for an understanding of contemporary life. Data provided by these studies are coming to be recognized as providing the fundamental skeleton for the entire school course for social and natural sciences." 28

5. Present issues must be studied with a view to determining the underlying relationships of our society. This means that the conflicts of modern times cannot be avoided in an honest course of study of current affairs. The study of conflicts involves the study of controversial issues, and on the right to teach controversial issues the teacher must take a brave stand.

The difficulties that the teacher may encounter in his efforts to discuss all issues honestly in the classroom can only be met by efforts to enlist the sympathy and aid of the community in its attempt to understand and to teach an understanding of modern life. Thus, this kind of education of children also involves educating adults.

6. The teacher's stand in regard to controversial issues is not a matter of complete agreement among all writers here discussed. There appears to be some agreement that the teacher, as a reponent of social values and a seeker after truth, will have opinions upon a number of matters. There is still further agreement that the teacher may make his views known to his students. The degree to which he may actually attempt to influence his students is a matter of controversy.

In the teaching of controversial current issues, the teacher may expound his own views as his own, but only after a scrupulously fair exposition of opposing views. In this wise a current affairs lesson or any lesson, with applicability to current affairs, would be something like a debate carried on by one person, the teacher. Undoubtedly the students would not be discouraged from accepting views sympathetic to those of their teacher, as young students are prone to do. But students who uphold another position would have the support of arguments for that position already advanced by the teacher. In any case, the legitimacy of discussing controversial issues and of taking any of a number of views upon them would be established by this procedure.

7. There is less emphasis on education by direct experience. Less is implied concerning preparation in the earliest school years for an understanding of modern life. It may perhaps be implied that less direct activity and experience is advocated and a greater attention to purely intellectual pursuits. But, without direct questioning of the writers upon this point, this cannot be stated for certain.
In 1890 an educator with an old-fashioned, leisurely style\textsuperscript{1} and

"The process of education implies the accumulation of information and the training of the faculties...If either information or training be lacking, the result is fragmentary. Without information a man is theoretical and visionary, without training he is capricious."

some very modern ideas about children\textsuperscript{2} wrote an article on the teaching of current affairs for the journal \textit{EDUCATION}.

The current affairs curriculum of the school child, he believed, should consist of those matters of the world and life about him that interest him and that he can best understand. For young children he had a conception of educational subject matter and emphasis that foreshadowed that of contemporary thinkers. He expressed with some charm and conviction. "In the lower schools...", he wrote, "the study of current events, as they are usually accessible in print, is less desirable than the study at first hand of subjects in nature for the purpose of perceiving the relations among these objects, or discovering their qualities and properties, and to some extent, their uses"...As current events are generally the description of phenomena in the industrial, in the political, in the social and moral world, the young child is by reason of his immaturity excluded from the number of things that can study these events wisely. But current events in the natural world about him are his proper textbook."

2. "Commonly speaking, the education of a child is stopped as soon as he is put to school." "Loc. Cit."
3. \textit{Ibid.}, pp. 171, 2
Although it has been since demonstrated that many basic elements of the social and industrial world are comprehensible and interesting to the young child, Thorpe's desire to protect him from the over-intellectual and over didactic pedagogy of that day is surely commendable.

Older children Thorpe wished to free from the musty academic education out of touch with the realities of the contemporary world. He wrote of older children that they often go out into the world totally unprepared for what they will meet: "To deny the student the opportunity of consulting in his course the record of current events would not be wholly unlike the denial of all sources of information to a man who was about to travel, of necessity, through a country to him unknown."

Thorpe concluded with a theoretical justification of the study of current affairs, which, except for the language in which it is couched, could have been written by an educator sixty years later: "To the objection that the study of current events emphasizes too greatly matters of passing moment, that such study cultivates the historical sense rather than the discursive powers employed upon reasoning, that these records are too unreliable; it may be replied - that the entire process of life is of adaptation and correction, that yesterday's thought is corrected today, that we live in the present and must interpret the present by present action as well as by past experience, that in all matters we act upon present data, that the unreliability of the data is incident to human nature and is no serious objection to the study of them."

5 Thorpe, "The Study of Current Topics," op. cit., p. 173
6 Ibid., p. 174
I

PATRIOTISM AND CLASS ROOM GAMES.

In the years following the first World War, partly as a consequence of the consciousness of America's newly risen significant world power, and partly perhaps as a reaction to those social critics and groups that began to criticize the dominant trends of America's capitalist strength, the older study of civics began to be supplemented by a study of current events along with a patriotic content and intention.

On the side of aims, the intention was to drill the students into a knowledge and practice of their duties as good citizens - not at all the same thing as educating them into a serious and critical understanding of the workings of the social, political, and economic system.

Reginald Stevens Kimball, a leader in the movement to widen the teaching of current events, quoted William McAndrew, President of the National Education Association, in a small booklet devoted to the justification, aims, and techniques of teaching current events: "'A boy should have it drilled into him that he enters school for the same purpose as he might join the army; that is, to serve the country, not himself. Until every superintendent sees that the social and political motive is stronger than the scholarly and cultural, the scandal of neglect of their political duties by the educated will continue!"  

7. In this case the phrase "current events" rather than "current affairs" is used to signify a narrower subject matter and lesser aims.

From this it is apparent that one aim that inspired the civic-minded educators during the 'twenties was similar to the motive that sent the scholarly Henry Adams to Washington in 1868, the desire that education should be employed to eradicate some of the contemporary political scandals. This attitude on the part of Kimball and other educators, commendable though it is, betrays a lack of understanding of the working of American politics in the face of which a more comprehensive aim in the teaching of current affairs cannot be expected.

In addition to a civic aim, current events in this period was also considered to have definite pedagogical advantages — which from the viewpoint of the broader philosophy of Dewey may appear to be somewhat narrow. Current events, Kimball believed, should be "brought in" with all lessons in which they may be relevant. This is not enough, however, to insure a full course in current events. In addition there may often be stray points in other subjects that can be brought together in a course of current events. Kimball states, "In all grades, there is needed, as an auxiliary to the regular courses, just such a 'catch-all' as current events provides. Here incentives to keep up with the events that are constantly taking place may be given".

Kimball made some protestations of an aim to give the students an understanding of the social scene, rather than simply an array of factual material about it. "The center of interest," he wrote, "has been shifted from theoretical discussion to actualities, from fact to person, from abstract to concrete, and from memorization to inquiry and understanding" (italics mine).9

The shifting centers of interest in some degree negate one another. Inquiry and understanding cannot proceed on the basis only of concrete actualities, but require consideration of theoretical questions.  

In addition it may be questioned whether Kimball really believed in individual and group inquiry, or only in a simulation of inquiry for the purposes of reaching the teacher's preconceived conclusions.  

In his very profuse review of the techniques of teaching current affairs, he emphasized the necessity of closing all current events discussions with a common group agreement: "... the teacher must supervise to see that the discussions are related to current articles and to settle arguments where a climax has been reached without agreement ... During the last ten minutes of the lesson -- the class should act as a group in discussing and clearing up questions and arguments that are still uncertain."  

This folding of all corners and closing of all openings is a kind of compulsive pedagogy that not only violates the spirit of scientific inquiry but even denies Kimball's own emphasis upon the necessity for inquiry and understanding. It returns his attitude toward the teaching of current events to what is, after all, his first principle: the aim to produce good and (one may add) conforming citizens.  

Kimball was not alone in advocating the teaching of current events for the achievement of this purpose. Many writers of the decade of the 1920's were quite untouched by the philosophy of Dewey and his school  

10 Cf. Chapter I.  
11 Cf. Chapter II, this same question, it may be remarked, could be made in regard to the educational philosophers George Counts and William Kilpatrick.  
12 Kimball, THE TEACHING OF CURRENT EVENTS op. cit., p. 21
and continued to emphasize the narrow training and indoctrination of the young in civic affairs. In 1926 Roy Winthrop Hatch published a book 13 smothered with ethical principles about the cultivation of honesty, cooperation, patriotism, etc., etc. "Inspiration or emotional concepts about our country will not carry over alone. Information or fact content is not enough; we must somehow get these young citizens to live their civics in concrete situations every school day, in every subject, in school and out . . . All the activities of the school contain potential citizenship material. The skillful teacher will 'uncover situations' that bring these activities to pass, and then guide the conduct of these young citizens in the society in which they move". 14

The techniques proposed, not only by Hatch but also by Kimball and many others, for training in citizenship in school life, include a good many mock procedures: mock elections, mock world courts, mock students governments, etc., etc. In addition they suggested that parliamentary procedure may be employed in club activities and student government. While parliamentary procedure is undoubtedly a necessary technique in large public assemblies that have the necessity to arrive at definite conclusions, recommendations, or action, and while it is a technique in which all students should receive some elementary instruction at some point in school, it has certain definite limitations both as a procedure of discussion and of education. The purpose of student discussion groups is not usually to conduct affairs, take action, but to search for information and understanding. It may seriously be doubted whether parliamen-

13 Roy Winthrop Hatch, TRAINING IN CITIZENSHIP, (New York, Charles Scribner's sons: 1926)
14 Ibid., pp. 1, 2
tary procedure is not far too unwieldy and therefore unsuited for this purpose. And even, while the procedure may be suited for the very limited purposes, of clubs and student governments, there remains the doubt whether the learning and use of the technique alone advances the students very far in their understanding of the actual processes of social life. The specific procedures of democratic government are often more a matter of history than of function (e.g., the electoral college), and it is doubtful whether initiation into their intricacies is really an education in democracy itself.

Many of the writers of this period were extremely concerned with the procedural details of the teaching of current events. In both his books, Kimball devoted many pages to the elaboration of techniques: size, format, laying-out of current events notebooks; rules and procedures of a variety of pedagogical games; procedure in the "backward-development" lesson. In regard to his advocacy of games, Kimball offered the following justification: "In every subject . . . devices must be introduced from time to time to relieve the monotony of the work". This remark gives the lie to Kimball's assertion that pupils "love" current events: "Indeed, the very fact that students evinced so much delight in current events may have acted as a deterrent to some teachers who were accustomed to having the students dislike the subjects which they were forced to study".

Despite the wide-spread opinion at this time that current events instruction is not only good for the children but that they love it, the advocacy of a variety of games to be used in connection with it

15 Kimball, CURRENT-EVENTS INSTRUCTION, op. cit., p. 157
Vierling Kersey, "A Novel Device for Presenting World News to
persisted. In addition to the games there were suggested other projects including: an encyclopedia of current affairs; mock radio broadcasts, mock elections, cumulative year by year current events notebooks, card files, picture collections, clipping files, map and globe preparations, group radio listening, displays of professional pictorial montages. 16 cont.

One public school principal of Atlwood, Ontario, suggested a number of novel games and quizzes to enhance the interest of current events, and even proposed that the "art lesson may utilize the drawing of flags of the Allies, aircraft insignia, or regimental badges." 17

The proliferation and elaboration of educational devices went so far that during the war years station KNY of the Columbia Broadcasting System collaborated with the public schools of Los Angeles by distributing throughout the schools large colorful (60" x 40") news maps, pictorial montages, of news broadcasts, and a four page news review of the previous week. The Superintendent of Los Angeles Schools was delighted with the entire project and reported: "... we regard this service as extremely valuable, particularly at this time when an intelligent and thorough knowledge of world events is of primary importance to tomorrow's citizens." 18

The entire project well illustrates a unique cultural trait of many Americans who prefer to observe large and professionally executed presentations rather than to participate in less grandiose amateur activities. In this case may be observed a carry-over into a high-technology era of the principle of education through a soaking in of printed matter. The information which is given and not sought out is no longer presented in badly printed unattractive textbooks but is rather

18 Kersey, op. cit., p. 606
16 cont. the Public Schools," SCHOOL AND SOCIETY 57 (May 22, 1943) p. 605
candy-coated with colors, pictures, and news broadcasts. Although, in regard to this particular project, little indication is given of the aims and basic methods of current affairs learning, the emphasis put upon attractive and over-stimulating techniques may lead to the assumption that the entire learning experience had little or no real meaning for the pupils who must be seduced into attending to the subject matter.

This implication drawn from the writings of those who have advocated the use of games and stimulating projects is reinforced by an emphasis upon the daily rather than the enduring content of current affairs. "With a new content each year", wrote Kimball, "current events challenges the teacher as well as the student to exert himself to fresh endeavor." 19

The widespread use throughout the country of current events newspapers 20 indicates that this type of instruction is found in many schools. The New York Times survey discovered that in very many schools which employ these papers one period a week is devoted to current affairs, during which period a simple review is made of the material covered in the commercial school paper used, and that subject of current affairs is there-upon closed for the week.

In 1932 a survey was conducted on the use of the NEWS-OUTLINE, a current affairs paper for the middle grade children. Final among the conclusions reached by the survey was: "A weekly current-events paper including enough material for a thirty-minute class period is sufficient to meet the needs of teachers of the fifth and sixth grades." 21

19 Kimball, CURRENT EVENTS INSTRUCTION, op. cit., p. 7
21 Mary G. Kelty and Nelle Moore, "An Experimental Study of the Teaching of Current Events in the Middle Grades," ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL 32 (February, 1932), p. 425
Of the techniques suggested, some may be considered harmful or inappropriate in themselves, and others only because of the undue emphasis placed upon them.

1. The use of games, to which teachers of current events have long been addicted, may perhaps be considered a faulty educational technique. In any case it can be said to suggest a basic lack of orientation and objective on the part of teacher and pupils. In the cases of specific skills, such as arithmetic, spelling, reading and etc., the learning requirement of constant drill may perhaps justify the employment of techniques designed to reduce the tedium of the work. Current affairs, however, is not a skill, but a basic matter that has an intrinsic appeal to children, provided the segment of subject matter chosen is appropriate to the age level. The use of games in this case, then, indicates that the subject is not being presented in a way to convey to the pupils its intrinsic interest, or that the pupils are expected to grasp factual matter that is too detailed for their needs, or that the problems involved are inappropriate to the age level of the children. Where the teacher finds that he must constantly utilize such devices in order to retain the interest of the pupils he may question whether one or another of these mistakes is not being made.

The use of professionally devised maps, charts, news schedules, and pictures suggests a basic attitude toward education that is at wide

22 C.F. Sec. 1, Chapter I
variance with the philosophy of Dewey. Through them the pupils are made into passive recipients of stimuli and information. The active impulses of creativeness and inquiry are overwhelmed by the comprehensiveness and competence of the material presented. The pupil is deprived of the opportunity to learn by participating in a self-initiated act of inquiry or creation.

3. Mock world courts, parliaments, etc. suffer quite another defect. While they may facilitate the acquisition of necessary factual material and acquaint the students with the procedures of such bodies, their use does not go very far in giving the pupils an insight to the deeps of world affairs. By their very nature, the reacting or the stimulation of the real session, they are extremely limited. For the discussions in these mock bodies cannot be expected to reach deeper levels than do the discussions in their real counterparts. They do not probe beneath the contemporary surface to seek out underlying strata that might explain surface contours. If used as a kind of factual introduction to the serious study of the real problem, such procedures might, however, prove stimulating and valuable. There may be some doubt whether they should be used below the high school level or the upper grades of junior high school.

4. Notebooks, special reports, group conferences must, of course, have their place in the teaching of current affairs. The criticism that must be made of such writing devoted to their use is that a rigid form is often advocated, somehow on the assumption that if the notebook is the correct size, the conference held regularly, or the report given in the proper style, then the current affairs problem is automatically solved.
In general it may be said that the excessive devotion to problems of procedure on the part of the educators here considered completely overshadows a serious consideration of the aims of teaching current affairs and of the content of current affairs most suited to each age level. Current affairs here is considered to be not much more than a selection of daily newspaper items, expurgated and simplified to accord with the supposed capacity of the pupils. Where an aim is expressed, it is usually the aim of "good citizenship", a kind of phrase like the "good life" which means everything and nothing.

III

CURRENT AFFAIRS AND HISTORY

The above statements do not apply equally to all pedagogues writing on the specific subject of current affairs. A number of teachers, particularly during the troublesome 'thirties, seriously considered the importance and the meaning of the teaching of current affairs. This was true not only of the progressive and experimental schools, where a serious study of current affairs was of course taken for granted, but also of schools with a more conservative subject-matter and organization.

In orthodox schools current affairs was considered to offer support and meaning to the standard subject matter. "The thoughtful teacher may grant without protest the value of teaching of current events both for the sake of the strength it offers to the more standardized subject matter of the social studies curriculum and for its own intrinsic worth", wrote Gathany and Fraser.\(^\text{23}\)

They remarked further: "... the study of current events, if properly integrated with the more static subject matter of the social studies, provides a strong support for them in the matters of interest motivation, point of approach, interpretation and analysis." 24

While this attitude begins to approach that of the progressive educator, it is of course not identical with it. For the progressive educator the basic interest of the child is the orienting point of the subject matter offered, and interest has not to be added. Many teachers working in non-progressive schools, however, would like to orient their very classic subject matter as much as possible toward the real interest of the students, and for them Gathany's writings are of some value.

Supposing that the curriculum required of the teacher and pupils demands specific factual information regarding historical and contemporary matters, Gathany suggested means by which these materials may best be inculcated in accordance with the interests of the pupils.

"Generally speaking," he wrote, "the mere facts of government and political parties students are very apt to remember for a short time only. . . When, however, a person comes to understand well political viewpoints and beliefs, political principles and government in actual operation through the study and discussion of both textbooks and current events, he has both knowledge and an experience which are exceedingly difficult to forget and get rid of -- they stick." 25 Gathany considered current affairs an integral part of any social science topic: "No topic, problem, or unit in any of the social science subjects is ever studied in my

classes apart from magazine and newspaper work on ot. Thus current
events become, as they always should, an integral part of the regular
course in all social science work." 26 The aim of what Gathany called
"political culture" he considered to be to "get our students as well ac­
quainted as possible with the depositories of political information and
the sources of democratic and governmental ideas, principles, and ideals".27

The pedagogic techniques suggested by Gathany are in line with
orthodox school procedures, but notable is the absence of the kinds
of frivolities noted in some writers above. He advocated assigned in­
dividual reports, committee or project methods, and problems notebooks.
Of individual reports he warned, "If the attempt is made to synchronize
the current events material with the classroom work; if there is some
definite continuity scheme around which these reports are built; or if
they are woven in a logical way into the other materials being studied
by the class, the method is valuable. If the reports represent a mis­
cellany of unrelated information, however, their value is highly ques­
tionable." 28 In the use of the committee or project method he pro­
posed that one or several students work for a considerable length of
time on some broadly outlined topic. Gathany and Fraser also suggested
use of a problems notebook wherein pupils would prepare files of mater­
ials from current periodicals organized according to a number of basic
current problems, which notebook would then be used throughout the
course in American history for the listing of historical analogues to
the specified current problems. The problems notebook is probably a
rather mechanical device, but it is one that may be useful in cases

26 Ibid., p. 380
27 Ibid., p. 382
28 Gathany and Fraser, "The Consideration of Current Events and
Current Questions," op. cit., p. 149
where the prescribed course of study in American history is rigid and without contemporary orientation.

Other teachers during the 'thirties emphasized the importance of teaching current affairs and history for the purpose of gaining understanding of the contemporary world. "The event itself," wrote one teacher in 1936, "is important only as it is a part of the now great movement of civilization. It serves its purpose only if it helps in an understanding of the present as a prognostication of the future". 29 This teacher arranged her course in modern European history in units of which current events and historical material were component parts. The children pick topics for the units. When children brought newspaper clippings to school, the teacher tried to show them that they could not fully understand their significance without knowing their historical background. Dresden also argued that this method of teaching history and current affairs concomitantly aids in the process of indoctrination: "Another value in teaching history backwards is the possibilities it gives for indoctrination. Do not cry out that this is committing a sacrilege against the purity of history. We have always indoctrinated our pupils ..." 30

IV

CURRENT MATERIALS IN THE CLASSROOM

Some considerable attention has been paid in the last decade to

30 Ibid., p. 39. also cf. Chapter II
the use of newspapers and other current materials in the classroom. In the report of a comprehensive survey on the use of the newspaper in the classroom made in 1939 in Milwarkie a frank attempt to follow the precepts of John Dewey was made: "... what the child learns in school is of no significance to him after he leaves school", wrote Edward A. Fitzpatrick after Dewey, "and what he experiences outside of school is of no use to him in school. It is against the background of such criticism that the present book is to be considered. It is an attempt by means of the newspaper to bring together the learning child in school and the social experience of his community and of humanity that is going on outside the school". 32

Proceeding on this assumption, that pupils should be taught to do what they are going to do anyway, the book went on the advocate teaching correct usage of the daily paper: "If it is true that the function of the school is to teach children to do well what they will eventually be required to do anyway, then teaching pupils to understand the newspapers, to interpret them, to evaluate their contents, to know their short-comings and their virtues, to distinguish between good papers and bad, and to use the knowledge and power they thus gain in effective citizenship, becomes a legitimate task of modern education." 33

That it is a legitimate task of modern education to teach pupils to read, evaluate, and use newspapers may easily be granted. A legitimate question to ask, however, is whether this task is best

32 Ibid., "Indoctrination"
33 Ibid., pp. 24, 25
performed by exclusive devotion to newspapers as texts. This book, for example, enumerated some of the objectives of current events study, including, among others, the following:

1. To help the student arrive at a lucid understanding of the major problems and trends of the world in which he is living.

2. To inculcate the liberal ideal of truth-seeking open-mindedness toward controversial issues.

3. To acquaint the student with certain principles which may aid him in making sound judgments about political, economic, and social matters.  

Now, it may be asked, which of these objectives can really be accomplished by use of the daily newspaper. Surely there is little in the news columns that leads the reader toward "lucid understanding of major problems and trends." Factual matter alone is presented and that factual matter is almost always of mere momentary interest. True, the editorial and special columns are occasionally devoted to more fundamental problems, but with far less completeness and impartiality than can be found in other works, magazine articles and books, devoted to the contemporary scene. Thus, while a few first-rate newspapers may occasionally offer small insights into fundamental matters, for a lucid understanding of contemporary matters, it would appear to be more economic to go to more enduring forms of current literature.

It is also a moot question whether newspapers can be relied upon to "inculcate the liberal ideal of truth-seeking open-mindedness".

When almost all of the country's newspapers are either truth-seeking Democratic newspapers or truth-seeking Republican newspapers, immature pupils must be led by concentrated reading of newspapers to the con-

34 Ibid., p. 107
elusions either that there is no truth in current matters at all, or that there is only Democratic or only Republican truth. In short, a search for truth by immature children through the medium of partisan newspapers of "both sides" probably ends either in confusion or in cynicism.

It is true that newspapers are a necessity of the modern world. And children, who anyway read the sports pages and the comic sections, might just as well also be encouraged to read their more serious sections. Further, some skill is required in reading newspapers, in sifting fact from fiction, in uncovering the sources of opinions and attitudes. It may be argued, however, that too great use of newspapers in the classroom is not the best way to acquire such skill, which requires rather a basic understanding of fundamental elements of the contemporary worlds, best acquired by more basic inquiry and texts than those afforded by the daily newspaper. This is not to argue against the occasional or even frequent use of the newspaper as a contemporary factual resource or illustration of current trends and conflicts.

In 1949 another survey on the use of current materials in the classroom was carried on in California. 35 After a week-long conference on the Berkely campus, a large group of California high school teachers, with the assistance of the State Department of Education and consultants from the Stanford School of Education began to introduce current materials into classrooms and to evaluate results. As

35 Lucient Kinney and Katharine Dresden, BETTER LEARNING THROUGH OUR CURRENT MATERIALS, (Stanford, California, Stanford University Press: 1949)
As the outcome of the second conference, the project was organized on a permanent basis as the California Council on Improvement of Instruction.

In the report on results are chapters on the use of current materials as enrichment material and current materials as a basic resource. In the former are suggested such techniques as the socio-drama, the ten-minute daily news period, and the radio quiz. The discussion of the project method in which current materials are based as a resource contains some useful hints on the dynamics of project development. It was found that most long-term projects are more or less divided into the following periods: (1) planning period; (2) a research period; (3) a culminating activity; and (4) an evaluation period. Among the culminating activities noted were planned discussions, sometimes in an "audience situation," assembly programs, local radio broadcasts, and in one case, a group prepared biography of a popular local physician, which was published in a local newspaper.

Little can be offered by way of a critique of this project on the basis of the published material available. The emphasis appears to be upon the kind of instructional material employed and the actual development of the specific class projects, rather than upon the objectives of the teaching. In the case of educators who completely accept the fundamental tenets of progressive education, it would of course, be taken for granted that a considerable part of the materials employed be current materials, and the emphasis would be upon the objectives of the particular project in hand. There is further some evidence that incentives, other than their own interest in the subject,
must be offered to students in some of these projects to accomplish the desired work. On the other hand, the projects here undertaken give evidence that public schools, operating under more or less orthodox procedures, can undertake current affairs projects of some seriousness and value.

V

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION ON CURRENT AFFAIRS TEACHING

The excessive emphasis upon the use of "current materials" that characterized the writings of some educators who revolted suddenly and uncritically against the earlier classicism of American education was opposed by the work of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association in the early 'thirties.

Charles Beard argued against the assumption that the "chief purpose of the social studies is to assure a presentation and discussion of current issues." He wrote that "... besides this being temporary in its nature, a list of problems will be partial, one sided, and perhaps trivial in spots." Beard believed neither that the function of the study of history is merely a preparation for an understanding of contemporary problems, nor that the problems of democracy can be solved by a proper orientation of the social studies in public schools.

36 E.G., one plan called the "contract plan" specified that all students desiring to qualify for an A or a B in the course must prepare a talk on one of twenty topics. The speakers then competed with one another and in the end four finalists presented talks before the Corona, California, Toastmaster's Club.


38 Ibid., p. 43
In the first case he offered a very practical and compelling reason why the schools cannot possibly be expected to undertake the reorganization of American society: "When we take into account the inadequate preparation of thousands of teachers in the public schools, their inexperience, and the heavy turn-over among them, we must confess some misgivings about expecting a facile solution of the problems of democracy through and by the Public Schools". And, in the second case, he argued that "... while some of the problems of democracy must find a place in the social studies program, they cannot form the entire substance of it or work wonders even when they are fully introduced and exploited. Furthermore, a wide knowledge of facts and a discipline in thinking are the prerequisites to a fruitful consideration of controversial questions." 

Thus Beard was opposed equally to those who would direct all education to the reform of society and those who would train children to understand the contemporary world by giving them plenty of daily newspapers to read.

This does not mean that Beard, or the Commission whose views he expressed, ignored the demands made by contemporary society upon the teachers and students of history. Ideas and actuality have to be drawn upon in framing a realistic program of the social sciences, he believed. For ideas "seem to be potent only when they fit with some mysterious exactness, into the actuality of things in the process of

39 Ibid., p. 44
40 Ibid., p. 46
development, now slowly altering great intellectual patterns by steady accumulation and now effecting fateful decisions in time of crisis . . . 

"41 The social studies, he believed must go forward with the changing ideas and goals of American society. "If the schools do not participate in creative enterprise, it will go forward without them, reducing their significance in the educative process."42 Beard, writing for the Commission, even agreed with some of the "Politically-progressive" goals to which Counts and Kilpatrick give such ardent adherence. In enumerating some of the goals "which the American nation seems to have set for itself"43 he lists community, regional and national planning. He believed that such orientation makes certain clear demands upon the teachers of social studies, who must "secure for themselves a clear and realistic picture of modern society, gain insight into the central concepts of our industrial order and its culture, acquire habits of judicially examining its issue and problems, develop the power to look with calm and untroubled eyes upon the varieties of social pressures which bear in upon them, and nourish by wide study, their capacity for dealing justly and courageously with current modes of living."44

Where the course in social studies requires a consideration of contemporary affairs Beard believed that nothing could be gained without a frank recognition of the conflicts of modern American culture.

41 Ibid., p. 23
42 Ibid., p. 53
43 Ibid., p. 79
44 Ibid., p. 90, 91
The assumption that social difficulties can be avoided by setting up a scheme of social studies on the basis of evasion and omission might well be more perilous to the interests of those who cherish it than either a complete neglect of civic instruction or a frank facing of the realities.45 And again: "It would be better to ignore entirely the subject of government in social studies than to confine it to innocuous generalizations on which people agree in theory and disagree violently in practice."46

CONCLUSION OF THE COMMISSION OF SOCIAL STUDIES 47

Emphasis on the vital relation of social studies to problems of contemporary life and on the necessities of learning by experience have continued to pervade writings on the social studies. In 1941 the National Council for the Social Studies conducted a questionnaire study on the place of the social studies in elementary schools.48 The following questions and answers summarize attitudes of educators:

**Question 3.** "What part does Subject Matter Play in the Educative process in the Social Studies of the Elementary School?"
**Typical Answer:** "Subject matter whether old or new in the sense of time should be vital, realistic, comprehensible, and interesting for the elementary pupils."

**Question 5.** "What are the Most Serious Barriers to Effective Learning in the Social Studies?"
**Summary of Answers:** ..."(a) excessive emphasis on acquisition of knowledge through reading and verbal memorization at the expense of experimental learning and (b) the inadequate acquaintanceship of teachers with current and continuing social, economic, and political problems". 49

Some of the chapters of this report, however, exhibit a faith in children combined with a rather touching naivete in regard to the pro-

45 Ibid., p. 41
46 Ibid., p. 38
49 Ibid., cf. pp. xii-xvi
cesses of a complex industrial society. "A school environment," wrote Helen Heffernan, "in which a child may attain leadership through exercising the initiative and responsibility which inspire the confidence of his fellows; a school in which children have an opportunity to see the desirability of following wise leadership, is a surest safeguard against incompetent selection of leaders in adult life and against willingness to follow the promises of charlatans who are interested primarily in securing dictatorial power". There is not, after all, a one to one relationship between the school community and the national community, for the American democracy is not a New England town meeting. And, aside from the question discussed above of whether children are really capable of wisely choosing their own leaders, there remains in addition the doubt whether practice in choosing a class president is any preparation for the job of choosing the President of the United States. For more factors than the personality of the executive are involved in the governing of the nation's body politic. It appears that there is here a too superficial view of the meaning of education by experience. By experience is not meant merely child's play of adult affairs but children's participation as nearly as possible in adult affairs. It might be said that close study of a local political machine would teach children much more about the job of selecting the nation's leaders than classroom simulation of the mere mechanics of the electoral process.

50 Ibid., Chapter V, "An experiencing Curriculum in the Social Studies," p. 61
51 Cf. Chapter II
The meaning of experience in education was better expressed in this report in a subsequent chapter by Mary G. Kelty. At the same time this writer summarized the experience of recent decades in adapting experiential education to the various age levels of the elementary school. For the primary grades, she noted, the technique of the community survey has been well developed. "Emphasis in primary grade content, therefore, is not upon the organization or structure of institutions; it is not on the functioning of those institutions in the adult world; but is rather, on the children's own natural, unforced relationship to the life of the community." For the middle and upper grades the study should be of American culture and the culture of the world at large:

"During their deliberations the value of the evolutionary, genetic, or historical method becomes obvious. Many of the processes, techniques, and relationships of fundamental importance to modern life are so intricate and complicated that they are almost unintelligible even to the adult layman . . . "Such a difficulty is reduced to the minimum by introducing children to the same process as it was carried forward by simpler methods in times gone by. For example, children who have beaten out wheat with a flail have some conception of what is going on in a modern threshing machine; those who have woven even the most imperfect of rugs on a hand-loom can better grasp the essentials of the modern textile industry".

While it may appear that there is a close analogy between learning and complexities of the textile industry by hand weaving rugs and learning the complexities of the political apparatus by choosing a class president, the analogy is imperfect and therefore false.

52 Ibid., Chapter VI, "The Selection and Adaptation of Subject Matter in the Social Studies".
53 Ibid., p. 91
54 Ibid., pp. 94, 95
The expe
Whereas the exact technical procedure of an industrial process is basic and its comprehensibility to the learner indispensable. While the study of government is surely required to understand the technicalities of political procedure, many more fundamental elements go into an understanding of the real processes of government.

The most recent comprehensive study of the teaching of current affairs was published in 1950 by the New York Times. The group of writers who prepared this report surveyed practices and aims of current affairs teaching throughout the nation and reported and evaluated what they found. This work is invaluable to students of the teaching of current affairs, and no mere summary of its findings is possible. Accordingly part of the Introduction and the full conclusions of the report are published as Appendix A of this work.

IV REVIEW

The aim of this chapter has been to provide a survey of general writings on current affairs and social studies teaching of the last three decades. While there have been, of course, many deviations, the following broad trends may be observed:

1. During the 'twenties the ardent adherents of the teaching of current events had more zeal than understanding for their subject. In addition their methods and aims were dominated by a conservative approach to the entire question of education. Learning was considered to be very much memorization soaked through with preconceived patriotic values. Learning by experience and by individual and group search for

55 Clark, CURRENT AFFAIRS AND MODERN EDUCATION, op. cit.
2. During the 'thirties and 'forties many teachers of current affairs began to take a more serious view of their subject. They saw its relationship to the processes of history and understood that the student himself must search out the basic relationships and underlying questions that form the scaffolding of the subject. At the same time, however, the preoccupation with techniques that during the 'twenties we expressed in a thousand and one suggestions for games, quizzes, notebooks, interviews, became modernized and streamlined. Radio programs and visual displays of all kinds were introduced to stimulate the interest of the students.

3. At the same time many leaders of social studies education continued to express a more profound view of the place of current affairs teaching in the social science program. While all were not agreed as to the prominence to be given to the actual study of immediate current problems, they did all agree that an orientation toward the present must pervade the teaching of the social studies and that the present American society is in a state of flux, of discarding old values and forms and partially adopting new ones.
CHAPTER IV
PIONEER SCHOOLS

I
THE COMMUNITY IN MINIATURE

The present chapter will examine some of those old private and public schools that have led the way in applying the principles of contemporary American ideas, as in the case of Caroline Pratt, the founder of the City and Country School, have developed their own ways of making the child and his needs the prime concern of the school and of making the school a place where the child can grow and develop as an individual and as a member of a social group. "The New School"... says Rugg1, "encourages the child to be a distinct personality, and individualist, to believe in his ability—but of course not to an unjustifiable degree. It sets up situations which provide constant practice in cooperative living. It encourages activities in which he can make a personal contribution to group enterprises, in which he has social experiences graded to fit his level of social development, in which he feels himself an accepted and respected member of a society of which he himself approves".

Schools in our complex modern civilization must take over functions which in more primitive societies are carried out by the society itself. The child can have no direct part in our industrial civilization, and he cannot understand modern industrial processes by direct observation.

It is hard for a child to develop a feeling of security and belonging in a society that he cannot understand and in which he has no part. The modern school takes into account the point made by child psychologists, that a feeling of security is the only basis on which growth and independence can develop. "Given... initial security, he (the child) is able when the time comes to be independent and function adequately in a larger world. We at The Little Red School House not only accept this principle but carry it one step farther. As the child begins to wean himself from home it is imperative, we believe, that he find security in his social group, a security which will stand him in good stead as this group gradually broadens and he must face the more complex problems of the world in general."²

The new schools, then, attempt to establish for the child a small community, a community that helps him to grow and develop as an individual and to contribute, as an individual, to the group. "The school must be made intermediary between the home and the community. It must reproduce, in miniature, the activities fundamental to life as a whole and thus enable the child, on the one side, to become acquainted gradually with the structure, materials, and modes of operation of the larger community, upon the other side, it must enable him to express himself individually through these lines of conduct and thus gain control of his own powers."³

A school with the aim to be a community for children must necessarily present a different physical environment from the old school with its nailed down benches, and generally drab and unattractive appearance.


It has to be a place where children can move about freely to engage in their individual or group projects. It has to be a place which belongs to the children, a place where they can feel at ease. Caroline Pratt describes it thus: "... this did not look or sound like any schoolroom. But it was very much like something else. It was like a segment of grown-up activity, an office, a small factory, or perhaps office and factory combined. Nor did these children look like school children, starched and clean-faced... These children wore workclothes, dungarees or overalls... and they and their workclothes bore the evidences of their work.... This classroom was a place where work was done. The workers could not be fastened down; they had to come and go about their various jobs, fetch supplies, seek advice, examine, compare, discuss."

Not only the schoolroom, but the whole school building has to be changed to meet the demands of the community school, since it has to provide adequate facilities for the children to engage in a great number of activities. The children in this kind of school get the opportunity to engage actively in the processes from which they are more or less excluded in adult society, and they are provided with many different mediums in which they may express and work out their concrete experiences. The new school is therefore equipped with workshops, cookingrooms, art studios, clayrooms, often with kilns for firing the finished products, music rooms, libraries where the children can carry on independent research, gymnasiums, and often print shops and laboratories. All these activities that go on in these rooms are part of the curriculum.

4 Caroline Pratt, I LEARN FROM CHILDREN AN ADVENTURE IN PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION (New York, Simon and Schuster: 1948) pp. 5,6
"In the school the aim has been to have no extra-curricular activities, since every activity of the pupil, whether at school or at home, is considered a part of the general educative process. Considered so, everything which the pupil does gives its bit of color to the school curriculum. His visits to factories, his travels, his out-of-school drawings, his hikes, indeed all his experiences may be unified with his experiences at school as those at school become part of the experiences commonly called extra-curricular."  

The staff of the new school is enriched by specialists. The art teacher, the music teacher, the shop teacher, the science teacher, the school librarian, and in many schools the specialist for remedial work and the school psychologist, all work together with the classroom teachers to provide a rich life for the child, and to help him develop his individual capacities to the fullest degree. In none of the schools here examined is there reference to a specialist in current affairs, even though all of these schools are vitally concerned with the task of providing the groundwork for responsible and intelligent citizenship. In the new school all the child's activities are connected with current affairs in the wider sense in which the term is here defined. "In the theory of the school, the first factor in bringing about the desired coordination was the establishment of the school as a form of community life. It was thought that education could prepare the young for future social life only when the school was itself a cooperative society on a small scale."  

5 James S. Tippet, Special Investigator, CURRICULUM MAKING IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, by the staff of the Elementary Division of the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, (Boston, Ginn and Company: 1927), p. 8

6 Mayhew and Edwards, op. cit., p. 466
The new school uses various methods to instill in its children the community spirit. One of them is the group project which constitutes the core of the curriculum. For instance, in the City and Country School the curriculum of the sevens is the building of a play city. This is a project which involves the whole group, and nevertheless gives each child an opportunity to select activities suited to his individual needs. However, in spite of the wide variety of possible activities, nobody is forced to join in the group project.

"Since the right of the individual to differ from the group is also a part of living in a civilized adult community, no one was forced to join in the group project. A child who preferred to pursue his own plans instead of joining in the common scheme was free to do so. There was no pressure on him, either from the teacher above, or from the group at his own level, to abandon his own work.

"But sooner or later - and a finer proof of the wholesomeness of democratic method could not be devised - he ended up by connecting in some way with the group project; the good work was interesting enough to act as a magnet, without any help from outside pressures."7

Many schools have chosen Indian Life as the core of the eight year old's curriculum.8 This again offers many opportunities for group projects, in construction activities, and the playing out of family and community relations in primitive society.

In older groups the production of plays is an activity that provides rich opportunities for group cooperation. "In considering the school environment and curriculum content which would give the nines the richest growth and most valuable outlet for their emotional needs, it was decided to try a program based on old folk tales, fairy tales, and legends which, as the children read, they should feel free to dramatize.

7 Caroline Pratt, op.cit., p.50
8 c.f. Little Red School House, Lincoln School
Plays thus emerged in all degrees of finish, organization, and disorganization. The children make their own scenery, design their own costumes, fashion their own properties. They choose their own actors, form their own groups, and present their effort to the rest of the class for its delight, its criticism, and their own satisfaction.  

Another important group activity which is an intimate part of the curriculum and will be discussed in more detail later, is the trip. This is first-hand experience shared by the whole class, and followed by group discussions and often the writing of group stories.

The group projects we have mentioned so far have concerned the individual class, and have demonstrated how the class works as a group. The school that sets out to be a society in miniature goes beyond the class group project. There are group activities that involve the whole school, or at least a larger part of it than the individual class. The problem of student government has been discussed in Chapter III in reference to the specific teaching of current affairs. In general not too much importance is attached to it in the new school and it appears that the more progressive the school, the less mention of student government.

There is one more important way in which the modern school can act as a community, and that is in the services that individual groups may render the school. This aspect of community life has been carried furthest in the City and Country School, where the jobs for the school are used as the core of the curriculum. Caroline Pratt found that it was around the age of eight, that children start to have a real need for participation in adult life. She says: "I was determined that our eights should have a whole job, with the adventure of planning and the glamour of accomplishment, no less than the necessary drudgery which is part of all work. And the job must be real. It must be of actual service or the

9 de Lima, op. cit., p. 74
Eight year olds were through, for practical purposes, with the make-believe of childhood. They were ready to try their powers on the real world."  

The eight year olds got their job. They were given a school store to run. This job fulfilled the requirement of usefulness for the school. Supplies had up to that time been distributed by the office, which had regularly to interrupt its regular activities for this purpose. The eights took over not only the distribution of all school supplies, but also the ordering of supplies from wholesale houses. They also carried out all their construction work. A corner of the classroom was partitioned off, and lined with shelves for the stationery supplies. The window-sill with a table behind it served as a counter. Further realism was added to the venture by paying the children for the service they rendered to the school. Their wages were fifteen cents an hour, and every child took home at the end of each month a pay envelope with fifteen cents, on the rough calculation that each child spent an hour on store work in the course of a month.

The store for the eight year olds proved to be a very successful project, and the idea of jobs for the school was eventually expanded to include all the upper groups. The nines organized a school post office which not only took care of all intra-school messages, but also sold stamps and postal cards to parents and teachers, and eventually even managed to run a parcel post, which was a service especially required around Christmas time. The tens took over the job of hand lettering beginning-reading material for the sevens. They found their job to be not as profitable as that of the store and the post office, since they were being paid piecework wages, and so they started taking orders for Christmas cards, which they decorated with linoleum cuts. Later they added a second job, that of the lunchroom. The elevens were very enthusiastic about their job, which was printing.

11 Pratt, op. cit., p. 104
They came to be the busiest and highest income group in the school. They printed reading materials, attendance lists, library cards and stationery. Caroline Pratt describes how the first group of elevens "organized themselves as craftsmen did in the old guilds, setting up a series of tests for apprentices, journeymen, and master printers; the tests vary from year to year in some small detail, but the system has become a tradition in the school....At the end of the year, with a good deal of ceremony, certificates were presented to the journeymen and master printers - certificates ordered from the tens and executed on fine parchment paper with the tens' handsomest manuscript writing and most lavish illuminations."12

The first job ever undertaken by the twelves in the school was that of toy making, in particular the making of small wooden dolls and animals which the younger children used in their block building. The twelves organized the "Never Bust Toy Company, designing and producing dolls, animals, and also automobiles and boats which they sold to the parents for the children's block play at home. In other years weaving took the place of toy making, and one group of twelves embarked on a completely original enterprise, the production of a monthly publication, The Bookworm's Digest. They reviewed new children's books which the publishers sent them on request and added a column in which they discussed, for the benefit of the younger children, their experiences with the books in the library.

The thirteens were very interested in photography. They turned this interest into a school service by adding a photographic record to the school's file on individual children. Pratt also describes how "very often, too, they have looked back on the school they were soon to leave, and affectionately set their hand to some permanent improvement they might leave behind them.

12 Pratt, op. cit., p.132
One group transformed the lunchroom annex with a complete paint job, new tables made and decorated by themselves, and new curtains for the windows. During the war years they constituted themselves the handymen of the school, doing all sorts of repairs for which carpenters, painters, and electricians were not to be had.\(^{13}\)

The idea embodied in this practice was used in much expanded form in the Gary, Indiana Plan. There almost all the maintenance and operation of the school plant was carried on by students, under expert supervision. Elementary and high schools were roofed in the same building, and all students rotated from one kind of shop to another, the younger children acting as assistants to the older. The purpose of the system was not to provide mere vocational education for children of industrial workers who would probably become industrial workers themselves, but rather to initiate the children by practice instead of by theory into the general practices of an industrial civilization. This purpose is in accord with Dewey's theory of using industrial work processes, not for vocational training, but rather for their general educative values.

The City and Country School is not the only one that has enlisted children's services for the school. In the Little Red School House, for instance, the twelve year old group has been in charge of the school library, with each child working for one period a week. However, this kind of occasional service to the school is quite different from the jobs for the school as they have been developed by Caroline Pratt, who has used them as the concrete experiences forming the core of the curriculum. There are many different ways in which this core can be used in the social studies. It depends on the teacher and the group what interests will be followed. The school store, for instance, might lead them to trace the origins of some of their supplies.

\(^{13}\) Pratt, op. cit., p. 135
Paper, such an important part of their stock, led them to visit a paper mill, where they saw the process from pulp to finished product coming off the rollers. The mill foreman told them, when they asked, that the pulp had been made from trees in the Adirondacks and Canada. Back at school they traced on maps the route the pulp might take by boat or train, and listened to stories of lumberjacks read aloud. They wrote their own lumber camp stories and acted them out in the classroom and in rhythms period. In science they tried their hands at papermaking from rags and from wood pulp, and acquired a wholesome respect for the industrialized process."

The practice in the City and Country School is outlined in some detail because it embodies two important aspects of community life: In the first place, it provides first hand knowledge of real occupations and industrial processes, in the second place, it gives the children a chance to be part of the school community by performing a real service.

In developing the school as a community for children, the educator perceives of the child as a social being. It is his aim to develop in the child a feeling of group belonging and group responsibility. He recognizes, however, that in order to be a productive member of a group, the child must have a chance to develop his own personality. This is one of the most important ways in which the new school differs from the old - in its profound respect for each pupil as a unique personality - in the recognition of the fact that equal academic demands on children with different backgrounds and abilities constitute a violation of the child's personality. Helen Parkhurst, founder of the Dalton Plan, says: "The acquisition of culture is a form of experience, and as such is an element in the business of living with which school ought to be as intimately concerned as is adult existence. But it will never become so until the school as a whole is reorganized so that it can function like a community - a community whose essential condition is freedom for the individual to develop himself."15

14 Pratt, Ibid. p. 112

15 Helen Parkhurst, EDUCATION ON THE DALTON PLAN, (New York, E. P. Dutton & Co. : 1922) p. 18
II
THE FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL
IN A DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY

According to Bishop Spalding, the school has the function of initiating the child into the civilization of which he is a part. This, of course, means that he should be brought up to accept this place in society with responsibility; it means that the school must help him to understand the principles of a democratic society, or rather, make these principles part of himself, by developing the qualities of cooperation and tolerance, and by fostering the scientific spirit.

Educators have pointed out that the old school with its harsh discipline is not fitted to educate children toward responsible citizenship in a democracy. Pratt says: "If we were preparing our children to live under an autocratic regime I could understand the need for iron discipline, for suppression of playfulness and friendliness, of adventure or individualism wherever it raises its head. But we are preparing our children to be responsible citizens in a democracy, perhaps some day in a democratic world. Why then the screwed-down benches, the interdiction on speech, the marching through the halls in silent single-file, the injunction on the teacher to behave like a classroom Hitler?" Not only are the disciplinarian methods of the old school criticized by progressive educators for being in discord with the principles of democracy, but also the academic intellectualized curriculum content.

16 C.F. p. 1, Chapter I
17 Pratt, op. cit., p. 170
"Instead of centering the work in the concrete, the human side of things, they (the schools) put the emphasis on the abstract, hence the work is made academic - unsocial. Work then is no longer connected with a group of people all engaged in occupations, but is isolated, selfish and individualistic. It is based on a conception of society which no longer fits the facts, an every-man-for-himself society which ceased to exist a hundred years ago. The ordinary school curriculum ignores the scientific democratic society of to-day and its needs and ideals, and goes on fitting children for an individualistic struggle for existence, softened by a little intellectual 'culture' for the individual's enjoyment."\(^{18}\)

The old school then just fail in its attempts toward educating children in a democracy, because it has failed to change with changing economic and social conditions, because it is trying to make outmoded standards for behaviour and work function in a society for which they are no longer fit. "A democratic society, dependent upon application of science for all its prosperity and welfare, can not hope to use with any great success a system of education which grew up for the ruling body in an autocratic society using only human power for its industries and wealth."\(^{19}\)

The new school has rejected autocratic discipline and the spirit of competition. The teacher is no longer expected to be a "classroom Dictator". He does not impose discipline and knowledge from above, but tries to take his cues from the children, using their natural interests and activities to lead them on to a better and deeper understanding of industrial processes and human relations.


\(^{19}\) Ibid., p. 169
He has to consider the individual child and his needs as well as the group, and help the one to adjust to the other. The teacher in this kind of school has a difficult and subtle task. There are no hard and fast rules set to tell him how to deal with any situation and he must use his knowledge of the children and insight into any particular situation to be able to decide what to do. In this connection, Pratt writes, "... it would be a false picture of human endeavor, however young, if we assume that these embryo citizens functioned together in unfailing sweetness and light. There was no lack of opportunity for learning to understand one's neighbor, even on the very youngest levels. The snatched toy, and the quick blow or howl of protest which followed, gave the teacher her chance to point up the lesson in its most elementary form. If it was really a question of the toy itself, a solution was rarely difficult. The subtler causes are complications to which the teacher must be alert. Sometimes a block has not been the issue at all; the aggressor has actually wanted to pick a quarrel. Such a child is not ready for the immediate lesson of getting on with his fellows. He needs to come to terms with himself first. Temporary isolation helps him to realize that his behavior has not been acceptable, and at the same time gives him the chance, by working alone to turn his energies into a productive channel and to give him a successful achievement of his own in blocks or paints or clay, a beginning toward that inner security and self-confidence which are the basis for good social relations)... Because there is no rule against fighting, there is no reason to assume that all problems have to be settled by the contenders themselves and therefore by force... Still violence is sometimes an inevitable expression of childhood, and on occasion it has been best to let two contestants fight it out on the schoolroom floor. Here is the time when the teacher must use her judgment and her knowledge of the children concerned. One seven-year-old's mother told me how her boy, a shy youngster and new to the school, had to fight his way to friendship with one after another of the boys in his group. He was a sturdy child without any wish to fight but with the brawn to fight well once he was forced to if; he suffered no damage - children, evenly matched, rarely do - and gained what was to him an invaluable new self-confidence. The school yard provided for this lad, in safety, the toughening experience of the street which under privileged children have as a matter of course. In his case it was good nourishment for his ego."²⁰

²⁰ Pratt, op. cit., pp. 171-3
Definite steps have been taken by schools to combat the spirit of competitiveness which is an outstanding characteristic of the traditional school. They have abolished grades and report cards, tests and promotions. Many of them have abolished grades, replacing them by age groups. Pupils are never made to repeat a class, nor are they allowed to skip, since there are enough activities in each group to satisfy the needs of children with different abilities and inclinations. Every child is expected to live up to his own standards and to produce the best he is capable of, but no arbitrary group standards are established.

In place of arbitrary discipline and competition the school attempts to create a spirit of cooperative living. "When we at The Little Red School House say we have a democratic setup, we don't mean the outer trappings which pass for democratic. We have no multiplication of student committees; we have no elaborate machinery of self-government. We do not ask children to make decisions which they are too young to make. ... Nor do we raise issues that are beyond the children's level of understanding.... But we do try to build up with them a cooperative kind of living, a mutual sharing, and an attitude of friendly give-and-take.... The individual's ideas and opinions are respected and the child is free to speak his thoughts. This means also that one child may challenge the opinions of another or question a statement made by the teacher or found in a book .... The fostering of such attitudes and habits is, we feel, of great and first importance. Just as in the academic field we speak of teaching children to use the tools of learning... so in the field of social relations we may say we are showing children how to use the tools of democracy."

It has been shown how the schools have gone about their task of teaching the child to live in the world in which he is a part and to understand his responsibility for the common good. The common good is not an end in itself but a means to serve the purposes of man. Strangely enough the schools have been widely criticized on the same grounds on which they have criticized the old: for not preparing the children to live in the civilization of which they are a part. How, the critics ask, will children come out of this sheltered world to deal with the problems of reality?

21 de Lima, op. cit., pp. 234-5
22 C.F. Chapter 1
It is true that the new schools have an idealized conception of democracy, that children who have been imbued in school with an ideal of democracy, will not be satisfied with the world as they find it. This, however, does not necessarily mean that they will not be able to adjust to it, unless one conceives of adjustment in a very superficial way. Schools being part of society, cannot go too far afield, but they can cultivate the spirit of inquiry and provide their pupils with a social ideal that goes beyond the faulty reality. "This school did aim to indoctrinate the child with experimental method and social motive, so that he himself might form his attitudes, cultivate his tastes, and initiate the process of inquiry that leads to discovery and invention or creative expression of any sort. It tried not to dictate plans or to formulate rules, but to endeavor to provide in the school the sort of society where the relationship was one of mutual benefit and regard, and where the children trusted the help and appreciated the counsel of their teachers." 24

III

THE CURRICULUM

The curriculum of the new school has sometimes been designated by the term activity movement. It is based on the philosophy of learning as experience, and recognition of the fact that the child is naturally interested in his growth. That the urge to learn is natural, and that the schools in order to teach successfully must use the child's natural impulse to learn about himself and the world around him. Pratt writes, "... the child, unhampered, does not waste time. Not a minute of it. He is driven constantly by that little fire burning inside him, to do, to see, to learn."

23 cf. Ch. II

24 Mayhew & Edwards, op. cit., p. 438
You will not find a child anywhere who will sit still and idle unless he is sick - or in a traditional classroom." The new school, then, does not conceive of the child as a vacuum into which a certain amount of knowledge has to be poured, but as a living organism eager to learn and to grow, and it is the school's responsibility "to preserve the sensitiveness to incoming sensations and the freedom and courage in creative production that a child brings when he enters school."  

The curriculum of the new school then starts with the child himself and his natural interests. Professor Meriam at his school at the University of Missouri asked himself what the child would be doing if they were not in school, and he based his curriculum on the answer to this question. There were four periods: - play, stories, observation, and handwork. As the children grew older their interests naturally widened and reached out to remoter things and to processes and reasons in back of things. It was then that they began to study history, geography, and science. And Caroline Pratt learned from children by observing their play,

"The child is already possessed of a method of learning, which served him well in babyhood. And he has gathered for himself a small body of related information. He needs only opportunity to go on with his education."

And that 'the proper study of mankind is man' he does not need to be told. He has been studying it since the day he was born. But he studies it in his own way, by experiencing it with his own eyes and ears and muscles.

25 Pratt, op. cit., p. 10
26 de Lima, op. cit., p. 4
27 Function of the teacher explained in "Diocese of Pittsburgh, Handbook of School Policies and Practices, 1943"
He makes a train of dining-room chairs so that he can be a locomotive engineer; like his grown-up counterpart, he watches signals and curves, toots the whistle, rings the bell, stops for water, for coal, for passengers. He is himself the train as well as the man who runs it, as well as the whistle and the chuffing steam and the bell, and his performance is accurate and realistic in proportion to his knowledge and experience of trains. He could not make these sounds and movements, he could not feel the imaginary motion of his chair-train in his own body, if he had merely been told about trains and shown pictures of them. But if he has ridden in trains, watched the locomotive come into the station, seen the engineer leaning out of his cab - then, in his play, he can create a train for himself to run. In his play he is no longer an onlooker merely; he is a part of the busy world of adults. He is practicing to take his place in that world when he is grown. He is getting his education."

From the realization that learning takes place in two parts, first-hand observation and the relating of observed facts through play, Caroline Pratt developed the use of the trip in the curriculum and the use of blocks for children up to seven, two techniques that have since become standard practice in progressive schools. However, the trip, which by now has become "required", is not always used as carefully as it was by her, and has often deteriorated to occasional visits to places of interest. The important thing about the trip as conceived by Pratt is that it has depth. In order for this kind of direct learning to be meaningful, children must be given the opportunity to go back to the same places many times, to become thoroughly acquainted with the places they visit and the people who work there, so that they can feel free to ask them questions about their work. Caroline Pratt reports of her first group of children: "The six children and I spent a great deal of time at the docks. The river traffic, endlessly fascinating, brought good simple questions to their lips, but they were too shy at first to ask the tugboat men and the bargemen and the wagon drivers for the answers."

28 Pratt, op. cit., pp. 30, 31
When they saw that I would not do their asking for them, they plucked up courage to make the first move... We sat for an hour at a time on the tail of a wagon backed up to the dock, watching the boats coming and going, the tugs nudging the laden scows in and the empty ones out. We saw wagons being loaded with all kinds of things for the city, and asked the drivers where they were taking their loads. "The trip used in this way presents a true learning situation, but it is not enough, it is only the first step, the raw material, which has to be put to use, acted out, for real learning to take place. Pratt says: "... the mere accumulation of information was not our purpose.... But to know something and to be able to relate and use that knowledge is the beginning of learning to think. And so, after we had discovered some new facts on our trips, we hurried back to school to put them to use.

"Here we performed our exercises in thinking, on the floor with the blocks and toys. Here the children put to use the facts they had acquired, some by asking questions, but most through their own eyes and ears. Young children are readier to put their thoughts into action than into words.... Action is still their medium; words come later in their growth."

This is the essence of an activity curriculum. The children's own interests are the starting point. The teacher, rather than answering their many questions leads them to situations where they can find some answers through first-hand observation. But even more important than the answers the children bring back from their trips are their new questions.

29 Ibid. pp.41,2

30 Ibid. p.42
Back in school the children work out their experiences, and in doing so, find clues for further study. Thus the next trip becomes even more meaningful, the interaction of observation and play creating an upward spiral of interest and growth. It is important to note that interest of the children is the starting point of their learning, but does not determine its limits.... The work in the classroom must at times include events which meet the child's special needs because of his requirements. Because of this the range of material must be wide but that does not preclude that interest in itself must be the standards of selection.  

The aim of the good teacher is always to widen the child's interest, to make him more curious rather than to satisfy his curiosity. Among the criteria for selection of units in the Lincoln School are two that illustrate the point.

(1) "The succession of units of work must provide for continuous group growth from one level to the next. Ideally no unit of work should represent the end of individual or class curiosity. It may represent satiety, but an important phase of the teacher's technique is to leave each unit with the feeling that there is a fascinating field for further investigation which neither the individual nor the whole group has yet touched".

(2) "Each unit of work must furnish leads to other related units of work and must stimulate in the child the desire for a continued widening of his interests and understandings." Understanding of how interest is to be used in the learning process is of essential importance, since a narrow application of interest as the basis of learning might easily lead into the pitfall of accepting the child's interests rather than trying to develop them. Many schools, for instance, have made a concession to children's short interest spans by having the curriculum consist of many short units of work rather than having it center around one large area.

31 C.F. pp. 11, 12, Chapter I

32 Tippet, op. cit., pp. 36, 7
"All teachers are aware of the short span of a young child’s interest. The usual answer to his in schools is the use of many short-term ‘units of interest’. The trouble with this solution is that it accepts the situation and does nothing to correct it, offers no help to the child to lengthen the span of his interest and concentration."³³ In the teaching of current affairs this kind of misunderstanding could easily lead to a superficial discussion of headlines rather than serious consideration of current problems in the light of the past, present, and future.

On the other hand, interest, if it is used and developed productively will determine the individual’s attitude to his work and will provide for him the kind of freedom and discipline for which the new school must strive, having rejected all such imposed methods as competition, rewards and punishments. "We had confirmed, first of all, a basic relationship between freedom and interest. Freedom of itself was not a value. There was no benefit in freedom to destroy, to interfere with others. Freedom was good only if it meant freedom to do something positive, and that something positive was determined by the child’s interest in what he wanted to do. The freest child is the child who is most interested in what he is doing, and at whose hand are the materials for his work or play. ... Discipline for its own sake - an axiom of traditional child rearing - was anathema to us. But freedom for its own sake was scarcely better. Freedom to work, and the discipline of work, both individual work and group work - these were the values on which the children thrived and grew."³⁴

An important aspect of the activity curriculum that requires further elaboration is that of the children’s questions.

³³ Pratt, op. cit., p.97
³⁴ Ibid. pp. 71,2
It has been shown how the children from their trips come back to school with many unanswered questions, and that more questions arise as they play out their activities. Here is the opportunity for the teacher to teach - not in the traditional way by supplying answers, but by helping the children to find their own answers wherever possible, and by leaving those questions for which the answers cannot be found, temporarily unanswered.

"Questions came in a steady stream from some of my children when we first began to go on our trips. But when they got their questions turned back at them - 'Why do you think the ferry has two round ends?' - they were silenced for a while. When the questions came again they were different. They were not asked just to get attention, to make conversation, or for the dozen reasons besides that of gaining information. They were sincere and purposeful; the question now became what it should be, the first step in the child's own effort to find the answer for himself.

"Whether I knew the answer or not, I rarely supplied it on demand. Most answers thus given are a waste of a child's time, if not of the adult's. The answer which the child has found out for himself is the one which has meaning for him, both in the information gained and in the experience of finding it. On our trips we found some answers, and some were put over to the future. Open questions are good things to carry around with one; they sharpen the eye and prod the mind; they give the imagination many a practice spin on the way to finding the answer."

Children's questions handled in this manner train even the youngest in a method of thinking and learning that is the essence of all scientific inquiry. It teaches him the procedures of research by showing him how answers to questions may be found, and how some answers have to be postponed until further study. It also teaches him to be critical toward ready-made answers, and provides some protection against the superficiality found so often among students even on the college level.

Keeping alive in children the spirit of inquiry has special relevance for the teaching of current affairs.

35 Pratt, op. cit., p. 45
Children trained in this spirit will not easily be overwhelmed or confused by controversy, nor will they take the attitude that there are two sides to every question, but they will try to find their own answers based on the materials available, realizing at the same time that not all answers have to be final. Agnes de Lima writes about the Lincoln School: "The discussion of current affairs and their meaning to our country and the whole world is a vital element in the program of all upper elementary groups. Children are learning to read newspapers and magazines intelligently, to base their conclusions on facts carefully considered or to suspend judgment in the face of inadequate information."36 It is obvious that current affairs taught in this way cannot avoid discussion of controversial issues, but on the contrary must use them to sharpen the children's perception and understanding of the world in which they live. In the Little Red School House, the thirteen year olds study American History with special emphasis on the period before and after the Civil War.

"These older groups are ready to face and discuss many of the unsolved problems of the day. As a background the story of the economic and social development of our own country is made available in broad outlines. Then such crucial issues as the following can be discussed and studied; race tolerance, with special reference to the Negro; agricultural problems caused by the new technology, a study made graphic by visits to the forgotten towns and the cranberry bogs of New Jersey; submerged labor groups; the question of the distribution of goods, of wages and hours, of social security.

"... we find that a glimpse of the complicated questions which they hear discussed on every hand, and which they will be expected to study further as they go on in high school, is not beyond them. We are not afraid of controversial issues, but we do not believe in any form of propaganda. Our aim is to have children express their own opinions freely, but we try to help them to avoid either superficial observation or emphasis on superficial remedies."  

Discussion of controversial issues need not be limited to the older age groups. Pratt reports of seven year olds:

"Even more important than the acquisition of information were the situations the sevens encountered as they went about the city in search of knowledge. It was no accident that they came upon parades and mass meetings and picket lines, and returned to school to discuss not only garbage disposal or meat packing, but economic and social problems of far greater complexity. These manifestations are part of the life of the city, and our little explorers into the life of the city were bound to come upon them."

Having discussed the most important theoretical points of the activity curriculum, its practice, especially in relation to the teaching of current affairs is illustrated by description and analysis of two curricula, one for a young and one for the oldest age level.

IV

TWO CURRICULA ILLUSTRATING CURRENT AFFAIRS TEACHING

A. The Construction of a Playcity

In the City and Country School the sevens study their community by constructing their own play city. Blocks are used for construction materials at the beginning of the year, while the children start work on permanent structures in the workshop. As the permanent buildings get finished they take the place of blocks, but blocks are never discarded completely throughout the study.

37 de Lima, op. cit., p.23
38 Pratt, op. cit., p. 98
Presentation

No definite course of study or outline of the unity is available.

The presentation is made up of excerpts from Pratt's description of the seven's curriculum.*

The building of the play city gave three-fold satisfaction: it met the children's demand for something that would yield results and at the same time gave them an opportunity for dramatization of the real, the adult world; it gave them as a group further ways to make use of and extend their environment; and it lent itself readily to the introduction of reading, writing, and arithmetic in ways closely bound to their central project, so that the mastery of these tools need not become an end in itself but could always have an immediate usefulness.

"It is apparent that some of the content of the Sevens' reading helps to build a foundation for future social science work. The newspaper items about New York City contributed by the children, as well as information gained on trips, furnish not only reading material of far more interest than the usual primer stories but also the basis for discussion about how people earn their living (and why some don't), how they are governed, what strikes are and why they arise. The discussions of these happenings, and the dramatizing of them in city play, result in the Sevens being better oriented in their own environment geographically and socially than children who are introduced too soon to the remote and therefore less comprehensible primitive civilizations of Indians or Eskimos or ancient pastoral peoples. By the time they are eight, therefore, our children who have played out and read about life of today are ready to play out and read about life of the past. But for the rest of their school life, the approach is first of all through the school job rather than through play.

Naturally the program was not completed in any one year, nor in any crystallized form. It has shown itself capable of great variation. Some groups of children have run a much more organized city than others; sometimes the city has definitely been New York, sometimes more vaguely "any city." Often it has included surrounding farm life to satisfy children who have come back from their summer with a strong attachment to the country; some have found refuge in "a farm across the river" as an escape from intensely cooperative play which they were too shy to join.

With high excitement, building after building came into being. Stores, dwellings, garages, banks - most of the adjuncts to city living finally appeared and were set up. Like all cities, this one was never completed. Buildings were torn down and replaced, new streets were added, and not only an electrical system but even a city water supply has been installed, though in the interests of our school building the water system was carried no further than the demonstration stage!
Every week or two the whole city was picked up and started fresh. This was perhaps the most valuable part of the program, as it developed. It gave the children a recognized interval for bringing to the project new information which they had acquired in trips and discussions through the previous days, for the avid gathering of knowledge never for a moment stopped. And it gave them, at each new city's beginning, an opportunity to change jobs.

This was of enormous importance. A seven-year-old child who has chosen to run an apartment house and has been busily making one in the shop, will not be able to maintain interest in this particular play indefinitely. It is up to the teacher to rescue him from his self-imposed task before he tires of it, and so the Sevens' teachers have made a point of suggesting that they all try to make buildings which can be easily converted—from a dwelling to a store or a fire house—by a few simple changes of fittings when the owner wishes to change his job. This kind of planning, plus a liberal use of blocks, a very free exchange of one another's buildings and constructions, and the opportunity to tear the whole city down every so often and build it all over again, solved the problem of fatigue and kept interest in the city high until the very last day of the school year.

Even more important than the acquisition of information were the situations the Sevens encountered as they went about the city in search of knowledge.

One group of Sevens, going through the neighborhood of City Hall, saw near the building a milling crowd of people held back by a cordon of police. What were those people doing? they wanted to know, and their teacher suggested that they ask someone in the crowd. Finally one of the bolder children tugged at the coat tails of a man in the crowd and asked him to explain. The man came over to the children and told them that the people wished to see the Mayor about something concerned with their rights as citizens and that the police were preventing them from doing so. They had tried to communicate with the Mayor in other ways, and finally came to a mass meeting outside the City Hall to call the Mayor's attention to their problem.

Here was a lively field for investigation! They had to know about the Mayor, the City Councilmen, how they got their jobs and what they did. They had to find out what were a citizen's rights and what those rights had to do with the city government. Such a course in civics as these children gave themselves as a result of that mass meeting could never have been served up to seven-year-olds on a teacher's initiative. And I am certain not one of those children has since forgotten what he learned about his city's government at the urgent prompting of his own aroused curiosity.

* Pratt, I LEARN FROM CHILDREN, op. cit., Ch. VII "Sevens - A Growing-Up Year" pp. 86-102
Analysis

The building of a play city has been used by several schools (Little Red School House, Lincoln School) as a core for the curriculum of seven year olds. It is well suited for that age-level, since it gives the children many opportunities to satisfy their widening interests. It is around the age of seven that children turn their interests from their immediate environment - the home - toward the community in which they live. The play city, as described above, provides excellent opportunity for the child to orient himself geographically and socially in his community. In his trips to various parts of the city, and observations of men at various kinds of jobs, he gains first-hand knowledge of his community. In his play the knowledge gained on trips is related to his own personality, it becomes part of himself. In his study of the city he becomes aware of its complexities - in his play lies the protection against his being overwhelmed by the complexities he observes. The various jobs performed by people in a city take on a new meaning through his own performances in the play city, widening his social understanding and feeling. Direct lessons in current affairs result if the teacher does not try to protect the child from controversial situations, but rather seeks them out in order to sharpen his eyes and stimulate his curiosity about the world around him.

The unit, being a group project which needs the skills and activities of all its members to be successful, provides ample opportunity for group living in the classroom. The inhabitants of the play city have to learn to get along with one another, to settle their conflicts and share their responsibilities.
Nevertheless each child has a chance to develop his own abilities and follow his own inclinations, since the jobs involved in a play city are infinitely varied and variable. Thus it fulfills the most important requirement of democratic living - the chance for each individual to develop his own personality, and the chance to contribute what he has to offer to the group as a whole.

The construction of the city buildings in permanent materials and the concentration on acquiring some facility with the tool subjects require much serious effort and work on the part of the pupil. His efforts, however, are not motivated by competition or the need for achievement. The motivation is social, since everything he does is a contribution to the common project.

The project as a whole may be considered a lesson in current affairs on the level of seven year olds, helping them not only to get better oriented in the world around them, but confronting them with many current social problems on a level adequate to their development.

V

Conclusions

1. The new school teaches current affairs not only in its subject matter but in its entire organization. By the creation of a community-in-miniature, the school attempts to overcome the difficulty faced by children in a complex industrial civilization, especially in urban areas. Today's children are more or less excluded from participation in the life of their elders, a fact that often results in great insecurity on their part. The modern school, set up as a society in miniature attempts to restore their security and feeling of individuality, by allowing them to be responsible members of their own community.
Since discipline is not imposed from above, children have to learn to live together and work together. Under the leadership of their teacher, they develop an understanding of each other's personalities, realizing that each person, given a freedom to develop his capacities, contributes to the group in a unique way.*

* A story told by a teacher of a progressive school in New York, illustrates the point of how a perceptive teacher can help to develop tolerant understanding in children only five years old: The group had a discussion in which all the children were saying what they might be when they grew up. There was one colored girl in the group who was withdrawn and considered dumb by some of the other children. When her turn came, somebody said: "Oh she! all she could be is a maid". The teacher said: "She could be a mummy" - This suggestion was immediately accepted by the group, and helped to make an outsider a member of the group.

The kind of cooperative living provided in the school community is considered by progressive educators to be the best grounding for intelligent citizenship. They argue that children who have lived in a community on their own level, and who have come by experience rather than theory to an acceptance of cooperative social living, will come out of school with democratic ideals far more profound than could be provided by simple propaganda. Moreover, while the direct teaching of current affairs cannot begin until a later age, democratic living in the school community can start in the nursery school. The school, by functioning as a community, aims to provide for its pupils the opportunity:

1. To participate directly in industrial processes in a simplified form.
2. To develop the ability to live cooperatively in a group, and to develop a feeling of responsibility to the group.
3. To develop a profound respect for the individual and for each individual's unique contribution to group living.
4. To develop a feeling of responsibility toward himself,
(4) To develop a feeling of responsibility toward himself, that is, to establish in himself certain standards of work and behaviour in accordance with his own developmental potentials.

2. Traditional schools are rejected by progressive educators as incapable of preparing children to live in a democratic society, since they themselves use autocratic methods of teaching and discipline. In terms of current affairs teaching this means that the traditional school fails, since it is argued, democratic ideals cannot be transmitted by autocratic methods. The new school does not wish to educate children to blind acceptance of existing social conditions. Rather, it wants children to come out of school imbued with democratic idealism and a critical yet understanding attitude toward such phenomena as race prejudice, social injustice, etc. It is on this basis that progressive schools have been labeled unrealistic. While it is true that the school cannot advance too far beyond the society of which it is a part, the accusation of unreality is often made by people who feel in any criticism of existing social conditions, a threat to their own way of life.

It follows from the above that the new school cannot by-pass controversial issues, since it attempts to provide for children a picture of contemporary society grounded upon an understanding of how it came to be and how it may possibly develop. Nor does the teacher of the new school feel a need to suppress controversial issues, since he does not claim to be able to answer all questions with finality. What he wants to transmit is not so much a body of information learned and all too forgotten, but a method of study, the elements of honest, scientific research. It is one of the new school's most important aims to show children how to pose questions intelligently, how to find their answers, and how to postpone until further study those questions to which answers cannot be found.
If it is the aim of the school to teach pupils how to think rather than to supply answers to all their questions, it will welcome controversial issues as excellent teaching material.

3. The new schools do not always teach current affairs as a separate subject, nor do they require a specialist to teach them. Since its curriculum is so intimately connected with the children’s lives, everything taught is current affairs in the wider sense, even the tool subjects, which are presented in such a way as to make the children feel their immediate usefulness. Thus current affairs is taught at every age level, always in terms of the children’s experience and at a level appropriate to their capacities.

The curricula reach out from the here and now to the far away and long ago. During the first two or three years of school the children’s interests in themselves are expanded to include the community in which they live. Frequent trips to various parts of the community familiarize them with the way in which other people live and work. In school they are given the opportunity to play and work out the processes and relationships observed. This completes the learning process - mere observation without the chance to relate what they observe, would be superficial, play without increased awareness of their community through first-hand observation would be unreal. This point is of great importance and has not always been correctly understood. All too often trips deteriorate into occasional required excursions, and all too often so called activity curricula are introduced through second-hand sources, such as stories and pictures rather than through the opportunity to observe life where it is.

39 Cf. Ch. V, Sections II, IV
At the age of eight, children are usually well enough established in their own environment to be able to reach out into the past. The study of a primitive society is often used as a core for that age group. The simpler structure of these societies and their romantic appeal makes it easy for children to identify themselves with the peoples they study. The industrial processes of these societies can be understood more easily than ours, and many of them can be reproduced in play by the children. It is most important that children gain through such a study an increased awareness and tolerance of a way of life different from their own.

The study of current affairs in the narrower sense, that is the actual study of present day social problems is usually postponed until toward the last year of elementary school. By the time the children are thirteen, they have studied enough of the past to give them a perspective for a wider and deeper study of the present. They have also by that time a thorough training in the methods of scientific research, an assurance that discussion of current affairs will not deteriorate into a superficial consideration of headlines.

4. A final way in which the new school teaches current affairs is through the opportunity it provides for its pupils to work in many different media. Children in these schools (boys and girls alike) do woodwork, cooking, weaving, printing, construction, and work in the plastic and music arts. As has been shown above, by their work in these media they acquire the specific skills and a general comprehension of the various trades. The purpose of such instruction is not vocational training, but the possibility to develop the children's capacities to the fullest by working with many different materials. The intended result is respect for all kinds of trades, and an understanding of their function in society.
The analysis and evaluation of the public school courses of study requires the erection of standards or principles of education in general and specifically of education in current affairs, to be derived from the writings and practices described in the previous pages.

I

PRELIMINARY CONCLUSIONS AND PRINCIPLES OF EVALUATION

1. Definition of Current Affairs

Current affairs include all basic sociological, economic, and political trends in contemporary society, together with their interrelations with natural phenomena, bases in the past, and directions into the future. They also include the specific events, problems and crises to which these trends give rise and which in turn illuminate them.

2. The Aims of Current Affairs Teaching

The aims of current affairs teaching vary from course to course, from grade to grade, from teacher to teacher, from one theorist to another. The following list is intended to be as general and at the same time as comprehensive as possible. The aims of education, and of current affairs education in particular are:

a. To impart to the student a sense of the deeper meanings and relationships of the daily life in which he participates and which, because of its very familiarity, he may be inclined to take for granted.

b. To instill in the student a habit of inquiry and speculativeness so that he himself will be inclined to search for information and meanings in all areas of life, including those not specifically studied in the class-
c. To train the student in the ability to distinguish facts from opinions and to weigh the latter in terms of the former.

d. To impart to the student the skills of research of all types, direct as well as bibliographical.

e. To instill in the student an understanding of some of the conflicting mores and values of various cultures, past and present, and particularly of the values of Western European-Anglo-American Civilization, and to encourage him to adopt for his own, because he himself understands and cherishes them, and not merely because he has "learned" them, the highest values of democratic Western civilization.

3. The content of the Course or Lesson in Current Affairs

The precise content of the course, the lesson, or the reference to current affairs cannot be defined. It may be anything from the trend of political, ideological and historical events leading to the founding of the United Nations to the building of a new hospital around the corner. What makes any of these events a worthy lesson in current affairs is the teacher's perception of its meaning in one or another context of contemporary life and his ability to direct the children's interested attention to that meaning. Without the perception of teacher and class of some level of meaning in the event, the event is merely a raw datum, no more worthy of attention than any other more or less trivial raw datum.

4. The Role of the Teacher in Current Affairs Education

The role of the teacher in the effective teaching of current affairs is prescribed by the aims of teaching current affairs, particularly the second, third, and fifth aims listed above. It is to act as a leader and a guide to his students, showing them the way to educate themselves, to grow in social,
intellectual, and ethical maturity; to perceive their most basic and vital life interests and to act through those interests to attain the aims indicated. These aims cannot be achieved if the teacher merely hands out what his students, by exerting their own efforts and experiencing in their own child-like ways, can arrive at themselves. Neither can they be achieved if the teacher, failing to look for his students' most basic interests, allows them to proceed according to their momentary whims, without organization and without direction.

5. The Teaching of Controversial Issues

The teaching of controversial public issues cannot and should not be avoided in effective current affairs teaching. The conscious or unconscious pretermission of controversial issues makes of current affairs teaching a sham and a hypocrisy. The posing of controversial questions neither requires nor precludes their disposition, but presumes the reaching of tentative answers without finally closing the questions.

6. Age Group Adaptation

The current affairs teaching practiced in any particular age group must be molded to the interests and capacities of the age group involved. No event or issue is important enough to be discussed in a group unless to it can be imparted some meaning that is real, immediate, interesting, and comprehensible to the children.

II

SANTA MONICA, CALIFORNIA, GRADES ONE AND THREE

Santa Monica, California, City Schools, Curriculum Office, INTEREST SEQUENCES FIRST GRADE, September, 1944; and UNIT ON THE FARM, THIRD GRADE, September, 1948.

Presentation

A. Transportation Unit, Grade One

Major Purposes

To provide opportunity for growth in democratic living.
To help the child explore and interpret his immediate environment and lead him to expand his concepts, understandings, and appreciations.

To satisfy the needs to construct, manipulate, investigate, share ideas and experiences, communicate, and create.

To provide a rich background of experiences common to the group on which to build language, reading, and number concepts.

WAYS OF INITIATING UNIT

Arranged environment
Library corner and browsing table
Pictures on bulletin boards
Materials for play
Large blocks
Pipe cleaner dolls
Boxes

Excursion
Talk
Discussion of summer activities
Read a story
From block play
Growth out of manipulative experience with materials.

This unit suggests a sequence of study of boats, airplanes, trains, and motor vehicles.

The unit on Airplanes is outlined as follows:

| AIRPLANES |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| **NEEDS** | **CONTENT** | **EXPERIENCES INVOLVED** |
| To make airplanes | Kinds of planes | Making airplanes |
| 1. Transport | Deciding on sizes of parts | |
| 2. Seaplanes | Looking at pictures | |
| 3. Training planes | Sharing experiences | |
| 4. Monoplanes | Hearing talk | |
| 5. Helicopters | Taking trips to airport | |
| Parts of planes | Hearing stories and poems | |
| 1. Fuselage | Playing with airplanes | |
| 2. Wings | Evaluating airplanes | |
| 3. Propeller | Dictating stories and poems | |
| 4. Rudder |  | |
| 5. Landing gear |  | |
| 6. Tail |  | |
| 7. Ailerons |  | |
| 8. Elevators |  | |
| 9. Motors |  | |
| 10. Wind indicator |  | |
| 11. Aerial |  | |

"The Airliner"
"Sky Riders"
Reading charts about
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NEEDS</th>
<th>CONTENT</th>
<th>EXPERIENCES INVOLVED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. Cabin</td>
<td>airplanes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. Lights</td>
<td>Bringing models to share</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14. Identification</td>
<td>Bringing pictures to share</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15. Pontoons</td>
<td>Singing songs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To make field facilities</td>
<td>Listening to records</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Field facilities</td>
<td>Taking trip to airport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Hangar</td>
<td>Making field facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Landing lights</td>
<td>Looking at pictures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Building for administration</td>
<td>Hearing stories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Radio tower</td>
<td>Evaluating facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Tractors</td>
<td>Learning use of various equipment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Wind sock</td>
<td>Creating rhythms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Dollies</td>
<td>Playing in airport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Runways</td>
<td>Sharing experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Mail trucks</td>
<td>Using signals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Wheel blocks</td>
<td>Making signals light up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. Lights</td>
<td>Loading and unloading planes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To make refueling facilities</td>
<td>Finding out how planes are serviced</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Following the subject-matter material on the construction of each unit, a number of construction activities in connection with each is suggested, e.g. "barge," "pilot boat," "piers," "breakwater," "wind sock," "hangar," etc. The author then lists a number of problem-solving activities in connection with each section of the unit. Proposed activities on the airplane section include:

**Airplanes --- Problem-Solving Activities**

1. How to nail on rudder
2. How to put on landing gear
3. How to make windsock: materials and method
4. What makes the plane go up and down and from right to left
5. What numbers on airplanes mean
6. Choosing proper materials to use in construction work
7. Choosing proper tools to use in construction work
8. How polite children conduct themselves on excursions
9. What people are related to airplane business
10. What the different parts of the airplane are
11. How to use tools properly
12. What lights and signals are used
13. How planes are serviced
14. What is the purpose of the radio in airplanes
15. What are the important airplane facilities on the air field
16. What are some of the traffic rules of the air and air field
17. How to make a flying boat
18. How planes are loaded and unloaded
In a further chapter the authors indicate the dramatic play possibilities of each section of the unit. For airplanes, thus:

**Airplanes --- Dramatic Play Possibilities**

**Need**
1. Children have an urge to dramatize adult life, and in a study of airplanes there is a natural outlet for this urge.
2. This play may be initiated through the use of blocks if they are available. If blocks are not available, boxes and a few airplane models may be on hand, and the desire to play with the planes will be sure to arise, as all children love to play planes around. The flying of these few planes will lead to the need for an airport and a few of the airport facilities. From this play will come the desire to make more planes and equipment, and as the new planes and equipment are added the play will become more full and more needs will arise, etc., until at the end of the area of experience the dramatic play may be quite complete.

**Sequence of Possibilities for Dramatic Play**
1. Plane brought out on the field by tractor
2. Preparing plane for; take-off; refueling, air conditioning, loading food, loading baggage and mail, using dollies, etc.
3. Getting tickets; seeing what is in administration building.
4. Pilot and co-pilot getting and reading instructions.
5. Getting on plane - checked on by stewardess; fastening safety belts seeing sign to do so.
6. Pilot and co-pilot get on.
7. Airplane taking off into wind - seeing windsock; instructions from control tower, flags, take-off, release safety belts.
8. Eating, sleeping on plane; stewardess's duties
9. Preparing for landing - fastening belts, instructions from tower signals, landing steps rolled out, passengers checked out.
10. Unloading airplane: dollies brought out, baggage, mail, etc.
11. Getting own baggage at baggage office, going in taxi or limousine or bus or car to destination.

**Outcomes and Evaluations**
1. As a result of such dramatic play children will have satisfied the urge for dramatizing adult life, have increased their knowledge of airplanes, airports, air personnel, will have increased their knowledge of how other people work for them and how they depend upon them.
2. Through evaluation of their play they will discover how they can improve their next play, how they can improve their construction work to make it more useful and satisfying. They will discover new needs which, when obtained, will make their play more realistic, and also they will discover new needs which may lead from one area of experience to another.

**Possible leads to other fields**
1. From going to destination in taxi, bus, car, or limousine, to desire to learn more about these forms of transportation.
2. From loading mail in plane and unloading it, to the study of ways the
mail is carried and from there into the study of trains, or boats or both.

B. Farm Unit, Grade Three

Major Purposes

Eight-year-olds are beginning to extend their interests out beyond their own immediate environment. Increasingly they are interested in the world and its many relationships. For urban children the farm offers itself as a good intermediary step, taking children from their community to the extended environment of the farm, reaching out in its later aspects to farming in the entire United States.

1. It will help children to a beginning understanding of sources of supply; of the relationship between raw materials, production and consumption, with special emphasis on foods.

2. It will offer many opportunities for children to meet their need to be physically active, to manipulate materials, to construct, to dramatize, to communicate with one another, and to express themselves esthetically.

3. Because there is such variety in life on a general farm, it will offer a variety of group and individual interests and activities to provide for individual needs.

4. It will provide splendid activities through a study of the contributions of science to farming for developing scientific attitudes of inquiry and interest in and a growing understanding of the world of science and its contribution to democratic life.

5. It will afford many experiences in democratic living. Working on a common enterprise will promote wholesome social growth while permitting each child to contribute in his own way, at his own pace. It will promote respect for work and workers.

6. It will promote a knowledge of the different kinds of farms in the different regions of the United States, and a growing respect for and appreciation of this beautiful, resourceful country which is their heritage.

7. Major emphasis will be given to a middle-western farm because it affords opportunity for learning about seasonal changes, a general farm, and the traditions of the American Farm. The California farm will be developed in the fourth grade study of modern California.

Ways of Initiating Unit

The Arranged Environment
When the children enter the classroom on the first day they will find an arranged environment emphasizing life on a general
farm. The environment will be rich in materials and ideas which will stimulate children to do something about the farm.

The text then suggests titles of books, mounted pictures, and types of play materials that will be available for the children when they enter the room.

Responses to the Environmental Stimuli

After the children have met together and introductory remarks have been made, they will be invited to explore the room for a few minutes, with the understanding that they will group together again upon a signal to discuss the things they see.

Some children will look at the books, others the pictures. Some will handle the animals, the farm equipment, and the people, and may even begin to play with them.

After about fifteen minutes of exploration, the teacher will call the group together again. The children will be eager to talk about what they have seen or what they know of farm life. They will share information and ask questions. Some questions will be answered by the group to its own satisfaction, others the teacher will list on the board for further study. (These she will later put on a permanent chart for further reference under some such title as "Things We Need to Know."

The teacher may next read to the children from an interesting book on the farm. She may read the beginning chapter of Grindstone Farm by H. B. Lent, also Chapter 5 on "Farm Animals". The class may be stimulated to discuss life on the farm. Perhaps a few children will tell of their own experiences on a farm.

The teacher may then ask who would like to play farm with the equipment and people. The other children are allowed to choose to (1) look at books and pictures, (2) draw and paint farm scenes, and (3) model farm animals from clay.

The beginning play could lead to the emergence of several first needs. It might be that playing with the animals would emphasize the need for more animals and for pens, sheds, a barn, and corrals. These needs may emerge one by one or may be expressed all at once.

It might be that playing with the farm people would lead to an expressed need for a farmhouse first. No matter in what order these needs might develop, it is possible to anticipate the kinds of things to be developed.

The outline then proceeds to develop a possible sequence in which a unit might grow. This material is outlined in two columns: "Needs and Desires" and "Experiences Involved." The latter suggest mainly construction, reading, painting and drawing and modelling, map reading, and weather study. Few direct experiences are proposed; these include a trip to a farmyard and making bread, butter and cottage cheese. Following is the list of "Needs and Desires":
Needs and Desires

To make farm animals
Further play might lead to the need for pens, coops, sheds, and a barn.
  To make a chicken coop
  To make corrals
  To make a pig pen and other pens and sheds for farm animals.

Playing with the animals, feeding them, etc., would lead to a discussion of who cares for them and how.
  To find out how farm animals are cared for
  To make additional equipment for barn, coops, and shed.

Working with farm animals and their care may lead to an expressed need for more farm workers. At this time the children may decide how many people are in their farm family and how many farm workers they will hire.
  To make farm people

Continued play develops the need for a house for the family to live in.
  To make a farmhouse.
  To furnish the farmhouse.

When the farm has developed to this stage, we might begin to have much varied dramatic play. We might play "morning on the farm", "planting spring crops", etc. These activities will create the need for further information on various jobs on the farm.
  To find out about the various jobs on a farm.

To make further farm equipment

Play with these now becomes quite extended and varied and may lead to a need for organizing the farm lay-out.
  To lay out the farm.

Playing the various seasons and the jobs done, the work of the different times of day, leads to:
  To know more about the different crops raised on farms,
  To know more about the different crops raised on farms.

The study of different crops would introduce the children to the concept of regionalism. They would find out that, while some crops grow quite generally throughout the United States, many grow only in specific regions.
  To know why some crops; grow only in certain regions.
  To know more about climate and weather.

The use of this new knowledge of the effect of weather on farming should bring about wide and varied dramatic play in which the children can translate their information to life situations. They may play a summer storm at haying time, the first snow, a dust storm, life on the farm in the rainy season, caring for the animals in the rain, etc.

The "weather services" bring about a natural transition to "How Man is to Learning to Control or Understand Nature." This can lead to a study of how scientific research is helping the farmer and changing farming methods.
  To know more about scientific improvement of farming.

The remainder of the text is devoted to suggestions for science, geography, construction, language, literature, dramatic play, art, music, and
Analysis

A. GRADE ONE UNIT

The aims of this course appear to concentrate on skills and information rather than on understanding. While the skills emphasized—construction, manipulation, and group dramatic play—and the information required are of interest and value to the young child, their interest and value could be greatly enhanced by a deeper perception of the meaning, similarities, and differences problems, of the various modern modes of transportations. Comparative speeds, kinds of freight carried, use to the individual, the family or the community of the car, the train, the airplane, and the boat, are matters well within the understanding of the six-year olds.

In addition, it may be pointed out that the approach to this subject and the manner in which it is proposed to be handled are somewhat mechanical and fail to enlist the interest of the child through his own experiences, stressing rather materials for study that can be provided second-hand. The problems are given and the children fail to receive the really educative experience of discovering for themselves what are some of the problems involved, and then, with the guidance of the teacher, discovering the answers.

One may compare with this proposed transportation project a first grade unit on airplanes reported in the Twelfth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies under the chapter heading "Teaching Social Studies in the Primary Grades: Community Living Through an Ongoing Interest in Airplanes." 1*

1* William E. Young, editor, THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, op. cit., Chapter VIII
This unit was initiated by the spontaneous airplane play of the children, who constructed with blocks and tried to operate an airport in the classroom. The traffic and confusion that ensued made the children feel that they needed more information and details concerning how an airport is actually operated, traffic controlled, etc. The group thereupon decided to take a trip to a small local airport. This trip reduced some of their own play difficulties, and they returned to their games with greater enthusiasm, more accuracy, and a better understanding of techniques for efficient operation. When they had begun to exhaust the play possibilities of their group experience, they made a second trip to a larger airport where they saw mail being loaded and unloaded and more complicated radio control of incoming and outgoing craft. On returning to school they incorporated their enlarged experiences into their further play.

This unit demonstrates how the same subject matter as is employed in the Santa Monica course can be used by children and teacher to acquire really new understandings: the possible complications of modern travel particularly at terminuses and how these complications can be overcome; the use of the airplane in carrying the mails; the use of one technological device, the radio, as a supplement to another, the airplane. While apparently the teacher in this case put little stress upon the acquisition of factual information regarding the parts of the plane, the parts of the airport, and so on, it is likely that the children's own play needs carried them as far in the simple amassing of information as did the curriculum requirements of the Santa Monica program.

B. GRADE THREE UNIT

The farm is a favorite unit for any one of the primary grades and offers many opportunities for enlisting the enthusiasm and learning capacities of young children. It is suggested that considerable vitality could
be added to the unit here proposed by centering it upon a more direct experience of the children with farm life and things growing. Several trips to a farm, enough for the children to make contact with the farmer, ask him questions, and observe the daily routine of farm life would form a more suitable core for such a unit than the many secondary sources of information proposed. Only in this way can the children acquire enough meaningful information about farm life to be able themselves to formulate basic questions.

The unit lays considerable stress upon the scientific aspects of farming. In this connection, the raising of a few chickens or cultivation of a small vegetable garden would add meaning and centrality to the entire project.

It is further suggested, in relation to the teaching of current affairs, that the economic relations of the farm be more seriously considered. The growth of modern methods of farming, the economic and cultural relations of farm country with urban areas, the kinds of labor and kinds of equipment employed on various size and type farms could be studied, and all would contribute to the building up of a sense of the patterns and interrelations of life throughout the country. For a unit on the farm to have value beyond the mere acquisition of information requires a sense of past and present, farm and city.

III

SOUTH BEND, INDIANA, GRADE SIX

School City of South Bend, Indiana, Department of Elementary Education, HOW WAYS OF LIVING HAVE CHANGED IN THE UNITED STATES, A UNIT IN SOCIAL STUDIES FOR SIXTH GRADE, written by Grade Pointer with consultant and contributors, September 1948.

Presentation

The aims of this unit are broad and ambitious:
HOW WAYS OF LIVING HAVE CHANGED IN THE UNITED STATES

WHAT WE WANT TO DO WITH THIS UNIT

UNDERSTANDINGS WE WANT TO DEVELOP

Inventions have raised the standards of living for many people.
Natural resources and machines exist primarily to serve human needs.
Social change resulting from newer and better ways of using resources can be controlled and regulated for the benefit of all.
Inventions of new tools and machines for satisfying human needs often create new problems.
Satisfying a need often results in creating other needs.
Modern methods of manufacturing have made us more interdependent.

ATTITUDES WE WANT TO DEVELOP

We want pupils:
To appreciate the fact that all kinds of work are respectable, worthwhile, and necessary in our society.
To recognize the fact that the work of each individual is important and that each one is responsible to society for doing his best.
To see that change is inevitable and they have a part to play in its on-going.
To realize that growth and progress are results of cooperation, sharing and planning.
To appreciate man's efforts to provide more things and better things for more people.

SKILLS WE WANT TO DEVELOP

We want pupils:
To develop the ability to collect, select, and organize valuable information about a given topic.
To make generalizations and applications based upon their findings.
To know where to find information and how to evaluate it.
To do critical thinking on a topic and make interpretations.
To evaluate the worth of their contributions to the group.
To interpret maps, charts, and graphs.
To grow in ability to act as chairman of a group.
To be able to participate in group work on his own.

The content is similarly ambitious:

MAN IN SIMPLE SOCIETY SUPPLIED HIS NEEDS THROUGH HIS OWN INDIVIDUAL EFFORTS.

His wants were simple and easily supplied.
Food - ate what he could find or raise near his home, such as:
Nomadic tribes in early times ate what nature provided -- fruits, nuts, berries, roots, game.
Egyptians learned to raise grain, vegetables, sheep, cows, goats, pigs, ducks.
Shelter - built houses of materials close at hand, such as:
Early man lived in trees, caves, huts made of branches held with mud, tents made of skins, etc. Egyptians learned to build with stone. Babylonians learned to make bricks of mud dried in the sun. Pilgrims first built huts of logs; later learned to build larger houses of logs.

Clothing - wore what he could spin or weave
American Indians
- Cured skins of animals
- Made cloth from wool
Early American colonists
- Made cloth from wool and cotton

Isolated living conditions caused men to be self-sufficient.

Men, quite early, learned to make weapons for protection, such as:
- Fist axe
- Bow and arrow
- Spear
- Javelins

Men also learned how to make tools to help supply his needs, such as tools for:
- Scraping skins
- Hammering and digging
- Boring holes in wood and stone
- Chopping wood
- Cutting down trees
- Sewing skins and cloth
- Making sleds and wagons
- Cultivating grains and vegetables

Men in simple society learned to use the raw materials that were available for:

Transporting himself and supplies
The American Indians
- Hollowed out logs or bark canoes
- Poles for travois
- Poles and thick boards for early carts

Adding to the comforts of life.
The Pilgrims
- Saving fats for making candles
- Saving ashes for making soap
- Spinning wool and cotton for clothing

Transportation was slow, expensive, and difficult.
Travelers walked, rode horseback, or in carriages along the mud roads.
Well-to-do planters of New England or the Middle Colonies owned coaches or carriages drawn by four or six horses. For short trips people traveled on horseback or walked. Whenever possible, goods and travelers went by boat. On long journeys people traveled as much as they could by water. Planter boarded his boat or loaded his cargo at his own wharf and was rowed to the mouth of the river where he took a sailing vessel for Baltimore, Philadelphia, or London.
As travel increased the needs for better means of transportation increased.
1756 - First stage coach between New York and Philadelphia.
1815 - National Road completed from Potomac to the Mississippi.
1863 - Central Pacific and Union Pacific railroad crews span the continent.
1931 - Millions of automobiles in the United States promoted the building of thousands of miles of hard-surfaced roads.
1948 - Planes, trains, ships, automobiles, etc. carry passengers, mail, and freight to every remote part of the world.

THE INVENTION OF DIFFERENT MACHINES CHANGED MAN'S WAY OF LIVING.

People learned to work together in order to supply their needs.
They built factories and began to make for themselves some things that they had been buying in Europe.
Following the War of 1812 the United States could no longer send crops to Europe and bring back manufactured goods.
At first American factories made:
- Cotton cloth
- Woolen cloth
- Things made of iron - tools, machinery, pots, kettles, and other household articles.
They soon learned how to make different kinds of machines to use in these factories.
When the English refused to sell machines, the Americans started making their own.
They learned to make them better and better.
Soon workers in American factories became quite skillful in making machines for use in factories.

People learned that more things could be made in less time if they worked together.
Some inventors and their inventions which speeded up production:
- Eli Whitney - cotton gin
- James Watt - steam engine
- Elias Howe - sewing machine
- Cyrus McCormick - reaper

Builders found that they could save time and at the same time produce more if they could develop ways and means of bringing the work to the workmen -- beginning of "assembly line" production.
1913 - Henry Ford tried the experiment in "assembly line" production in one department. The time to assemble one part was reduced from twenty minutes to five minutes. Another experiment in another department reduced the time to fasten parts to a chassis from fourteen hours to less than six hours. This has since been reduced to one hour and thirty minutes.

People learned new ways of making things when they worked together.
The ever-increasing demands for material things caused new and better methods of production.
The automobile - an entirely new product - was the result of the "know how" of most manufacturing men since the time of Eli Whitney.
Our existence as a Nation depends upon our ability to produce intricate machines, in limitless quantity, from interchangeable parts.

A change in a product requires months and years of preparatory work which affects both workers and the tools of production.

Some of the reasons are:
- Building an entirely new plant
- Installing new machines
- Establishing sources of raw materials
- Training thousands of workers

Some of the results are:
- Increased production
- Improved quality and performance of articles
- Increased saving of materials

STANDARDS OF LIVING HAVE CHANGED AND DEVELOPED AS METHODS IN INDUSTRY HAVE CHANGED AND DEVELOPED.

Social needs have become more demanding for better finished products. Experimentation and research have brought more and better products, such as:
- Airplane motors
  Standardization of parts simplifies the problem of replacement.
- Automobile bodies
  Electric welding has reduced the thousands of pieces in a car to one piece making the finished produce more durable and attractive.

Specialization in certain crafts has developed as industry has developed. At first each man worked in his own home and sometimes employed several helpers.
- Made necessities for his family - shoes, cloth, candles, carts, wagons, oxen yoke, furniture, etc.
- When his business grew so that many helpers were needed, the owner moved his shop out of his home into a separate building.
- Beginning of small businesses - blacksmith shop, buggy and wagon shops, shoe shops, etc.

Industries change and develop as new inventions change the standards of living of the people.
- Effects of the invention of cotton gin
  Increased the amount of cotton
  Factories grew and developed
  Cotton goods became more plentiful and cheaper
  More people had work
  The demand for cotton goods increased
  More factories were built
  More people had work and standards of living rose for more people.

Mass production reduced prices of articles and made it possible for more people to have more things.

Production in large quantities is the key to quality and quantity at a low price.

1909 - A Model T cost $950. In 1914 it cost $490.
American industry is guided by this principle in achieving
prosperity and plenty - in order to place articles in reach of the average man's pocket-book, they must be produced in large quantities.

Workers found a way to create abundance by learning how to duplicate parts and assemble them efficiently.

From the potter's wheel sprang the wood lathe
From the wood lathe spring the metal lathe
From the metal lathe came the automatic screw machine that turns out intricate parts by the millions.

Factories caused people to congregate in cities.
Machines were too large to use in private homes.
Machines and other equipment were too expensive for many private individuals to buy.
Factories were located near sources of power.
People congregated in areas to be near their work.
Cities grew to meet the needs of the people in the surrounding community.

MASS PRODUCTION HAS CAUSED THE GROWTH OF INTERDEPENDENCE

Men who work in factories depend on others for raw materials, such as:
- Men who make shoes depend upon other workers to make the leather.
- Men who work in steel mills depend upon men who work in iron mines and coal mines.
- Men who work in factories depend upon the farmer for food.
- Men who work in the finishing departments of automobile factories depend upon chemists.

Production was held up until chemists found a thin, durable, quick-drying lacquer.

Workers in one department depend upon workers in another department.
Many workers in many departments of an automobile factory help assemble the car.

**Engine assembly:**
- block, valves, crankshaft, connecting rods, pistons, and accessories are added.

**Chassis assembly:**
- stampings are welded together, doors hung and sprayed, hardware upholstery and accessories are added.

**Final assembly:**
- frame is mounted on conveyor supports, rear axle and front suspension, engine, wheels, body, and wiring are added.

Workers in one city often depend upon workers in another city or in some other part of the world.

Candy manufacturers use products grown in equatorial regions.
Automobile manufacturers use tires, safety glass, batteries, upholstery, etc. made by workers in other cities.

Workers depend upon consumers for markets for their products.
Farmers supply a market for automobiles, tractors, farm implements, refrigerators, etc.
City workers buy things made from farm products.

MASS PRODUCTION HAS CAUSED MANY PROBLEMS IN OUR SOCIETY.

Unemployment
One machine supplants many men and people have to find new things
to do.
People become frustrated and unhappy because they are unable
to shift from one kind of work to another.
Some are forced against their will to move and try to find work
elsewhere.
Misunderstandings between people who do not have a common understand­
ing of one another's problems often incite:
- Strikes of workers against owners of factories.
- Riots among groups because of prejudices or jealousies.
- Discrimination against races, religious groups or minority groups.
Overcrowded living conditions in industrial cities have caused:
Newcomers to be forced to live under undesirable conditions,
such as:
  - Run-down tenement areas
  - Many families crowded together in a few rooms.
Inadequate recreational facilities for workers who have more leisure
time.
  - Lack of sufficient playground space and equipment for children.
  - Lack of organized and supervised activities for all children.
  - Lack of well-rounded adult recreational programs for all adults.
An ever increasing demand for more and better things to satisfy certain
needs creates new problems.
Conserving natural resources
  - The automobile increased the demand for more gasoline and steel.
  - More gasoline in turn creates a greater demand for more oil.
  - More steel increases the demand for more iron ore and more coal.
Learning how to live together and work together peaceably.
  - Recognition of the worth of each individual.
  - Recognition of the contributions of others.
  - Recognition of the fact that all kinds of work is respectable,
    worthwhile, and honorable.
Satisfying a need often creates other needs.
Swift, economical transportation has been, in part, satisfied by
the automobile and airplane.
The automobile and airplane, in turn, set up a need for good high­
ways, service stations, airports, etc.

AS NEW WAYS OF LIVING PRODUCE NEW PROBLEMS, PEOPLE TRY TO
SOLVE THEM.

Minors working in factories
Child labor Laws
School Attendance Laws

Strikes
Federal Labor Laws
Mediation Boards

Recreational programs
Camp Fire
Boy Scouts
Girl Scouts
Y. M. C. A.
Y. W. C. A.
Summer camps

Slum Clearance
Planned houses
Low-rent apartments
Protective measures in industry
Safety laws
  Machine guards
  Dress of workers
Health laws
Sanitation laws
Workers compensation

Education
  Closer relations between schools and businesses
  Cooperative planning of courses with industry.
  More flexible curriculum.
  Closer planning with parents.
  Using available scientific information.

SUMMARY
Machines have made many jobs easier to do, but at the same time they have produced some problems in industry.
The standard of living is much higher for a greater number of people now.
Cooperation and mutual understanding are essential in this age of Mass Production.
Mass Production solves many problems in industry but creates others for society.
Inventions that satisfy one need often create other needs.
Since people have become so interdependent, our responsibility in working for mutual understanding among people is very great.

Analysis
The success of a curriculum of such scope depends almost entirely upon the skill of the teacher and the previous background of the class. For a class that has little or no informational background on ways of living, and particularly on ways of making a living, in primitive groups and early civilizations, such a unit might be proposing more than can be properly digested. Children who have some familiarity, however, with some of the material included might well find such a unit extremely stimulating for the new insights and understandings offered.

In addition, it may be suggested that children who lack experience in individual and small group research might be overwhelmed by the wealth of material that is proposed to be covered, and the result would be a frag-
mentary and confusing learning. For a group led by a skillful and well-informed teacher and capable themselves of undertaking individual research problems, the unit could be a learning experience of great depth and meaning.

Possibilities for serious teaching of current affairs are many in this unit, particularly in Sections V and VI. It is apparent, in addition, that such current affairs as are discussed in connection with this unit will have a depth and significance lent them by the serious historical and analytical thinking that has preceded the introduction of these sections.

In addition to the question of whether this unit does not offer too much to sixth grade children, one further criticism must be made in connection with the aims of the unit. Since one of the skills the authors wish to develop is "to do critical thinking on a topic and make interpretations," it may be that the section "Understandings We Want to Develop," might better be phrased "Questions We Want to Ask." The changes in ways of living in the United States are of such complexity that no sixth grade child can be asked to settle all questions by a final understanding. The most that can be expected is that he ask some relevant question -- and not necessarily with the aim finally to answer the questions. For as Caroline Pratt has written, "Open questions are good things to carry around with one; they sharpen the eye and prod the mind; they give the imagination many a practice spin on the way to finding the answer." 2

Thus the "understandings" might possibly be rephrased:

1. How have inventions changed the way of life for many people?

2. Do human beings serve machines, or do machines serve human beings?

3. Can the social changes resulting from newer and better ways of using resources be controlled for the benefit of more people?

4. What new problems are created by the inventions of new tools and machines?

In addition to questioning the influence on the way of life of new tools and machines, the basic question that underlies this whole study is: What is the difference of way of life between machine civilization and a non-machine civilization.

IV

MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA, GRADE FOUR

Minneapolis Public Schools, Division of Elementary Education, SOCIAL STUDIES SOURCE UNITS FOR GRADE FOUR, September, 1943.

Presentation

The unit here considered is entitled "Group Living in Type Physical Environments," and the introductory matter states, in part:

GROUP LIVING IN TYPE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENTS
Grade 4

AN OVERVIEW

A two fold emphasis in the fourth grade social studies: Training in and for constructive membership in a democracy is one of two basic emphases in the fourth grade social studies. The development of an awareness of people in other lands and how they have adapted their living to their physical environments is a second point of basic emphasis. There is no inconsistency in these dual emphases in relation to the theme "Group Living in Type Physical Environments". The child is a participating member of his social group. The experiences of the fourth grade should help him to become a more effective member of this small democracy. At the same time his horizon is being widened. He is becoming aware of people in other lands. He begins to see them in relation to his own immediate small community group of the school, the city, and nation.

Suggested content for the study of group living in type physical environments: Previous to the fourth grade, children have been acquiring an understanding of living in the home, school, neighborhood, and city. During the fourth grade they should become acquainted with the ways in which people live and work in regions having varying physical and climatic conditions:

- Hot moist lands in tropical regions
- Hot dry lands in tropical regions
- Mountainous lands far from the equator
Available textbook materials may determine the particular geographic area studied. Thus, flexibility characterizes the selection of the geographic area which will be studied intensively as a type region. An understanding of how ways of living have been influenced by physical and climatic factors should be developed. The effect of modern communication and transportation facilities on ways of living, improved educational, cultural and recreational opportunities should be emphasized. Suggestions as to approaches to the year's study: First-hand contacts with other lands and people which persons in the community have had, should be used as approaches to the fourth grade social studies. Use should be made of the travel experiences of the children, contacts with relatives and friends in various countries, parental backgrounds, foreign correspondence, and experiences gained through motion pictures, books, stories and radio. Such informal surveys at the beginning of the school year should lead to discussions of the different types of regions and to various ways of living throughout the world. Through these experiences the group may show a particular interest in some one type region. Interest in persons and events - American troops in Africa and Iceland, MacArthur in Australia and the Pacific, Livingston and Stanley in the Congo Region, Grenfell in Labrador - may lead to a study of a type region. A local happening may introduce the study of a region, such as contacts with news commentators, good-will ambassadors and members returned from the American Expeditionary Forces, a special exhibit of the work and art of a particular region, and collections in art museums.

Contacts with regions having similar physical environments: The study of one type region may be extended to include contacts with other regions having similar geographic conditions. A study of the Congo Region should lead children to an acquaintance with somewhat similar geographic conditions in the Amazon Valley and in the Malay Peninsula; the study of the desert regions of the Sahara and Libya should lead to discussions of other desert areas such as southeastern Asia and southwestern United States. The unit on the mountainous regions of Norway and Switzerland might lead to a discussion of the mountainous regions of North America and of South America.

Appreciation of the contributions of people in those countries to American life: The contributions made by peoples of type regions to the development of American life should be noted -- the Scandinavian people who helped to settle the Middle West; the Dutch who helped to settle the Atlantic Coast. The contribution of the African Negro to agriculture in the South may be noted.

In the study of the polar regions, the contributions of Peary, Amundsen, Byrd and others should be emphasized. The courage of those men and the significance of their contributions to a global world should not be minimized.
Relation of study of group living in type physical environments to the local community: Interest in phases of group life in the type physical environments should lead to a consideration of various aspects of living in our community. For example, interest in health and sanitation in the Congo Region may lead to a simple survey of our community health. The study of recreation in Norway and Switzerland may lead to a consideration of recreational facilities in our city.

The importance of the areas of living: Emphasis should be placed on the several areas of living which run through all group life. These fields of living constantly interact in all human experiences. They include ways in which men live in the home and in community groups, their experiences in conserving life and health, the ways in which men make their living and secure an education and participate in religious, aesthetic, and recreational experiences.

The teacher should have these basic areas of living in her perspective and should be aware of them as she guides her pupils in their study of any region. She should make the content of the social studies reach out widely through human experience and help children gain an understanding of total human living.

In Summary: The fourth grade study, therefore, introduces the children to a world-wide view. As they become acquainted with different peoples, they should see that man's activities are influenced by the environment in which he lives. They should be led toward a sympathetic understanding of and respect for the people of other lands. Children should gain a growing appreciation of the interdependence of the various peoples of the earth and the influence of steadily improving communication and transportation resulting from the global war.

The following units are outlined in detail: "Deserts Near and Far;" "Hot Moist Regions: Belgian Congo;" "Living by the Sea: the Netherlands;" "The Cold Regions of the Earth;" "Life in Norway;" "Homes Around the World;" "Foods in Contrasting Physical Environments of the Earth;" "Ways of Travel Throughout the World."

A. THE NETHERLANDS

Selections of the unit on the Netherlands are here quoted:

LIVING BY THE SEA: THE NETHERLANDS

AN OVERVIEW Holland, the land of canals, the land of flowers and herds, is also the land of opportunity. The sea has been foe and friend. Rich soil has made cattle raising profitable. Much moisture has made the Netherlands a flower garden and a world nursery. Holland has shipped seeds, bulbs, and plants to all parts of the world. Her cheeses are sought by connoisseurs in the world's famous cafes. Flower culture, cheese raising, artists colonies --
all this sounds easy, but Holland's struggle against environmental dangers is one of the gravest. Coping with the natural forces has developed a race, steel hardened by reverses and self-confident through success.

The reclamation of the Zuyder-Zee has been one of the outstanding examples of modern science applied to conservation. The dyke of an early day chained the North Sea into its confines and made the Zuyder-Zee a fresh water lake. Later government attack changed the swampy lake into "polders". The polder system is transforming the area into a farming section.

**SPECIFIC AIDS**

- To show an example of primitive adjustment to native surroundings
- To show that struggle to maintain an existence does not destroy the desire for culture
- To show the progress in controlling destructive elements. The dykes and windmills are now supplemented by mechanical devices and modern drainage systems.
- To show the social progress in group living. Early drainage plans left to hit and miss farming; today scientific planning prevails.

**Development of the Unit**

**Initiation:** The war and current events brought Holland to this class. The children were much impressed when it was reported that Queen Wilhelmina had fled from her own country to England and the princess to Canada. Someone brought the popular around picture of Queen Wilhelmina when she was a very young queen. A study of Holland followed.

At the outset the children told of the things which they knew about Holland. These points were listed on the blackboard, such as:
- Holland is a land of canals and windmills.
- Tulip bulbs are shipped from Holland to all parts of the world.

This led to a map study - the location of Holland; its disadvantages from the standpoint of topography when compared with Minnesota.

Further orientation activities included search for materials which had reference to Holland. The pictures showing work activities of the people were shown on the screen. The pictures in geography texts and reference books were discussed.

**Cooperative planning:** As the orientation period progressed the important and significant questions and comments contributed by the children were written on the blackboard under the topic, "Things We Should Know About Holland".

- Why is Holland called the Netherlands?
- How is their farming different from farming in Minnesota?
- How is life in Holland different from that of Minnesota?
- Compare as to location and climate.
- Dutch people are noted for their cleanliness and thrift. Why have they acquired this reputation for being so clean and thrifty?

**What are the seasons in Holland?**
- Is gardening in Holland the principal work?
- What animals do they have? What kind of cattle? What kinds do we have in Minnesota?
How do they travel? What is a barge? What is a canal boat?
What do they burn for fuel?
What important cities in Holland should we know?
Why are windmills used in Holland? On Minneapolis farms?
Are they still used as extensively? If not, what is the power?

The points for study were organized as given above by the class. Additions were made as the study progressed. One child brought in a news clipping that the Art Institute had a loan collection of pictures of famous artists which included some paintings by Dutch artists. This led to the addition of the following points of study:

What has Holland given to us in painting and art?

The extent to which Dutch people have settled in this country arose from a Weekly News Reader item relative to the purchase of Manhattan by the Dutch for $24.

Progress of the study
Committees secured valuable information: One committee interviewed a teacher who had visited in Holland. Later she talked with the class. Another committee was responsible for securing books and pictures of Holland from the public library. A third committee made a bibliography of all poems and songs available on Holland.

As the group proceeded with their search for material the questions were gradually answered and checked off.

Research activities: After wide general reading on the subject, interesting places to visit in Holland were listed with the advice of help and friends. Reports on these subjects were given by members of the class supplemented by talks by others and slides from Board of Education office. Pictures from the National Geographic were shown in the opaque machine. One group visited the Art Institute to see Van Gogh's pictures.

In her evaluation of work on this unit the teacher prepared the following:

Evaluation:
Teacher's check on content: Throughout the study the teacher checked the following content:

Orientation
Location: zones, continent, large bodies of water
Topography: Many stretches below sea level, sand hills along coast, some highlands
Climate: Summer and winter even length; winters - cold and damp.
Products: Flowers, bulbs, cut flowers, cheese, vegetable oils, cattle, fish, art products, painting, pottery
Industries: Engineering, bulb culture, cheesemaking, pottery making, diamond polishing, brick and tile making, peat digging, commerce, fishing
Plant life: flowers - tulips, hyacinths, elm trees along dykes
Animal life: cattle - Holstein; storks, fish
Character of people: industrious, thrifty, intelligent, peace loving, confident, courageous

Homes: cities-beautiful homes; rural districts-simple homes; construction-many built on piles

Clothing: In cities-European style; in Isle of Marken and Volendam (only) wooden shoes, wide legged trousers for men, full skirts for women, caps with lace flounce

Interesting sights in Holland
- The art gallery in Amsterdam - "The Venice of the North"
- The tulip gardens
- The black and white cows of Friesland
- At Edam - great piles of varnished cheeses on wharf
- The Weigh House at Alkmaar where cheese brought in by boat, rail and canal barges are stacked; merchants with scoops sampling cheeses; auction at 10 o'clock Friday morning
- The model farms in reclaimed Zuder-Zee tract, the "polders"
- The diamond polishers - diamonds brought from Africa look like pebbles
- The cut flower market at Allsmere - flowers shipped by air all over Europe
- The flower show at Heemestede, in May - 500,000 tulip; once in 10 years, 16,000 acres
- The Hague - United States and other nations send delegates Volendam artists' colony
- Windmills and dykes, locks

Transportation
- Although a land of canals, more railroads than boat lines
- Aviation far advanced
- Dog carts for short deliveries
- Barges and flat boats for freight
- Canal passenger boats

The art of Holland: Van Gogh (flowers), Rembrandt (Night Watch Syndics of the Cloth,) Vroom, Percellis and Van de Valde (the sea), Hobbema - Avenue of Trees; Ruysdael - Windmill; De Hooch

Holland in relation to our history
- Holland offered haven to refugees seeking liberty
- Our Pilgrim Fathers stopped in Holland briefly

Early settlers of New York named New York New Amsterdam (Peter Street New York Colony. Manhattan bought by Dutch for $24)

Holland, Michigan

Evidences of children's growth

Social Studies Aims
Understand effect of environmental factors upon the lives of people

Acquire effective ways of

Informal tests were given (See suggestive tests in appendix of this bulletin)

Children suggested questions they wished answered
Recognized when questions were answered and checked them off
One boy who knew all the unique facts about Holland at first,
Command of common knowledges and of skills

admitted he had known very little
Gained in ability to get important facts from library research
Learned to compare authorities
Tried to draw conclusions from pictures
Some improved in brevity of written report.
Became more interested in globe and maps
Newspaper reports on events in Holland had to be located on the map.
Check list showed general participation in class.
Gained in discrimination in evaluating reports
Children shared honors more agreeably. Sometimes the slowest child was chosen to represent group.

Social relations in group

Participation check list kept by secretary of class
Types of participation checked.
    Responded to questions
    Volunteered
    Brought articles for exhibit
    Constructed article
    Reported for assigned library group
    Made good suggestions for the unit
    Originated and kept personal check on graph during study of the unit.
The above list was checked by writing child's initials after the item. A new secretary was appointed each day.

B. "HOMES AROUND THE WORLD"

The complete unit "Homes around the World," with the exception of the appended bibliography, reads as follows:

Preview: The story of man is a story of his efforts to find food, security,
and a place of shelter for himself and those close to him. A study of shelters in different lands discloses man's ingenuity in finding materials and adapting them to meet the conditions of the physical environment in which he lives.

Introduction to the Unit: The year was approaching a close and we were discussing the important and interesting things we had learned in the social studies. There was a general consensus of opinion that the life of people in different lands was the most interesting thing we had studied. Mary Jo said, "Families aren't so different, are they, Miss D.? There are mothers, fathers, and children. The mothers and fathers try to give their children an education and other things.

"Yes, and they have sports and parks and churches in most of the countries we visited. The airplane is helping a lot," said George.

Cooperative planning: From this conversation the conclusion was reached that families needed places where they could live as families and find protection from the elements. "Probably, people had a hard time in the beginning in making homes," Mary reflected.

Two questions were before us: How did homes begin? How are homes alike and different in the countries we have visited?

The Development of the Unit

Home living of the following groups were studied:

- Caveman
- Tree Dweller
- Eskimo
- Equatorial African Tribes
- Arabs
- Chinese
- American Indian
- Pioneers
- People of today in our communities - city and rural
- People of today in our communities - city and rural

Much of this was a "looking back" study. The homes in Polar Regions, deserts, and in early and present day life had been studied earlier in the year. Pioneer and Indian homes had been studied in the previous grade. Therefore, the children took much responsibility for the assembly of their materials. To illustrate:

In the presentation of materials on homes of the Eskimo, groups were organized to describe their winter and summer homes: Regions where Eskimos live were located. Original slides of shelter were drawn; reports accompanied the showing of these slides.

An original dramatization was given in which the summer home was being built; in another scene the plans for the winter home were being discussed.

The igloo of the Eskimo was modeled.

An original poem was developed and set to music;

Little, furry, Eskimo,
Learn to build a house of snow.
Do you like your house of snow?
Your land is very, very, cold.
So all children have been told.

Little furry, Eskimo.

In the summary of life in the desert illustrations of shelter and family life in the different regions were drawn. This was presented as a movie-roll.

The final presentation was a summary of the development of
shelter from the days of the caveman to the present. The teacher
guided the class in planning this around the topic:

**Comforts in the Home Now and Long Ago**

A Child, who lived in imagination in each of the following
regions and period which had been studied, showed a sketch of his
home and described it:

- An American boy in a city in the United States
- A girl in a modern farm in the United States
- A Norwegian girl in her Norwegian home
- An Eskimo boy in his home
- An Arabian girl living in her home on the desert
- A Chinese girl in her home on the river
- A pioneer child in his log cabin
- An Indian of the forest in his tepee
- A primitive boy in his cave

**Evaluation**

**Social Studies Aims**

- An appreciation of man's adaptation in his environment; also,
  the universal desire for a home

**Evidence of Children's Growth**

A child asked, "Well, just why do we have houses?" The children
wrote this answer:

- For families to live in
- For warmth
- To keep our belongings in
- To keep off the sun's rays in summer
- For privacy (Teacher supplied this)
- For shelter
- For protection
- To sleep in
- To enjoy our families

An appreciation of people whose national, racial, or religious
heritage is different from one's own

Children explained their exhibits of the crafts of people of Switzer-
land, Norway, Greenland, Northern Africa and indicated their appreci-
ation of the cultures of the people of these regions.

**Analysis**

This type of enriched geography curriculum has considerable value
in providing children with a broad background for an appreciation and under-
standing of basic current issues. In addition, as the units suggest, the
subjects may often be introduced and illustrated by specific news events.
In cases where this is done, however, care must be taken that the events
chosen be not merely current, but that they have relevance to some basic
points that are sought to be developed in the unit. Some casual refer-
ence to the Queen and Princess of Holland, or attractive pictures of them may please the children, but they surely cannot be considered the teaching of current affairs.

There are lacking in these units a number of basic emphases without which the learning involved lacks the full significance that may be made, even with children of this age. The sections on primitive peoples omit anthropological data that are of great interest to children and of great importance in the study of primitive peoples. For a correct understanding of the problems of primitive peoples in the face of advancing Western civilization, the student requires some appreciation of the insights of cultural anthropology. It is notable that even the bibliographies for the teacher omit any anthropological references. Thus the unit "Homes Around the World," which apparently concentrates on the physical aspect of house-building, could be made vastly more significant and interesting to the child by the inclusion of information on family organization and folk mores.

The sections on countries of Western Europe, of which the unit on the Netherlands is quoted, suffer (1) from lack of emphasis upon basic economic factors and (2) from a tendency to indulge in national stereotypes. The Swiss are "hardworking, thrifty, hospitable." The Dutch are a race "steel hardened by reverses and self-confident through success." In the case of the unit on Holland, the specific formations of the characteristic sociological and economic factors are entirely ascribed to the natural geography of the country, and no account is taken

1 Ibid., p. 45
2 Ibid., p. 29
A. CITY UNIT, GRADE FOUR

The following is one of the units proposed for grades three and four:

PATTERN OF CITIES

Each city or village in the United States has some distinct features that make it different from all others. But, all cities will fit into the same pattern. One may have beautiful, modern stores, another, old fashioned ones. However, in each city, all the stores will be found in one place and its houses together in another. Just as a person will find friends that like the same things he does, so the stores and houses of a city will be found where there are others like them.

A city or village expands and different kinds of areas appear. These may be represented by a series of concentric circles. While a picture or may will tell you about a particular city, a city diagram of these concentric circles will help you understand all cities or any city.

The location of the first business, if it is successful, will largely determine the pattern of a city or in the case of Manhasset, a village. A person looking for a good business place will choose a site most easily reached by the greatest number of people. This may be at a crossroad or at a place where there is a break in transportation such as at a railroad station. A man choosing a place for his home will look for a place away from traffic. So a village or city doesn't just grow hit or miss, but rather, has certain basic principles that are operating to determine its growth in an orderly pattern.

At the very center, there will be a central business district in which all the stores will be located. The land will be very expensive because of the demand. For this reason, in large cities, there are skyscrapers which use little actual land on the ground.

Business needing more room than stores will not be able to afford the land in the center of town but will need to be nearby, so they cluster around the central business district. This is called the "Zone of Light Manufacturing" and contains warehouses, lumber mills, etc.
In a large city, there will be a slum area just beyond this zone. People do not choose to make it a slum but a growing city creates it inadvertently. The business center grows and pushes into the next zone. The owners of property on the edge of this zone know that soon the land will be sold for business and so do not bother to fix it up. The actual value of the land is high but rents are low.

In the areas beyond these first three are found 1) rooming houses, 2) apartments and single family houses, 3) larger houses with more space, 4) farms or estates.

Thus, as a city or village grows, it not merely gets more buildings and spreads out, but it starts itself out into different kinds of areas.

Like all cities, Manhasset does have a Central Business District. The Light Manufacturing Zone in a large city is replaced, in Manhasset, by those industries that are not actually stores but have services to offer or large materials to sell, such as the lumber yard, Borden's milk depot, moving and storage warehouses. There is a slum area in the valley, but it probably is not typical of the slum that develops in a large city. Boarding houses, in the true sense, are missing. The Commuter's Zone corresponds to such areas as the Strathmores, Munsey Park and the Flondomes.

In one sense, all of Manhasset could be considered within the Commuter's Zone of New York City. However, each suburban area, as it grows, takes on the pattern of the large community. Since we are studying the growth of Manhasset, we will consider it as an independent village, unrelated to New York.

B. THE UNITED STATES A WORLD POWER, GRADE SEVEN

For grade seven a proposed unit:

HOW DID THE UNITED STATES BECOME A WORLD POWER

How did the United States become an independent nation?

Beginnings of the American Way of life.

Types of homes, food and clothing
Education, religion, and recreation
Handcrafts and industries.

Colonial steps toward Union

Relations between the mother country and the colonies
Government regulations and the English colonial policy.
Reaction against Britain's colonial policy
Factors contributing to the development of the
American point of view.
Beginnings of the Revolution.
Colonial resistance.
Patriots and their contributions.

Winning independence
Second Continental Congress.
Declaration of Independence and change of war aims.
Revolutionary heroes.
Events of the Revolution.
Aid from American Patriots and foreign nations.

How did the United States win the respect of European Nations?

Putting the new government to work.
Establishing a cabinet.
Establishing a sound financial system.
Establishing law and order.
Taking a stand on European affairs.

Trouble on the sea
With the Barbary Pirates.
With France.
With England.

The Monroe Doctrine

How did the United States expand territorially?

Early Development
Claims of the thirteen original states.
The ordinance of 1787.
Boone, Robertson, and other frontiersmen.
Settling the Northwest Territory.
Use of the Erie Canal, Cumberland Road, Ohio River.
The Louisiana Purchase.
The Lewis and Clark Expedition.
The Purchase of Florida.

Spanning the Continent
Routes westward and transportation used.
Settlement of the Oregon Territory question.
Astor, Whitman, Fremont, Carson, etc.
California Gold Rush.
The Mormons in Utah.
The settlement and annexation of Texas.
The Mexican Cession.
The Gadsden Purchase.

How did the United States achieve security?

Expansion beyond our borders:
Alaska.
Hawaii.
Philippines.
Panama Canal Zone
Virgin Islands.
Other islands acquired in the Atlantic and Pacific.
Bases acquired from Great Britain.

Our heritage of natural resources:
Natural wealth of the United States
Favorable geographic location.
Great productive power of our country.
Other factors contributing to our security.
Winning our freedom of the seas.
Acquiring outlying possessions.
Building of the Panama Canal.
Erection of bases at strategic places.
Elimination of European power in South America.

What evidences of sectionalism has there been in our country's development?

Early evidences of sectionalism:
- New England Confederation.
- Albany Congress.
- "Critical Period" following the Revolution.
- Constitutional Convention.
- Feeling of sections regarding War of 1812.
- Tariff Question.
- National Banks.
- South Carolina Exposition.

The Civil War
How has the United States replaced its isolation policy by one of intervention?

Take part in affairs out of our own country.

Imperialism and Pan-Americanism)
- Perry opened Japan.
- Advocation of the "Open Door" Policy.
- Helped put down the Boxer Rebellion.
- Attended the Hague and Algeciras Conference.
- Fought with Spain.
- Intervened in Santo Domingo, Haiti, and Nicaragua.
- Went into Puerto Rico.
- Intervened in the Venezuelan disputes.
- Had trouble with Mexico.
- Helped form the Pan-American Union.
- Participated in the World War.

What part has the United States played in the movement for peace?

Immediately following the first World War:
- Wilson's Fourteen Points.
- Peace conference following the close of the war.
- The League of Nations.

Disarmament conferences:
- Washington
- Geneva
- London

World Court, Kellogg-Brian, etc.

Reparations settlement:
- Dawes Plan
- Young Plan
- Hoover Moratorium
Each of these units is but one of many proposed for the grade. For example, the titles of all units proposed for grades three and four are: "Ways of Living in Manhasset Today;" "Ways of Living in Our Community in Early Days;" "Ways of Living in Our Community in Indian Times;" and "A Guide to the Study of the Home Town." Units proposed for grade seven include: "Orientation to School;" "New York, the Empire State;" "The History of New York, A Cosmopolitan State from the Beginning;" and "Government and Welfare".

Analysis

Although it may appear from the titles of the units that these courses of study offer considerable opportunity for a consideration of current affairs, the organization and emphases of the units provide neither a good working background for an understanding of current affairs nor openings for consideration of immediate current issues and events. The emphasis in all cases is factual, and factual in a very orthodox way. Little or no attempt is made to provide an understanding of basic economic and political factors. The entire conception appears somehow to be static, even in such a unit as "How Did the United States Become a World Power," the array of events to be learned does not add up to a dynamic picture of the growth of a nation. The shifting economic relations of the United States with the rest of the world, changing the country from a colonial territory to an imperialist power, are nowhere touched upon in the development of this unit. And the unit "Pattern of Cities" must leave the child with the conception that a city is but a neat pattern of concentric circles. The real dynamic pattern of cities is lacking.
Education -- and especially progressive education -- in the city of New York presents special problems, special opportunities, and special limitations. Under the last rubric may be mentioned the difficulties of education by experience that apply to any large metropolis. It is, for example, next to impossible to take a group of New York City public school children for an informational trip to a going farm, or even to give many of them a vivid conception of what a farm is and looks like.

The mixture of racial and socio-economic groups in almost any school combined with the group antagonisms that prevail in many neighborhoods makes the teacher's job at once difficult and inspiring. On the other hand, this very factor of close intergroup living makes it possible to give to children a direct picture of the population and immigration patterns of the whole country, a possibility that often does not exist in more homogeneous communities. Further, the position of New York, as the hub of so many of the productive, financial, and transportation transactions of the nation offers a rare opportunity to the gifted and energetic teacher to provide his students with live examples of textbook generalities.

The leaders of the New York educational system have tried to make the most of the opportunities and to overcome some of the difficulties
of the location as well as of a large and sometimes unwieldy system. The practical results of their efforts cannot be evaluated without a good field study, but their intentions, as expressed in published material, are here presented.

Before presenting the proposed units themselves, attention is called to an expression of principles published first in 1942-1943 and reprinted in 1948. Among others, the following fundamental considerations in elementary school education are advised.

"Develop civic attitudes and understanding of socio-economic questions within the child's experience and comprehension.

"Develop the habit of critical consideration of problems, people, and events, and clear thinking about them.

"Reorganize the procedures of the class and the school to give each child continuous experience in the process of democratic living.

"Cultivate sympathetic and helpful relationships between parents and teachers in guiding the child's educational growth. Utilize the home and the community as significant education (sic) resources."

It is advised that the question of discipline be handled in a democratic rather than authoritarian context:

"The best controls are likely to be social rather than authoritative. However, this does not mean that the teacher will leave all decisions to the pupils or abrogate her authority. On the basis of her knowledge of her pupils the teacher should set up constructive goals and lead children to grow gradually towards those goals."

The expressed purpose of trips serves as a warning against the frequent temptations many teachers have to regard a trip as a kind of pleas-

1 Board of Education of the City of New York, CHANGING CONCEPTS AND PRACTICES IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION, Curriculum Bulletin, Number 1, 1942-1943, available on request from the Division of Elementary Schools, Board of Education of the City of New York, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn 2, New York

2 Ibid., p. 7

3 Ibid., p. 29
ure excursion:

"A trip is one of the best experiential activities. It is important for children to see things as they are, to ask questions of people who know, to acquire as many concepts as possible in real situations . . . Trips within the school or in the neighborhood and vicarious trips through motion pictures, steropticon slides, and other pictorial aids should be purposeful and carefully planned so that children have opportunities to raise questions and everyone has something to look for and something to report . . . Children should visit some places more than once and repeat vicarious trips several times until all points of inquiry have been covered." 4

The Board's conception and philosophy of research, and the teacher's function in the research of his students, is thus expressed:

"The term research connotes habits of independent study. Good habits of observation and study develop with experience. Little children are interested in raising questions, making inquiries, finding what the book says, doing puzzles, looking for some place of building on a map . . . Every time the teacher overcomes the temptation to tell and gives the class experience in finding information themselves she adds to their power to do independent research." 5

In the context of this expressed philosophy the actual proposed units for grades three and four may be considered.

Presentation

WHAT OUR GOVERNMENT DOES FOR US

Any study of government by young children should center in governmental services which come within the children's everyday experience in the neighborhood and the larger community. Parallels with school government may be brought out, but the similarity is decidedly limited.

Government should be viewed as a set of arrangements by which people can live together happily and in fairness to all, rather than as a way of enforcing rules for curbing "bad people." Eight and nine-year-olds are not ready to go more deeply than this into the philosophy of government; nor can they be expected to grasp the details of governmental structure.

On the other hand, these children extend their concept of government somewhat beyond the fire company, the policeman on the beat, and the postman. They can understand that the mails, which serve the entire country, can best be run by the over-all (federal government; while the fire department, which operates solely

4 Ibid., pp. 32, 33
5 Ibid., p. 33
within our own city, quite naturally is a province of the local government. Thus, through understanding functions rather than through discussing theory, children develop concepts of city and national government (and possibly of state government, if any state functions come within their experience). When Election Day comes around, there can be talk about the offices to be filled — whether national, state or local. Children can, as a matter of fact, become sufficiently interested to "talk up" primary and general elections at home.

Specific facts about events and personalities will serve to dramatize, or at least to make concrete, some of the ideas and relationships which this topic involves. For instance, every child should know who the President of the United States is — not only as a name but as a person identifiable by certain features and characteristic poses, elected by a certain party, remembered for some word or deed or situation. They should know something about the Mayor and about the Governor of the State.

Efforts should be made to help the child relate himself and his neighborhood to the city government. A city official who lives in the community may be willing to come to school and tell the children what the nature of his work is, or what officials deal most directly with matters affecting the neighborhood. Visits to any nearby government building or agency, even seeing a polling place from the outside may make government seem real. Children may be interested to know something about their local school board.

Every child should have experiences which will stimulate pride in his country and pride in his city. Questions as to how each of us can contribute to the greatness of the nation and of the city should be raised, and interpreted in terms not only of patriotic observances and obedience to law, but also of democratic attitudes, friendly acceptance of individuals irrespective of their race, religion, or national extraction, and participation in efforts to improve our ways of living.

Firsthand experiences and discussion of these will be the most prolific source of content for this topic. Current publications, particularly those illustrated with photographs and cartoons, will stimulate interest. At election time, campaign posters representing all major parties may be brought into the class by children. Many social studies books have information to give on certain aspects of city or national services.

Questions for study and research

How the government helps us and our families
Why people live in groups
Why people need to make certain arrangements in order to live together.
How health and safety are promoted by our government; rules for cleanliness in handling food; etc.
How transit systems are run
How traffic is controlled
Why schools are provided for us
Why cities like New York provide places of recreation for their people
How the government takes care of people who are not able to take care of themselves
How modern communities can be planned so that they give their people better conditions and a better life

Activities
Discuss the reasons why people live together in communities, and the advantages and responsibilities of living in groups.
Discuss school and class rules. Tell about the rules of a club you have belonged to.
Find out what the government does for us and for those we know best—giving an education, providing postal service, protecting health, controlling traffic, giving our and others who work Social Security, running or helping to run transportation systems, providing recreational facilities, etc.
Visit governmental agencies and talk with officials.
Invite a welfare worker, or any other kind of Civil Service worker, to visit the class, explain his work, and answer questions.
Plan ways in which people-by themselves or in community groups may cooperate better with the government; ways in which certain services of the government may be extended or improved.
Learn some of the ways in which citizens can make their needs known to the proper agencies.
Report on the services of the Weather Bureau.
Find out why the school provides us with books and supplies; who owns our school—and pays for repairing it; who pays the teachers; what the Board of Education does. Consult the principal or other school officians on these matters.
Collect pictures of schools in other parts of the country, perhaps schools which some of the children have attended.
Discuss whether other parts of our country have schools like ours, and why certain differences are found.
Ask parents and others why it is good for us to go to school; why our country wants us to go to school.

How People Live in Our Different Communities

In every class, children know something about the different groups represented in their community, and there should be a conscious effort to extend and clarify this knowledge and to develop those understandings which make for democratic human relationships. Such understandings may be clarified as children learn about the old world background of a group, its folksongs, dances, and legends, its contributions to our culture, its great men, and possibly problems that group members have met with in being accepted as Americans. Geographical facts which may be useful in explaining the customs, interests, and gifts of a group should be presented vividly and concretely, and clearly related to the living conditions of the people concerned.

Classes should visit other New York communities, particularly (for the purposes of this topic) those which have taken their characteristics from certain racial or national groups. Thus children
may meet and talk to members of groups previously known to them only by hearsay; they may get acquainted with another culture by seeing and tasting unfamiliar foods, by browsing around in stores displaying exotic art work and curios. If a community is crowded and dingy, some interpretation may have to be offered to children. Such interpretation should be on a simple level, but accurate as far as it goes. For example, the children may be helped to understand that people coming into a new country often have to live in the least desirable houses and to take the jobs paying lowest wages. Often they have trouble in using the inventions they find here and in getting used to new ways of doing things. The principal objective in explaining what lies beneath the surface is to further straight thinking - to prevent the development of any notion that certain people live in undesirable surroundings because they want to, because they don't know any better, because they are "that sort of people." The positive aspects of ways of living should, in all instances, be emphasized.

Life in the classroom, the school, and the community has more influence on children's intergroup attitudes than have facts as such. However, facts emphasizing the basic likeness of all peoples may be used to reinforce good attitudes and to correct misconceptions. The many things New Yorkers have in common, regardless of religious or cultural background, should be emphasized; the differences should be approached with interest and sympathy, not as "queer" but as perfectly reasonable in view of different background conditions.

In considering the similarities among all groups, children should draw upon their previous study of the colonial Dutch, the Indians, and any other peoples met with in books or experience. Geography and social studies texts frequently include information as to how people living in various regions clothe, feed, and house themselves, how they worship and play and express their feelings in art. Children know that various groups in our city have their own food habits, their own customs. Perhaps the brother or father of a class member, or someone else from the community who has visited places of interest while in the armed services can be called upon to give the class a sympathetic account of customs and ways of life observed in his travels. All experiences of this kind should be tied together to support the generalization that human needs everywhere are the same, although different environmental conditions bring about different ways of satisfying these needs.

It may be brought out that every new group on arriving in this country has met with a measure of misunderstanding, unkindliness, or ridicule. Thus the children may come to see that any observed hostility against immigrants, or even, perhaps, against migrants from another section of our own country, is part of a pattern. This pattern is caused less by any characteristics of the newcomers themselves than by the tendency most of us have to distrust people we do not know very well. It tends to disappear as we work and talk with the people of the incoming group, because we then find out that they are very much like ourselves.
Questions for study and research

Ways in which all people and all peoples are alike
Do differences or likenesses seem more important?
How can we learn to understand people of the many kinds found in New York, and to appreciate what they have done and are doing to make American life better?
What schools can do to keep the people of our different communities happy and friendly; what schools can do to help world friendship

Activities

Discuss the ways in which all people are alike - their basic needs, their feelings, to some extent their hopes and interests and desires
Discuss the ways in which the peoples we have studied are different from each other and from us. Notice that the similarities are in connection with basic needs; the differences, with ways of satisfying these needs because of differences in environment and tradition.

On a large outline map of New York City show where the many national groups that make up the population live. Visit as many of these groups as possible. Discuss ways of understanding other people and creating a better and more friendly life for all in our city. Tell about contributions various groups have made to the building of the city

D. INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

The opportunities offered by such a metropolis as New York for a spontaneous interest in foreign peoples and for direct intercultural education are exemplified by the following story taken from a teacher's account:

A fourth grade class decided to take a trip to Chinatown, because of their interest in a few Chinese who had businesses in the neighborhood of the school (upper Manhattan). The teacher, mindful of the health aspects of the project, suggested that they walk across town to the Third Avenue Elevated in the morning, but take a crosstown bus back to the school in the afternoon as they would then be tired. They located on a city map the places to which they were going. During the tour of Mott, Pell, and Doyer Streets, the children took great interest in a Chinese theatre, the unfamiliar vegetables displayed in the store windows, the Chinese characters they saw written everywhere, and the lamps, dishes, porcelain figures, and jade curios they saw in the shops. They bought chopsticks and a Chinese newspaper for a classroom display. They enjoyed eating litchi nuts and rice cakes and were excited when they found in the rice cakes slips of paper with wise sayings printed on them. About noon they walked to a nearby public school which had many Chinese pupils. Several children of the school acted as hosts and hostesses, and surprised their guests (who had brought their own lunches) by serving sandwiches and milk. The visitors then went on a tour of the building, and in some classrooms sat with the children and took part in discussions going on. They noticed the kindness and politeness of the children they met, their
friendly relationships among themselves and with the teachers. In the following days they discussed the high points of their trip, and wrote a class poem about it.

The interest in this trip was so keen that the class followed it up with a study of China. They brought up and listed on the board such questions as: How do we get from China to New York? How do the Chinese travel? What foods do they eat? What are their schools like? Has China a president? Are queues still worn? What games do children play in China? What holidays do the Chinese celebrate? An interesting unit developed about these and other questions, in which the children studied, among various aspects of the topic, China's contributions to civilization (the compass, paper, explosives, silk, tea, coffee), life in a Chinese village, life in a modern city of China, Chinese proverbs, the silk industry, Chinese dress yesterday and today. Their study culminated in an assembly program featuring an original play about China. Thus the trip to Chinatown, because it was a vivid experience, proved an "entering wedge" to a related set of important learnings.

Analysis

The interest of New York City educators in intercultural problems is evidenced by the material above presented. This is indeed a serious problem among the population and particularly the public school population of New York City. There is some question, however, whether their mode of dealing with the problems of intercultural rivalries is as frank and effective as it could be. A group of investigators conducting a research on race perceptions and attitudes of children, in five public schools of Philadelphia came to the following conclusions regarding pedagogic techniques for reducing intercultural rivalries:

"... Teaching general democratic principles on the 'Golden Rule' is inadequate unless the teaching is specific in its applications ... . The specific training needed is the kind which faces cultural diversities in the form and in the situations in which the child experiences them (as the child differs from his playmates, as he observes ritual, customs, characteristics for which he knows no explanation) and which provides him with information and attitudes and social techniques to meet those situations."

6 Marian Radke, Helen Trager, and Hadassah Davis, SOCIAL PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES OF CHILDREN, to be published in the Genetic Psychology Monograph series as #40, (quotation from a manuscript copy, p. 183)
This doctrine might argue that in addition to being faced with cultural diversities that exist about them, children should also be confronted with the group rivalries in which they themselves, their parents, and their neighbors participate. Only by such schoolroom candor can the children's participation in such prejudices be overcome.

The unit "What Our Government Does For Us" could be enlarged by simple study, appropriate to children of this age level, of comparative government. The "pride in his country and pride in his city" that the unit seeks to stimulate would have deeper meaning if it followed some recognition of the elements of democratic government, a recognition that can come only by comparison of democrati with other types of government. A serious study of government, even among young children, also requires a recognition of the difficulties of the actual, as opposed to the ideal, democratic government -- difficulties that children would surely have heard discussed by their elders and that must therefore be discussed in school, lest school be regarded as a naive or hypocritical institution.
PRESENTATION

The Social Studies work proposed for eleven year olds, grade six, centers on the theme "Living and Learning with Our American Neighbors." The concepts that are proposed to be advanced by this course are:

Desirable Concepts

Our neighbors, although different from us in many ways, are very much like us in the ways that really count.

People of all countries are our neighbors today.

Race, nationality, and cultures of others should not present barriers to neighborliness.

Our neighbors are intricately interwoven with our economy, culture, and security.

Human beings of all races and cultures have the same basic needs and desires.

Oceans, mountains, deserts, and other geographical differences no longer constitute insurmountable barriers between peoples as in the past.

A knowledge of our neighbors and their customs will aid us in understanding them and interpreting their actions.

Trade and communication between nations help to promote friendly international relations.

Peoples in a democracy need to be continually alert to those forces which would weaken and destroy it.

Minority group critics of our governmental policies within a democracy may render service by causing the nation to constantly evaluate its course.

Every citizen of the United States should work diligently to preserve and advance the cause and concept of democracy in America.

Many opportunities are available within a democracy and every citizen should prepare for and seek to perform valuable service to
his community and nation.

Work is important to the success of our democracy. Any kind of work which helps people live with more comfort and happiness is honorable work.

Moral development and spiritual insight constitute the highest good to be attained by human beings.

The course is divided into the following units:

Unit I. Good Neighbors of Pan-America - An overview.
Unit II. Visiting Our Northern Neighbors - Alaska and Canada.
Unit III. Our Nearby Southern Neighbors - Mexico and Central America.
Unit IV. A Swift Look at South America - An overview.
Unit V. Close-ups of the South American Countries.
Unit VI. Living on an Island can be Fun

The aims and suggested activities of Unit I read as follows:

Good Neighbors of Pan-America - An Overview

This unit is designed to give an over-all picture of the areas to be studied for the entire year. It should be done rather briefly, leaving details for further units.

Suggested Activities

Geography

Each chapter in "Our American Neighbors" is followed by valuable suggestions for activities, which should not be overlooked. Many of the problems outlined following this unit will help in orientation.

With flat maps and globes make a careful survey of the area to be studied in this unit, noting its relative position in the world and learning the extent and location of the various parts of Pan-America.

Leave large maps and a globe in view of children at all times as the units develop. Refer to them often. Have many place-geography games as soon as sufficient background is established. Make it fun, each one short and snappy.

Group Project

Study the Pan-American Building in Washington. One group might report on how it became to be, one on its architecture, one on the meetings held there, one on its furnishings, one group might make a little play about holding a meeting in the building.
Hobby and Geography

Start a Pan-American stamp collection.

Geography and Discussion Techniques

Promote a debate as to whether the United States sells more products to the rest of the Americas than it receives from them. Each child could represent a product and present its claim.

Unit five considers each of the South American countries individually. In its first section, besides bibliographical material, it contains the following paragraph:

Three Countries of the North - Venezuela, Columbia, Equador.

These countries have some of South America's most wonderful heroes and interesting events in their stories, past and present. One of our songs is "Columbia, the Gem of the Ocean". One of the three northern countries of South America has been called, "Columbia, the Gem of Two Oceans." Have children find why. Another one has almost the same name as the equator. Learn why. The third one claims South America's greatest hero as its very own. Learn why this is so.

Analysis

These units contain much that is trivial, little that is essential. Such basic questions as the following are not at all considered:

What racial and national strains are dominant in South America, and how do race relations differ in South and North America?

What have been and are the political and economic relations of the United States with the countries and areas studied?

How have the countries of South America become more industrialized in the last two decades?

How have they developed from colonial to semi-independent areas?
Songs, costumes, national customs are among the details that are valuable to children in "getting the feel" of a foreign country, but more is required for an understanding of the historic and contemporary place of that country in the world and in its hemisphere.

Among the trivial the suggested activity "Promote a debate as to whether the United States sells more products to the rest of the Americas than it receives from them" constitutes the most serious mistake. A debate concerns a matter of policy or opinion; but a fact is a fact. The way to determine the balance of trade between two areas is not by debate but by research, and eleven year old children should be able to distinguish the techniques and use them appropriately — to say nothing of those who write the courses of study for their teachers.

VIII

BREMERTON, WASHINGTON, GRADES ONE TO SIX

Bremerton Public Schools, SOCIAL STUDIES COURSE OF STUDY, GRADES ONE TO SIX, N. D.

Presentation

The social studies course of the Bremerton, Washington, elementary schools illustrates a systematic attempt to exploit and explore the widening horizons of the child's world. Thus the problem areas and specific units for each grade are as follows:

Grade One:

Problem Area: "Living in the home and immediate community".

Units: "Living in the family group and the responsibilities of its members"
"Living in the school group and sharing its responsibilities"

"Building understandings about the groceryman"

"Understanding the service rendered by the fireman"

Grade Two:

Problem Area: "Living in the immediate community and environment"

Units: "Understanding the services rendered by the Post Office"

"Understanding the contributions made by the Dairy to our daily needs"

"Understanding the service rendered by the Policeman"

"Understanding the service rendered by the Public Library"

"Understanding the services rendered by the Transit System"

"Enjoying the Zoo"

Grade Three:

Problem Area: "Living in the immediate and larger community"

Units: "How people in our community live and work together"

E. g.:

"The services rendered to us by the bakers"

"How we communicate with others"

"How does our newspaper serve the community"

"How does the Navy Yard serve us and other people"

"How the early pioneers have contributed to our present way of living"

"How the local Indians lived"

Grade Four:

Problem Area: "Problems of Living in the Larger Community and World Communities"

Units: "Our Community and World Communities"

"Early History and Settlement of the State of Washington"

"Washington today - its industries and resources"
Grade Five:

Problem Area: "Problems related to the growth of our nation and our immediate neighbors"

Units: "Understanding and contribution of the Pacific Northwest to our Nation"
"Understanding the part that communication, transportation, and trade has played in the development of our country"
"An understanding of the needs that prompted the Europeans to discover and colonize a new world which grew into a democratic nation"
"Understanding how the distribution and conservation of the natural and human resources of our country have determined extent to which the people's basic wants can be supplied".
"Appreciating the interdependence upon our possessions and their dependence upon us."
"Developing an appreciation of the interdependence of the countries of Western Hemisphere".

Grade Six:

Problem Area: "Problems related to our nation and the nations which have close economic and social ties"

Units: "Understanding the relationship of transportation to the development of our nation and other nations of the world"
"Understanding how the methods of communication affect social, economic and political changes in different parts of the world"
"Developing understanding and appreciation of the interdependence of different countries"
"Understanding the changes brought about by discoveries, inventions and scientific developments since 1900"
"Understanding how religion, customs and ideas have tempered the behavior of our nation"
"Developing appreciation for old world culture and background as it affects our own growth and development" 1

1 Not reprinted here for reasons of space
Analysis

The program here offered provides opportunities for guiding the child's enlarging interest in the major phases of modern life. By the recurrence at various age levels of many subjects, (e.g., transportation, communication, religion, distribution of resources), each time in a larger context, the stop-and-go jerkiness of many courses of study is avoided and a continuous and widening development made possible. The individual units as they are developed are general enough to allow the individual teacher to make of them what she will. What is provided is a framework on which to hang a contemporary and historical study of the significant problems of our time. This course requires and allows a great deal of ingenuity and imaginativeness on the part of the teacher in working with the class, and the amount of attention given to current affairs and their background will depend upon the teacher's ability and interest.

In the units proposed for grade six, for example, the following current questions might be considered:

Transportation in peacetime and wartime: how modern methods of transportation have increased the peacetime interdependence of nations and how they have enlarged the area and intensity of modern war.

Religion and customs: how the ingrained mores of primitive peoples, European peasants, and Oriental peoples have made them resist the advances of industrial Western civilization, and the difficulties and conflicts created by this resistance.

Discoveries, inventions and scientific developments: what great problems and conflicts in ways of producing and living have been created by the advances of the new technology?
Conclusions to a number of problems stated were drawn and recorded in the introduction to Chapter V, there serving as guiding principles for the analyses of public school curricula in terms of their current affairs content and possibilities. The reader is referred again to this section as a necessary introduction to the present chapter.

Conclusions to remaining major and subsidiary problems are drawn here.

I. Current Affairs Teaching at Various Age Levels

The general content and aim of current affairs teaching remains the same throughout elementary school, reaching out to wider areas and deeper levels from year to year. In general it may be said, however, that the consideration of specific news events, such as might be featured in newspapers or school weeklies does not occur until the latter years of elementary school.

Study of the basic relationships of problems of contemporary life is the major aim alike of progressive education and of serious current affairs teaching. As a child grows older his capacity increases to recognize the involvement in his own life of the far-away and long-ago. During his first school years his interest is occupied with the immediate and the present. Thus typical units for kindergarten through second or third grade are concerned with the home, the school, the immediate community, and - in accord with
the child's fascination therewith — with things that move and things that grow.

The comprehension within the category "current affairs teaching" of such units as "Home Building;" "The Groceryman;" "Airplanes and Airports;" "Farm Life;" and "Nature Around Us", is admissible only under two conditions. (1) "Current affairs teaching must be understood as broadly defined and oriented." (2) The teaching of the units must involve the child's interest and curiosity in the various social, economic, and scientific relationships that pertain to the subject.

The techniques of current affairs teaching under activity programs for these age levels are described above, mainly in Chapters IV and V. The interaction of direct observation in the field with concentrated free dramatic play in the school room is the most widely used technique. Free dramatic play usually includes block-building and construction work, and these activities often occur in the context of some kind of group project. In addition, individual creative expression, in the forms of plastic arts, story-telling, and rhythms, are encouraged as part of the learning process. There is a gradually increasing tendency, during these years, to employ secondary sources

1 Cf. definition given above, Chapter V, Section I
2 For an explanation of how this may be done, the reader is referred to the analyses of units, Chapter V, Section II
of information, such as printed matter and projection of still and moving pictures. Since, however, the major concern of children of this age is still with the very immediate, the emphasis of the more progressive schools is upon direct rather than second-hand acquisition of information.  

During the middle years of elementary school, roughly the third through the fifth or sixth, the imaginative capacities of the child are employed in a study of the far-away and long-ago. Primitive peoples, often the American Indian or sometimes South Sea Islanders, and the origins of contemporary American life on this Continent and in Europe form the basis of typical units for the middle groups. These children are ready and eager to roam the entire globe and all of recorded time in their curiosity about the old and the new. Units based on the problem-solving technique usually combine geography, history, comparative culture, and geology or natural history in the study of a given area.

Again the emphasis must be made that these units can be considered current affairs teaching only if they provide a background rich in understanding of interrelated trends and phenomena as well as of factual material. Because children of this age are beginning to read and to be interested in current periodicals, there is often some attempt made to introduce apparently relevant news items into their units of work. If this is done prematurely or if the fundamental relationships of the selected news item to the basic problems to be solved are not
indicated, there cannot be said to be a real teaching of current affairs, but merely a recognition that such and such an item appeared yesterday in the daily paper. Even without the direct introduction of specific news items, however, such units can be considered current affairs, providing the children are led to observe the relationships of the historical or geographic matter studied to contemporary problems of life.

The techniques of learning employed in these groups differ from those of the earlier years not in kind but only in the degree of sophistication and organization. The free dramatic play of the seven-year old becomes the planned dramatic production of the ten-year old. Because the nature of the subject matter precludes learning by watching, and because the children are beginning to acquire the skill to get their facts from books, research is less "go out in the street and see" and more "go to the library and search". The purely verbal learning, however, may be supplemented by manual and other creative activities. The group that cannot go watch an Indian weave a rug may go to the looms and weave one themselves.

In many schools the last year of elementary school, sixth or eighth year as the case may be, is given over to a comprehensive study of the problems of contemporary America. The emphasis may vary thus: "America in the World Today;" "The Growth of the United States as a World Power;" "The Influence of Technological Changes on Ways of Living in the United States." Where, as in the cases of inclusion of seventh and eighth grades in the elementary school, two years are given
to the specific study of contemporary problems the first year is often devoted to a study of domestic problems and the second to a study of international problems.

The current affairs value of such studies is as great as the skill and understanding of the teacher and the background and training of the children. By this time the children can have acquired enough skill in serious research and in ways of thinking about problems and enough factual background about the world of the past and of the present to be able to consider contemporary problems in their broadest context. By this time they may be ready to consider the news of the day as evidences of and clues to the major problems of the day. In cases where children have an adequate preparation, it may be justifiable to study current affairs as a separate subject; for then the children can easily make their own connections. In cases where the children have not been trained in scientific thinking and have an inadequate background of historical material, the separate teaching of current affairs may only deteriorate into a recitation of the major news events of the day.

The pedagogic technique of direct observation is often restored at this point. In their investigations of the contemporary scene, the children may make research trips to industrial plants, farms, harbors, mines, settlement houses, labor union offices, political headquarters, any of the thousand and one places from which radiate the currents of contemporary social life. Their researches, individual or group, are more organized and more actual paper work results. The six-year old who visits the docks returns to his blocks to work out his problems; the eleven or twelve year old returns to the library
and finally commits his problems or conclusions to paper. Besides formal written and oral reports, individual and group creative activity, now devised with a feeling for organization and polish, continues to be a basic technique of learning and self-expression. The group play is a favorite culminating activity of the year among older elementary school children.

II

THE BEST WAY OF TEACHING CURRENT AFFAIRS

Among the problems posed in the Preface is: "Is there one best way to teach current affairs?" The question has answered itself in the course of this investigation. There are as many ways of teaching current affairs as there are teachers, and there are as many effective ways of teaching current affairs as there are effective teachers. Within the limits set by the capacities and interests of the child and by the aims of current affairs teaching, there are many ways, and many effective ways, of teaching current affairs. Trips, lectures, conferences, interviews, group projects, individual projects, dramatic play, visual and auditory aids, even shop work and music and poetry-writing can be effective ways of learning current affairs, providing the aims of current affairs teaching are continuously considered. Some ways in which current affairs have been or may be effectively taught are considered in Chapters IV and V.

4 Cf. Appendix B for examples of creative activities as expressions of current affairs learning.
5 Cf. Preface Section III
The teaching of current affairs as a separate subject can usually not begin until the fifth or preferably the sixth year. Prior to this, therefore, current affairs must be taught by the regular teacher as part of the unit in the special sciences. There is, of course, always the possibility that an occasional lecture by a specialist may be used to supplement the regular work of the unit in the social sciences. A recently returned traveller from China or from Berlin or a visiting Congressman or Mayor may add interest and supply colorful or esoteric details to a relevant unit. The orientation of the unit in terms of current affairs must, however, be primarily the responsibility of the teacher who guides the work and thought of his class.

The required capacities of the teacher of an activist or problem-solving course must not be underestimated. Effective teaching of current affairs requires effective and informed teachers. John Dewey's injunction to teachers to devote some energies to a consideration of great public issues must be here recalled. For even in the upper grades of elementary school where the consultative services of specialists and public figures are often called upon, there can be no adequate substitute for the classroom teacher who is in-

6 Cf. Chapter I
formed and intelligently aware of the aims and requirements of current affairs teaching.

IV

THE PARTISAN TEACHER

Does the effective teaching of current affairs require an ultimate neutrality or an ultimate partisanship on the teacher's part toward the controversial issues?

The effective teaching of current affairs, as has been demonstrated above 7 requires a delicate combination of scientific research and the search for a code of social values. In this search the teacher must have some sense of the goals to be reached. He cannot be immoral himself and guide his students in the learning of morality.

It is expected that a teacher of children in a democracy will be democratic in his ethical commitments. Thus in this one major respect he is no longer and cannot be expected to be neutral. The question of neutrality in the more specific issues of social and political life is more difficult to answer. The requirements of progressive education demand that the teacher be more than a mere academician and pedagogue, that he be an informed and active citizen. This requirement itself precludes neutrality on the major issues of the day, for the informed and active citizen is invested with a code of social values in terms of which - and on the basis of careful research - he must form opinions on major issues.

There remains the question of introducing or withholding his op-

7 Cf. Chapters II and IV, Section IV
inions in the class room. This investigator cannot resolve this question on the basis of the material reviewed. The gradations of opinion in the matter fall into three general categories:

1. The teacher should on all occasions refrain from expressing an opinion in the class room on specific current issues.

2. The teacher may express his opinion, but only as one opinion among many, taking especial care not to express his own opinion until he has stated and given the support for all other major lines of thinking on the subject.

3. The teacher's major function is to support a given line of political reasoning in the classroom and to try to imbue his students with a belief in that line. This radical position has been taken on the one hand by rigid supporters of the status quo and on the other by impatient protestants against the status quo.

RELEVANCE OF NEWS

Does the learning of current affairs require of the pupil complete grasp of all major news events at any given moment?

There has been some attempts, particularly during the period of the 1920's, to evaluate the teaching of current affairs in terms of the amount of factual news information acquired by the students. It must be observed from the aims of current affairs teaching listed above and from the objectives of progressive education in general that the ability to repeat a list of the major events of the day is not all

8 Cf. Chapter V, Section I
9 Cf. Chapter I
the purpose of current affairs teaching, nor a basis for evaluating the effectiveness of its teaching.

It is true that the expressed aims of current affairs teaching cannot be reached without the acquisition of factual matter, and that by the time a child is twelve or thirteen he can be expected to have some spontaneous interest in the news events of the day and some facility for using a store of factual material concerning major news events. For the younger child, however, the emphasis must always be on those specific news events that happen to have relevance to the problem with which he is concerned. And even for the older child, the requirement to master a certain amount of factual material must not be allowed to obscure the major aims of current affairs study.
Current thinking on current affairs teaching and its important significance in the schools of today.

Source: Delbert Clark, CURRENT AFFAIRS AND MODERN EDUCATION, N. Y. Times - 1950
INTRODUCTION

"We planned to visit as many classrooms as we possibly could during the year of our study. We looked forward to talking to anyone and everyone, inside and outside of school systems, who was interested in improvement in the teaching of current affairs. But before a single trip was made we found that we needed to have in our own minds the answers to a number of very pertinent questions.

1. What do we mean by the teaching of current affairs?
2. What purposes should be accomplished by the teaching of current affairs?
3. Where should we visit to learn about the best techniques for teaching current affairs?

We discussed these problems thoroughly with the members of our advisory committee and among ourselves. We were in complete agreement that our conception of current affairs could not be restricted by such confining boundaries as illustrated by a headline in the morning paper, a news-clipping, a bulletin on the radio, or a recent magazine article. These, of course, may be sources of information for current affairs, current events, current history, contemporary problems—or whatever synonymous expression one prefers to use.

Our concept of current affairs, however, had more depth and breadth. The news of the election of President Truman, was, in November 1948, a "current event", but any teacher, having a clear understanding of the purposes of teaching current affairs, might find herself at that time exploring with the class many closely or broadly related problems: the constitutional provisions for the election of a president; the history of the party system in the United States; the sources of public opinion; the ways of democracy. Any of these aspects at that time were essentially part of current affairs.

In the spring of 1948 an important document was released under the formidable title: "The Teaching of Current Affairs, a Report Prepared by a Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies for the National Education Association at the Request of the World Organization of the Teaching Profession for Consideration at Its Meeting In July 1, 1948". In the interest of conversation this statement hereinafter will be referred to as the WOTP Report.

The distinguished educators who prepared the bulletin offered a list of "basic purposes and underlying principles in the teaching of current affairs". These, they said, were "representative of points of view widely accepted among the teaching profession in the United States." And these representative opinions were strong in support of the basic idea that current affairs
cannot be taught in isolation. The teaching of current affairs, according to the WOTP Report, is not intended to take the place of history, social studies, or other school courses.

"Rather", they said, "it is a point of view with respect to the way these courses should be taught. Important domestic and international issues have their roots deep in the past, and cannot be understood or dealt with effectively by anyone who is mindful only of their contemporary ramifications. Courses in social studies, therefore, should be taught so as to illuminate the problems which citizens inevitably must face and so as to provide them with techniques for thinking effectively. Social studies teaching which fails to help students deal effectively with problems of their day, or errs in the opposite direction, by neglecting the backgrounds of contemporary problems, is equally futile."

"The basic purposes or goals, as stated by the WOTP Report, were in harmony with this point of view. In order that we may present a clear idea of the standards we used in judging the quality of current affairs teaching in the schools we visited, we take the liberty of translating the succinctly-stated goals outlined by the committee into the following series of episodes. Phrases outlining these goals, which have been taken directly from the report, are emphasized by italics.

1. The nature of one world and one nation indivisible requires that pupils 'develop a concern for the immediate and long range welfare of people in our own nation and in other countries.'

   When Miss Friedman's class discusses a filmstrip on the Marshall Plan the pupils have an opportunity to develop an 'awareness of the interdependence of people and nations in the present day world'. Alberta, whose father was an active member of the local America First Committee before Pearl Harbor, argues that 'we should keep our money at home where it will do more good'. An examination by the class of this argument helps pupils toward an 'understanding of underlying factors and forces which motivate the actions of people and tends to develop a sensitivity to the point of view of other persons.'

   When Olga, the little Polish-American girl, tells why her aunt fled from the "Red Terror" in Poland, her classmates are led to 'identify democratic values and to develop an awareness of the relationship between significant current affairs and the individual's own welfare'.

2. One of these days Walter is going to graduate and go to work in the local washing-machine manufacturing plant. Chester is in the fourth grade of high school but is over age; he plans to leave to take the job he has been offered in the town bottling plant. If Chester and Walter have learned to read, they are likely
to use a newspaper with some regularity. The radio will bring into their homes news programs and occasional special bulletins which they can not help but hear. The chances are they will probably be aware each summer of the name of the team that is leading the National League.

But Chester and Walter, Alberta and Olga, will be the people of our country; their votes will carry some weight just as those of the professors of political science at the State university. Their teachers, therefore, are not doing a good job unless they provide school and out-of-school activities 'to help pupils acquire and integrate information from many sources needed for an understanding of contemporary problems. Newspapers are one of many sources'; books, pamphlets, magazines, radio and television programs, motion pictures, direct experience and conversation are others.

The world goals of communism and the policies of the men in the Kremlin can not be understood by limiting one's reading to the daily headlines about Russia.

Our young friends must learn that 'most current problems can be understood only if there is a knowledge of background factors'. Their teachers and school administrators must be sure to include in all courses of study background information and data which will help in an understanding of the present.' Significant world problems (How wise is our policy in China? Can the UN prevent an atomic war in our generation?) cannot be understood at all, unless teachers seek 'to develop in our pupils a realization of the role of cause-and-effect relationships'. Much of what will happen tomorrow will happen because today has been added to yesterday. History and the news are both continuous processes.

The WOTP Report made very clear that good current affairs teaching did not mean merely "keeping up with the news" or "catching up with the news" or "knowing what's going on in the world today."

3. An active, socially conscious, mentally alert, currently informed citizen is made, not born. He is the product of his education. If he is a clear and objective thinker, it is only because his education has developed to a high degree 'the skills' he needs and uses: 'reading, listening, observing, discussing, obtaining, evaluating and organizing information'. Only through knowing the facts can he reach valid conclusions.

The schools and teachers of current affairs have an important goal and task: 'to develop competence in those skills'.'

Martin looks over the headlines in the morning paper before going to his history class. "Thirty-eight killed in Air Crash"; "Foreign Ministers Seek Solution to German Question", "Investigation Demanded of Nation's Atomic Energy Program", "Brother-in-Law Sought in Ax Murder", "Shriners Parade Today". Will Martin's
teacher just go over and a bit beyond the headlines, or will he help Martin and his classmates 'to develop the ability to identify important issues and problems in the confusing mass of events reported in the daily news?'

The two local papers have stories about the proposed investigation of our atomic energy program. A careful reader will notice that both stories show disagreement about the facts; conflicting statements appear in the reports. Will the teacher take this opportunity to 'help his pupils develop proficiency in appraising sources of information'? Will he encourage Raymond to look up the New York Times report on the story, and ask Mabel to use The New York Herald Tribune? Will he make use of a wide variety of sources of information: A Public Affairs Pamphlet or a Headline Book on the topic of atomic energy; the March of Time film on the same subject; news-items and editorials in newspapers holding divergent views; magazine articles in Time, Newsweek, the Saturday Evening Post or Harpers; radio commentators and forum programs; books on the subject?

In the words of the WOTP Report, will he seek to 'develop proficiency in locating organizing and evaluating information' on important contemporary problems? Are his students developing the habit of acquiring more information as a basis for revising their opinions in the light of new evidence? Are they acquiring an understanding 'of the processes involved in dealing with controversial issues and in reaching valid conclusions about them'?

Mary Jane and Roy will not stop talking about current affairs when they leave the classroom. They will cherish and preserve the blessings of our institutions of free speech and assembly, and the talk will go on and on over lunch and dinner tables, or the back fence, in the labor union, the service club meeting, the ladies' auxiliary, and the community forum. The value and quality of such talk will be determined to some degree by the energy and the skill their teachers have used as they sought 'to develop a facility in the democratic discussion of issues, to develop interests and habits in the study of current affairs that will continue after pupils leave school; and to develop the ability to think critically about current issues.'

4. Where is the teacher who has not told her pupils sometime or other, something like "actions speak louder than words"? Real teaching of current affairs does not stop with admonishment to do something; it provides numerous opportunities for pupils to participate actively in school and community life. It organizes activities 'to stimulate action in face-to-face relationships in such groups as the home, the church, and other community agencies, by dealing with current problems which affect the interests of these groups and the welfare of the members of the group.
The major objective of our study was to discover and report the best techniques we could find for teaching contemporary affairs. An important standard of measurement of good teaching was found in the question: How adequately and how well were teachers accomplishing major goals of teaching such as those summarized by the WOTP Report as follows: . . . 'In our schools teachers are seeking to develop basic attitudes and skills; to impart background information and a basis for understandings; to motivate pupils to work toward the solution of important current problems, and to develop in pupils an interest in current affairs that will continue to result in intelligent and informed action on their part after they leave school'.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

With very few exceptions teachers and administrators throughout the United States who talked to us believe firmly that current affairs should be taught in our schools. Everywhere we visited, some effort was being made to give to pupils of all ages an awareness of what is going on in today's world, and to acquaint them with the forces and problems that are giving direction to their own lives for the future. The school or school system which provides no place in the curriculum for instruction in current affairs may exist, but we did not see it.

We did find, however, in many schools and classrooms an apparent confusion about the purposes and place of current affairs in the school program and the course of study or curriculum. The generally approved goals of current affairs teaching (Introduction) can be reached by merely assigning an arbitrary time allotment of forty minutes a week to such instruction or even by achieving success in the narrow purpose of drilling pupils in factual information about current happenings from newspaper clippings or weekly classroom news periodicals.

With the support and encouragement of their administrators and supervisors, teachers must formulate sound principles of teaching with which grow out a clear understanding of the basic purposes and goals of instruction on contemporary affairs such as those stated in the WOTP Report. Armed with this point of view, teachers will then plan instruction so that current affairs will be taught as an integral part of the entire curriculum or integrated into courses in social studies, English, science, and other subjects.

The complaints of teachers that "our classes have no time for current affairs", have convinced us that courses of study should not be overloaded with detail in subject matter material. Increasing freedom is wisely being given to teachers to revise and adapt courses of study. This should result in the production of manuals and bulletins prepared by experienced teachers who can offer numerous practical suggestions for the integration of current affairs with the content of courses and for achieving such objectives as an improvement in the skills necessary for a continued study of current affairs in adult life, the development of wholesome attitudes and an eagerness to promote and perpetuate democratic ideals.

1 Ibid., V - X Introduction
Teacher experimentation in curriculum reorganization should also be encouraged. The present trend in many places toward a more flexible curriculum with its emphasis on major objectives, broad outlines and purposeful activities is an aid to the teaching of current affairs. It permits greater emphasis to be placed on the real goals of instruction rather than on purposeless learning of numerous facts. Similarly, current affairs are taught more effectively when the organization of courses of study permits desirable integration of the present and the past.

The selection and treatment of topics for study should not be dictated by the size of the headlines in the day's newspaper or the choice of the edition of a school news weekly, but should be determined by the objectives in the curriculum for pupils of each grade level. A second determining factor should be the relation of the topic to the course of study. However, current issues of great significance should also be studied whether or not they are closely related to the subject matter of the course, if they are appropriate to the maturity of the pupils.

Any effort to improve instruction in current affairs must aim directly at the heart of the matter—the classroom teacher. The conditions under which he works, the kind of educational leadership he receives, the current materials which are provided, his pre-service and in-service education—all these contribute to his zeal in planning instruction and his ability to do a day-to-day job which achieves really worthwhile goals.

The instances in which he is hampered in his teaching of current affairs by community pressures, though relatively few, are none the less too many. When there is community interference against the best judgment of professional educators with respect to the nature of courses in social studies or the teaching of controversial issues the results are serious. Current affairs then are taught to a lesser degree, and teachers tend to deal only with "safe" subjects. Pupils do not get or use varied sources of information and are discouraged from participating in community affairs. The pressure to avoid teaching current controversial issues leads teachers to emphasize the past and to neglect the study of the problem aspects of history and the significance of current happenings. Unjust accusations directed at teachers for "un-American activities" often tend to create fear and insecurity among the teaching staff.

In communities where there is courageous and intelligent educational leadership the teacher is made aware of his professional responsibilities. But he is also supported by an unequivocal public policy which helps him to carry out his obligations both to his pupils and to his high calling. Here the school and the community cooperate in formulating this policy; parents and the public are invited to study and participate in the school program. The desirability and necessity of dealing with the controversial issues in the classroom is proclaimed, and an official statement of policy is circulated for the guidance of the entire school staff. School officials are attentive to advice from the public, but they insist upon community recognition of their responsibility as professional educators to determine the nature of the school program. They convince the public of the necessity of teaching controversial issues and inspire public confidence in the ability of teachers to deal fairly with controversial issues.
Given such confidence, educational leadership both within and outside the school system can do much to improve the teaching of current affairs. Since the school is only one of many agencies in the community engaged in presenting current information and molding public opinion, it is essential that the schools closely articulate their activities with other sources in the community for mass education - the daily newspaper; current affairs publications; forum groups, radio stations; civic, business, professional and labor organizations; government agencies.

Some newspapers attract student readers with special school sections or reduced-rate subscriptions. Several large city papers supply useful teaching materials such as film strips to the schools at moderate cost. Excellent radio forums, annual student conferences, and essay contests are sponsored by newspapers.

The number of FM radio stations operated by school systems and presenting current affairs programs is continually increasing. Commercial stations are also cooperating extensively with school districts which do not have their own radio outlets. Their broadcasting of such popular programs as Junior Town Meetings and Youth Forums has done much to encourage community support for current events instruction and for intelligent and fair presentation of controversial issues in the schools.

A large measure of responsibility for improvement in current affairs teaching is placed upon those agencies and individuals who are engaged in the education of the teachers.

In colleges and universities where teachers train for their profession two types of courses have been notable contributions - those which focus the attention of present and prospective educators on the contemporary scene and courses in teaching methods which emphasize new group techniques and democratic procedures in the classroom. Much is also being done to acquaint teachers with the use of current materials in the form of newspapers, magazines, and audio-visual aids.

Nevertheless, across the land there is a neglect of the basic purposes of current affairs teaching indicating a real need for pre-service and in-service education which points up clearly why current affairs should be taught at all. Since intensively keeping up with the world so that pupils can make high scores on current events quizzes is by no means the main objective, teacher education must be directed toward training teachers in the most effective procedures to reach each of the specific goals which have been listed and elaborated in the preceding chapters.

This means that adequate opportunity should be given to teachers on the job and in teacher training institutions to experiment with and practice new techniques and to develop evaluation methods which will enable them to appraise the degree of success they are achieving in reaching really significant objectives.

Citizens in a democracy must learn about controversial questions. They need to know how to define and clarify an issue, how to collect and appraise evidence and arguments, how to discuss the problem with their fellow citizens, and how to reach an intelligent solution. Consequently, teachers need training as discussion leaders. This should begin in the teachers college or university and should continue during
the teachers' professional career in well-organized and expertly guided workshops. These workshops should combine lectures and demonstrations by skillful teachers with staff conferences for the exchange of ideas and experiences. Adequate time should be given in the school program so that such widespread problems as the following may be thoroughly explored: How can current affairs be made an integral part of the learning experience in various subject fields? How should topics for study be selected? How should current affairs instruction be organized for pupils of below average and poor scholastic ability? What standard of professional ethics should be demanded of the teacher and the pupil in current affairs instruction? What techniques in the teaching of current affairs will lead most surely to wholesome civic attitudes and activities in adult life?

Such training of teachers requires foresighted and competent leadership by school supervisors and administrators who will seek to enlist the enthusiasm and talents of their teachers in a crusade for better current affairs instruction. Teachers will have to be emancipated from restrictive supervision: the strait jacket minutely-detailed course of study, the prescribed method, the weekly current events period — whether these exist in fact or remain a teacher's illusion. Teachers must work in an atmosphere of freedom to create, to experiment, to exchange ideas, to plan with one another and their pupils.

Supervisors and administrators must give teachers material with which to work: courses of study which inspire and motivate rather than restrict and dictate; teaching guides and manuals which offer practical teaching suggestions and pupil activities. School staffs should be encouraged to use the utmost the full resources of both the school and the community. This can be done only if teachers are (1) made aware of the great variety of resources and materials which are available to them; (2) taught how to use these resources properly and skillfully and (3) supplied with materials promptly and in abundance. (The term "resources" is used here in the widest possible sense; it includes both men and material).

Paramount in the classroom is the teacher with his skill and knowledge, his viewpoint and outlook, his qualities of character and mind. But his success in current affairs teaching will depend in part upon whether he must do with a map, a blackboard, and a class set of a school news-periodical, or is more generously provided with a "laboratory" equipped with audio-visual equipment and other modern teaching aids and stocked with a variety of current affairs periodicals.

Within the school current affairs instruction may be merely incidental or it may be integrated into the entire school program through effective use of the home room, school clubs, the various subjects area departments, the school newspaper, the weekly assemblies, inter-school conferences, and the board of education radio station.

Similarly, the school may function in isolation, or it may work in close cooperation with such helpful agencies as local newspapers and radio stations, the university, community forums, service clubs, busi-
ness, church, civic, labor, patriotic and professional organizations.

Truly successful current affairs teaching is found where admin­
istrators and teachers are using the varied and abundant resources
of the community in a balanced and integrated program to achieve broad
and purposeful goals of citizenship.

Ibid. pp. 253-258 Conclusions and Recommendations
APPENDIX (B)

Stories, poems, and drama related to current affairs learning.
From the Thirteens came the following, the first after the trip to the Ford plant, the second inspired by a mass meeting at Union Square:

**MACHINES**

The motor, the body, and then the wheel
Are put on by men who do not feel.
They stand at their jobs from twelve to ten;
They are grimy, oily, mechanical men.

Some turn a screw, some paint it tan,
Each part done by the one same man.
The chain of cars rolls on its way -
They are cars that are made in half a day.

Who makes these cars of nickel and steel?
Who puts them together with speed unreal?
Just men - men earning their living,
Really not taking, only giving.

For as they work there day after day
Their minds grow stupid, their brains decay.
They are now only grimy mechanical men,
Yes, just grimy, oily, mechanical men.

**THE ORATOR**

He stands aloft the crowd,
And shouts and bites.
His harsh voice cuts the air,
He shouts out in defiance.
The mob nods its head,
The orator sweats.
He's a mess, he must be crazy!
Is he?

One hour, two hours, his arms wave wildly,
His eyes glare.
The mob moves slowly, slowly off.
He must be crazy!
Is he?

Quoted from "I Learn From Children," p. 136,7
Caroline Pratt
How a twelve-year-old group made a play, from the first discussion of ideas to the finished product, is here narrated in notes by their teacher, Sybil May:

CHOOSING A SUBJECT

"In the fall of 1936 we began our history study with the situation then dominating the international scene - the war between Italy and Ethiopia. We tried to analyze the causes of the war, and in so doing studied a little about the Industrial Revolution, the growth of the British, French, and German Empires, and the World War. We used as our basic text Rugg's 'Changing Civilizations', which has excellent maps and graphs, as well as a clear, simple manner of presenting information. The geography involved in this study included, besides map work, a survey of the distribution of natural resources in European countries. This distribution, we found, was a factor in the industrial development of countries and in the struggle for colonies which came to a head in 1914. We studied especially the distribution of coal and iron, and of oil.

"When we came to the World War, I found the children keenly interested in the withdrawal of Russia from the war in 1917; so we went back again further into the past and studied about causes and the main events of the Russian Revolution. We had reached this point in March, when the children began working on original long stories as part of their work in creative writing. I assigned three choices of subject, all based on the war; 1) An English soldier returns home after to find his job in a mill has been taken and there is no work for him. 2) German and French coal miners in a Saar coal mine meet after the war is over. They were friends before the war, were parted by it, and have come together again. 3) A Russian peasant deserts and finds his way back to his village during the Russian Revolution. Of these themes the Russian was by far the most popular, and some of the stories were surprisingly vivid. Only one boy chose the coal mine subject.

"Early in April, when we met after spring vacation, we knew that the traditional moment had come for serious consideration of the subject of the play to be given at the end of the year. At discussion I asked each child to write down what he or she wanted the play to be about. Here is the list of their suggestions, exactly as they came and were written on the blackboard:

L. Different scenes in Africa leading to the World War
G. Before and after the War
H. Russia during the Revolution
Y. One of our Long Stories
E. Exploring and settling the Gold Coast
C. The elevator strike
T. A play in the Chinese manner (no scenery)
N. A play of the mines in France and Germany
W. West Virginia mines, showing how badly off miners are.

"The remaining five children had either no suggestion or duplicated the above. During the discussion which followed, other suggestions developed: A dramatization of the life of Lenin; an adaptation of the movie about Cecil Rhodes in Africa; a play about the life of a striker and what he goes through; a play about a fence along the French and German border (suggested by my description of the motion picture "Kameradschaft", which is about an accident in a coal mine between France and Germany).

"Finally we took a vote, or rather a series of elimination votes, which resulted in a tie between a play about a mine on the border between France and Germany during the World War, and a play about the Russian Revolution. At this point I suggested that seven coal miners go off and work out a sketchy dramatization of their theme, and the seven Russians do the same. Then each group would perform their play for the other and we would all know more about the potentialities of each theme. This suggestion met with an enthusiastic response. As judges, the student teacher and I were not allowed to help with either sketch, but became merely part of the audience.

"The coal mine had four scenes, all very brief of course, and not as yet in chronological order; simply indications of what the action might be. Following is a synopsis of the action:

Scene I. In an inn soon after the Armistice. French and German miners talk a little about the war being over, and the dangerous condition of the mine.

Scene II. In the mine. A roof caves in. Pierre is left behind in the obstructed passage.

Scene III. In the War Germans and Frenchmen get into a fight, in the course of which a German kills a Frenchman. The dying Frenchman calls his own son to his side and enjoins him to always hate Germans.

Scene IV. Another cave-in. This time the German saves the Frenchman's son, who has sworn to hate all Germans.

The Russian play had five scenes:

Scene I. Peasants at work in the fields. A cruel overseer beats one of them until he dies.

Scene II. In a peasant's hut, showing how hungry peasants are.
Scene III. At a noble's house. A fierce discussion of how the peasants don't pay their tithes.

Scene IV. At a peasant's house. A friendly overseer urges the peasants to join the Revolution and attack the noble's house.

Scene V. The attack. The friendly overseer is killed.

"When we came to vote again, the result was that the seven coal miners were for their own play and the seven Russian peasants for theirs. So we were not much better off. The student teacher and I finally broke the tie by deciding on the coal mine play, because it seemed to us that it had more dramatic possibilities. The Russians accepted the decision and cooperated wholeheartedly on the mine play.

PLANNING THE ACTION

"The next step was to plan the main action of the coal mine play. The complicated plot which finally developed was a result of trial and error. The chief objection to the try-out sketch was in the second cave-in. This seemed "stale" and spoiled the climax. In fact, we eventually retained of the original sketch, the main theme of the last scene - that if they feel that a war is not their own, workers will stand by each other even though their countries stand opposed. We agreed in the beginning that that was what we wanted our play to express, and in our planning we kept revising the plot in order to bring out this idea. We decided that a mine accident was the obvious way of showing workers helping each other in wartime, and we learned much of the dangers of mining in the course of our study of library books describing explosions, floods, fires, cave-ins, and poisonous gases. Besides the usual reference books, we used Pierre Huber-mont's "Thirteen Men in a Mine". It so happened that at this time the newspapers and radio were full of the fate of three men trapped in an abandoned mine in Nova Scotia.

"We finally decided upon the disaster we would dramatize: a flood plus exposure to the dread gas known as Black Damp. The reason for this selection was that I read aloud a vivid account of a flood from Cronin's "The Stars Look Down" (then just published; it was later made into a motion picture). The plot of this powerful book hinges upon an old map of a mine, which the mine owner secretly holds in his possession. Through his study of the map, he alone knows that a dangerously thin wall separates a particularly rich coal seam from a body of water behind it. Yet because of his desire for profits, he orders his men to work the seam. There is water behind the wall. The result is sudden and terrific disaster.

"The map idea seized the children's imagination, but they wanted also to bring in the war, so they hit upon the scheme of having the map of a border mine secretly altered by spies from the enemy country across the border, in order to cause a flood. This plot seemed to me complicated to get over to an audience,
but the children were so intrigued by it that I let them go ahead. I did provide good suspense and a chance for the 'villian' that the children always love. Sometime early in the construction of the plot the suggestion was adopted that we show the building of a wall in the mine to separate the French and German sides just before the outbreak of war (an idea derived from "Kameradschaft").

"After many discussions and try-outs of different possibilities by small groups, a rough scheme finally emerged. This scheme was to have first an exposition scene; next the secret alteration of the map; then the flood and the rescue by the friendly workers from the enemy country.

"Now that the general plan of action was agreed upon, we could at long last, cease talking about the play and start seriously "acting out" the various scenes. We created the characters necessary to carry out the action outlined for a certain scene; children volunteered to 'be' those characters, and then went off by themselves to make up the dialogue and the 'business' that would fulfill the purpose of that scene in relation to the plot. When they were ready, they would play out the scene to the rest of the group, who would then evaluate it in terms of how it fitted into the play as a whole; whether or not it would be clear to the audience; how consistent the characters were in their acting, and talk; and whether or not the scene was 'boring' (meaning all talk, no action).

THE ACTION

"The plot as finally worked out had many defects - but its authors were satisfied with it sufficiently to act it out with enthusiasm and conviction. The details are not important, but what is important is how the group drove home the main theme of the play: that the bond between workers of enemy countries can be stronger sometimes than the hostility imposed by a war which is not of their making. In order to bring this out, we created our own main characters, two buddies, Hans the German, and Pierre the Frenchman, who for years had been working together in a mine on the border between Germany and France.

"In the first act, we showed these two to be working together in the mine, a week before the declaration of war. In their lunch hour, as they watch masons building a wall to separate the French from the German side of the mine, they talk about the imminence of war and the possibility of their being separated. A new worker, Francois, is brought in; he has been fired from a textile factory for organizing against the conversion of a factory into a munitions plant. His appearance provides the opportunity for the miners to tell him about general conditions in the mine; the low pay, the lack of a union, the danger from a thin wall, which is reported to have water behind it; also about disturbing new goings-on - the building of a new boundary wall, the sudden speed-up in the coal production. The new worker begins to protest against the preparations for war; he is interrupted by the
entrance of the foreman and an army recruiting officer, who singles out the German from the French miners. This of course involves Hans and Pierre, the two buddies. Hans is ordered to quit because he is a German. Under the leadership of the new worker, Pierre and the others protest the firing of Hans, but they are not well enough organized and the curtain falls on the sorrowful parting of the two old friends.

"The second act, three years later, shows German Secret Service men plotting to alter the plan of the mine so that a new manager, who does not know the mine well, will order his men to work the seam with the water behind it, thus causing a flood which they hope will drown hundreds of French miners and ruin the mine.

"In the first scene of the third act, this comes to pass. Some of the men are drowned; others perish from the Black Damp. Only a few escape, led by Pierre up a shaft which rises above flood level to the wall, which in the first act was built between the French and German sides of the mine.

"The last scene, two days after the flood, shows the German side of the mine where the unsuspecting Hans and his companions are eating their lunch and talking depressedly about the weary duration of the war. Suddenly they hear tapping on the wall. Hans strains his ears and finally hears faint calls for help. He hears or thinks he hears his name. He immediately guesses what has happened, and of course stops his lunch. The other miners run to the adjoining chamber to get help.

"Meanwhile the foreman enters and an argument ensues. Hans wants to rescue his old buddy, Pierre, on the French side of the mine. The foreman wants the men to go back to work and ignore the cries for help. The soldier insists that he will not allow the wall which is being guarded to be broken down. Finally they resort to blows and Hans and a fellow miner throw out the foreman and the soldier. Then the other miners who have come in begin battering on the wall with feverish haste. At last a breach is made and Pierre is pulled through. He is exhausted from exposure and the Black Damp, and the rescue comes too late. He dies in the arms of his old buddy. But before he dies he manages to gasp his message, "We can't stop this war, but maybe, if we stick together, maybe we can stop the next".

DIALOGUE

"The children did not memorize their lines; in fact most of the lines were never written down. This does not mean that good lines were not repeated often enough to be counted on in
the final performance; nor does it mean that we could not count on cues. On the contrary, a scene was sometimes gone over so often, and a certain order of speakers and speeches was so important to the action, that the dialogue was pretty well crystallized. But it does mean that every child varied his lines somewhat and sometimes improvised new ones in the final performance.

"Discipline and freedom were combined. The order of development was fixed, the actual wording flexible, with the sole provision that the necessary point be made. Occasionally an actor would write down an important speech and ask the group to criticize it. The critics cut it out if it was not in character, or if it impeded the action. Children who have had practice in making their own plays become wary of too much talk, and of lines that sound unreal or bookish.

"The last scene, taken down in shorthand at the final performance, is here presented as characteristic of the terseness of the dialogue all the way through:

Act III, Scene 2: German Mine.
(Hans and Fritz are eating their lunch; a soldier is sitting near by.)

Hans: Ain't got much lunch today.
Fritz: No, and everything's stale!
Hans: My God, yes!
Fritz: But it's better than nothing.
Hans: (looking at soldier) Why in God's name aren't you in uniform?
Soldier: I'm not going to wear it in this blooming place!

Enter foreman:
Foreman: Get to work, you guys!
Fritz: We're eating!
Foreman: Get to work anyway. Five minutes is enough to have; you have time for breakfast, supper - what more do you want?
Men: No we don't. (They rise grumbling, go to work. Exit foreman).
Hans: I wish we'd get paid!
Fritz: And when we do get paid it's by the amount we get out, and not by the time we work.
Hans: I wish this war was over!
Fritz: They call it the World War now, a pretty good name for it, I'd say!

(Reenter foreman)
Foreman: Say, you guys, get together; I have some orders here. You've got to do twice as much work this month as last. Hurry now, and get to work! If I come again and find you napping, you'll be fired!
(Men start to work again. A noise is heard; it sounds like tapping).
Hans: Hey, what's that?
Soldier: Say, what's eating you?
Hans: There's nothing wrong with me - listen to that! What is it? I hear a voice. (A muffled cry is heard from the other side of the wall). Fritz, drop your pick and listen!
Soldier: Don't pay any attention to what that guy's doing.
Fritz: That's Pierre - he's calling something!
Soldier: It doesn't matter. (More cries are heard.)
Hans: It is Pierre! We must do something! (Soldier tries to keep them from the wall. Foreman suddenly enters. Hans and Fritz knock him out.)
Soldier: What have you done now?
Hans: (Looking down at foreman): I don't know.
Soldier: I'll have to arrest you now. (More cries are heard through the wall).
Fritz: Whatever you do now will get you in trouble, Hans.
Hans: (listening): That's pierre. I've worked with him ever since I worked in the mines. (Starts towards wall again).
Soldier: (trying to keep them away from the wall): I'll have to arrest you. I like you, but my job comes first. Whatever my job is, I have to do it.
Hans: If you had a friend in there yelling for you, wouldn't you try to help him? Call the other miners, Fritz.
Fritz: What are you going to do?
Hans: I'm going to break down the wall. (More cries for help).
Soldier: Before you break down the wall, you'll have to kill me! I like you guys, but it's my duty to stop you. (the miners start for the wall).
Soldier: Get away from the wall! (He tries to hold them away by force. Hans struggles with him; the soldier is overcome. As he falls, he fires his gun, killing Fritz. (Enter the other miners. They start to work on the wall where the cries are coming from. They finally break through and drag Pierre out, half dead from exposure to gas and water).
Hans: Pierre, Pierre, what happened?
Pierre: Ugh, ugh (choking and groaning). Water, flood, Black Damp. (Chokes again)
Hans: What happened to Francois?
Pierre: (choking): Lost .. drowned .. ugh, ugh, Guys were working bad wall. I told them to .. not to .. ugh, ugh, but they did.
Hans: Couldn't Francois help you?
Pierre: (choking:) Yes .. he .. he did, but the foreman wouldn't listen. Francois said we should stick together. He said we couldn't stop this war .. but maybe .. maybe we could stop the next one. Ugh, ugh .. oh .. (Pierre dies.)
Hans: Seeing that his friend is dead - Oh, oh, - my best friend .. Pierre. (Then turning to the others) O.K. guys, we will stick together, won't we?
Men: Yes, yes, we will stick together.
Curtain
THIS WORN TORN WORLD

This worn torn world,
A raging mad tempest
Of airplanes and bombs;
Soldiers, firing on the front lines;
Bombs shattering houses with a single blow,
Wrecking cities,
Ruining towns,
Spreading death and sorrow.

Then comes desolation,
A desolation worse than death,
A stillness painful to your very soul:
Nothing, nothing,
Nothing near, nothing far away;
Nothing you can hear,
Nothing you can say.

With every night,
With every day
You think,
"My end's not far away!"

And then
Oh, painful life!
You do not die,
But live to suffer more.

Your best friend's body
Lies here at your feet:
You cannot mourn
For all departed souls
Who nevermore
Shall live the life
You wish to cast away.
There are too many,
Too many to mourn;
'Twill only laden their poor, dear souls
With a weight
Too great
To hold.

DeLima, LITTLE RED SCHOOL HOUSE, pp. 335, 6
The cranberry bog stretches for miles, a sodden mass, empty except for the narrow, slow-moving canals, bordered by reservoirs and groves whose brilliant colors are much too gaudy for their dull surroundings. Except for one fertile spot, "the bog", the country is sandy, barren and poor. Straggly bits of corn are coaxed up through the earth here and there. A low murmuring of voices grows louder as the berry pickers come down the roads that divide the bog. They do not go immediately into the bog, but waft around because it is still too wet from recent rain. Men sit on the boxes that they later will have to fill, playing a native Italian game, their dark faces happy for the moment in their diversion.

They thrust their soil-stained hands in quick movements, calling out the numbers in Italian. Women with tired faces sit about, their dark faces happy for the moment too.

Children with old faces play about in bare feet. A sudden hush falls upon the group as the boss's car swings into view and comes to a screeching stop.

The workers pick up their boxes and move toward the fields, walking slowly, for they do not seem eager for the day ahead of them. They must work with the dampness beneath them and the hot sun above, on hands and knees, hurrying to fill their boxes with red berries.

Their calloused fingers work quickly. One box is ten cents, two is twenty, hurry. Sometimes they sing snatches of a song in Italian and often a popular song, the city still in them. Children work with men and women in the fields. They stop school and come with their parents for the month when the berry blossoms bear fruit. Then they all go back to Philadelphia and forget the bog. The rent is free but that is made up in the general store, and once in debt they get tied tighter to the land. They live in Florence and Rome (like those cities in name only. Houses are strewn about the town, old houses with boards torn loose by the weather. One of the many roads that cut across the bog leads to Florence.

In the center of the town a round cement slab lies underneath the pump. There the men congregate. An old man sits on the edge of the circular group about the pump. He is quiet but listening attentively to what the younger men have to say! At his feet a baby is playing in the sandy earth.

A boy pumps water into an already overflowing pail. The water slops over on his bare feet as he listens. In the center of the group a Negro sits. He is not listening, he is talking. As he speaks his eyes narrow under his hat which is placed at a cocked angle.

"I was fired last week - because I wouldn't get down on my knees
and hands in the cold wet bog. I came here when I was twelve, been here ever since. It ain't human to ask a man to crawl in the wet. And when you try to get decent conditions with the union you are blacklisted."

His eyes look bitterly across to the other side of the bog where the boss lives. Also in that favored part are the general store and sorting house. They stand grandly aloof from the rest. Over his head the woolly clouds float, the air is still. The Negro lights a cigarette and through the cloud of smoke he looks across the bog once more, this time seeing only the berry pickers working feverishly on.

One box, ten cents, two, twenty. Hurry. Hurry.

Quoted from: The Little Red School House, De Lima.

pp. 347,8
BIBLIOGRAPHY
BIBLIOGRAPHY

I  Theoretical Materials


Beale, Howard K., PROPAGANDA INFLUENCES WITHIN THE SCHOOL. The Seventh Yearbook of the National Council for Social Studies, entitled EDUCATION AGAINST PROPAGANDA, (1937), p. 100

Berkson, I. B. EDUCATION FACES THE FUTURE, AN APPRAISAL OF CONTEMPORARY MOVEMENTS IN EDUCATION, (New York, Harpers: 1943)

Biddle, William W., TEACHING RESISTANCE TO PROPAGANDA. Seventh yearbook of the National Council for Social Studies, entitled, EDUCATION AGAINST PROPAGANDA (1937) p. 113


Catholic Education Association, PROCEEDINGS 1936

Chamlin, C. D., EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF CURRENT EVENTS, 57 SCHOOL REVIEW (May, 1949), p. 267


Cunningham, William, PIVOTAL PROBLEMS OF EDUCATION, (New York, Mac Millan Co.)


SOCIAL FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION, (New York, Charles Scribner's Sons: 1937)


Day, L. D., LOCAL OPPORTUNITY AND KNOWLEDGE OF CURRENT EVENTS, 38 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL, (September 1947), p. 44


Gathany, J. Madison, CURRENT EVENTS AND POLITICAL CULTURE, 24 HISTORICAL OUTLOOK (November, 1933), p. 378


Irwin, L. B., TEACHING CURRENT EVENTS, 40 SOCIAL STUDIES (March 1949) p. 133


Kelty, Mary G., and Nelle Moore, "AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF THE TEACHING OF CURRENT EVENTS IN THE MIDDLE CLASSES", 32 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL (February, 1932) p. 417

Kersey, Vierling, A NOVEL DEVICE FOR PRESENTING WORLD NEWS TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS, 57 SCHOOL AND SOCIETY (May 22, 1943), p. 105


Madison, M. CURRENT EVENTS IN THE MIDDLE GRADES, 6 SOCIAL EDUCATION, (January, 1942), p. 18
Mahoney, Alice R., *Fifth Graders View a Changing World*, 22 National Elementary Principal (June, 1943), p. 200


Mayer, Mary E., *The Philosophy of Teaching of St. Thomas Aquinas*, (New York, Bruce 1929)


MacMurray, W. B., *Attempt to Focus Attention on Current Events*, 31 School (Secondary Edition) (March, 1943) p. 627


Storm, Grade E., *SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE PRIMARY GRADES*, (New York, Lyons and Carnahan: 1932)


Trefacy, Gerald, *FIVE GREAT ENCYCLOGALS, LABOR, EDUCATION, MARRIAGE, RECONSTRUCTING THE SOCIAL ORDER, ATHEISTIC COMMUNISM*, (New York, Paulist Press, 1940) p. 214

II Materials on Pioneer Schools:


Tippett, James S., Special Investigator, *Curriculum Making in an Elementary School*, by the staff of the Elementary Division of the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, (Boston, Ginn and Company: 1927).

---

**BIBLIOGRAPHY**

**III Public School Courses of Study**

(In preparation for the work on this section, the author examined several hundreds of courses of study, of which only those used or considered to be used in this work are listed below. In the selection of materials the investigator found of great use the following: L. Thomas Hopkins, and others, *List of Outstanding Teaching and Learning Materials*, Washington, D. C., Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, editions of 1945 and 1948. Courses of study are here listed alphabetically by states.)

**California - Santa Monica**, *Carriers of Cargo*, Curriculum Office, Santa Monica City Schools (September, 1948, 40 pp. mimeographed.

*Interest Sequences, First Grade*, Curriculum Office, Santa Monica City Schools (September, 1944), 28 pp. mimeographed.)
Indiana - South Bend, HOW WAYS OF LIVING HAVE CHANGED IN THE UNITED STATES, A UNIT IN SOCIAL STUDIES FOR SIXTH GRADE, Department of Elementary Curriculum, School City of South Bend, (September 1948), 24 pp. mimeographed.

Massachusetts - Boston, A HANDBOOK ON THE PRINCIPLES OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY (Revised), published as School Document Number 6, Boston Public Schools (1948), 93 pp.

Minnesota - Minneapolis, SOCIAL STUDIES SOURCE UNITS FOR GRADE FOUR, Division of Elementary Education, Minneapolis Public Schools (September 1943), 96 pp. mimeographed.


Oregon - GUIDE FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN OREGON, INTERMEDIATE DIVISION, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Salem, Oregon, (1949), 71 pp.

Pennsylvania - Allentown, CHILD DEVELOPMENT THROUGH UNITS IN SOCIAL STUDIES, Department of Elementary Curriculum, Allentown, Pennsylvania (1948), 324 pp. mimeographed.