INSTRUCTION IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

BULLETIN, 1932, No. 17

MONOGRAPH No. 21

NATIONAL SURVEY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
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COMMISSIONER

INSTRUCTION IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

BY

WILLIAM G. KIMMEL

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NOTE

William G. Kimmel, the author of this monograph, is specialist in social studies of the NATIONAL SURVEY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION *and executive secretary of the American Historical Association's Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools. William John Cooper, United States Commissioner of Education, is director of the Survey; Leonard V. Koos, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago, is associate director; and Carl A. Jessen, specialist in secondary education of the Office of Education, is coordinator.*

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
OFFICE OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., May, 1933.

SIR: Within a period of 30 years the high-school enrollment has increased from a little over 10 per cent of the population of high-school age to more than 50 per cent of that population. This enrollment is so unusual for a secondary school that it has attracted the attention of Europe, where only 8 to 10 per cent attend secondary schools. Many European educators have said that we are educating too many people. I believe, however, that the people of the United States are now getting a new conception of education. They are coming to look upon education as a preparation for citizenship and for daily life rather than for the money return which comes from it. They are looking upon the high school as a place for their boys and girls to profit at a period when they are not yet acceptable to industry.

In order that we may know where we stand in secondary education, the membership of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools four years ago took the lead in urging a study. It seemed to them that it was wise for such a study to be made by the Government of the United States rather than by a private foundation, for if such an agency studied secondary education it might be accused, either rightly or wrongly, of a bias toward a special interest. When the members of a committee of this association appeared before the Bureau of the Budget in 1928, they received a very courteous hearing. It was impossible, so the Chief of the Budget Bureau thought, to obtain all the money which the commission felt desirable; with the money which was obtained, $225,000, to be expended over a 3-year period, it was found impossible to do all the things that the committee had in mind. It was possible, however, to study those things which pertained strictly to secondary education, that is, its organization; its curriculum, including some of the more fundamental subjects, and particularly those subjects on

which a comparison could be made between the present and earlier periods; its extracurriculum, which is almost entirely new in the past 30 years; the pupil population; and administrative and supervisory problems, personnel, and activities.

The handling of this survey was intrusted to Dr. Leonard V. Koos, of the University of Chicago. With great skill he has, working on a full-time basis during his free quarters from the University of Chicago and part time during other quarters, brought it to a conclusion.

This manuscript was written by William G. Kimmel, a part-time worker on the National Survey. At the same time that Mr. Kimmel worked on the Survey he retained his position as executive secretary of the American Historical Association's Investigation of the Social Studies in Schools. Since the work was made available to both the Association and the Survey, the expenses were paid by both institutions.

This study is in 10 chapters. It gives an outline of what constitutes the social studies in the junior high schools in some 55 cities and in the senior high schools in some 43 cities. After an enumeration which shows 22 differently named subjects in the junior high school and 27 in the senior high school, a careful analysis is made of these courses from the standpoint of statements of objectives of the social sciences, characteristics of the courses in most important subjects, selection and arrangement of curriculum materials, provisions for indicating individual differences of pupils, teaching methods, and testing. I think that the bulletin contains numerous suggestions for improving teaching in social studies. I recommend, therefore, that it be published as a monograph in the series on the National Survey of Secondary Education.

Respectfully submitted.

WM. JOHN COOPER,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

INSTRUCTION IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

CHAPTER I. THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

I. WHAT THE FIELD INCLUDES

The social studies, as defined by the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, "are understood to be those whose subject matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society and to man as a member of social groups." [1] More specifically, the social studies in the secondary school comprise a group of subjects including history, civics, economics, and sociology, with certain relatively undefined boundaries and ramifications in the subject matter of geography, vocations, ethics, and home-making.

Many types and combinations of content are found in current social studies programs for secondary schools. Courses of study are organized in terms of individual subjects, fusion or unified courses, problems courses based on one or more subjects, and correlations in varying degrees between subjects and between the social studies and other subjects in the curriculums of secondary schools. The content, regardless of the different types or plans of organization, is drawn from the materials of the social sciences and related sciences which are concerned directly or in part with the development of society and the relationships which exist between and within social groups.

The content of the social sciences has been expanded rapidly during the past two decades; specialized phases or divisions within each social science have also been established. Interrelations between the social sciences and relationships with related fields of knowledge have been explored and established to the mutual advantage of the several disciplines.[2]

[1] The Social Studies in Secondary Education. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1916, No. 28, p. 9.

[2] Cf. W. F. Ogburn and A. Goldenweiser, *eds.*, The Social Sciences and Their Interrelations. New York. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927.

The ever-expanding body of knowledge and ideas in the social sciences have furnished, in turn, new points of view and a new wealth of content which may be adapted and used to advantage in the social studies at the secondary-school level. Anthropology and archeology have charted the paths of little-known ages and have contributed new knowledge of early peoples, to say nothing of the verification or repudiation of earlier conceptions of the early history of mankind. Every decade witnesses the publication of studies and investigations which expand available knowledge of all nations and peoples during all periods of recorded history. Geography contributes facts with social, economic, and political implications which contribute to an understanding of past and present relationships between nations and states. Economics and sociology yield rich content, concepts, and generalizations which are basic to an understanding of the many-sided relationships of contemporary life.

While the abundance of materials accumulated, collated, and interpreted in the social sciences has provided a veritable storehouse of content from which the secondary schools may select to inform youth concerning social phenomena, the problems involved in the selection and organization of subject matter are increased in number and in degree of difficulty by the ever-expanding volume of available content. Each passing decade yields a new contemporary history as well as a more detailed knowledge of those dim past periods usually associated with "preliterate peoples," new concepts and generalizations as well as new points of view and interpretations of social, economic, and political relationships. The multitudinous character of available content has sometimes resulted in confusion of values, in overemphasis upon particular standards of selection combined with the disregard of others equally valuable, and in increasing difficulties in the formulation of balanced social studies programs.

Some proposed social studies programs would seem to invite pupils on a "world tour" with fleeting glimpses of all past and present peoples and nations in their manifold activities and relationships; others would concentrate attention on certain aspects or phases during the "tour"; still others would focus attention only on the present, selecting

from the past such content as seems to them to be necessary to explain the present, regardless of whether or not pupils may gain a disjointed and distorted perspective of both past and present. Some programs would stress the understanding of contemporary problems, while still other programs would concentrate on the many-sided relationships, horizontal and vertical, of selected nations and peoples, or upon certain aspects of these relationships. The common elements, present or implied in all plans, are the selection and organization of content, even though the bases, standards, or values for such selection and organization vary widely, as will be indicated from time to time in the consideration and analysis of courses of study.

2. *WHAT THIS REPORT INCLUDES*

The materials included in this report represent a summary of an analysis of courses of study in the social studies constructed or revised since 1925 for certain secondary schools.[3] Information is not available as to the extent to which these courses of study are representative and typical of current practices in public secondary schools throughout the country. The presentation of material is descriptive and analytical. Nothing like a complete critical analysis is presented because of the lack of generally accepted criteria. In addition to the materials on courses of study, an attempt is made to collate and present at certain points in the report the substance of opinions and comments of teachers who have cooperated in

[3] Courses of study in the social studies for junior and senior high schools, or equivalent grades, were received from the following cities: Ardmore, Okla.; Athens, Ohio; Austin, Tex.; Baltimore, Md.; Dallas, Tex.; Denver, Colo.; Flint, Mich.; Harrisburg, Pa.; Houston, Tex.; Kenosha, Wis.; Lansing, Mich.; Long Beach, Calif.; Los Angeles, Calif.; New Brunswick, N. J.; Pasadena, Calif.; Richmond, Ind.; Rochester, N. Y.; Rockford, Ill.; San Francisco, Calif.; San Diego, Calif.; Waukesha, Wis. Courses for junior high schools, or equivalent grades, were received from the following cities: Colorado Springs, Colo.; Cranston, R. I.; Dayton, Ohio; Dearborn, Mich.; East St. Louis, Ill.; Eugene, Oreg.; Everett, Wash.; Fresno, Calif.; Hackensack, N. J.; Ithaca, N. Y.; Kansas City, Kans.; Kansas City, Mo.; Little Rock, Ark.; Lorain, Ohio; Medford, Mass.; Montclair, N. J.; New Castle, Pa.; Oakland, Calif.; Oklahoma City, Okla.; Okmulgee, Okla.; Portland, Oreg.; Portland, Me.; Schenectady, N. Y.; South Orange—Maplewood, N. J.; Springfield, Mo.; Tacoma, Wash.; Washington, D. C. Courses for senior high schools were received from the following cities: Columbus, Ohio; Merrill, Wis.; Newark, N. J.; Peoria, Ill. (grades 9–12); Richmond, Va. (grades 9–12); Tulsa, Okla.; Port Arthur, Tex.

Courses for certain grades were received from other cities, but were not examined because they were not sufficiently complete for all grades to indicate the entire social studies program. Courses of study in 16 cities are reported to be in the process of revision.

the construction and trial use of the courses of study. These opinions and comments were obtained during visits to 41 schools in 13 cities.[4] Because of the present diversity in practices and procedures and the lack of stabilized materials, only a general summary of the materials within definite limitations of time, space, and a predetermined plan is presented here.[5]

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[4] From 2 to 4 schools were visited, classes observed, and conferences held with teachers and supervisory staff in 13 cities located in 5 different States.

[5] Exceptions to many of the summary statements may doubtless be made by the reader; limitations of space prevent, however, a more extended presentation of supporting evidence. The following materials on which data were gathered for this report have been omitted from this summary: Illustrative and explanatory materials, details of the social studies program of different cities, problems encountered by curriculum committees and teachers in the development of different phases of courses of study, types of learning activities for pupils, and problems which limit the construction of courses of study as well as their utility in the classroom.

The analysis of materials and the collation of opinions and problems, from which the present summary was made, was a cooperative activity of the National Survey of Secondary Education and the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools, sponsored by the American Historical Association. There has been no opportunity to present either the summary or the more extended document to the Commission on Direction of the Social Studies Investigation for its consideration; consequently the present summary can not be regarded as bearing the indorsement of the Commission of the Social Studies Investigation.

CHAPTER II: OBJECTIVES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

1. THE PROBLEMS

The objectives for the teaching of the social studies have always presented problems in every age and generation in which the teaching of these subjects has received consideration. In recent years these problems have received much attention, to say nothing of exploitation, in accordance with the formulation of new hypotheses for curriculum making. Tabulation and classification of the lists of objectives found in courses of study and comparison of such tabulations with similar lists from earlier courses of study and the pedagogical literature represent a task far beyond the limits of time and space to be given to this part of the report. Fortunately, data from several investigations of objectives are available for the use of interested persons.

2. TYPES OF OBJECTIVES

Swindler, in an unpublished study of the general and special objectives listed in courses of study in the social studies in 21 States, 35 cities, and 4 experimental schools, compiled the data presented in Table 1. A considerable number of the city courses of study used by Swindler have been analyzed in connection with the development of this report. While there will always be differences in points of reference in the assembling and classification of materials on objectives, Swindler's data furnish a representative cross-sectional view of the types of objectives found in current courses of study.[1]

3. FORMS OF PRESENTATION OF OBJECTIVES

A summary of the forms in which objectives are presented in courses of study is found in Table 2. The principal item

[1] Recent investigations concerned with the development of techniques for the tabulation and classification of objectives include Orlando W. Stephenson. Bringing Aims and Activities Together in the Teaching of the Social Studies. Junior-Senior High School Clearing House, 5:97-100, October, 1930; Myrtle E. Jenson. An Analysis of Objectives of Teaching History. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1931; Earl Miller. A Study of the Objectives in the Teaching of American History. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1928.

of interest is the diversity of practices in the formulation of objectives. The tabular view shows this diversity only in part, due to the fact that it was necessary to condense the items into convenient categories. Differences in practices, however, seem more apparent than real due to variations in terminology. Objectives listed in one course as "general" are frequently found in lists of "specific" objectives in other courses of study, and vice versa. Precise distinctions in meaning and gradation of objectives in terms of difficulty or of demands made of pupils do not seem to find a place in the use of these categories.

The number of objectives listed in a particular category varies widely in different courses of study. Only one objective is found in many instances, while the largest number found in one course for the seventh grade is 135. One course in another subject contains a list of 85 objectives. One course of study for junior high schools contains 47 (mimeographed) pages of objectives, arranged for the various courses in terms of gradations in difficulty for more-capable and less-capable pupils.

TABLE 1.—*General objectives listed in 60 social studies courses rearranged from Swindler's study* [1]

Objectives	Number
1. Socio-civic efficiency	176
2. Participation in civic activities	127
3. Information as a basis for participation	116
4. Making the world intelligible for pupils	114
5. Knowledge of civic rights, duties, and responsibilities	112
6. Ability to think, discriminate, judge	104
7. Knowledge of social, economic, and political principles	93
8. Knowledge of the past in order to interpret the present	87
9. Intelligent patriotism	85
10. Service and cooperation in society	83
11. Respect for law and institutions	74
12. Knowledge of moral, ethical, and religious principles	71
13. Appreciation of the interdependence of nations	63
14. Understanding of the principles of the Constitution and democracy	61
15. Proper attitudes and interests	60
16. Worthy use of leisure	53
17. Tolerance and open-mindedness	44

[1] Swindler, R. E. Objectives in the Social Studies. (Unpublished study, data used with the permission of the author, with acknowledgment of his cooperation.)

TABLE 1.—*General objectives listed in 60 social studies courses, etc.*—Con.

Objectives	Number
18. Broadening interests and sympathies	44
19. Orderly development for a static world	41
20. Vocational efficiency	40
21. Mastery of tools and skills	34
22. Understanding of the influences of environment	28
23. Awareness of the meaning of living together in organized society	28
24. General culture	27
25. Cultivation of an interest in reading the social studies for pleasure	25
26. Health and efficiency	25
27. Appreciation of historical and scientific methods	18
28. Worthy home membership	15

TABLE 2.—*Number of secondary-school courses of study using certain forms of presentation of objectives*

Form of presentation	Junior high school	Senior high school
Number of courses of study represented in the analysis	50	28
No statement of objectives	6	
General objectives for secondary schools	6	3
General objectives for the social studies program	6	7
Specific objectives for the social studies program		1
General objectives for designated units of the school system	18	5
General classified objectives for designated units of the school system	1	1
General objectives for particular subjects	30	20
Specific objectives for particular subjects	4	3
General objectives for units, topics, divisions, etc	8	7
General classified objectives for units, topics, divisions, etc		1
Specific objectives for units, topics, divisions, etc	18	5
Specific classified objectives for units, topics, divisions, etc	2	1
General objectives for each lesson	1	
General outcomes for the social studies program	1	
General outcomes for particular subjects	1	
Classified outcomes for units, divisions, topics, etc	1	
Standards of attainment for designated subjects	3	
Standards of attainment for units, topics, divisions, etc	9	3
General understandings for units	1	1
Specific classified objectives for designated units of the school system		1

Many degrees of particularity in the formulation of objectives are found in the courses of study; some lists include only broad general purposes for teaching the social studies, while others include lists of very detailed and specific objectives. A frequent practice is the presentation of a statement of general objectives for the social studies program for secondary schools, separate lists for all courses in the field offered in the junior and senior high schools, and specific objectives for each unit, topic, or division of particular courses.

Objectives and standards of attainment or outcomes are used as synonymous terms in some courses of study; in some

instances this usage is implied, in others it is explicitly stated. Courses of study which include both objectives and standards of attainment are frequently vague concerning the precise differentiation between the two categories; this is particularly evident in the case of objectives labeled "specific" and "standards of attainment." In addition to courses of study in which "objectives" and "standards of attainment" are used synonymously and those in which there is not precise differentiation between the two terms, a third group of courses of study reveal an implied distinction between objectives as ultimate goals, more or less broad in scope, and standards of attainments as learning products which are reasonably definite, specific, and immediate in terms of pupil responses.

General and specific objectives, as well as standards of attainment in some courses of study, are classified as "knowledge," "understandings," "abilities," "skills," "attitudes," "appreciations," "ideals," and "interests." Evidence of considerable confusion is revealed in the items classified under these headings. The same objective may be classified as an "understanding," an "ability," and "insight," an "appreciation," or an "interest" in different lists. The mere attachment of one of these words to an item or the inclusion of a series of items under these categories is not necessarily indicative of its meaning nor importance as an objective in terms of values in content or in terms of pupil response.

Noticeable differences between courses of study for junior and senior high schools are found in the forms in which the objectives and standards of attainment are presented. In general, the objectives for senior high schools show less variation in forms of statement, the lists contain smaller numbers of objectives, and there seems to be less confusion in classifications of items and in the extent to which the lists are particularized. The objectives listed in senior high school courses of study seem to be more carefully stated with a view to the available content materials and values to be derived from content.

A comparison of the forms in which objectives are stated in printed courses of study for junior high schools and the latest tentative revisions of the same courses may be made for two cities. The Denver course of study, published in

revised form in 1926, contains lists of classified objectives for each grade and long lists of standards of attainment for each course, while the latest tentative revision includes only brief unclassified lists of objectives for each grade and a series of "general understandings" for each course. The Oakland course of study, published in 1923, provided lists of classified objectives for each semester, while the latest tentative revision includes only brief lists of unclassified objectives for each unit. In both cities, then, a simpler formulation of smaller lists of unclassified objectives seems to have displaced rather detailed classified lists found in earlier courses of study.

4. NOTICEABLE OMISSIONS IN LISTS OF OBJECTIVES

Many of the lists of objectives contain series of items which refer to ideals, aspirations, "principles of democracy," and the like, but a definite list of these items is included in only one course of study. The Ithaca, N. Y., course of study for junior high schools includes a list of ideals, together with a summary of other materials. In general, however, these items seem to be declarations of intentions for the materials which follow. It is possibly desirable that these objectives in many instances shall be regarded as "overtones" in courses of study which will be learned incidentally. If direct instruction is attempted, definite content of appropriate types should find a place in courses of study; otherwise there is the danger of much exhortation, which is unlikely to find ready acceptance on the part of sophisticated youth disposed to view social relationships with varying degrees of realism.

The lists of objectives contain many slogans and catch phrases which can not be defined with precision and accuracy. In lowest form these items are merely the slogans used in business, advertising, and sports; in a somewhat different form they include phrases ordinarily associated with patriotic speeches and popular addresses. Examples include "national consciousness," "national conscience," "national honor," "law and order," "unity of mankind," "group consciousness," "will of the people," and the like.

An examination of the objectives listed in courses of study reveals little evidence that the committees are think-

ing in terms of concepts and social processes as desirable goals in the teaching of the social studies. Some attention is apparently given to generalizations. A tendency toward broad generalizations is evident particularly in the fusion courses at the junior high school level, while the generalizations in lists of objectives at the senior high school level seem to be less broad in scope and more closely associated with the content of the subjects. Evidence of a greater degree of scholarly reserve and caution in the formulation of generalizations is also indicated in some courses for senior high schools.

Certain types of objectives are stressed in most courses of study without the inclusion of complementary materials. An examination of lists of objectives reveals almost constant emphasis on cooperation. Assuming that the use of the term "cooperation" implies a concept or process rather than a slogan, it is significant that only two courses of study include competition and conflict, complementary concepts or processes which are universal and constant in varying forms in human society. To stress only cooperation, and at the same time to ignore competition and conflict, seems hardly compatible with the facts in the social relationships of groups or nations. The desirability of the elevation of competition from lower to higher planes in social relations and the adjustments of conflict in varying forms under changing sanctions and regulations seems evident. Thus a basis is provided for the understanding of cooperation and the necessity for the development of new and higher forms of cooperation.

Most lists of objectives include items concerned with interdependence of modern industrial nations and the desirability of peaceful relations between them; but these items are not always balanced by such objectives as the development of amicable relations between nations and the forces, such as economic nationalism, which operate to develop difficulties in those relationships. If only certain phases of international relations are to receive emphasis, as is implied in the objectives and content of some courses of study, then the resulting partial understanding of the forces, problems, and sources of difficulties involved in international relations

may lead to acceptance of easy formulas, with the consequent disillusionment when they do not operate effectively.

The cultivation of an interest in and liking for the subjects included in the social studies finds a place as an objective in only a small number of courses of study. Few courses include the development of habits of wide reading and the cultivation of interest in the reading of content materials in the social studies as goals in the teaching of these subjects. In view of the importance attached to these objectives in pedagogical literature and of their apparent importance in the continuing education and intellectual interests of adults, these are outstanding omissions in many courses of study.

6. *PERSISTENT PROBLEMS IN THE FORMULATION OF OBJECTIVES*

Certain problems are revealed in an analysis of lists of objectives found in courses of study. Evidence from courses and from conferences with members of committees reveals that, while many of the problems are recognized by members of different committees, little progress has been made in the discovery of satisfactory solutions. Among persistent and crucial problems often set forth without the extended comments which they should receive are the following:

1. The urgent need for thoroughgoing analyses of the assumptions and hypotheses on which the current lists of objectives are projected.

2. The need for investigations of the ranges or areas and depths of social experiences to which pupils are exposed in relation to their mental maturity and ability at different grade levels.

3. Differentiation between the elements of social experience to be gained through the social studies in secondary schools and those elements which may possibly be gained more effectively through membership in and contacts with institutions and organized groups in the community.

4. Differentiation between objectives that may be approximated in the teaching of the social studies and those which may be realized through organized programs of extracurriculum activities.

5. Differentiation between ultimate objectives to be realized with the completion of the programs of social studies

in the senior high school, in institutions of higher learning, or in later adult life, and the more immediate objectives for particular grade levels.

6. Relationships between the crucial and potentially dangerous problems in the formation of attitudes, as implied in provisions for direct instruction in courses of study, and in the teaching of the social studies.

7. The limitations and dangers involved in the use of "absolutes" such as "right," "proper," and "correct" with respect to habits, attitudes, ideals, and opinions in the formulation of objectives for the social studies.

8. The place, limitations, and dangers in the use of so-called civic traits in instruction and rating scales in the social studies.

9. The relation between objectives that are largely ideals and the available subject matter and procedures by means of which attempt is made to realize such ideals in classroom practice.

Until more evidence of a basic type and quality is assembled with respect to the problems listed, persons concerned with the teaching of the social studies seem to be obligated to proceed slowly and to evaluate proposed practices in a very critical manner. The problems are so crucial, and in their cumulative implications so formidable, that consequences prejudicial to the most valuable contributions of the social studies to secondary education in an evolving social order may be foreseen. If pressure arises from organized groups and from the community at large, and if the activities of any but the most competent persons in school systems are given unqualified sanction, basic purposes and values of the social studies may be displaced by transitory and derived elements of only immediate interest.

CHAPTER III: SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMS IN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

1. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

The types of courses in the social studies offered at the junior high school level in 55 cities are listed in Table 3.[1] Considerable diversity in types of combinations of subjects is revealed in terms of the titles, but the extent of differences is even more noticeable in the analysis of the content of courses. The titles are indicative in a general way of the boundaries of the courses, but they furnish no clues to variations in the selection and organization of subject matter.

TABLE 3.—*Courses in the social studies in junior high schools in 55 cities*[a]

Course	Grades					
	7		8		9	
	First semester	Second semester	First semester	Second semester	First semester	Second semester
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Social science or social studies	20	20	14	14	12	12
2. American or United States history	12	23	30	24	3	1
3. European or Old World background	6	2		1		
4. American ideals				1		
5. Economic history of the United States	1					
6. American or United States history and civics			3	4		
7. World history or civilization					5	5
8. Early European or world history			1	1	6	6
9. Modern European or world history					2	2
10. Ancient history					6	7
11. History and mythology					1	1
12. Geography	16	12	5	4	1	
13. Community civics or life or citizenship	9	9	8	10	18	13
14. Vocational civics or information or occupations				1	4	8
15. Economic civics					1	1
16. World trade and interdependence				1		
17. State government		1		1		
18. State history	3					
19. Junior training for modern business			1			
20. Modern world setting for American history	1					
21. Story of human progress			1	1	1	1
22. Industrial history of the United States					1	1

[a] Ninth-grade courses of 4-year high schools in 3 cities are also included. Courses for all grades were not available for 9 cities.

[1] For a study involving a larger number of schools, see Wilson, Howard E., and Erb., Bessie P. A survey of Social Studies Courses in 301 Junior High Schools. School Review, 39: 497-507, September 1931.

Fusion or unified social studies courses are not found to be uniform for all three grades in the junior high school. While the courses in grade 7 in 20 cities are of the fusion type, separate subject courses displace the fusion courses in grade 8 in the programs of 6 cities and in grade 9 in 8 cities. A course entitled "American ideals" has displaced a fusion course in the second semester of the eighth grade in Fresno, because considerable experimentation is said to have proved that the latter type of course is too difficult for the majority of pupils. In Denver, courses in separate subjects are offered for slow pupils, while the average and most capable groups are using a fusion course. The lack of suitable content materials for fusion courses in grades 8 and 9 and satisfactory results with present courses in community and vocational civics are other reasons cited in some cities for the retention of separate subject courses. One city fulfills a statutory requirement of American history for high-school graduation by offering the course in grade 8 rather than in the senior high school.

The courses in 22 cities are of the separate subject type developed according to the alternating plan; that is, separate courses in geography, history, and civics are provided for the different grade levels. Each subject retains its identity, with a time allotment of from one to four semesters. There is a marked diversity in practice in all cities in the grouping of subjects. The general pattern for many programs, however, includes some phase of geography as an introductory course covering one or more semesters, followed by a course in European background of American history or a course in Early American history, followed by one or more semesters devoted to American history, and closing with one or two 1-semester courses in some form of civics. A 1-semester course in State history forms the introductory course for the social studies program in junior high schools in three cities.

American history and some form of civics are most favored courses for grades 8 and 9, respectively. Three cities provide courses in world history or modern world history for grade 9, presumably in order to complete a cycle of courses in the junior high school. Ancient history is an elective

course for pupils who wish to meet college entrance requirements in four of the seven cities in which it is offered.

The social studies programs in 11 cities are developed according to the independent-parallel plan; that is, two or three subject courses, each maintaining its identity, are provided for the same grade, with the time allotment often divided between them through the scheduling of classes for alternate days. There is no agreement in the subject combinations for particular grades, although geography seems to be favored as one of the subjects in the combination of courses in grade 7 in 8 of the 10 cities using the independent-parallel plan. This plan, however, is often used only in grades 7 and 8, with separate alternating 1-semester courses in civics for grade 9. Two reasons are usually given for the change from the independent-parallel to the alternating plan in the organization of courses for grade 9: Courses in civics can readily be organized as semester courses, and junior high school principals favor 1-semester courses in order to facilitate changes and readjustments in the programs of pupils who fail to receive credit for courses or who are permitted to substitute courses because of changes in curriculum in order to meet requirements for entrance to senior high schools.

The social studies programs for junior high schools in some cities are differentiated in terms of pupils who are preparing for entrance to senior high schools and colleges and pupils whose formal school careers will end with the completion of the work of the junior high schools or possibly with certain practical curriculums in senior high schools. Separate courses in the social studies for different groups are provided in some cities which include differentiated curriculums at the junior high school level. The Hackensack program is based on a 2-track plan with separate courses for the differentiated groups, beginning with grade 7, while in Salt Lake City such differentiation begins in grade 8. Civics seems to be the subject which is stressed for pupils who are likely to complete their formal schooling in the junior high school, while the other group pursues courses in geography, history, and civics, or a course of a composite type. The Dallas program provides for differentiated courses in grade 8—the final year in the junior high school in that city—while the

programs for grade 9 in Colorado Springs, Harrisburg, Montclair, Oakland, Peoria, St. Louis, and Washington include differentiated courses either in terms of types of curriculums or in terms of pupils grouped according to ability. College entrance requirements, with a course in ancient history, are apparently also a factor in the provision for differentiated courses in some of these cities.

2. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

Types of courses offered at the senior high school level in 43 cities are listed in Table 4.[2] The social studies programs for three 4-year high schools are included in this list. Due to variations in the grades included in administrative school units, it is likely that other variations occur in some cities, such as the 6-year secondary school. There seem to be certain rather well-defined patterns and sequences of courses in the offerings at the senior high school level. Courses in world history in grade 10, United States or American history

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[1] Comparative data for social studies programs are found in Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1915, Vol. I, p. 120; Franklin Bobbitt. The Actual Objectives of the Present-Day High Schools. School Review, 29:255, April, 1921; Walter S. Monroe *and* I. O. Foster. The Status of the Social Sciences in the High Schools of the North Central Association, pp. 14, 18. University of Illinois, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin, No. 13, 1922; H. H. Moore, Status of Certain Social Studies in High Schools, pp. 7, 10–11, 14. United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1922, No. 45; Edgar Dawson. The History Inquiry: Report of the Director. Historical Outlook, 15:255, June, 1924; Edwin J. Dahl. Social Studies Failing to Hit the Mark. Educational Review, 75:235, April, 1928; North Central Association, Proceedings, Pt. I, 1925, p. 51; North Central Association Quarterly, 5:104, June, 1930.

Data on courses of study and allied phases of the teaching of the social studies for different States reported during the past decade are found in Read Bain. The Teaching of the Social Studies in Washington High Schools. School and Society, 26:754–758, December 10, 1927; Read Bain. The Status of the Social Studies in the High Schools of the State of Washington. Historical Outlook, 19:329–334, November, 1928; Ward S. Bowman. A Survey of the Social Sciences in the High Schools of Washington. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Washington, 1927; James C. Malin. The Status of the Historical and Social Sciences in Kansas High Schools. Kansas Teacher, 24:11–17, March, 1927; also in Historical Outlook, 18:26–28, January, 1927; E. J. Markham. The Present Status of Social Studies in Massachusetts High Schools. Unpublished master's thesis, Boston University, 1926; Joseph M. Murphy. History Teaching in Massachusetts High Schools. Historical Outlook, 14:363–369, December, 1923; Joseph M. Murphy. A Survey of the Social Studies in New England—Rhode Island. Historical Outlook, 16:165–166, April, 1925; Bernice A. Prochaska *and* Read Bain. Sociology in Ohio High Schools. Columbus, Ohio, State Department of Education, n. d. 39 p.; R. H. Schild. A Study of the Social Studies in the Accredited High Schools of Florida. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Florida, 1926; E. B. Smith. Status of Social Studies in the High Schools of Colorado. Historical Outlook, 14:369–372, December, 1923; Edward P. Smith. The Social Studies in New York State. Ibid., 359–363; Walter R. Smith *and* Ethel S. Crowell, Status of Social Science in Kansas High Schools. University of Kansas, Bulletin of Education, 2:3–5; February, 1925, T. A. Turner. A Study of the Social Science Curriculum for Mississippi High Schools. Unpublished master's thesis, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1927.

combined in some cities with civics in grade 11, and semester courses in economics, sociology, or civics in grade 12 seem to constitute a favored program in 13 cities, with variations in types of additional elective courses. A second type of program substitutes problems of democracy for separate semester courses in grade 12, but retains all other parts of the first type. Four cities use this type of program. A third type, with early European history in grade 10, modern European or modern world history in grade 11, and United States history and civics, with additional elective courses in grade 12, is favored in five cities. These patterns or types of programs, however, are only provisional, because in 14 of the 22 cities some courses are offered at two or more grade levels or alternating courses are provided. In fact, the social studies programs of only 2 of the 43 cities are identical when all the required and elective courses offered at different grade levels are considered.

Due to the diversity of practices in the internal organization of courses of study in a particular subject, the frequency of offerings of different subjects in Table 4 are only convenient categories. The labels attached to courses merely indicate the broad general boundaries of subject matter included, with little or no indication of the selection and organization of the subject matter.

World history, organized as a 1-year course, usually offered in grade 10, represents the only history course in the senior high school program with any marked agreement concerning grade placement. This course seems to be displacing the 2-year sequence in European or world history. Several cities, however, offer both a 1-year course in world history and a 2-year sequence of courses in European or world history. American or United States history is found at every grade level in the senior high school, although it is most frequently offered in grades 11 and 12. Usually the course covers two semesters, but it is a semester course in five cities. A course in American or United States history and civics is offered in six cities. English history is usually listed as an elective course for pupils who wish to meet college entrance requirements, or to meet the requirements set for a history sequence or a history diploma.

TABLE 4.—*Courses in the social studies in senior high schools in 43 cities* [1]

Course	Grades					
	10		11		12	
	First semester	Second semester	First semester	Second semester	First semester	Second semester
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
World history or civilization	25	25				
Early European or early world history	6	6				
Modern European or modern world history	6	6	14	13		
Mediaeval and modern history	1	1				
English history	2	2	4	2	1	
American or United States history	4	5	16	14	13	11
American or United States history and civics			4	4	2	2
American history and problems of democracy					1	1
Ancient history					2	1
State history					2	2
Industrial history			1			
Latin American history			1		2	
Pan-Pacific or Pacific-rim history					[2] 3	
History of South America			1			
Current history			1	1	3	1
International relations					[2] 3	
Problems of democracy			2	1	8	7
Economics			5	1	[2] 19	5
Economic problems					1	
Sociology			2	2	[2] 12	
Social problems			1		[2] 5	
Social and economic problems					2	
Citizenship	1	1				
Advanced civics or American government			6	4	[2] 10	2
Occupations	1				2	1
Geography	3	3	1	1	2	
History of art					1	

[1] Data incomplete for 4 cities.
[2] In some instances offered also during second semester.

Senior high schools in California include a variety of subjects in their social studies programs which are not generally found in other sections of the United States. There is apparently more interest in Central America, South America, Mexico, and the Orient, and such subjects as Pan-Pacific history, Pacific-rim history, Pacific relations, and Latin-American history are included in the social studies programs in a number of the larger cities. Courses in international relations are included in the social studies programs in Denver, Los Angeles, Oakland, San Diego, and Tulsa.

Problems of democracy, listed under a variety of titles, is offered in 10 cities, usually as a 1-year course. In eastern cities it is often the only social studies course offered in grade 12, while in western cities it is generally regarded as one of

a series of electives including economics, sociology, and advanced civics, usually offered as 1-semester courses.

The number of subjects other than United States history included in social studies programs in grades 11 and 12 varies widely in different cities, and there are differences among senior high schools in a given city. Seven of these courses are offered in the senior high schools of San Francisco, while in Los Angeles and Oakland six are included in the social studies programs. In general the largest number of 1-semester courses, often listed as "upper division electives," are found in the programs of senior high schools in cities located in the western part of the country, while the usual offerings in most other sections seem to include one or two courses selected from economics, advanced civics, or sociology.

It is probable that the social studies programs for senior high schools in larger cities included in Table 4 are only representative and frequently inaccurate. Requirements and courses in the social studies frequently vary in different curriculums in the same senior high school and in the different general, commercial, and technical high schools in certain cities. Even in the general senior high schools in a given city the social studies departments exercise a certain amount of autonomy in the number of courses offered, as well as in sequences and grade placement of courses. These variations seem particularly evident in cities in which there is no director responsible for special supervision and guidance in the organization and development of the social studies.

CHAPTER IV : ANALYSIS OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL COURSES

1. FUSION COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The fusion or unified organization of materials in the social studies has received much attention during the past decade. In reality a number of fusion or unified plans have been proposed. While in theory and practice the different fusion plans vary in certain particulars, they all seem to have one element in common—the obliteration of boundaries between subjects in varying degrees in order to assemble content according to certain new points of reference.[1]

Any attempt to group or classify fusion, unified, or composite courses for purposes of analysis is beset with certain rather obvious difficulties; at best, it may result in arbitrary distinctions that are more apparent than real. It is possible to consider such courses in terms of (1) an overview of their organization; (2) the internal organization of materials included in the different units; (3) the relative proportions of content from each subject woven into the entire course with some analysis of the relationships between different phases of content; (4) the extent to which the content is amalgamated or merged in the courses at different grade levels; and (5) the particular concepts, such as fusion, correlation, coordination, and the like, which presumably have determined the selection and organization of content in different courses. Practically all these plans for the analysis of courses afford many distinctions that are elusive, and labels that merely add to the present confusion in categories and content. Limitations of space prevent a more detailed analysis.

A comparison of fusion or unified courses in terms of general overview of the organization, however arbitrary and unsatisfactory this approach may be, reveals certain general patterns of materials for different grade levels which seem to warrant the grouping of courses for descriptive purposes.

[1] Limitations of space prevent an analysis of the assumptions on which the fusion idea is projected. For a theoretical analysis, see Howard E. Wilson, The Fusion of Social studies in the Junior High School: A Critical Analysis. Unpublished doctor's dissertation, Harvard University, Graduate School of Education, 1931.

Probably the most radical departure from conventional plans of organization of content is found in the tentative social-studies program in Houston. The major theme of the 2-year program for grades 6 and 7, the first two junior high school grades in that city, is: "Man has reached his present stage of development by facing the problems of wresting a livelihood from nature"; through these experiences he has "learned how to overcome nature and harness her to his advantage," and in so doing he has learned to utilize the possibilities of transportation, communication, power, and the like; "the development of these possibilities, however, has created situations which have drawn certain social, political, and economic groups into conflict with each other . . .," and the history of those conflicts may be studied as big historical movements. Following an introductory unit entitled "A Survey of the Present-Day World," the sixth-grade course includes such units as Transportation, Communication, and Cooperation. The seventh-grade materials are concerned with Social, Political, and Economic Groups in Conflict; typical units are The Big Migratory Movements of History and The Big Freedom Movements in History. The content for the different units seems to be drawn from all the social studies, with apparent emphasis on American history and geography in grade 6 and elements of world history, civics, and economics in grade 7.

Another social-studies program which in certain features departs radically from the organization of content in conventional courses is found in the Dayton, Ohio, course of study for grades 5–8. The content for each is focused directly on three general objectives or qualities—broadmindedness, cooperation, and service. The general qualities are directly related to "general" and "special" objectives and procedures, which are set forth in parallel columns. There is no detailed outline of content, although certain elements of content are implied in the list of procedures. The content for the category "broadmindedness," in grade 7, includes "current problems" and "history problems." Under current problems, pupils are expected to understand differences in point of view between capital and labor, and on independence for the Philippines. History problems include tolerance and intol-

erance in the founding of the different American colonies; the differences in viewpoint which led to the French and Indian War, the Revolutionary War, and the Civil War; and the study of the foreign born and the Indians of Ohio. The general objective under "service" is: "To set up an ideal of spiritual and intellectual civilization which may tend to balance our machine civilization of to-day," and the content suggested to meet this objective includes the "contributions" which pupils can make to the school, the community, and the State.

The courses of study used at certain grade levels in San Francisco, Fresno, and Colorado Springs are similar or identical in organization and in the titles of units or divisions of material. These courses represent a third type of fusion organization of content. The content provided for all or part of these courses in different grades is based on certain of Rugg's *Social Science Pamphlets*, suggested originally for use in respective grades. Other parts of these courses are organized in terms of separate subjects. The materials for the first semester in grade 9 in the San Francisco course are organized as a separate subject in community civics. In Fresno the original fusion course for the second semester in grade 8 was found to be too difficult for pupils, and a course in American ideals, composed of content from history and civics organized in 43 units, has been substituted for the fusion course.

Another series of courses of study organized as parts of a fusion plan are found in Denver, Flint, Springfield (Mo.), and Cranston (R.I.). These social-studies programs organized in terms of units are all in tentative form. They differ from the three plans previously described not so much in kind as in internal organization. With the exception of the course for the first semester of grade 8 in Springfield and the subject courses in history for grade 8 in Flint and Cranston, the titles of units closely approximate the lists of chapters in the Rugg series of textbooks. The organization of content represents a more detailed arrangement and division of the materials. A certain shift in emphasis is apparent from the organization of materials about series or clusters of problems toward the approximation of the more conventional types of

organization of content in terms of separate subjects. While certain differences in details of the organization of content are evident, these courses do not show marked differences in titles of major divisions and units. The Denver program is used with average and superior groups, while the slow groups use a course in which content is organized according to straight chronological order found in conventional subject courses.

A fifth series of fusion courses are found in the social-studies programs in Long Beach and Schenectady. While differences in underlying assumptions and in earlier programs from which they were developed are apparent, these courses have in common a conception of the grouping of units, each of which tends to be coterminous in boundaries with the content from the different subjects included in the social studies. Although no particular order or arrangement in the sequences of units is evident, the content is largely geography and history in grades 7 and 8 and civics in grade 9.

The Long Beach program, after the introductory unit intended to orient pupils into a new school environment and a unit dealing with aspects of community life, includes study of "The Westward Movement" which deals with the entire period from preliterate history through European and American history, with appropriate material from geography, to the history and settlement of California. Other units are almost as broad in scope and areas of experience covered and are concerned with various types of content. Each unit in grade 9 is, in most instances, coterminous in boundaries with separate subjects in the social studies.[2] The Schenectady program [3] is similar to the Long Beach program in the titles of many units, but there are frequent and marked differences in the internal organization of individual units. Credit for certain ideas is given to the Denver social studies program, and the original plans for the course, from which the present organization has been developed, are credited to Rugg's *Social Science Pamphlets.*

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[2] For an account of the background, assumptions, and early development of the Long Beach program, see Seymour I. Stone. The Social Sciences in the Junior High School. School Review, 30 : 760-769, December 1922.

[3] Palmer, Edgar B. Social Science in the Junior High Schools of Schenectady. Junior-Senior High School Clearing House, 4: 603-605, June 1930.

A sixth type of organization of content is found in the Rochester social studies program for junior high schools. This plan of organization differs from the preceding plans in that the units retain their identity in terms of subject matter. In other words, there are units the content of which is drawn from history, civics, economics, and sociology. The units are arranged in a developmental sequence and fit into a coordinate plan. Those for grades 7 and 8 include a sequence of history, local history, and civics arranged in a chronological and natural order of development, while in grade 9 emphasis is placed on elementary economics and sociology in their immediate relationships and practical aspects, with a final unit focused on educational guidance. Certain units which deal with community civics are similar to those found in the Schenectady program, although they are arranged in a different order.

The social studies program in the Fordson Public Schools, Dearborn, Mich., includes the grouping of content from different subjects. This course of study differs from the plans of organization for Long Beach and Schenectady in that it is divided into sections, with the units in each section composed of content from the same subject. The units in each section are usually coordinated in rank and possess a certain unity in arrangement. The fusion concept apparently is not applicable and has presumably not been a factor in the organization of the course. Correlation and coordination of content, however, are mentioned as concepts while influenced by the development of the Fordson program.[4]

A final group of three programs in the social studies—Oakland, Pasadena, and San Diego—are grouped together, because in these programs units or topics are organized in terms of a separate unified treatment for each semester through the junior high school. The content, however, varies for the courses in each city. In the seventh grade the Oakland course of study includes American history from the European background, with emphasis during the second semester on the westward movement, the development of

[4] For an account of the assumptions on which the program is based and a description of its main features, see Ferris E. Lewis. Social Science in the Junior High Schools of Fordson Junior-Senior High School Clearing House, 4 : 608-615, June 1930.

transportation, communication, and the influence of inventions and immigration. The Pasadena course for this grade includes the geography of the United States and the early part of American history, while the San Diego course deals with Latin America for the first semester, followed by eastern United States for the second semester. The content in the latter course represents a correlation between history and geography.

These three programs differ from the preceding types in that the content for each semester in all courses is assembled as a series of units or topics, arranged in sequences in such a manner as to suggest unity and coherence in the organization of the content for each semester. The fusion concept does not seem to find a place in these courses. The Oakland program is regarded as a "composite course," based primarily on history in grades 7 and 8. The Pasadena program is not focused in a direct manner upon a fusion plan, and some members of the teaching staff prefer to think of the courses as separate subjects for each semester, with considerable correlation of materials from the different social studies. The San Diego program is quite explicit in the use of the concept of correlation in the organization of content, in that history and geography must occupy a common ground in the junior high school, since the trend of each is toward social and industrial problems, with the human approach. The first principle of correlation as here used is that the study must be regional; the second, that a regional study must have a historical approach.[5]

Certain differences in the organization of fusion, unified, or composite courses may be summarized at this point. Wide variations in the scope and kinds of areas of experience to which pupils are exposed are found in these courses. Emphasis in some courses is placed primarily on a horizontal organization of experience to the exclusion of a vertical organization, while an attempt to provide for both is found in other courses. The plans vary considerably in the arrangement of units in terms of sequences and larger sub-

[5] See T. Malcolm Brown and Agness Work, Social Science Course of Study for the Low Seventh Grade, San Diego, Calif., Junior-Senior High School Clearing House, 5:100–101, October, 1930, for the local relationships and background on which the course is built.

divisions. Internal evidence in certain courses seems also to indicate that they have passed through a series of basic changes in organization of units, with a modification of the more radical original proposals toward more conventional plans. Variations are found in the courses of study in the extent to which fusion or unification of materials is carried for the different grades and in the degrees of completeness with which the materials are merged or correlated.

2. GEOGRAPHY IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Courses of study in geography are included in this report when the subject is classified as a social study [6] in the school systems in which the courses are used. Geography is probably offered, but not regarded as social study, in other school systems from which the courses of study in geography were received. Consequently the data reported on courses in geography must be regarded as incomplete.

The courses of study submitted for examination include 14 for grade 7, of which 4 are 1 semester in length; 4 for grade 8, of which 2 are 1-semester courses; and a 1-semester course for grade 9. Certain other programs include geography at the junior high school level (Table 3), but courses of study were not available.

The organization of content in the courses of study seems to represent considerable diversity in practices and in type of content, but the variations in practices are more apparent than real, due to differences in the organization of major topics rather than in the essential content included in the

[6] Limitations of space prevent a statement and analysis of the issues involved in the controversy over the classification of geography as a social study. Geographers seem generally to agree that geography is not a social study. This position is taken in the following articles: Harlan H. Barrows *and* Edith Putnam Parker. Elementary Geography: Objectives and Curriculum. Elementary School Journal, 25:493–506, March, 1925; George J. Miller. Enduring Elements in Present Geographic Education. School Progress, 9:11–14, January, 1928; H. W. Fairbanks. Can the Educational Value of Real Geography in the Junior High School be Replaced by Any Other Subject or Combination of Subjects? Journal of Geography, 26:287–331, November, 1927. Differences in opinions among educators are cited by W. R. McConnell. The Place of Geography in the Junior High School. Journal of Geography, 23:49–58, February, 1924. School administrators, however, seem to be in general agreement that geography shall be regarded as a social study. See the questionnaire survey by A. C. Senour summarized in Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, Fourth Yearbook, pp. 324–329. Nels A. Bengston in High-School Geography: To Be or Not to Be. School Science and Mathematics, 29:693–701, October, 1929, classifies opinions in four main groups with respect to the place of geography in the high-school curriculum.

outlines. Categories are not mutually exclusive, nor is one type of content always found exclusively in a given course. On the contrary, certain courses in grade 7 include topics or units on regions or nations, the resources and industries of the United States, State and local geography, and mathematical geography, in various combinations.

Considered in terms of frequency of occurrence, content organized according to nations and regions is apparently the most favored plan in junior high school courses. No precise distinctions can, however, be made in most courses between regional treatment of content and organization of topics suggesting subject matter of a political and social nature. The brief outlines in most courses seem to indicate that the courses were developed in terms of topics which suggest political geography, but further examination indicates that the content included in individual topics is primarily economic and commercial rather than political and social in substance and implications. If the organization of content by regions involves the development of subject matter according to areas without regard to political boundaries, then only two courses seem to follow this plan consistently.

All the major and many minor countries of the world received consideration in most courses, although the number included depends upon the length of the course. The content is usually outlined in very general terms; the outlines are brief and frequently vague, with little indication of the scope of subject matter to be taught. The number of topics or units included in different courses varies widely. One-semester courses usually include a smaller number of topics or units, which are wider in the scope of content, such as "The United States and Its Dependencies," "The British Empire," and "The Orient." The courses intended for use during one semester in grade 7 include lists of comprehensive units and topics.

Physical geography is not organized as a separate course, but one or more topics on physical features of continents are frequently used as introductory materials in courses of study. These topics include topography, climate, drainage, coast lines, mountains, and "oceans and winds."

The Los Angeles course for grade 7 is called "occupational geography," with an attempt to point out to pupils the relationships between environment and types of occupations. Mathematical geography finds a place in the courses used in Ithaca, N. Y., and Portland, Me. Some of the content in these two courses is found in one or more major topics labeled physical geography in other courses. The divergent practices in different courses with respect to this type of content involve degrees of condensation and amplification in selection and organization of materials.

The courses of study in geography at the seventh-grade level seem to have been developed from a number of points of view. It is apparent that the organization and selection of content in some courses has been based on the conception that the course at this grade level is an extension and completion of the sequences of geography courses offered in the intermediate grades. In some instances the course is apparently regarded as the final and capstone course in a sequence of earlier courses. This conception probably accounts for the wide range of areas of experience embodied in the prescribed content. Again, certain courses seem to be regarded as the world or spatial setting for the courses in history and other social studies in the junior and senior high schools. This conception, in part, is implied in the recommendations of certain committees, and, in part, seems an inevitable result of the compression of content because of a smaller time allotment for courses in geography.

Human geography, so far as limits or boundaries of content are concerned, is replete with difficulties, and doubtless, in part, overlaps and includes many other classifications of content. While human geography is stressed in the introduction to certain of the courses of study, it apparently receives only minor consideration in the actual outlines of the courses of study.

The courses of study at the junior high school level seem to give little attention to the development of concepts, processes, and principles.[7] While most of the lists of objectives

[7] See lists of principles in E. E. Lackey. The Classification and Use of Geographic Principles. Journal of Geography, 23 : 64-71, February, 1924; D. C. Ridgely and Preston E. James Geographic Principles and Their Application in the Teaching of Geography. Journal of Geography, 23 : 136-141, April, 1924.

devote some attention to certain generalizations, these are not usually presented in a systematic manner. Attention of teachers is not directed toward the use of content to meet these objectives in a systematic manner in the outlines included in courses. Definite lists of concepts are found in only a few courses, and these are not associated directly with suggested content.

Opportunities for correlation between geography and history are frequently mentioned in the introductory materials in courses of study. Specific suggestions, however, are provided in only a few courses developed on the independent-parallel plan, in which geography and history are taught in the same grades. Cross references are used in the outlines for both subjects in the Montclair course of study. In the Ithaca course for grade 7, outlines of content in geography and history are set forth for general periods in alternating fashion rather than as separate outlines for each grade. The outline for the "Geography of the Mediterranean Basin" is followed by the "History of the Mediterranean Basin." The history outlines also include "correlative geographic principles" interspersed throughout the history content.

3. EUROPEAN BACKGROUND OF AMERICAN HISTORY

The courses of study in six cities [8] include the European background of American history as a 1-semester course in grade 7; the only exception is Montclair, where the course correlated with a course in geography covers the school year. The courses in American history in nine other cities provide one or more introductory units in European background; in one course the materials for almost the entire first semester, although labeled American history, fall within the category of "European background."

There is reason to believe that many of the school systems which do not provide a course in European background for the seventh grade include the course in the sixth grade. Direct references to such a course are found in a few junior high school social studies programs, but the courses for elementary schools are not available and no direct check can

[8] Ithaca, N. Y.; Lansing, Mich.: Montclair, N. J.; Portland, Me.; Richmond, Ind. and Little Rock, Ark.

be made. Kyte, in a survey of the organization of 53 elementary-school courses in history, found that the content of 24 courses in the sixth grade was concerned entirely with the European background of American history, and 10 additional courses included this type of content with other materials.[9] These data seem to indicate that the course is well established in the sixth grade.

The courses in European background of American history for the six cities listed in footnote 8 are of three types. One type is based on the materials that have become conventional and standardized through inclusion in textbooks. Four courses are developed according to this plan with some minor changes in units or topics. The content includes a sort of bird's-eye view of different countries and peoples, with their contributions to the development of later phases of history, from the beginning of written records to the sixteenth century. A second type of course, developed in Little Rock, is focused more directly on the contributions to civilization made by different countries during all periods prior to the seventeenth century. The course is introduced with an orientation unit intended to adjust pupils in new surroundings and to acquaint them with the opportunities and facilities offered by the junior high school. A second unit, "How Early Mankind Lived," is followed by a series on the development of civilization in Egypt and western Asia, Greece, Rome, and other countries.

The Richmond, Ind., course represents a third type in that the first unit, "group life," affords a present-day setting for the course, followed by a unit on "The Growth of Trade in Western Europe." In this course the subject matter includes the more immediate background for an understanding of the events and forces which led to the discovery and exploration of the New World.

A somewhat radical departure from conventional programs in the social studies is the course in "Modern World Setting for American History" in Washington, D. C. This half-year course follows a course in European background of American history in grade 6. It is based almost entirely on the study

[9] Kyte, George C. Variations in the Organization of the Elementary Courses of Study in History. Educational Administration and Supervision, 13:368, September, 1927.

of biographies of representative personages. The characters included for the French Revolution, for instance, are Louis XIV, Voltaire, Frederick the Great, and Marie Antoinette; those who represent the Victorian Age are Queen Victoria, Gladstone, Disraeli, Livingstone, Cecil Rhodes, Florence Nightingale, Jenner, and Pasteur.

The content suggested in the outlines is focused primarily on political history, and, in general, it implies a condensation of subject matter of the conventional type rather than the selection and rather complete treatment of concrete materials likely to give pupils an understanding of events within the range of their comprehension and experience. None of the courses is developed in terms of a series of cross-sectional views of the life of the people in the different periods and countries in such a manner as to indicate habits of life, ways of earning a living, elements of handicraft and culture, and the many other elements which are of considerable interest to pupils.

4. *AMERICAN HISTORY*

American history is found in some form in all junior high school programs which have been examined. The fusion courses in the social studies include liberal amounts of American history organized in a variety of forms. American history, as a separate subject, is included in 31 of the 55 social studies programs. It receives a time allotment of 4 semesters in 3 programs, and is included along with other subjects, following the independent-parallel plan, in 4 additional programs; 3 semesters are devoted to the subject in 4 programs, 2 semesters in 19 programs, and 1 semester in 1 social studies program.

The courses of study in American history with the largest allotments of time usually include a larger number of major topics or units than are found in courses with a time allotment of 2 semesters. Seven of the eleven courses intended for use during 3 and 4 semesters include one or more units or topics on the European background of American history, but this content is included in two only of the 1-year courses. All courses of study, regardless of the time allotments, give considerable attention to the colonial period, and in general the content of the courses is selected from the whole range of

American history from the discovery, exploration, and colonization of the New World to the present time. There is little evidence, however, of detailed organization of content and intensive treatment of a limited number of topics or units in most courses; rather there seems to be a disposition to include as much content as possible in order that most of the conventional materials may find a place in the courses.

The organization of content in most courses of study seems to imply a narrative or topical treatment. Three courses, however, are organized in part in terms of presidential administrations. With few exceptions, the topics, units, or problems are arranged in sequences and cover relatively restricted periods. Conventional plans of internal organization of materials which have become standardized in textbooks and manuals seem to have marked influence in the development of outlines of content in courses of study.

Certain exceptions to the general practices in organization of content found in most courses of study in American history are worthy of mention. The Baltimore course for the second half of the seventh grade is organized by topics, all of which cover the same period from different points of view. The major topics are—

I. Development of the Nation to 1860:
   - A. Commercial Growth to 1860.
   - B. Political Growth to 1860.
   - C. Expansion to 1860.
   - D. Industrial and Social Growth to 1860.

Aside from the courses in Baltimore and several other cities, the least satisfactory organization is for the material since the Civil War. Many phases of the content apparently are difficult for pupils at the junior high school level; there is an enormous amount of content from which to select, and treatment of materials in textbooks is not so standardized and conventional as for the earlier periods. These factors may account, in part, for the fragmentary and generalized character of the content included in many courses of study. In reading the outlines one gains the impression that many of them are lacking in some of the more important and crucial materials. In some instances there seems to be a

disposition to approach the materials in such a way as to select only content which is concerned with the industrial and commercial development of the country and the growth of the United States as a world power. Agrarian and industrial unrest, problems in the regulation and control of certain types of industrial practices by the Government, and phases of political corruption, panics, and industrial, financial, social, and political reforms receive only incidental attention or are not mentioned. This period seems to be regarded in some courses as a national epic attuned to "progress," and presented in an increasing tempo which culminates in the "grand manner" in the treatment of the United States as a world power. While there are doubtless many dramatic episodes in this period, historians may properly raise certain questions concerning the criteria used for the selection of content and the extent to which the materials selected for study give an accurate portrayal of the interplay of all types of forces during this period of history.

Little space in courses of study seems to be devoted to cross-sectional views of the life of the people at different periods in American history. Three courses of study include a major topic or unit on "Colonial Life," but in general social history does not seem to find a place in these courses in American history at the junior high school level. The industrial revolution is found as a major topic or unit in eight courses, while four courses consider the tariff of sufficient importance to give it a major place in the content prior to the Civil War. Similar materials, as indicated above, are found in major topics or units of only a small number of courses covering the period of great industrial and commercial development of the last quarter of the last century.

The phases of the content which seem to receive most emphasis in courses of study are the discovery, exploration, and settlement of the new country; the difficulties between the Colonies and Great Britain which culminated in the Revolutionary War; the establishment of the Federal Government; the westward movement; the slavery controversy; the reconstruction period; and the emergence of the United States as a world power.

5. CIVICS

The types of courses offered.—Courses in civics offered at the junior high school level include a variety of titles, types of organization of subject matter, and types of content. Courses are labeled community civics, citizenship civics, guidance in citizenship, vocational civics, economic civics, and the like. The name attached to a course does not always furnish direct clues to the nature and organization of content.

Community civics.—Civics is included at every grade level in the junior high school in the courses of study in the social studies made available for examination. (Table 3.) Courses in civics other than economic and vocational civics include three 1-year courses for the seventh grade, with elements of civics correlated with geography and history in an additional course; three 1-year and two half-year courses for the eighth grade, with civics content correlated with American history in one additional course; and three 1-year and 11 half-year courses for the ninth grade.

Courses in civics may be grouped into several types in terms of the internal organization of content and the assumptions which seem to be implied in the principles of organization. One type is found in the social studies program of Dallas. The half-year course for the eighth grade, followed by a course in vocational civics, is subdivided into three sections; the units of the first section are—

I. Group Life.
   1. How We Live Together.
   2. The Family and Home.
   3. The School and Education.
   4. The Church and Religion.
   5. The Neighborhood and Community.
   6. Our Nation and Country.
   7. The World and Our Neighbors in Other Lands.

The half-year course in civics in Peoria covers essentially the same content and follows the same plan of organization; it also includes certain materials on the economic phases of community life.

Another type of organization of the content of community civics is found in the Waukesha, Wis., course. The topics cover much the same material as the courses described above,

but the organizing principle is apparently selection of certain problems, with little attempt at internal organization of problems in terms of relationships and sequential arrangement for the course as a whole.

The problems included in the first half of the Hackensack, N. J., course in civics are based on the list of topics recommended in the report [10] of the Special Committee of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, while the second half of the course includes materials on the organization and structure of government. The course entitled "Guidance in Citizenship" in the seventh grade of the Harrisburg, Pa., social studies program represents an attempt to provide materials focused on educational guidance combined with elementary materials on different aspects of civics. Another variation in type of content includes civics materials found in the Fresno course for the second semester of the ninth grade. An attempt is made in the organization of content to strike a balance between the government and the individual in his rights, privileges, and relations with the group. Some of the courses, as indicated above, seem to give little attention to the individual and his status in group relationships, and in this respect the Fresno course represents a slight departure from the rather extreme emphasis on conformity to groups and group influences on the individual.

When courses in civics are considered in relation to other subjects in the social studies program for the junior high school, they may be divided into three types: (1) Elements of civics correlated with other subjects or abstracted from other subjects for emphasis in the classroom; (2) courses in civics taught for a specified period of a year or a half year, preceded by and followed by other subjects on an alternating plan; (3) courses in civics taught parallel with other subjects, usually a time allotment of two or three periods per week.

The first type of course in which elements of civics are correlated with other subjects is found in courses in American history and civics or American history and government. The usual plan of organization involves the teaching of topics

[10] The Teaching of Community Civics. United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1915, No. 23, pp. 20-50.

in civics at appropriate places in the courses in American history. The Constitution, for example, receives more or less intensive treatment after the constitutional convention is considered, and along with the content in the organization of the Federal Government.

A variation of the plan for the correlation between history and civics is found in some courses in American history and civics, in that the civics content usually follows the history content in a separate series of topics or units. The Pueblo, Colo., tentative course for the eighth grade is developed according to this plan, with a time allotment of eight weeks for civics. More frequently, however, the inclusion of civics seems to be an afterthought, with no apparent specific provision made for appropriate content.

The correlation between the other social studies and civics seems to operate in the selection of civics content in terms of its historical setting or background. Instead of content organized in keeping with the immediate environment, there is the need of utilizing the type of materials which can be correlated with the historical or geographical setting of the facts presented in those courses.[11] Thus the content is usually concerned with the origins of political institutions, the original development of governmental practices and political procedures, the formulation and slow recognition of principles and political institutions. The civics content in the eighth grade in the courses of study in Montclair and in Ithaca, with the exception of the last half of the ninth grade, are developed in terms of the more formal and traditional materials.

A variation of the plans for the correlation of subject matter is found in the Kansas City, Mo., course, in which United States history since the Civil War is correlated with civics. The course is preceded by United States history to about 1865, and the two courses form the social studies program in a 2-year junior high school unit. Emphasis in the correlated course is placed upon civics content interspersed with history in such a manner as to show the origin and devel-

[11] Suggestions for the senior high school level are included in Florence Bernd. Opportunities for Teaching Civics in Early European History. Historical Outlook, 18 : 325–327, November, 1927.

opment of current civic problems and vocational opportunities. United States history since the Civil War is said to contain considerable content which is difficult and beyond the experience of junior high school pupils; selections from this content are used only to the extent necessary to develop the background and setting of current problems.

Vocational civics.—Courses in vocational civics are included in the social studies programs for junior high schools in nine cities. With one exception, vocational civics is a half-year course offered in the ninth grade. Courses are labeled vocational civics, vocational information, and occupations; vocational civics is apparently the most favored title. Certain units on vocational civics are also included in the unified social studies courses. It is unlikely that the number of courses of study submitted approximate the total number of courses offered in junior high schools represented in the survey since these courses are offered by vocational guidance departments in some school systems.

Certain divergent practices in the organization of content are revealed in the examination of available courses. The titles of units or topics in part indicate differences in organization of the subject for teaching purposes. The Lansing course includes the following units:

1. Education and Work.
2. Classification of Occupations.
3. Advantages and Disadvantages of Each Vocation.
4. Choosing a Vocation.
5. The Relations Between Employers and Employees.
6. Securing and Holding a Position.
7. Making a Success.
8. Successful Lives.

Emphasis in this course seems to be placed on a variety of types of information on obtaining a position, vocational adjustments, and the general setting or background for further study. Only about a third of the time is given to the detailed study of types of vocations. The courses in Dallas and Peoria, although they have different titles for units and topics, cover much the same content. The Peoria course includes 18 types of occupations for study.

The course in vocational information in Richmond, Ind., includes a number of units for girls, and the internal organi-

zation of materials differs somewhat from that in the Lansing course. In this course the time allotment for the study of specific occupations is five weeks. There is provision for the economic and industrial setting of occupations as well as for a study of the offerings of the senior high school in relation to preparation for certain types of occupations. Provision for curriculum guidance, with a time allotment of one-third of the course, is a distinctive feature of the Harrisburg, Pa., course in vocational civics.

Several of the courses in vocational civics include content of direct interest to girls; some courses, regardless of whether or not the content is differentiated, are apparently intended for both boys and girls. The Waukesha, Wis., course is the only one which provides separate materials for members of each sex.

The intensive study of one occupation and the writing of a report, sometimes called a "career book," is a required part of six courses. This activity is intended to give pupils training in the technique of assembling data concerning any vocation, regardless of whether or not the tentative choice made prior to the preparation of the report eventually becomes a final choice of vocation which the individual follows for his life work. The amount of time allotted in different courses for the intensive study of one vocation and the preparation of the report varies from one to six weeks.

Economic civics.—Economic civics, as a separate course, is apparently found in only a small number of social studies programs. Only two courses of study were available for analysis. Units or topics in economic civics are also included in a few courses of study in vocational civics; three units are included in the Rockford course of study. Several of the fusion courses also contain materials in economic civics. In general, there seem to be no definite boundaries between economic civics and community civics or between economic civics and elementary economics.

The social studies programs in Harrisburg and New Castle, Pa., include courses in economic civics. The Harrisburg courses contain titles of topics which are frequently included in economics, such as "Consumption," "Production," "Factory System," and "Capital." The content of the course,

however, seems somewhat more elementary than that of courses in economics for grades 11 and 12.

Problems in the organization of courses in civics.—It is practically impossible to classify civics courses at the junior high school level unless many arbitrary distinctions which vitiate the idea of classification, together with many exceptions in categories, are to be made. If community civics is concerned with the immediate environment of pupils and citizenship at this level is regarded as synonymous with membership, a survey of different units and administrative departments of government would seem to be excluded from such a course. Only one course of study seems to be based entirely on this conception of community civics. If the concept "community" is to be regarded as national and international in scope, then from one point of view content dealing with the nation and the world as communities would seem to find a place in courses in community civics. None of the courses of study examined can be classified in this category. To make an arbitrary distinction between community civics and government is not particularly helpful, because the content of community civics, while primarily concerned with functions, can not ignore the agencies of local government which perform such functions. If community civics is intended to afford a many-sided view of community life, due attention and emphasis must be given to the economic aspects and vocational opportunities of the community. In actual practice some courses of study deal with the many-sided aspects of community life, while other courses are limited to certain aspects of the study of the community, supplemented by additional courses in which the economic and vocational aspects of community life are abstracted for special study. Again, it is possible that a particular element of community life may be regarded as economic in one relationship and as social in another; certainly every element of community life is a complex which carries implications that transcend any of the categories

The elements or problems of group welfare, such as health, recreation, care of the handicapped, and the like, represent the content which is found in varying amounts and degrees of completeness of treatment in nearly all courses in com-

munity civics. With few exceptions, the courses also include brief surveys of the organization and structure of local, State, and national government and the different departments of government. Some courses include the community institutions in which pupils are members as introductory content, followed by elements of group welfare and materials on government.

The subject matter devoted to government in civics courses, despite the attempts to phrase the titles of topics and units in an interesting manner, seems rather heavy, formal, and stereotyped for junior high school pupils In so far as the outlines reveal the actual content used in the classroom, pupils apparently become acquainted with a formal presentation of the organization and structure of local, State, and national government, without, at the same time, gaining insights into (1) the interplay of forces, institutions, loyalties, and traditions in relation to the organization of government, and (2) the many activities of the government which have a bearing and influence on the economic, industrial, and social life of the Nation. In other words, the outlines seem concerned with form and machinery rather than with the realities of government.

The outlines of content which are concerned with the study of community environment are not always indicative of a many-sided view of the community. The numerous community studies and investigations made by sociologists, social workers, and investigators in the other social sciences do not seem to have influenced the selection of content included in courses in community civics to any marked degree. The content in those courses in which outlines are included seems to be quite definitely selected and presented in a generalized rather than a concrete manner.

The points of contact with the community in the courses of study are largely concerned with how services and agencies may function in ideal situations rather than how they actually function in the interplay of forces and groups in the community. The content on civic beauty is replete with examples of civic beauty, but there is usually nothing which will contribute to an understanding of the forces which operate to prevent the beautifying of cities and communities.

or of those which operate to exploit these situations. Ideals of public service in the abstract are laudable, but there will probably be less disillusionment and a greater understanding of the difficulties which stand in the approximation of these ideals when the content of civics courses is tempered with a greater amount of realism.

CHAPTER V : ANALYSIS OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL COURSES

1. EUROPEAN HISTORY

The courses offered.—European history at the senior high school level finds a place in social studies programs either in the 2-year sequence in European or world history or in a 1-year course in European or world history. A 1-year course in modern European or world history that includes a brief résumé of selected phases of medieval history is also found in a few social studies programs. Some schools offer both the 2-year and the 1-year courses, while an occasional school offers the 1-year course including materials to about 1870, followed by a semester course in current history. Although the courses are labeled "early European history" or "early world history" and "modern European history" or "modern world history," few differences in content are apparent.

Early European and early world history.—Eleven courses in early European history have been examined. With a few minor exceptions, these courses follow the same general plan of organization. The boundaries of these courses furnish some indication of the scope of the content. Ten of the 11 courses include introductory content on prehistoric times. The Rochester course in "Origins of Contemporary Civilization" is unique in that the introductory unit, "Man's Relation to His Environment," affords a broad setting in the geological materials. This unit is followed by "Origins and Development of Human Culture in Prehistoric Times," which draws heavily upon anthropological data.

The content for the first semester in courses in early European history is usually developed in terms of a survey of early peoples. In most courses the content on Egypt, Assyria, Babylonia, Greece, and Rome includes a brief presentation of physical geography and place geography, followed particularly for Greece and Rome by a treatment largely of different periods of political history. The outlines usually imply encyclopedic content, considerable condensa-

tion, and conventional plans of organization. The Rochester and Dallas courses, however, seem to be based on a closer selection of content in terms of the contributions made by each people to culture and advancement of civilization. The Rochester course includes definitions and discussions of concepts of civilization, with applications in the history of early peoples. The necessity for the differentiation between the legendary phases and the authenticated facts is stressed in two courses. Content on eastern Europe and Asia is included in only two courses, and the treatment is brief.

The content for the second semester of early European history includes institutions such as the church, feudalism, monasticism, and movements such as colonial expansion, the crusades, the renaissance, the reformation, and the growth of cities and national states. Only one course includes a major topic or unit on Asia. Cultural developments, the growth of towns with their increasing influence, the ways of living, manners and customs of the rank and file of the people, and far-reaching economic and cultural effects of the Crusades receive adequate consideration in a few courses. Content of the type found in W. S. Davis, *Life on a Medieval Barony*, and P. Boissonada, *Life and Work in Medieval Europe*, does not seem to find a place in most courses. The barbarian invasions, the disintegration of the Roman Empire, the Renaissance, and the development of Christianity receive somewhat more satisfactory treatment in accordance with the results of research and the elimination of old errors in content. The economic aspects and implications of the Reformation, however, do not receive mention in any of the courses.

Modern European and modern worla. history.—Fourteen courses of study of modern European and modern world history were examined, as compared with 11 courses in early European and early world history. Three of the 14 courses are not a part of a 2-year sequence, but all include a review of important content in early European history.

The general plan of organization in most courses stresses political history, with the "Age of Autocracy versus the Age of Democracy" as the central theme. The industrial revolution as a major topic or unit is found in eight courses;

it is, however, regarded as subordinate to or interpreted as a part of the political phases in four courses. "Industrial Revolution and Growth of Democracy" is an example of the combinations of content in different units or topics. Frequently the industrial revolution follows the consideration of the growth of imperialism manifested in the domination of Africa and parts of Asia by the great powers. Not infrequently in courses which give due emphasis to the industrial revolution, it seems to be considered as an episode in the history of one nation rather than as a process or a series of stages through which different nations passed at different times in the transition from a predominately agricultural to a growing industrial status.

The social reforms in England receive major consideration in only one course; social betterment, science, art, and literature apparently are not regarded as items of importance in most courses. Usually these phases of modern history receive mention only in series of names of persons who have made outstanding contributions in the different fields. The later and contemporary units or topics tend to include journalistic titles using such terms as "progress," "democracy," "betterment," and the like.

Little or no attention is given to the study of nationalism as such. Although most courses include content on the unification of Italy and Germany, practically no consideration seems to be given to the forces which operated to weld these peoples in political units. Imperialism seems to be regarded of sufficient importance to warrant a position as a major topic or unit in only four courses of study, and in only two is the term used. The usual approach seems to be political, and it seems apparent that an attempt is made in some courses to avoid the use of the term "imperialism." The Spread of European Civilization Over the World and the Progress of Civilization seem to be more favored titles for the introduction of content on the backward and subject peoples and the desire for empire. Euphemism reaches a climax in a major division of one course, entitled "The White Man's Burden," without giving credit to Kipling.

The materials on the World War are handled in a restrained manner, with little evidence of slogans and propaganda. The

outlines of post-war content are inadequate and loosely organized, probably because the textbooks frequently include only a meager treatment. Little evidence is found in the courses of a consistent attempt to develop the many-sided problems of readjustments and difficulties involved in carrying out the provisions of treaties, the organization and development of the League of Nations and the World Court, and the proposals for the control of armaments and for disarmament.

With few exceptions the courses in modern European history follow conventional plans of organization, with emphasis on political phases in the history of nations. The course in Houston, however, departs from the conventional plan in its lack of chronological sequences, in emphasis upon economic and social content, and in the realism displayed in treatment.

The Ardmore, Okla., course, organized on the principle of the "contributions" of nations to modern civilization, provides a series of categories, such as government, religion, "economic field," literature, science, and art, about which the content is organized for teaching purposes. While this plan seems to insure the focusing of content in terms of the uniform categories for all materials, there seems to be a danger that the categories rather than relative values of content will determine the selection of subject matter.

World history.—World history has apparently been received with increasing favor in the social studies program at the senior high school level, if data on the number of school systems offering the course and the pupils enrolled are to be accepted as evidence of either favor or inherent values. Fourteen courses were examined. With few exceptions these courses follow the same general plan of organization. Their scope ranges from primitive peoples and prehistoric times to the readjustments which followed the World War. Brief consideration of prehistoric times is found in four courses, while all but two of the other courses begin with some mention of the early peoples in the eastern borders of the Mediterranean. The Athens, Ohio, course provides for a brief introductory survey of Reasons for the Study of History. "The World To-day," a brief orientation unit, introduces the

tentative course in Denver; it is followed by the study of early peoples in the eastern Mediterranean areas.

Most of the courses are developed in terms of periods which follow one another in chronological order. In some instances, particularly in those courses organized by epochs, typical titles are "Medieval Period," "Early Modern Period," and "Later Modern Period." In other courses more descriptive titles are provided for units or topics, although the organization of subject matter is by periods. Three courses seem to be organized around the idea of contributions made by different peoples to the advancement of civilization. It is difficult to determine whether civilization is a vague general term or whether it takes on concrete meanings as the course is introduced in the classroom. No attempts at definition are provided, nor are suggestions offered as to the building up of concepts of civilization, the differentiation between civilization and culture, and the comparative study of different peoples and nations as the work of the course is developed. "Advancement of Civilization," "World Advancement," and "Foundations Laid for Twentieth Century Democracy" are some of the general titles and themes.

The apparent need for the condensation and compression of content into a brief allotment of time seems to result in the elimination of much of the social, cultural, and economic aspects of history found in brief form in the 2-year sequence in European or world history. There are, however, certain exceptions. "Commerce and Finance in the Middle Ages" and "Science and Invention in the Middle Ages" are two topics in the Athens, Ohio, course, but no outlines are included to indicate the type of materials to be considered. The tentative course for Denver includes a unit on "How People Lived in the Middle Ages." The industrial revolution is given prominence in six courses, but it is frequently included in content associated with the middle of the nineteenth century. In no course is the industrial revolution used as the introduction to the modern development of industrial nations. Imperialism is a major topic or unit in only two courses, although it receives some consideration in three other courses.

Certain persistent problems in the selection and organization of content are faced in the development of courses in world history, and these problems seem to be more baffling and difficult than for courses in the 2-year sequence. The most persistent problem, according to the experience of curriculum committees and competent teachers, is that of providing for an adequate synthesis of materials. Old titles, topics, and plans of organization persist, and the use of a few striking and journalistic new titles does not necessarily mean a new selection and organization of content demanded by the smaller allotment of time. The adequate synthesis of materials is still a problem of the future; the courses in general seem encyclopedic in content, with a little information about all peoples, nations, and institutions presented in condensed form interspersed with a mass of generalizations. The selection of a small number of significant units or topics, with sufficient concrete content and sufficient time in which to develop the materials in order that pupils may gain insights, relationships, and understanding, seems, with the exception of a few of the available courses, also to be a task for the future.

Problems and viewpoints in the organization of courses in world history mentioned by teachers and cited in the pedagogical literature are: (1) The urgent need for a better organization and synthesis of content in order to avoid the criticisms of the old "general" or "universal" history to which some of the courses in world history bear a striking resemblance; (2) the plan of organization based on the contributions to modern life, while plausible and seemingly feasible, is seriously limited in effectiveness by the brief allotment of time for the course;[1] (3) the period plan of organization is open to the objection that the brief allotment of time prevents an adequate presentation of the ideas of development and continuity, which in the classroom take on the aspect of stereotyped list of causes and effects in terms of arbitrary divisions of content; (4) the courses in world history are adopted by and receive the approval of administrators rather than teachers of the social studies, and at

[1] For a more detailed presentation of this and subsequent problems, see D. Montfort Melchoir. How Much Time Shall We Give to European History? Historical Outlook, 19: 77-80, February, 1928.

best they evolved through a series of fortuitous circumstances, "in many cases utterly reactionary." [1]

2. AMERICAN AND UNITED STATES HISTORY

American history is included in the courses of study for all social studies programs examined. In 24 school systems it is a 1-year course, while in 3 school systems it is offered as a semester course, followed by a semester course in advanced civics or government. A required or elective course in advanced civics is also offered in 17 of the 24 social studies programs which include a 1-year course in American history, while American history and advanced civics are combined in a 1-year course in 6 social studies programs for which courses are available. In these courses it is probably more accurate to say that the civics phases are auxiliary to history.

The boundaries set for courses in American history determine, in part, the organization of content and the allotment of available time for the consideration of materials in the classroom. All but three of the courses include the discovery exploration, and colonization of the New World; in eight courses the first unit or topic is concerned with the "European background," and discoveries, explorations, and colonization are included for purposes of a review of content studied in earlier courses. The more typical practice, however, seems to involve the teaching of content prior to the steps which led to the establishment of the Federal Government, regardless of the number of times pupils may have been exposed to these materials in the elementary school and the junior high school.

Marked similarities in the major phases of content prior to the Civil War are found in most courses. In general, the content for this period has become standardized and stereotyped in organization in most textbooks, and most of the courses show unmistakable traces of varying degrees of dependence on the representative textbooks. The titles of units and major topics in many courses are taken directly from chapter headings in textbooks. In a few courses the organization of content follows the presidential administration rather closely, with an arbitrary attempt to compress

[1] Garsbrill, J. Montgomery. The New World History. Historical Outlook, XVIII, 18:267, October, 1927.

the westward movement, the slavery controversy, the developing realization of nationalism into this plan of organization. In a larger number of courses these movements and tendencies are organized with only incidental attention to administrations, regardless of the number of times the study and tracing of these movements may lead pupils over the same chronological periods.

In a few of the courses which include the latter type of organization, provision is made for a cross-sectional view of the national situation about 1860, with an attempt to weave the different movements and phases studied into one coordinated whole. The New Brunswick, N. J., course contains a series of "summarizing topics," including territorial expansion, foreign relations, and political parties for the period 1783–1860.

There are many variations in the organization of content from the close of the Civil War to the end of the century. In several of the courses this period is developed in chronological order in terms of presidential administrations, with some consideration of political, social, and economic problems. Although definite allotments of time are not always indicated, emphasis seems to be placed on the study of presidential administrations, with only incidental attention to the problems near the end of the second semester, provided time is available. A slight variation of this plan of organization is found in the New Brunswick course. Twelve topics from the Civil War through to the present time are presented largely in chronological order in terms of presidential administrations, and are followed by a series of "summarizing topics" which cover the same period.

A second plan for the organization of content for the period since the Civil War involves the selection of certain dominant movements and trends for major consideration, such as reconstruction, the settlement of the West, financial reforms, the tariff, big business and trusts, "United States as a World Power," Roosevelt and his policies, the World War, and major events since the World War. These materials are usually presented with some regard for chronological order. A variation of this plan is found in the courses organized in terms of a small number of units of large scope. In these courses the post Civil War period includes such units as

economic development, social development, political development, or economic, social, and political problems, followed by the "United States as a World Power," the World War, and the problems and readjustments which followed the World War. In general, courses developed in terms of a small number of units of large scope do not include detailed internal organization of the content for designated units.

The post Civil War period presents unusual difficulties in the organization of subject matter for purposes of instruction. The wealth of content requires rigorous selection of the more important material for major emphasis, and involves the acceptance and application of criteria for the determination of the relative importance of content. The materials in textbooks have not become standardized and stereotyped to the same extent as for the earlier periods, and the textbook presentations, unless widely supplemented by parallel readings from more detailed presentations, are apparently inadequate to provide pupils with an experiential background for the understanding of the many complex relationships. Many phases of the post Civil War period, as organized in the courses of study examined, seem to be inadequately treated. With few exceptions, economic, social, and cultural phases are treated as subordinate to political history. The tariff, money and banking, the labor movement, trusts and trust legislation, public lands, and the conservation movement are minor elements in many courses and receive only incidental consideration in most courses. Phases of social and cultural history find a place as major topics or units in only a small number of courses.

Six of the courses in American history include content of civics as a part of the course; they are labeled "American History and Civics" or "American History and Government," with variations in the time allotment given to civics. In the tentative course for Dearborn, 14 topics in civics, with a time allotment of 10 weeks, are included in the materials for the second semester. The Columbus course includes 4 topics dealing with the founding of the Federal Government at the appropriate place in the history sequence, with a time allotment of 4 weeks; State and local civics receives an allotment of 7 weeks near the end of the course.

The Long Beach course includes one unit on a "Descriptive Account of the Federal Government" in the history sequence; the last units of the course are "Parties and Elections" and "Government of Los Angeles County and Long Beach." In other courses the civics content seems to be incidental to history, and usually follows the units or topics in history.

In addition to the courses in American history and American history and civics which follow the conventional plans of organization, the tentative courses in Denver and Newark are being developed according to somewhat different plans. The course in Newark is a combination of American history and problems of democracy. It is intended to meet the needs of three groups of pupils, as well as to comply with the statutory requirement for instruction in problems of American democracy. Pupils who plan to offer American history as a credit for college entrance are enrolled in groups in which emphasis is placed on American history, with sufficient time devoted to major problems to comply with the statutory requirement for problems of American democracy. Pupils enrolled in the general, fine arts, and technical curriculums study American history from the close of the American Revolution to the Spanish-American War during the first semester, and from 1898 to the present, together with a time allotment of approximately eight weeks devoted to problems of American democracy toward the close of the second semester A third group of pupils may elect the problems course as a full-term course, exclusive of American history. Aside from the differences in time allotments for the three groups of pupils, the organization of topics conforms to the conventional plans used in many courses.

The first half of the tentative course in Denver, in experimental use in a few classes, deals with political problems and international problems, while the second half, now in preparation, is expected to include economic problems and social problems. Each of the four parts of the course will be developed through a series of three units. Thus the second part, "International Problems," includes three units: "Denver's International Relations," "Colorado's International Relations," and "International Relations of the United States."

The United States is treated as a self-contained nation, without much attention in most courses to relationships with other nations. Unless teachers provide supplementary materials and interpret them, pupils will probably gain little realization of the profound influence exerted upon the trend of national affairs by relations with other nations before the beginning of the present century. Even in those courses in which units or topics on foreign relations are included, the selection of content and implied interpretation seem narrow, self-contained, and apparently not concerned with the influence of relations with other nations on the formulation of national policies, sectional differences with respect to the reception of these policies, and to the effects of policies and events in terms of later events.

These apparent limitations of current courses raise the question of the need for the study of American history in its proper perspective as a phase of world history. The proposals made from time to time by Hill [3] and others for a 2-year sequence in world history elicit much favorable comment from discerning teachers, but the introduction of such courses is blocked in many instances by statutory requirements which necessitate courses in American history. With the increasing number of subjects in social studies, courses in history seem in many cities to be limited to world history and American history. If the pupils in world history do not gain an adequate world background for the study of American history—an assertion made by many competent teachers—a 2-year sequence in world history, with the possibility of more pupils being able to enroll in both courses, would seem to be an alternative proposal worth serious consideration. While such a proposal offers possibilities for the solving of a number of baffling problems, it encounters the opposition of certain vested interests among teachers as well as in the community at large.

3. *CIVICS*

Thirteen courses of study in civics were made available for examination. Six courses in American history and civics

[3] Hill, Howard Copeland. Curriculum in History. A Two-Year Sequence in High-School History. Studies in Secondary Education, I, pp. 88–91. (Supplementary Educational Monographs of the University of Chicago, No. 24, 1923.)

include some content in civics.[4] Other courses in American history provide a large amount of content on the structure of the Federal Government, which doubtless serves as a historical background for the study of civics. All but one of the courses are intended for use during one semester; the South Bend, Ind., course covers a year's work, and includes considerable content frequently found in courses in community civics.

Eight of the 13 courses bear the title "Civics," 2 are listed as "Advance Civics," while "American Government," "Social Civics," and "Problems of Citizenship" are each used as the title of one course. The name of a course, however, does not serve to differentiate the types and plan of organization of content, which are likely to follow the plans of organization of the textbooks adopted for use in civics. The materials in six courses are organized in terms of units, while in seven courses the plan of organization is said to be topical. Most of the courses are a combination of the structure and organization of government and selected functions. In two instances certain problems are selected for study near the end of the course. The approach is seldom pointed directly toward the consideration of functions of government and governmental institutions; the formal organization of government usually forms the point of departure, with some incidental treatment of functions in connection with each unit of organization. With the possible exception of two courses, all are concerned to a considerable extent with a description of the "anatomy of government" rather than with a functional approach to materials.

Conventional content, which has become stereotyped in certain categories through long use, predominates. Stipulated qualifications for government officials seem to be more important than the functions performed by the officials and the unsolved problems involved in more effective performance of duties. Topics in two courses are listed without regard to relationships in internal organization of content; in two courses the plan of organization proceeds from local

[4] See Osburn, W. J. Overlappings and Omissions in Our Courses of Study, esp. pp. 52–53, 72–73 (Public School Pub. Co., 1928); Truman, T. Virgil. The Reduplication of Material in Social Science Courses. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Southern California, 1926.

to State and national governments, while in all other courses the order of presentation is from national to State and local governments.

The Pasadena course is organized in two forms for use by pupils of different levels of ability. The first plan is based on the study of the "specific governments under which the students are living," and begins with local government. A general study of all governments of this type follows before the pupils begin the study of the next larger unit. The introductory topic, "Citizenship in Relation to City Life," is intended to orient the pupils for the study of local government. Another feature is the inclusion of a large number of details of the city government for purposes of reference rather than for study. The second plan is based on a general rather than a specific approach, and the order of presentation of topics differs considerably from that of the first plan.

Certain noticeable omissions are found in many courses. Public opinion, systems of budgetary control for different units of government, the rights and obligations of individuals, the increasing scope and amplifications of functions of the Federal and State governments, receive only slight attention or frequently are not mentioned. Several courses include government budgets as a part of public finance or public revenues, but usually as a minor topic. Public opinion is apparently not regarded as of sufficient importance to warrant special consideration and study as a major topic or unit.

A certain amount of duplication of content is ordinarily included in American history and community civics. In the treatment of content in civics, a certain amount of overlapping seems inevitable in the treatment of the historical background of political institutions. Whether it is a justifiable practice to repeat certain units or topics, such as the Articles of Confederation and the framing of the Constitution, in another course, drawing on new content and organizing it for a different purpose, is one of those debatable problems which can be answered in more than one way with respectable arguments to justify the decisions. Certainly dogmatism does not help to render even tentative judgments on the problem.

A lack of realism in the selection and treatment of content on governmental regulation of service enterprises in the

public interest is apparent in many instances; such materials receive only passing mention in a few courses. Political parties receive major attention in only 5 of the 13 courses, and then only in terms of their historical development or their place as a part of the election machinery. There is no realistic presentation of parties and practical politics as a "study of the process of attaining ends by manipulating the motives of one's fellows, and of the institutions through which this process is expressed." It is essential to remember that pupils are living in a real—not an unreal—world.[5] To this end they need some orientation in politics and an understanding of the interplay of all kinds of forces, with their propaganda and prejudices, which enter into the formulation of legislation and policies. Possibly a realization of the fact that it is necessary to organize, dramatize, and "personalize" issues in order to gain the attention of the masses of people and to arouse them to action may also be desirable. Controversial issues are avoided wherever possible, presumably in order to provide safe and conventionalized content.

The crux of the problem of a healthy realism in the selection and treatment of content in civics is stated by Munro, as follows:

> It is desirable . . . that somewhere in the process of education the young citizen should be afforded training in the evaluation of forces which are uncertain, variable, and not precisely measurable. He should be drilled in the art of detecting tendencies and sensing the interplay of popular inclinations. He should learn the art of keeping his ear to the ground, as the politicians call it. As he grows older he will find the misinformation and propaganda descend upon him from all sides. He should learn to be discriminating, to keep an open mind until he has obtained the whole story, and to refrain from believing things because they sound plausible.[6]

If this type of training is one of the desirable ends of the study of civics, it may be necessary to eradicate a considerable amount of the smug complacency which is now implied in courses. The pressure toward social conformity within schools as well as in communities is relentless, and the reper-

[5] For check lists of materials found in current periodicals, see C. O. Wells. The Political Science of Everyday Life as Revealed by Analyses of Newspapers and Periodicals. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1925.

[6] Munro, William Bennett. Political Science. *In* Edgar Dawson, *and others*. Teaching the Social Studies. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1927. p. 163.

cussions of every "crime wave" and acts involving antisocial conduct upon the school in the form of attendant implied criticism tends to obliterate some of the desirable goals of civics instruction.

It is entirely probable that a new approach to the selection and organization of content in civics is needed. If principles associated with political institutions—for example, the short ballot—are recognized as the true learning products of the course in civics, then many of the current problems in the organization of content cease to be matter of importance. A series of these principles, not as universal or as immutable as those formulated in the more exact sciences, but nevertheless applicable as guides for political action, should form a part of the intellectual equipment of citizens. If these principles are the goals of a course in civics, then the selection and organization of content will be determined by the facts, situation, and illustrative materials necessary to provide pupils with a background of experience, as well as to enable the teacher to aid pupils in the inductive development and application of the principles. Such a plan of organization would eliminate much of the nonteachable content now found in courses of study. A reorientation in methods of teaching should probably go hand in hand with a new approach to the course.

4. *ECONOMICS*

All but 1 of the 15 courses of study in economics made available for examination are intended as 1-semester courses. Eight purport to be organized by units, while the topical plan of organization is used in seven courses. Apparently the textbook is the most potent factor in the selection and organization of content. In four courses, in fact, the chapter headings in adopted textbooks are used as the titles of topics or units, while in six additional courses there is considerable evidence in the internal organization of content to indicate that the course is based almost entirely on an adopted text with certain modifications in content and slight changes in titles for major divisions.

The selection and organization of content in eight courses is primarily in terms of theories of economics, with illustrative materials; the conventional major divisions of content found

in advanced texts in economic theory are frequently used. Five courses are developed, in part, in terms of economic institutions, with a certain amount of theory included in the general plan of organization. This plan, however, does not mean that the courses are based on the approach of the institutional school of economists; rather, the content is organized and developed mainly in terms of different economic institutions, like the bank, the factory, and the retail store. Selected problems in economics form the basis of organization in two courses.

Many committees seem to organize all materials for the study of economics about a few major phases, such as production, distribution, exchange, and consumption. In most courses, as indicated above, the approach is made through the study of laws and principles rather than the presentation of content, in order to provide pupils with an experiential background for the later inductive consideration of principles. The courses organized on the basis of problems seem to imply more concrete content, but the problems are apparently oversimplified in statement and are presented frequently without adequate regard to their setting in economic situations.

Although certain similarities exist in the major divisions of content and in certain aspects of the more formal presentation of principles, marked variations are found in the relative emphasis given to different types of content. The relation of governmental functions and policies to economics are stressed in a rather formal way in three courses, but little attention seems to be given in most courses to differences between public and private enterprises. One course deals systematically with attempts at governmental regulation and control of economic endeavor with a view to the protection of the public interest; a unit on the "Social Control of Resources and Utilities" is included in another course. Apparently *laissez faire* policies are subscribed to directly or indirectly in most courses. Proposals for economic reform are treated in a reasonably adequate way in five courses, but the increasing interest in social economics and the consumption needs and wants of people find little place in any of the courses. One course includes investments as a major topic;

thrift and international trade and foreign exchange are major topics or units in two courses.

Special fields of study, such as marketing, price problems, and taxation, find a place in a few courses only. The relationships between the more formal content and modern business organization receive little attention, and the few available texts which stress business organization and are suitable for use by high-school pupils are seldom found in the lists of references. While these relationships are only infrequently presented in an adequate manner in volumes intended for more advanced students, this omission seems worthy of mention in a subject at the high-school level which is emphasized because of its "practical" character.

Little or no attention seems to be directed to observational studies of economic institutions and activities in the local community. Family expenditures, municipal finance, local labor unions, the organization and operation of banks, forms of business organization, the financing of local public improvements, prices and wages in the local community, are some of the first-hand studies which may be made, but which are seldom mentioned in the courses of study examined.

If one of the major purposes of instruction in economics, as mentioned in the lists of objectives, is to provide a wide range of experiences in the economic aspects of daily life, then it would seem that this purpose is only indirectly approximated in the selection and organization of content in the courses examined. If the conception of economics as "a study of the activities of people working together in securing from their physical surroundings whatever they do secure" [7] is accepted as a whole, or even in part, then the courses examined seem to belong to an earlier or older conception of the subject. In none of the social studies is the divergence between the formal study of content as a basis for the development and application of theory and the practical study of activities in which men engage more evident. If the lists of objectives, most of which are practical and utilitarian in character, are accepted, then the

[7] Lyon, Leverett S. A New Viewpoint in Economics Teaching. Historical Outlook, 20:383, December, 1929.

selection and organization of content seems to be focused largely on problems incompatible with the objectives.

Another criterion which might be applied is the extent to which answers to questions which are likely to be asked by intelligent pupils can be found in courses in economics. A third is the extent to which the topics included in courses of study are in agreement with those found in check lists of periodical literature.[8] Many objections may be advanced against the application of either or both of these criteria. Nevertheless, their rigorous application, with due recognition of their limitations, to the available courses of study would doubtless yield illuminating results.

5. SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Of the courses of study available for examination, five are labeled "Social Problems" and four "Sociology." Six of the courses presumably are organized in terms of topics, while three purport to follow a unitary plan of organization. It is difficult to distinguish between courses labeled "Sociology and Social Problems," except that in the latter courses the word "problem" is attached to materials on races, population, labor, and the like. In view of the many similarities between courses in sociology and social problems, no attempt is made here to consider them separately.

The different problems, topics, or units in most courses are not arranged under larger headings or major divisions. In most of the courses considerable emphasis is placed on phases of progress, with such titles as "Road to Progress," "Social Progress," "Moral Progress," "Moral Order and Social Progress." Little agreement is found in frequency of occurrence of topics, units, or problems included in the different courses; population, races, and some phases of labor problems are found in one-half of the courses; immigration

[8] Beatty, E. C. O. Economic Science of Everyday Life as Revealed in a Study of Current Periodical Literature. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Chicago, 1927; G. K. Bixler, Social Problems of the Labor Group as Shown by an Analysis of Recent Books and Periodical Literature. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Chicago, 1925—also in F. Bobbitt, Curriculum Investigations, pp. 88–97. (Supplementary Educational Monograph, No. 21, University of Chicago, 1926); E. C. Bowman, A Study in the Objectives in the Teaching of High-School Economics. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Chicago, 1922; R. W. Bullock, Economics for Consumers. Unpublished master's thesis. Colorado State Teachers College, 1928.

is included in 3 courses, religion in 2, the influences of environment in 3, and the liquor problem in 2 courses; social organization and social control are considered in only 2 courses. The so-called abnormal phases of social life and problems are wisely subordinated to the so-called normal phases in most courses. The certainty of differentiation between normal and abnormal as conceived in the "popular mind" is revealed in most of these courses, combined with the apparent absolute belief in determinism.

Topics dealing with education, religion, and recreation sometimes contain materials which duplicate content of other social studies courses. Unless such content is developed from the comparative or genetic point of view or unless the social and psychological aspects in terms of values are treated, little or no additional contribution seems to be made other than a more mature approach over that found in courses in civics at the junior high school level.

Certain omissions of content and concepts are noted. Social forces are not particularized; social groups receive little or no attention from the standpoints of characteristics of group cohesion and group action. Social conflict either as a concept or in terms of social phenomena is strictly avoided. Social classes likewise receive no attention, presumably in order to avoid any criticism of the popular conception of equality. One course includes study of reformers, with their appeals, their limitations, and their influence in conflict situations. No attempt seems to be made to reveal the influence of taboos, superstitions, and other evidences of mysticism which persist among large groups of the population, despite the influence of changes brought about through science and education. Human relations in face-to-face situations, crises and maladjustments, conflicts and readjustments receive practically no consideration in the courses examined. Specific provision for the detailed study of the local community is included in only one course.

Certain crucial problems in the organization of content for courses in sociology and social problems were enumerated by competently educated teachers in sociology. If the current lists of objectives appended to the courses which stress a command of facts, principles, and concepts underlying

human relations are accepted, then the selection and organization of content which will permit of the inductive development and application of concepts seems obligatory. One of the chief justifications for the course in sociology is the advancement of an understanding of the methods of study and modes of thought of the sociologist in his consideration of the many-sided aspects of group life. Unless pupils have an opportunity to study materials, to observe and assemble materials from the local community, and to use such materials as a basis for the application of concepts with the aid and guidance of a teacher competently trained in sociology, the major contribution to be made by the course would seem to be eliminated. It is also necessary to differentiate between the systematic presentation of valuable content and the sporadic study of odd assortments of facts, the assimilation of slogans, "isms," and magic formulas for solving social problems, and the elucidation of the obvious opinions, palliatives, and nostrums about human relations.

From one point of view the emphasis on the several varieties of "progress" in the courses under review may be regarded as an indication of their "unsociological" character, but it seems evident from the lack of attention to social change that progress is apparently regarded as synonymous with social change. Not all social change, however, is necessarily to be regarded as evidence of progress. Although peoples of all ages have been concerned with progress, the more intelligent pupils should become aware of the place of wishful thinking in the popular mind. Social betterment may well form an ideal which pupils may regard as worth striving for, but such an ideal may be realized more adequately by facing the facts rather than by consciously ignoring unpleasant facts.

The presentation of facts about certain phases of society versus the penetration beneath the surfaces of social phenomena in order to ascertain reasons, motives, principles, concepts, and relationships is another one of the moot questions which demands consideration. It is much easier to present facts than to use facts as the basis for the formulation of concepts and principles. To attempt the latter approach requires a wide command of materials, the services of teachers competently trained in sociology who can aid pupils

in the assembling, collating, and use of materials as a basis for thought, and the freedom to develop materials in such a manner that thought shall displace wishful thinking and emotional reactions. According to some competent teachers, to avoid these steps in the teaching of sociology at the high-school level is even at best to admit partial failure in the work. Even if the ultimate outcome of instruction is not highly successful, youth at least will have an opportunity to discover the difficulties involved, and the deceptiveness of mental endeavor when plunged into the midst of social realities as distinguished from social fictions.

Another series of problems is encountered in the lack of emphasis on the study of social phenomena in the local community. To be really effective the study of sociology should enable pupils to see their community in a different light, to penetrate beneath the surface of current situations in order to see the forces which are operating, the conflict situations which arise, the interplay of folkways and mores in social relations, and the influences of groups and their loyalties, to mention only a few items. In short, the community should be regarded as the laboratory for the study of sociology. To rob youth of this opportunity is to miss one of the greatest possibilities for real teaching as well as for self-instruction. But such an approach requires teachers who have learned to gather social data, who have an intimate understanding of and an unlimited curiosity about the community, who have a thorough working command of the tools for first-hand study, and who are not timid and afraid of the revelation of "unpleasant" facts. How to develop this approach to the study of sociology at the high-school level transcends the consideration of courses of study; it involves the problems of teacher training, suitable equipment for classrooms, flexible schedules for teachers and pupils, and a series of related situations which do not always fit readily into smoothly functioning school machinery.

6. *PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY*

Four courses in "Problems of/in American Democracy" were made available for examination. Judged by the units included, the course in San Francisco resembles a course in

social problems rather than in problems of democracy. Two courses labeled "Social Problems," those used in Merrill, Wis., and San Diego, are also considered under this category because social, economic, and political problems are integral parts. The course in "Selected Social and Political Problems" in Rochester and the "Combined Course in American History and Problems of Democracy" in Newark include organizations of content which bring them within the scope of the courses considered here. Thus, strictly speaking, five courses in problems of democracy were available for examination, but three other courses which seemed to possess certain similar features of content and organization were also analyzed.

Two plans of organization of units or topics are found in the courses. One plan involves the grouping of political, economic, and social problems as separate major divisions of the courses, with little or no attempt to weave the content in the different divisions into one organized whole. In other words, it would seem to be possible to offer the content in these courses in three separate short-term courses without violating any of the features of this plan of organization. This plan, as a whole or in part, is followed in five courses. A second plan involves the selection of problems, with the use of facts and illustrative materials drawn from economics, sociology, and civics which are related to and may serve to explain different aspects of the problems. The courses in Rochester and San Francisco are based, in part, on this plan. The course in New Brunswick, based on the State course of study, draws heavily on the historical background of political institutions and civics, with little attention devoted to economic and social problems.

The topics or units included in these courses are almost identical in content with those included in the separate courses in problems courses in civics, economics, and sociology, but they are frequently more condensed in the outlines to conform to more limited time allotments. The only exception seems to be found in the course "Selected Social and Political Problems," in Rochester, in which the titles of units are indicative of the approach to content. Provision is also made in this course for the intensive treatment of a limited

number of units rather than an extensive consideration of a large number. The unit "Public Opinion as a Force in Modern Life" is intended as the culmination of the course, involving a realistic presentation of the forces such as newspapers, magazines, and the radio operating to develop and formulate opinions, the influence of advertising and propaganda of all types, the symbols and stereotypes used as vehicles of opinions, public relations counsels and their activities, the influence of minority groups, difficulties faced by the citizen in his attempts to form an intelligent opinion on public questions, and habits of rationalization. Even a casual examination of this and other units indicates that the members of the committee know the content at first hand in the real world rather than merely as found in conventional and more formal accounts in textbooks. Furthermore, the outlines, references, and problems take cognizance of all shades of opinion from that presumably held by readers of the tabloids up the scale to those in contact with the highest types of journals and forces which make and reflect public opinion.

The number of available courses is too small to indicate trends in the status of the course in problems of democracy in the social studies program. Taylor, in an investigation of a considerably larger number of State and city courses, committee reports, and the pedagogical literature, reached the conclusion that the course in problems of democracy finds greater favor in State social studies programs than in those for cities, that it is more frequently included in the social studies programs of small cities and towns than in those of larger cities, and that when it is included in the programs of large cities it is usually offered in addition to separate courses in economics, sociology, and civics.[9] Certain corroborating evidence is found in the courses of study examined and in the conferences with teachers in larger cities. In addition, there seems to be a tendency in certain school systems to offer the course in problems of American democracy for less capable pupils and for pupils enrolled in practical curriculums,

[9] Taylor, Frances P., Problems of American Democracy as a High-School Subject. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Chicago, 1928. For an interpretation of certain data from this report, see B. M. Tryon. Thirteen Years of Problems of American Democracy in the Senior High School. Historical Outlook, 20: 380-383, December, 1929.

reserving the separate courses for more capable pupils and for those enrolled in the academic curriculum.

7. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

A small number of courses intended as half-year electives for the twelfth grade are concerned with the study of international relations. Although presented in terms of different plans of organization based on varying approaches and points of view, these courses are grouped for the purpose of examination under the general heading of international relations as an inclusive title.

The course in Denver, entitled "National Governments and World Relations," is organized in four major divisions: "The Orient," "Latin America," "The Near East," and "Africa." Each division includes a brief treatment of the modern period of the history of the principal nations and dependencies. The unitary plan of organization is used, and the selection of content seems to be based primarily on the major events in each nation or dependency, and secondarily on the influence of international phases, the processes of imperialism, and the development of interrelationships between nations and the subject peoples in their dependencies. The content on the Orient includes materials which are found in other courses on "Pan-Pacific" or "Pacific-Rim" history. Teachers are urged to select units for study from the total list, all of which presumably are to be regarded as optional rather than required units. Because all phases of the course are not developed in detail, the extent to which a satisfactory synthesis of content is achieved can not be ascertained.

The Oakland course in international relations includes the major divisions entitled "Peace," "Latin America," "Pacific Relations," "Russia," "Italy," and "Special Problems of the United States." Four of these major divisions have many points of similarity with the Denver course in organization and development. The content on "Peace" includes a technical presentation of disarmament and arbitration. Farm relief, the tariff, and law enforcement are considered under the last major division of the course as "Special Problems of the United States."

The Los Angeles course in "Contemporary History and International Relations" includes the British Empire, France, Italy, Germany, and the Union of Socialistic Soviet Republics. The course is introduced through a major division entitled "Some General Considerations."

The San Diego course in "Current History" is developed primarily in terms of international organization, international intercourse and communication, international law, and those institutions now in the process of organization and development which are intended to promote more amicable international relations and adjustments. The concrete content drawn from the relationships between different nations and peoples, while secondary to the general plan of the course, is focused at all points on the more general units. In general, this course of study is based on a different approach to content from that used in the other courses mentioned above. The plan of organization seems to indicate that this course is intended as the capstone of the history sequence. In addition, it serves as a sort of superstructure for the history sequence in agreement with the development of new concepts and a new world organization. It is perhaps significant that this is the only one of the four courses which provides for a systematic presentation of the League of Nations.

The development of what may be called "terminal" courses of this type in the social studies program is an interesting phenomenon during recent years. That these courses are still in the experimental state is readily admitted by all teachers who are actively engaged in the formulation of plans and in the selection and organization of content. Because of the baffling problems involved, the scope of the field, and the range of content involved, it is perhaps too early to expect the development of courses which are entirely satisfactory in all aspects.

8. CURRENT EVENTS

Seventeen junior high school and 13 senior high school courses of study examined include no mention of current events, while 10 junior high school and 7 senior high school courses contain no direct statements, although internal evidence seems to indicate that some attention is given to

current events. In addition, a large number of courses of study contain general statements that current events are a part of the work of particular subjects; the collection of clippings and their display on bulletin boards are also cited in the list of "activities." Thus it seems that many committees engaged in the development of courses of study either do not regard the teaching of current events as particularly important or else it is assumed by these committees that teachers will provide for such instruction regardless of whether specific suggestions are included in courses. In two cities classes were observed in which current events were receiving consideration, although the courses of study in use do not specifically provide for such instruction. It is possible that the courses of study do not give an accurate impression of the extent to which current events form a part of classroom activities in the teaching of the social studies.

TABLE 5.—*Number of courses of study stating certain purposes of instruction in current events*

Purpose	Number
To read newspapers and magazines intelligently and critically	8
To become aware of and understand current problems	4
To learn and evaluate current opinions	3
To enliven the classroom work	2
To read outstanding accounts of types of life in different environments and to present contrasts with the immediate life of pupils	1
To interpret the content of lessons	1
To interpret current problems	1
To apply learning from courses to current affairs	1
To read newspapers and magazines as a leisure-time activity	1
To gather facts concerning ownership, policies, and make-up of newspapers	1

The purposes of instruction in current events as listed in courses of study are summarized in Table 5. Different types of materials and procedures are implied in these statements of purposes. In some instances it is evident that major emphasis is placed on training in the critical reading and evaluation of newspapers and periodicals, while the use of these publications primarily as sources of facts and opinions is implied in other purposes. Interpretation and application of facts from the courses to current happenings, and vice versa, receive little attention, and the relationships between past and present events are apparently not regarded as an important outcome of the study of current materials.

Little differentiation in purposes for current events instruction for junior high schools and senior high schools is revealed in courses of study. In general, the critical study of newspapers and periodicals is found only in the senior high school courses, while the acquisition of facts receives more attention in junior high school courses. Current events seem to be associated to a greater extent with courses in social studies on grounds other than achieving an understanding of forces and problems about which the events are centered.

The allotment of time for current events varies in the different courses of study. Twenty-six courses contain no statements concerning time allotments; 6 provide for the consideration of current events as an integral part of the daily classroom activities; 8 allow one period per week; 15 minutes per week and a half period per week are mentioned in 2 other courses.

A small number of the courses of study contain specific references to the periodicals to be used in the study of current events. Miniature weeklies edited for pupils are mentioned in seven courses; in four of these courses other periodicals are listed. Three weeklies, a bimonthly, and four monthly magazines are listed in other courses. The use of magazines is suggested in 21 courses, while newspapers, mainly in connection with the collection of clippings, receive mention in 20 courses of study. A procedure for ascertaining the periodicals which pupils read regularly, seldom read, and never read is suggested for use in Los Angeles [10] as a basis for planning for and encouraging pupils to read current periodicals. The choice of a periodical to be used by pupils in cities where this practice prevails is made by the teachers in a few instances, while the decision is made by the social studies departments in the different schools in three cities.

While certain suggestions concerning procedures and techniques for instruction in current events are found in a small number of courses of study, the selection is left largely to the individual teachers. Most of the procedures mentioned are concerned with the collection of clippings on topics or units studied by pupils, the display of these materials on bulletin

[10] Los Angeles City School District, Department of Psychology and Educational Research Directing Study in the Social Studies in Junior High School, p. 38 (Los Angeles, 1927).

boards, their use in bound volumes for future reference and as illustrative materials for written work, scrapbooks, and notebooks. The committee method with groups of pupils responsible for reporting current events for different areas and topics is mentioned in four courses, while a smaller number include the suggestion that floor talks, reports, and summaries be used. In schools in which current events form an integral part of the regular content of the courses, no special procedures are stated.

That the teaching of current events in an effective manner bristles with unsolved problems is indicated by the questions, comments, and observations of teachers of the social studies. It also seems evident that in each social study these problems vary in kind and in possible solutions. Although many possibilities for the development of habits of reading newspapers and periodicals are evident, much depends upon the discrimination, the command of content, and critical ability of the reader.[11]

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[11] For a presentation of the dangers of the "newspaper mind," see Edgar Dawson, Teaching of the Social Studies. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1927. p. 291. See also Charles E. Martz. Courses in Current Events. School and Society, 19:554–555, May 10, 1924. for a discussion of some basic problems.

CHAPTER VI : PRINCIPLES FOR SELECTION AND ORGANIZATION OF CONTENT

1. THE SELECTION OF CONTENT

No explicit statements of the criteria used for the selection of content are found in the courses of study in the social studies available. A few courses, however, contain stipulations concerning the organization of content, which carry the implication that they are intended as descriptive statements of the plans of organization. Presumably they dictate, or possibly suggest, the selection of content and plans for the organization of content. It is possible that curriculum committees assume that criteria and guiding principles for the selection of content are a part of their working plans, and as such do not give them place in the courses of study. However, in view of the fact that many courses are presented in tentative form and that teachers are urged to supply materials, suggestions, and criticisms, the failure to include principles and criteria for guidance in the selection of materials seems to be an important omission in most of the available courses.

Certain criteria which have guided the selection of content for certain courses of study are found in the pedagogical literature. Stone, during the early experimental use of materials in the Long Beach course of study, formulated criteria for the selection of content.[1] Articles that contain descriptions of certain phases of courses of study infrequently include some mention of criteria or else disclose the sources of content. The general criteria supplied in current educational literature include such statements as "utility," "interest," "common activities of social life," "needs of the pupils," "varying social needs," and the like. These items are not subject to exact definitions; their meaning depends largely on the point of reference, scholarship, and penetrating insight of the persons using them.

[1] Stone, Seymour I. The Social Sciences in the Junior High School. School Review, 30:765, December, 1922.

In the constantly expanding materials of the social sciences the problems of selection of content become increasingly difficult and the necessity for finding solutions for these problems is imperative. Whatever steps may be taken in the attempt to provide adequate criteria for the selection of content through cooperative efforts of different groups, alert members of curriculum committees seem to be in agreement in their expression of the urgent need of assistance in some solution of the problems involved in the selection of content for use in the teaching of the social studies.

1. THE ORGANIZATION OF CONTENT

Few explicit statements concerning criteria or principles for guidance in the organization of content are found in courses of study available. The course of study for junior and senior high schools in Baltimore includes a direct statement of the plan drawn up by the general committee for the guidance of the special committees as well as for its own deliberations.

The course of study for senior high schools in Rochester provides the most adequate list of criteria and principles found in the analysis of courses. These include a series of principles for the determination of the social studies content and its organization in terms of separate courses, another series for guidance in the choice and organization of "learning units," and a final series of specific principles underlying the organization of "learning units." These lists of principles seem to be broad in scope, suggestive in the relationships implied, and sufficiently direct to be useful for the guidance of intelligent teachers without permitting mechanical application. They are stated in a form intelligible to social studies teachers.

In general the courses do not contain any orientation for teachers who are expected, in many instances, to offer suggestions, criticisms, and additional materials which grow out of the trial use of the content in the classroom. If teachers are to make valuable suggestions, it would seem that they can do so only in terms of guiding principles and criteria for evaluation of the content. With the new types of content frequently published for both teachers and pupils and the

changing points of view and shifting emphasis in the interrelationships between the social sciences, criteria for the incorporation of new materials as integral parts of courses of study should be helpful for the guidance of teachers.[2]

General discussions of curriculum making the social studies frequently include lists of general principles for the organization of content applicable to all fields of content. These guiding principles are usually focused more directly on the elements to be considered in the set-up of courses of study than on basic and specialized problems of organization, associated with a thorough command of relative values in content to be gained through thorough scholarship and the critical evaluation of materials. At least one step in the organization of content in the social studies seems necessary between the application of principles for guidance found in general discussions of curriculum making and the actual organization of subject matter to be included in courses of study. This step involves the perspective gained through the widest possible command of content and the understanding of interrelationships between the social sciences, as well as a scholarly and critical approach in terms of relative values. If teachers who possess the requisite qualifications are available, there are possibilities for fruitful results; if the committees do not include such teachers, the only alternative would seem to be to obtain the services of specialists in the content of the social sciences in order to avoid fallacies and pitfalls in the organization of social studies programs and of particular courses.

3. *PLANS OF ORGANIZATION OF CONTENT IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES COURSES*

Data summarized in Table 6 indicate the variety of plans reported in courses of study as being used in the assemblying and organization of content. The items included are somewhat simplified and condensed into manageable categories. Almost every course of study shows a certain individuality in form of organization of content. The data listed in this

[2] For guiding principles, see R. M. Tryon. History in the Junior High School. Elementary School Journal, 16:503, May, 1916; The Teaching of the Social Studies. Maryland School Bulletin, 6:49–52, December, 1924.

table reveal only the number of courses of study in which particular labels are attached to the organization of content.

TABLE 6.—*Frequency of appearance in courses of study of certain plans of organization of social studies content for teaching purposes*

Plan	Junior high school (50 courses)	Senior high school (32 courses)	Plan	Junior high school (50 courses)	Senior high school (32 courses)
Unit	23	20	Problem	3	.....
Unit and problem	8	3	Epochs	.....	1
Topical	14	9	Lack of uniformity, for several subjects	1	7
Division and problem	2	.....			

It is apparent that types of unitary organization of content represent the most favored plan. More than half the courses of study for both junior and senior high schools use either the unit or the unit-problem plan. The topical plan of organization is used in less than a third of the courses of study, while the problem plan is found in only four courses.

An examination of the content in courses of study which profess to use the unitary plan discloses a variety of plans of organization. These include (1) units developed in terms of a series of problems; (2) units composed of a series of topics; (3) units composed of an informal guidance outline to be approached as psychological learning units; (4) units with implications for content through listed activities, questions, and procedures; (5) units which include all the content found in chapters of textbooks; (6) units with encyclopedic outlines of content.[3]

In the courses of study which provide a topical organization of content, wide variations in the amount of content included in the outlines are evident. Brief lists of topics without any suggestion concerning the content to be taught are found in some courses; in others there are brief or fairly adequate guidance outlines, while at the opposite extreme are found complete outlines of an encyclopedic nature which seem to

[3] For a presentation of the unit concept and examples of uncritical use of the concept, see H. C. Morrison. The Practice of Teaching in Secondary Schools (rev. ed.). University of Chicago Press, 1931; H. E. Wilson. The Fusion of the Social Studies in the Junior High School; A Critical Analysis. Unpublished doctor's dissertation. Harvard University, 1931; H. C. Hill and R. B. Weaver. A Unitary Course in United States History for the Junior High School. School Review, 37: 256–266, April, 1929. Limitations of space prevent the inclusion of excerpts from courses illustrative of the uncritical use of the unit concept.

have been collated from a series of textbooks. The topical organization in terms of outlines of content in some courses of study seems to indicate that more content is to be taught at the junior high school level in some cities than at the senior high school level in other cities.

The organization of a course of study as a series of problems apparently does not find much favor, if the number of courses examined is an indication of the extent of the use of this plan. The Portland, Oreg., course of study is organized in terms of major problems, each of which includes a series of minor problems. In the Montclair course of study the problems are similar to the minor problems in the Portland course of study. In the problem organization in which outlines of content are included, these outlines are almost identical in many instances with those included in the unit and topical plans of organization. Considerable confusion between the unit organized in a series of problems and the problem organization is evident. One assumption apparently involved in the problem organization is that only content which is focused on the solving of the problem will be used; however, so definite a limitation of content as is implied by this assumption is seldom found in the outlines.

TABLE 7.—*Frequency of appearance of certain forms in which content is presented in courses of study in the social studies*

Forms	Junior high school (50 courses)	Senior high school (32 courses)
No outlines of content	12	3
Brief outlines of content	19	3
Detailed outlines of content	15	18
Lists of topics	2	7
Chapter or page references to content in textbooks	3	1

Reference has been made frequently to outlines of content in the consideration of different plans of organization of materials for teaching purposes. Data on the practices with respect to the inclusion of content in courses of study are assembled in Table 7. Courses for junior high schools show wider variations in the outlines of content than are manifested in materials for senior high schools. Senior high school courses may be expected to provide for an intensive treatment of content; these courses have probably been developed by

teachers who have had a wider training and experience in the selection and organization or materials. On the other hand, the old practice of providing references to content found in textbooks in place of outlines is apparently losing ground, if the number of courses listed here is representative of those used throughout the country.

Twelve junior high school and three senior high school courses provide no outlines of content. In part, these courses are in tentative and preliminary form, with the detailed materials to be developed at a later time. The so-called activities courses, particularly at the junior high school level, which are organized apparently in terms of problems, projects, and exercises, do not include outlines of content. Lists of activities and procedures are supplied for the courses, and in some instances references to textbooks in which content is found are included.

Little or no evidence that investigations in the selection and organization of content have influenced the construction of courses of study is revealed in an analysis of courses. While a number of courses, particularly those in Dallas, Denver, Long Beach, New Brunswick, and Rochester, include bibliographies of professional books and articles, the titles deal mainly with materials other than investigations and experiments. Teachers who are members of curriculum committees report that, while the investigations are stimulating and the findings influence their thinking, the data in terms of check lists and type of materials are frequently not usable in courses of study, either because they are lacking in completeness or are based on unanalyzed assumptions.[4]

The most influential factor in the determination of the content in courses of study, based on internal evidence and the testimony of teachers, seems to be the representative textbooks. Frequent references to this influence are found in the analysis of courses for the different subjects included in the social studies program.

[4] Limitations of space prevent the enumeration of the many published and unpublished investigations and experiments. For convenient abstracts and summaries of unpublished investigations prior to 1928, see Earle U. Rugg. Curriculum Studies in the Social Sciences and Citizenship. Greeley, Colorado State Teachers College, 1930; Third Yearbook (1925) and Sixth Yearbook (1928), Department of Superintendence, National Education Association; Committee on Current Information of the National Council for the Social Studies, Recent Happenings in the Social Studies, published from month to month in the Historical Outlook.

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CHAPTER VII : ADAPTATION OF MATERIALS TO MEET PUPIL NEEDS

1. PROVISIONS FOR MEETING INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Data on the provisions suggested to meet individual differences, as reported in Table 8, show that approximately half of the junior high school courses of study and less than half of the senior high school courses contain explicit statements or aids for the guidance of teachers; in about half of this number the suggestions appear in the introductory statements for courses. The data can not be interpreted in an exact manner because only a small number of courses of study contain statements of the background of school organization on which the plans and procedures are projected, such as homogeneous grouping of pupils, plans for supervised study, and other administrative features.

TABLE 8.—*Frequency of appearance in social studies courses of study of certain provisions to meet individual differences*

Provisions	Junior high school (50 courses)	Senior high school (32 courses)
No provisions explicitly stated	21	18
Differentiation in number and difficulty of activities and exercises required	9	6
Minimum essentials, with optional materials for more capable pupils	7	2
Variations in types and amounts of required readings	7	2
Variations in teaching methods and techniques	4	1
Variations in the amount of required content	3	2
Optional units and topics	3	2
Separate courses of study for different levels of ability	3	1
Multiple assignments directed toward marks to be gained	3	1
Minimum, average, and maximum assignments	2	2
Individual assignments	2	1
Differentiated standards of attainment for different levels of ability	2	1
Enrichment readings for more capable pupils	1	2
Supervised study focused on individual needs	2	.....
Variations in assignments in work books	2	.....
Oral reports required of more capable pupils	1	1
Combined group and individual instruction	1	.....
Short-term enrichment courses	1	.....
Variations in activities based on personal choice of pupils	1	.....
Optional materials in directed study sheets	1	.....

Several courses of study attempt to orient the teachers with regard to the characteristics of the more capable and the slower pupils. The course of study for junior high schools in Washington adapted for use with "slow-going

groups" includes a discussion of the characteristics of backward pupils and general considerations as well as specific recommendations on aims and methods. The Long Beach course of study for junior high schools contains a brief tabular view of the characteristics of bright and dull pupils.[1] The Lorain, Ohio, social studies course indicates that teachers need the following types of information concerning pupils: Intelligence; rating on the pupils' "preattainments in skills, knowledges, and ideals involved in a new topic or unit of study"; and knowledge of the social background of pupils in terms of seven items of desirable information. The Rochester course of study for senior high schools contains a list of some typical causes of pupil difficulties in the social studies, a list of types of information needed by the teacher in the diagnosis of pupil difficulties, with a discussion of the kinds of records necessary in order to have at hand needed current information concerning pupils.

Separate courses of study are provided for groups of pupils of different levels of ability at the junior high school level in three cities and at the senior high school level in one city. The course of study in Washington provides different objectives for slow groups of pupils, and is adapted for use by emphasis on the biographical approach to history. The new tentative course of study in Denver is developed as "a flexible, two-track plan." In the seventh grade there is one course for limited groups and one for average and superior groups. In the eighth grade there is one course for limited and average groups and one for superior groups. In the ninth grade a flexible one-track plan is provided with optional units. This is an interim plan based upon administrative adjustments during the development of the revised course of study. Courses in Hackensack are developed for "academic" pupils and for pupils enrolled in the practical arts curriculums. The materials seem to carry the inference that groups enrolled in these courses are of different levels of mental ability.

The Pasadena course in United States history at the senior high school level is developed in terms of "average" and "enriched" courses, each course using a separate organiza-

[1] For a more detailed list developed in Baltimore, see Ninth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1931. p. 108.

tion, textbook, and learning exercises. In Athens, Ohio, and San Francisco, pupils at the senior high school level are divided into two or three groups, when feasible the grouping being based on intelligence, reading comprehension, or past achievement. Variations in the quantity of work required are indicated, but all groups use essentially the same kinds of materials.

The short-term "enrichment courses" found in the Houston course of study for junior high schools are intended to be used by pupils who have completed their required study before the close of each six weeks' period. Each enrichment course consists of a series of interesting, varied topics, with references and suggestions for study. Pupils may work in the classroom or in the library. Gradations in assignments focused on marks to be gained are suggested in three courses of study for junior high schools and in one course for senior high schools in order to provide for individual differences.

8. PROVISIONS FOR THE READING PROGRAM IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The nature of the reading lists.—One approach to ascertaining the extent to which public secondary schools provide for individual differences is found in the reading program in the social studies. An examination of the lists of titles found in courses of study and in the suggestions offered for the guidance of teachers indicates the scope of the reading program. Certain data concerning the forms and types of book lists are summarized in Table 9. The most significant item revealed by these data is the diversity in practices. It is apparent that the reading program in the social studies is regarded as an integral part of the teaching process in a small number of cases; in most school systems provision for wide reading, book lists, and suggestions are regarded as supplementary and minor elements in the real work of the classroom. The use of such terms as "collateral readings," "supplementary readings," and the like are indicative of the conceptions held by committees engaged in the formulation of courses of study.

TABLE 9.—*Frequency of appearance of different forms and types of book lists in courses of study*

Forms and types of lists	Junior high schools (50 courses)	Senior high schools (28 courses)
Lists distributed throughout courses	18	22
Lists at beginning or end of courses	11	15
General and topical references listed throughout courses	7	16
Lists containing only textbooks	9	5
Separate lists for fiction	2	7
References listed in parallel columns	3	3
Titles for teachers and pupils at beginning or end of courses	3	1
References for teachers and pupils listed throughout courses	1	2
Separate lists for teachers		2
No lists included in courses of study	9	5

Differentiation between titles intended for intensive and extensive reading is found in the courses of study for two cities, Pasadena and Rochester. A differentiation between references presumably intended for intensive study and titles for "enrichment reading" is found in three courses of study. Differences in lists of objectives for the teaching of the social studies which can be approximated through a program of wide reading have been mentioned in an earlier section.[1] It is evident that the development of interests in the subject and in wide reading in the materials of the subject receive incidental consideration in most courses of study, and there seems to be a direct relation between the objectives, the conception of the reading program as an integral part of instruction, the suggestions offered for the guidance of teachers, and adequate library facilities.

The Okmulgee courses for the senior high school include lists of titles for teachers and pupils as follows: 143 titles in ancient and medieval history, 329 titles in American history, and 187 titles in problems of democracy. An equally large number of titles is found in courses at the junior high school level. There is no indication, however, as to the number of these titles which are actually available. The tentative courses in Denver include lists of titles which are available in all school libraries and titles which are not available in all school libraries. Many of the lists in courses of study,

[1] For statements of purposes contributed by teachers in one State, see W. G. Kimmel. The Management of the Reading Program in the Social Studies. Philadelphia, McKinley Publishing Co., 1929. pp. 14-23.

however, are limited to titles of additional textbooks which cover essentially the same content as found in the adopted textbooks.

Another phase of the problem is the relatively small number of social studies titles included in the libraries. The courses of Fordson, Okmulgee, Pasadena, Rochester, Baltimore, and San Diego provide long and presumably adequate lists of titles. Data on relative percentages of titles which are actually found in the libraries of all secondary schools in these cities are not available, but visitation in representative schools in Pasadena and Rochester indicates that most titles are actually available, at least in those schools which were visited, and that they are actually used by pupils and teachers. Detroit has also made provision for adequate collections in many of its secondary schools. On the other hand, large high schools with no libraries are found in some cities, although small collections of books are available in classrooms. Not only are the social studies collections very inadequate in many schools, but the lack of space in the libraries prohibits the use of available books by any considerable number of pupils.

In many instances titles are not duplicated to the extent that large numbers of pupils can use them at a given time; the courses of study contain no references to policies for duplication of titles. There is reason to believe that there are marked differences between cities and between States in the extent to which provision is made for adequate library facilities in the social studies.[3] Whether Swindler's conclusion, based on data from a random sampling of representative States in different sections of the country, that only a small percentage of secondary schools have adequate collections in the social studies obtains generally can not be determined because adequate quantitative and qualitative data are not at hand. All available data, however, would seem to support his conclusion.

There seems to be rather unanimous agreement among heads of departments that they face a most difficult problem

[3] See R. E. Swindler. "The High-School Library and Reading Problem in the Social Studies. University of Virginia Record, Extension Series, 16: 18–42, October, 1931, for comparative data for Indiana, New York, and Virginia; also in Historical Outlook, 22: 407–416, December, 1931.

in lack of funds earmarked from year to year for departmental libraries, and that when funds are available they are insufficient to provide for more than single copies of the titles most used, new titles, and replacements, with duplication of titles depending upon more adequate funds. Such funds are reported as not forthcoming from year to year with sufficient regularity to develop policies and to provide for balanced, cumulative collections of titles.

The qualitative aspects of lists of titles found in courses in the social studies are even more baffling than the quantitative aspects. A cursory examination reveals a wide variety of titles, with only a minimum number of titles other than textbooks found in a relatively large number of courses. This is particularly true in the junior high school lists. The lists at the senior high school level contain many titles ordinarily included in college lists. They are reported to be too difficult for many pupils, although the more capable pupils use them readily and favor the textbooks for introductory survey courses at the college level rather than the high-school textbooks. With the wide range of individual differences in ability and interests found in unselected groups of pupils, some justification for the inclusion of both easy and difficult titles for a given grade is apparent. Some system of marking lists of titles in terms of "easy," difficult," "fair," "excellent," and the like for the guidance of teachers also seems to be desirable.

While reference is made in general suggestions in some courses to types of books on history, biography, reminiscences, autobiography, travel, and fiction, most of the lists include only titles of a general historical nature, with some titles in biography Emphasis seems to be placed on titles which include an organized presentation of content covering long periods of history rather than a more intensive treatment of restricted periods. Biographies are frequently listed at the junior high school level, with a smaller number at the senior high school level. Two courses of study for junior high schools and seven courses for senior high schools include separate lists of fiction. Frequently differentiation is made between titles in different lists. A title may be listed under fiction in one course and under the content of the subject in

another. Other types of titles are seldom found in the lists. The lists of titles for subjects other than history, while less complete, are seldom balanced and grouped in such a manner as to indicate their usefulness. Many obsolete titles from the standpoint of accuracy and pertinence of facts, as well as titles which have been superseded by better books, are found in most of the lists for subjects other than history.

The foregoing description of reading lists in terms of quantitative and qualitative aspects is corroborated in part by unpublished studies and in part by Swindler's data. If the typical teacher is unable to select titles, a conclusion reached by Swindler,[4] then the compilation of lists by committees engaged in the development of courses of study becomes a matter of increasing importance. Since the success or failure of the reading program in the social studies depends in a large measure on its relation to the conception of the teaching process and the types of teaching techniques which are used, explanatory statements and suggestions are needed.

Types of social studies libraries.—Although many phases of the courses carry the implication of classroom libraries, in the opinion of teachers only a small number of schools have adequate classroom libraries. The Washington Junior High School, Pasadena, has a most satisfactory plan. Each classroom is equipped for one semester of the social studies program. Most-used titles, including textbooks and other reference books, are duplicated to the extent that a copy of each is available for every pupil in a class. Other books which are less frequently used are duplicated to the extent of a half dozen to a dozen copies of each title. Pamphlets are provided in those rooms in which they are useful as a part of the course. Collections of maps, guide sheets, and other materials are also supplied. Teachers move from room to room as they meet with classes working on different parts of the course. Every teacher of the social studies spends one period each day in the library, and the schedules are so arranged that one teacher is always available in the library for consultation with pupils who need help or who may wish to inquire about books. The reading program in this school forms an integral part of the classroom work and is so considered by teachers and pupils.

[4] Op. cit., p. 40.

East High School, Rochester, has an adequate library in the social studies, which is located in a special room of large dimensions. In one sense this is a social studies reading room, which contains duplicate copies of most-used titles and an adequate collection of individual titles. The reading program is an integral part of the classroom work, and the social studies library is in constant use by pupils in the preparation of reports and extended papers, as well as the development of shorter oral and written reports. With the guidance of an alert and competent group of teachers, pupils in this school find the social studies library indispensable. The special room for the departmental library also affords the opportunity for the filing of useful and pertinent materials, particularly current pamphlets and clippings. Many other features of this plan for a separate departmental library are worthy of consideration by other schools.

The Pasadena unit plan of organization is based on the 6-4-4 plan. The junior college includes the eleventh and twelfth grades, as well as the first two college years. The library is now housed in a large room, which includes space for students to read and browse. The collection of books is unusually complete, particularly in the general reference works in English, French, and German. The most-used titles in the social studies are duplicated in a large number of copies. Since there are no classroom libraries in the institution, all books are housed in the library. The number of students using the library is now so great that more space is needed, and it is expected that a separate library building will be added to the school plant. The present collection of books compares favorably with the libraries of the better liberal arts college.

These three types of libraries have been described briefly to indicate the library facilities for the social studies in three types of school organization, all of which provide adequate collections of books. Doubtless many other schools also possess adequate facilities in terms of the findings and recommendations of committees.

Procedures for handling the reading program.—Closely allied to the titles of books recommended for use in courses of study are the procedures suggested for handling the reading program. Data assembled in Table 10 seem to indicate that little guidance is furnished teachers by committees engaged in the development of courses of study.[5] The Columbus course of study, although it contains one of the most complete sets of general and topical references found in any of the courses submitted for examination, includes an explicit statement that it is assumed that teachers have a thorough knowledge of the subjects and successful experience in teaching the social studies. Other courses in tentative form, however, contain requests for information from teachers on procedures in checking reading. It is evident that the responsibility for handling the reading program is thrust upon the teachers.

TABLE 10.—*Procedures suggested for checking pupils' reading in the social studies*

Procedures	Junior high schools (50 courses)	Senior high schools (28 courses)
Oral reports	1	6
Written reports	1	4
Term papers	.....	4
Reading cards for each title	1	1
Tests based on term papers	.....	2
Short outlines	1	1
Specified amounts of reading for designated marks	.....	1
Informal discussions	.....	1
Short written summaries	.....	1
Written digests	.....	1
Bibliography sheets for each term	.....	1
Notebooks and exercises	1	.....

Few of the courses of study offer suggestions as to the amount of reading to be expected from pupils. In one course, 50 to 100 pages every six weeks is recommended as a minimum requirement; 25 pages per week is recommended in another course; 50 pages per week in a third. In general, however, no stipulations are found concerning the amounts of reading expected, nor are there any indications of an increase in the amount of reading required in the more advanced

[5] For summaries of procedures used by teachers in one State, see W. G. Kimmel, op. cit. pp. 32–51.

grades. Little indication is found in courses that individual differences are adequately considered either in terms of reading interests or in terms of ability to assimilate different amounts of content.

3. ACTIVITIES IN COURSES OF STUDY

During the past decade an increasing amount of attention has been devoted to the place of activities in the teaching of the social studies. Data on types and frequency of occurrence of activities listed in courses of study are summarized in Table 11. Owing to the tentative character of at least half of the 20 courses, the committees have not found time to include lists of activities or else they expect teachers to supply lists to be included in the more complete materials. It is also apparent that the place of "activities" in some courses implies an organized activities program which is intended to determine the character and types of content included, while in other courses activities are incidental and supplementary materials, presumably intended to motivate instruction.

TABLE 11.—*Frequency of mention of types of aids to study and activities in courses of study for junior and senior high schools*

Activities	Junior high schools (50 courses)	Senior high schools (28 courses)
Activities of all types	30	22
Maps, charts, graphs, exercises	24	16
Problems and questions	25	14
Lists of personages	13	6
Suggestions for teachers in use of aids and activities	15	4
Pictures, slides, films, etc	12	5
Lists of dates, events	10	6
Vocabularies, concepts	9	6
Itemized lists of equipment	9	6
Aids for supervised study	7	6
Skills	6	3
Music	2	----
Poetry	1	----

The items in Table 11 are not always mutually exclusive, because numerous ways to develop categories are indicated in courses of study. It seems impossible to differentiate between types of activities found in courses in different subjects and in the unified or fusion courses, although certain types are found with greater frequency in some subjects than

in others. It is also apparent that many series of exercises are predominantly of one type in courses in geography, with emphasis on relationships to be developed, while another type, emphasizing place and location, is found in greatest number in courses in history. "Activities" in one course of study are "devices" in another, "exercises" in a third, and "study aids" in a fourth. Much seems to depend on the terminology which is fashionable and the preferences of different committees; the relationships of meanings and theoretical considerations do not seem to determine the choice of terminology. Because of the apparent confusion in categories, all types are grouped under the general category "activities."

Only one approach to the activities can be presented here—introductory statements of types of activities found in representative courses of study.[6] These are usually found only in junior high school courses. The Little Rock course of study contains the following list of types of activities:

Reading	Posters	Pageants
Excursions	Charts	Museum collections
Formal and informal discussion	Dramatization	Molding and modeling
Reports, oral and written	Committee work	School elections
Maps	Notebook work	Mock trials
Graphs	Cartoons	Making slogans
	Debates	Special term projects
	Patriotic programs	

The foregoing general types of activities are believed to be representative of the use of such materials and devices as are found in current courses of study. However, marked differences occur in the extent to which all types of activities are developed and set forth throughout courses of study. In some instances only the general types are listed in the introductory statements; in others, sample units or topics are presented with lists of activities attached, while in some courses a consistent effort seems to have been made to present a rather complete series of activities of all types.

[6] The tabulation and classification of types of activities, or even the random sampling of types, would have consumed all the time allotted for the examination of the courses. Detailed tabulations, however, found in several investigations of the junior high school, are available. See Harriet McC. Brown. Teaching Aids and Activities for Junior High School History. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Southern California, 1930; Howard E. Wilson. Things to Do in the Social Science Classroom. Historical Outlook, 20: 218-224, May, 1929.

A casual examination of the activities listed in representative courses of study will reveal in some measure the failure to realize the possibilities of activities as means to an end. It seems to be not merely a question of having pupils do something, as seems to be evident in some courses; rather, there is the need for concentration on activities which may be useful in approximation of objectives as well as in values of the content required for the successful performance of activities. The construction of a covered wagon, for example, may present a challenge to a boy; but unless the object is constructed in accordance with the facts of the real covered wagon of an earlier period the activity will not only be lacking in usefulness from the standpoint of values in content, but it will leave the pupil with a set of experiences which are historically unreal and inaccurate. The following example of the failure to utilize the possibilities of activities, as well as a certain naïveté and immaturity of mental outlook, is typical of a large number found in courses of study:

Dolls.—Dressed to represent people of different nationalities, to rouse interest in study of immigration and international relations. In this way pupils will feel a more vital interest in the people of other nationalities.

If the dressing of dolls were to be used to explain the history of costume, showing the costumes of different social classes in a given period of history or changes in the costumes of one class during a number of periods, pupils would doubtless gain a command of certain relationships in social history. This example seems to be typical of the substitution of values in the use of activities, the choice of lesser values, and the limitations of an activities program in terms of equipment and of the intellectual resources available. The present confusion is probably due to the need for points of reference combined with the eager espousal of what is educationally fashionable. While few will be disposed to question the possibilities of the activities program, there is urgent need for a comprehensive study and analysis of its place in the teaching of the social studies.

4. EQUIPMENT FOR THE CLASSROOM

Nine of the 50 junior high school courses and 6 only of the 28 senior high school courses of study contain itemized lists of equipment. About half of these lists are partial and fragmentary. Presumably committees engaged in the construction of courses of study do not regard the inclusion of lists of equipment a part of their work. Perhaps forces are operative which prevent the compilation of minimum lists of equipment. The chairmen of two committees reported that lists of equipment would be compiled upon the completion of the course. One committee reported that equipment suitable for use in connection with the course was not available; but when this limitation was called to the attention of the curriculum director, he regarded it as a "minor matter." One committee reported that orders were issued not to include lists of equipment, because the school system was not in a financial position at the time to buy it.

The classrooms visited contained varying amounts of equipment from nothing at all, with the exception of furniture, to fine and presumably adequate collections. The classrooms in seven junior high schools visited are equipped with various forms of movable seats and desks, but sufficient additional space for large tables and adequate working space for pupils engaged in activities are available in only two of these schools. Filing cases for the storing of materials and supplies, adequate closets, and other similar items are usually not available in the classrooms. In most cases teachers are not supplied with filing cases. Classrooms are built according to standard size, with a definite allotment of seating space per pupil, and modifications to meet the needs of newer conceptions and newer techniques in the teaching of the social studies which necessitate additional "elbow room" are not anticipated. The senior high schools are frequently as handicapped for lack of space and ordinary equipment as are junior high schools. The usual social studies classroom contains the minimum amount of furniture necessary to seat the pupils, a desk and chair for the teacher, some maps, and some additional materials which are usually the property of the teacher.

There are, however, certain exceptions to the general situations encountered in visitation. The equipment of Washington Junior High School, Pasadena, and East High School, Rochester, have been mentioned previously in connection with library facilities. The Thomas Starr King Junior High School, Los Angeles, has a commodious social studies laboratory which is made accessible to pupils through the rotation of classes. Storage space and provision for the display of the construction activities of pupils are provided. The Benjamin Franklin Junior-Senior High School, Rochester, has, in addition to a departmental office, a large room with individual desks for the teachers, filing cases, storage cabinets for maps, bookshelves, a departmental periodical library, and other equipment needed by teachers. The East High School, Denver, in reorganizing some of its classrooms for experimental groups, is including laboratories and workrooms for teachers and pupils engaged in cooperative work.

In general, the social studies laboratory with suitable and adequate furniture and equipment seems to be the expression of a wish rather than a reality. Teachers visited, at least the more alert and competently educated teachers, are almost unanimous in their expression of approval of a changed conception of the classroom as regards material equipment. When the beautiful exteriors of buildings, the funds expended for science laboratories, cafeterias, manual arts, music, and athletics are taken into account, teachers of the social studies seem justified in making comparisons between the expenditures for social studies and those for other departments and activities.

CHAPTER VIII METHODS AND PROCEDURES IN TEACHING

Suggestions concerning methods and procedures found in courses in the social studies are summarized in Table 12. Definitions, basic discussions of the place of method in the teaching process, consideration of specific methods, and concrete illustrative materials are listed in a few courses. A basic knowledge of methods and their applications to the social studies on the part of teachers seem to be assumed in most of the courses in which conventional methods are mentioned.

The most favored practice with respect to methods seems to involve the offering of incidental suggestions in connection with activities in which pupils are supposed to engage in social studies classrooms. Fifteen junior high school and nine senior high school courses of study limit suggestions on methods to incidental and implied comments in connection with activities, which are frequently listed in parallel columns directly opposite other materials. Supervised or directed study is recommended in 15 junior high school and 6 senior high school courses. It is possible that these data do not indicate the extent to which directed study forms a part of the teaching procedure in classes in the social studies. At the same time, any form of directed study to be really effective necessitates adequate classroom libraries and equipment, a condition found only infrequently as indicated in courses of study. Suggestions concerning directed study are sometimes explicitly stated in teachers' manuals, courses of study, or separate pamphlets. The courses of study for junior and senior high schools in Rochester and San Diego offer concrete aids for teachers, and the teachers' manuals in Dallas, Houston, and Pasadena provide detailed suggestions. A wide range and large number of suggestions are found in *Directing Study in the Social Studies in Junior High Schools*, a 48-page pamphlet published for the use of teachers in Los Angeles. Courses of study intended for use as manuals by

pupils in Dallas and Houston and the "directive study sheets" for pupils' use in Dearborn contain concrete aids for study.

TABLE 12.—*Frequency of mention in courses of study of certain methods of teaching*

Method	Junior high schools (50 courses)	Senior high schools (32 courses)
Incidental suggestions on methods in lists of "activities," "procedures," etc.	15	9
Supervised or directed study	15	6
Problem method	11	5
Laboratory procedures as conditions and equipment permit	6	5
Modified mastery technique	5	3
Socialized procedures or recitation	5	1
Project method	5	3
Lecture method	1	2
"Topical method"	1	1
"Library method"	2	.....
"Question-and-answer method"	1	.....
"Contract method"	1	.....
No explicit statements concerning methods	9	8

Although 11 junior high school and 5 senior high school courses of study suggest the use of the problem method, only the Montclair course contains a statement of concrete procedures. These suggestions seem to include features of the activities program recommended in many courses of study under the problem method.

Laboratory procedures, as the term is used in several courses of study, seem to involve the use of a variety of methods in the development of a program of activities in which pupils engage; in other courses the use of a classroom equipped with a classroom library and other types of materials to be used by pupils is implied. A third conception of laboratory procedure used in some courses refers to the use of a stated technique of instruction, such as some modified form of the mastery technique proposed by Morrison.[1] While these differences in meaning may be more apparent than real, the fact that six junior high school and five senior high school courses include suggestions for the use of laboratory procedures does not indicate that the term is used with the same meaning in these courses.

[1] Morrison, H. C. The Practice of Teaching in Secondary Schools (rev. ed.). University of Chicago Press, 1931.

Five junior high school and three senior high school courses of study suggest the use of modified forms of the mastery technique formulated by Morrison. Evidences of the influence of this technique, particularly the "mastery formula," are found in certain other courses, but it is not suggested for use in complete form. The "Handbook for Teachers" for the junior high school course in Houston contains a detailed presentation of the "steps" in this technique, with concrete illustrations of the purposes and procedures of each "step." Other courses contain briefer mention of this technique and its application in teaching the social studies.

The use of socialized procedures or recitations is suggested in five junior high school and one senior high school courses of study. The characteristics of these procedures are not mentioned or differentiated in an explicit manner from more conventional recitations, but it is evident that the formal organization of classes with pupil officers is intended as the important element of socialized recitations in two courses of study. On the other hand, the Dallas *Bulletin for Teachers* contains the following observation: "True socialization is manifested in the attitude of the class more than in the form of organization or procedure used."

The fact that nine junior high school and eight senior high school courses of study contain no mention of methods and procedures is probably accounted for in part by the tentative character of the materials and in part by the assumption that teachers already have had training in and experience with different methods and procedures. The reference to methods in a few courses is coupled with an implied apology for mentioning them at all.

In addition to the number of courses of study in which no mention is made of methods and procedures, there is a marked emphasis in many courses on freedom on the part of the teacher in the selection and use of methods which are adapted to the needs and maturity of pupils. The choice of methods in terms of the personality, resourcefulness, and experience of the teacher also receives approval in these courses. The conditions under which the teacher and pupils work, the amount of equipment and the library facilities available for their use, and standards of achievement recognized in the

school are other factors which presumably determine the selection of methods. The Ithaca course of study contains the following comment:

> No one plan can be prescribed. Perhaps the social science teacher needs more initiative and imagination than is possessed by the majority of us. She must work out for herself the methods which bring best results. Educators can give suggestions, but little more.

Statements which stress the necessity of freedom in the selection of methods are also found in the Ardmore, Denver, Kenosha, Little Rock, and Long Beach courses of study for junior high schools and in the San Francisco and Columbus courses of study for senior high schools.

CHAPTER IX: MEASURING THE LEARNING PRODUCT

Data on procedures used in testing the attainments of pupils in the social studies are summarized in Table 13. These data are fragmentary, and presumably do not provide a true picture of the status of testing in the social studies in that they do not indicate the extent to which tests are used by central offices. With these reservations, the most significant item disclosed by these data is that more than half the available courses of study contain no mention of the use of tests and measurements. The use of the so-called new type of tests is suggested in a small number of courses. Types of test items suggested in at least five courses include true-false, multiple-choice or best-answer, matching, and completion items. Problem-solving tests, drill tests, map tests, and interpretative tests are also mentioned in one or more courses of study. Attempts to test abilities, skills, and attitudes find a place in a small number of courses.

The course of study for junior high schools in Little Rock contains a relatively complete general orientation in the purposes and uses of tests. Teachers are urged to become familiar with testing procedures, particularly as an aid in the motivation of classroom activities. Items of the theory of testing on which there is general agreement, advantages and disadvantages of new-type tests, general and specific purposes of the testing program, and types of tests receive consideration. The course of study for junior high schools in Rochester contains suggestions for tests of reading rate, reading comprehension, and the ability to use books; the course for senior high schools also includes a series of suggestions for teachers.[1]

Sample tests for the guidance of teachers are included in 5 junior high school and 2 senior high school courses of study, while tests for all units, topics, and divisions are found in 3

[1] For an account of the testing program and forms of tests used in Rochester, see Alice N. Gibbons. Tests in the Social Studies. Philadelphia, McKinley Publishing Co., 1929. Publications of the National Council for the Social Studies No. 3. Certain modifications in the testing program have been made since 1929.

TABLE 13.—*Frequency of mention in courses of study of certain procedures in testing and measurement*

Procedure	Junior high schools (50 courses)	Senior high schools (20 courses)
No explicit statements concerning tests and testing procedure	31	20
Use of new types of tests suggested	10	5
Sample tests included for guidance of teachers	5	2
Tests for each unit, topic, or division included	3	1
Tests supplied to teachers from central offices	3	1
Tests constructed cooperatively by teachers and supervisors	1	1
Use of essay type of tests suggested	6	4

junior high school and 1 senior high school courses of study. The content of the tests, usually constructed in terms of different types of test items, is largely concerned with the retention of information, relationships between events and personages or between events and dates, definitions, identification of terms, and judgments or opinions. The tests are focused primarily on a command of facts, with little attention to items testing the application of concepts and principles, the apprehension of causal relationships, and the evaluation of materials. No tests of habits and skills are included in courses of study. The use of interpretative tests is suggested in the Ithaca course of study.

It is probable that the courses of study do not always present a true picture of the situation with respect to the use of tests in the social studies. Approximately two-thirds of the school systems visited make some use of new-type tests, but there seem to be marked variations in practices between cities and in different schools within a given city. The leadership exercised by the supervisor or director of social studies and the heads of departments in school systems which make provision for these positions, the willingness of teachers to construct tests, the relationships between the teachers and the research staff, and facilities for mimeographing tests are some of the elements which seem to determine whether new-type tests are constructed and used to advantage. The lack of adequate facilities for mimeographing tests is cited as the greatest practical difficulty in approximately half of the cities visited. In some cities tests are mimeographed and printed by the commercial and printing departments.

CHAPTER X : SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Perhaps the outstanding impression gained through an analysis of courses of study, visits to schools, and conferences with members of curriculum committees and teachers of the social studies concerns the amount of unrest and dissatisfaction, and the diversity in proposed changes in materials and procedures. Old plans and courses are defended vigorously or criticized in the same manner; new plans for the selection and organization of materials are described favorably by their protagonists, but are accepted by analytically minded teachers only if they stand the scrutiny of sound scholarship. New plans, at least in external aspects, are found on every side. One of the features of current curriculum making seems to be the formulation of programs and courses which are different from those developed elsewhere. Whether the present unrest will eventuate in essential changes in organization of materials and methods which are basic in character and influential in the improvement of instruction depends upon the kind of leadership provided and on the extent to which such leadership merits and receives the confidence of teachers of the social studies.

The visits made include two cities in which no extensive modifications or projects in curriculum building in the social studies have been undertaken, and one city in which the completed courses of study, based on advanced proposals, have not been accepted and are not in use in the classrooms. There is little differentiation between instruction in the social studies in the two cities that have not been engaged in curriculum-making projects and in those in which extensive curriculum projects have been undertaken in terms of quality of instruction, types of methods used, and alertness and competency of the teachers. In the city in which the new courses have been constructed but are not used, teachers seem in agreement that the proposed materials have stimulated their thinking and modified their procedures to some extent.

Frequent reference has been made throughout the report to the diversity of practices in social studies programs and to apparent confusion concerning procedures found in the analysis of courses of study. The social studies have passed through a series of changes during the past two decades which have resulted in an unsettled and not infrequently chaotic condition. These changes have ranged from the attachment of new titles and labels on conventional materials to the formulation of radical new proposals which have been developed with varying degrees of completeness in the social studies programs in different cities. With the present diversity of proposals and practices found in courses of study and the present unstabilized materials, established points of reference on which there is some agreement among recognized leaders in the field are seriously needed. A disposition on the part of the schools to follow such leadership is also needed if the situation is to become more stabilized rather than more confused.

The changing social studies programs and accompanying courses of study, together with the assumptions on which they are presumably based, are so diverse in types that it seems impossible to hazard predictions as to directions in which new courses are likely to be projected or those phases of present courses which are likely to be received with increasing favor. At best, only certain summary statements, to which exceptions can always be cited, can be made with respect to present practices and procedures.

Variations are found in courses of study examined, not only in basic assumptions, but also in the extent to which they have been constructed in accordance with those assumptions. Theories seem far in advance of actual practices, which are limited necessarily by the types and quality of available content. Variations are also found in the amount of critical thinking on the part of committees and in standards of values in the selection and organization of content. A relatively small number of courses seem to be admirably conceived in accordance with designated plans and generally accepted theories; these are constructed in detail with a due regard for values, insights, and relationships, which are unmistakable evidence of sound scholarship and competent workmanship

on the part of committees and cooperating teachers. That all courses examined are not constructed in accordance with the same standards of scholarship and workmanship is doubtless due to the absence of some of the elements mentioned, as well as to the tentative character of many courses, the pressure of time in which to develop materials, and other factors.

A relatively small number of all courses of study are printed. The majority are in mimeographed or typewritten form; these are usually labeled "tentative courses" and represent varying degrees of completeness. There is considerable evidence of the organization of new materials for experimental or trial use, and if the experience of some school systems acknowledged as leaders in the construction of materials for experimental use may be regarded as typical, it is likely that many of these courses now in tentative form will be subjected to many major changes in the long, slow process of revision.

The purposes or objectives for the teaching of the social studies, as outlined in available courses of study, are developed in three forms. A small number of courses contain a relatively small number of general and all-inclusive objectives which are then transmuted into more detailed and specific statements for the different subjects; the majority of courses include lists of specific objectives arranged in considerable detail under such categories as "abilities," "appreciations," "skills," and the like; a third and smaller group, now in the process of further revision, have displaced the former detailed lists of objectives arranged in separate categories by more general statements of purposes. Conferences with members of committees and teachers revealed considerable dissatisfaction with the detailed lists of objectives, and since the experiences of committees that have worked through several revisions of materials seem to reveal a return to the formulation of more general purposes, it is possible that radical proposals for the development of long and detailed lists of objectives may be a passing phenomenon. Regardless of the forms in which objectives in the social studies are presented, committees engaged in the construction of courses seem to agree, with few exceptions, that there

is urgent need for a reorientation of the larger purposes of instruction, and a new integration of materials in terms of outward relationships in social situations, of which the secondary school is only one part, rather than a further inward and somewhat artificial focusing of objectives in terms of the secondary school and its pupils. If this change is made, the present emphasis on derived objectives is likely to be displaced by purposes which bear a closer relationship to essential values in content, realizable in instruction.

Remarkable diversity of combinations of subjects, arrangements of materials, and sequences of courses is evidenced in social studies programs. Advanced proposals, as they are projected and applied in the course of study, reveal greater diversity in the arrangements and combinations of materials than in the actual content; in fact, the basic content for all courses, regardless of whether they are labeled "fusion courses," "unified courses," or "subject courses," is essentially the same, and is derived to a greater or less extent from representative textbooks. As the more radical proposals are actually developed in concrete form in courses of study, they unmistakably resemble familiar materials, regardless of the attached labels. Despite diversity in practices, there seems to be a realization of the need for a greater measure of integration of content on the part of all competently educated teachers who evaluate materials in a critical and analytical manner. These teachers seem to regard current disagreements and differences as centered on form rather than substance; they also view an adequate integration of content from the different social sciences, with due consideration for inherent values in content and a realization of the true purposes of secondary education, as a challenge for the future. Probably the most hopeful recent change is found in the increasing number of competently educated teachers who are evaluating advanced proposals for courses of study in a critical and analytical manner, based on their practical applications as developed in actual courses.

With few exceptions, the basic guiding principles for the selection and organization of content, regardless of the form in which courses are constructed, are not explicitly stated. Internal evidence in courses, however, seems to indicate that

the textbook is the most important factor, with plans found in textbooks transferred, with varying degrees of rearrangement, to courses of study; because of the place of the textbook as a potent factor in instruction in the social studies, it seems that new courses come into effective use in many schools only when corresponding textbooks are available. The situation is likely to remain unchanged until more adequate library facilities and classroom equipment in the social studies are provided in larger numbers of secondary schools. Proposals for marked changes in courses of study and in newer and more complicated methods and techniques of instruction can be effected only when adequate facilities are provided, and these in turn depend on a growing realization by those in control of the schools of the importance of a rich supply of materials for effective instruction in the social studies. Teachers are still dependent, except in more advanced secondary schools, on the textbook as the primary source of instructional materials; this is in marked contrast with the situation in certain foreign countries.

While, owing to diversity of practices, it is always necessary to speak of types of courses in a particular subject, the courses of study examined, to the extent that they may be regarded as typical, seem to indicate that fusion or unified courses are received with increasing favor at the junior high school level. The content in these courses is predominantly geography, history, and civics for grades 7, 8, and 9, respectively, regardless of the attached labels, and the general plans are similar in arrangement of sequences of materials to those found in separate-subject courses for the same grades.

Types of world history courses seem to find increasing favor in the tenth grade, with an alternative 2-year sequence in European or world history offered in many of the larger secondary schools. Considerable dissatisfaction with the world history situation is voiced by teachers, and it is likely that new plans of organization of materials will have to be provided if the course is to become a permanent and effective addition to the social studies program. American history or American history and civics and a variety of other subjects complete the senior high school programs. With the exception of some cities located mainly in States with statutory

requirements, courses in problems of democracy seem to find less favor than separate subject courses in economics, civics, and sociology or social problems, although a course in problems of democracy is sometimes offered as an elective course along with courses of these types. Problems of democracy seems to be regarded in some sections of the country as a plan of organization that is theoretically feasible but incapable of an entirely satisfactory application in actual practice. The so-called "upper-division electives" find increasing favor in senior high schools in cities west of the Mississippi River, particularly in cities in the far West.

The courses of study, with few exceptions, contain outlines of content or lists of topics or units to be developed by teachers. A small number of courses intended as syllabi to be used by pupils are usually organized in more compact form and more clearly arranged than those intended for the guidance of teachers. Little or no indication is found in most courses as to whether the outlines represent minimum, average, or maximum amounts of content. Many teachers are inclined to question the feasibility of such differentiation, with the accompanying implication of arbitrary distinctions without regard for inherent relationships in content. Provisions for individual differences in pupils, with a few exceptions in which separate courses are provided for the same subject, are left to the initiative of teachers, with general introductory statements presumably intended for their guidance. The outlines of content are usually lacking in interpretative comments. No agreement is indicated in courses of study as to whether the organization of materials is intended to be followed explicitly by teachers or whether they are expected to organize materials in greater detail in the form of topics, units, and guide sheets for the use of pupils.

Considerable freedom in choice of methods of instruction is apparent, if the lack of definite stipulations is indicative of current practices. Some confusion is evident in a considerable number of courses between narrow mechanical formulations of specific procedures and broad and basic concepts of methodology; the emphasis is on the former. Visitation and conferences indicated that the question-and-

answer recitation, with many modifications in form, still holds a dominant place as a classroom procedure in the social studies. Lesson learning and lesson hearing rather than cumulative learning and creative teaching are still prevalent. The exceptions to the general situation are found in those superior and resourceful teachers possessed of a rich command of content and an originality in presentation that can not be confined to mechanical methods. Although suggestions for better procedures are listed in many courses of study, such proposals usually seem to be in advance of actual practices. The general introduction of more complicated techniques as well as informal procedures in many secondary schools seems to await a different plan of organization, with more adequate classroom and general library facilities, smaller classes, and other essential elements.

Courses of study, with few exceptions, reveal the need for considerable improvement in the character and quality of lists of books to be used by teachers and pupils in the social studies. A close relationship between satisfactory lists and satisfactory library facilities was evident in the visits to schools. Present lists in many courses of study seem to be a reflection of lack of adequate libraries for the social studies and of the failure to formulate satisfactory policies for the selection and duplication of most-used titles, owing often to inadequate budgets. Evidence from several independent investigations of both social studies and general library facilities corroborates that found in courses of study and in visitation.

A considerable amount of effort toward the development of concrete procedures in the use of devices and activity programs is indicated in available courses, particularly at the junior high school level. These items, however, are frequently isolated and detached; a cumulative program of activities from grade to grade is found in only a small number of courses. An urgent need for the formulation of criteria and standards is apparent if the more basic values of activities are to be realized as desirable goals in the teaching of the social studies. The cumulative development from grade to grade of the necessary skills requisite to the effective use of

activities having true educational values also warrants serious consideration.

Reasonably specific guidance for teachers in the construction of tests, either through suggestions or through the inclusion of sample tests, is found in a small number of courses. Visits and conferences indicated a marked decrease of interest in new-type tests on the part of teachers in a considerable number of cities; in a few cities there seems to be a danger that whatever values such tests may possess will be lost through a lack of interest or through latent antagonism aroused in teachers through the administering of tests by the central offices.

The construction of courses of study in accordance with current theories of curriculum building represents a new and somewhat radical phenomenon in the teaching of the social studies. Distinctions between theories yet untried and those which have proved workable through trial have not always been perceived. In some instances advanced proposals formulated by curriculum directors have been projected without regard to basic considerations in content and values that could be legitimately derived from content, and without consultation with specialists in content and in the teaching of the social studies. In some instances the work has apparently been carried forward more rapidly than the educational background and experience of teachers would seem to warrant; in other instances the lack of analysis of theories and assumptions in the early stages of the work seems to have resulted in confusion in the later stages. Trial use of new materials by more capable teachers has not always been provided; other "short cuts" in procedures are found in different school systems. Mechanical aspects seem to have been stressed in some cities at the expense of the consideration of basic elements and values. Bodies of content have sometimes been pulled out of natural relationships and settings and put together in new arrangements focused on derived values in such a manner that confusion in values and in organization has been an inevitable result.

These and other problems are probably, in some measure, a part of any situation encountered in a rapidly expanding field; they must also be considered in terms of the accom-

panying theories and the pressure of time under which committees work. The construction of satisfactory and balanced courses of study can not apparently be accomplished by extraordinary effort during a short period of time; years of calm and sustained work under the guidance of expert consultants in content, followed by trial use with classes and subsequent revisions, seem to be required, according to the opinions of discerning teachers who are most active in current activities in a number of cities.

Visits and conferences revealed an enormous number of difficult problems in the development of courses encountered by curriculum committees in the social studies.[1] Many of these problems are reported to carry the committees beyond the realm of current theories and procedures in curriculum building. There seems to be general agreement that assistance from responsible leaders in the field is needed. One of the limitations of present efforts frequently reported by teachers is the failure to provide for the services of specialists in content and teaching of the social studies on the same basis as general curriculum consultants. Teachers in cities without the services of directors or supervisors of the social studies report difficulties in carrying forward the proposals by general consultants and directors.

When the available courses of study are considered from the standpoint of the broader perspective of contemporary life and the present situations in national and international affairs, they seem to shrink immeasurably in significance. With the growing realization of the bankruptcy of many current concepts in economics, politics, and social relationships, the implications for the social studies in the secondary schools are of tremendous importance, and are indicative of the need of a greater measure of responsibility than has ever been assumed heretofore. They constitute a challenge to competent teachers and leaders in the field, who have always been humble in their claims and efforts, despite the frequently inflated claims made for the social studies by

[1] The Social Studies Investigation sponsored by the American Historical Association, with the cooperation of representatives of the other social sciences and education, is engaged in an extensive consideration of the problems involved in the selection and organization of content, as well as in many other phases of the teaching of the social studies. The results of its activities and deliberations may be expected to offer some measure of assistance and guidance to committees.

persons probably less familiar with basic problems. In the search for new concepts, in the weighing of values, in the critical analyses of materials, persons concerned with the teaching of the social studies in secondary schools will necessarily be obligated more than ever before to follow the leaders in the evolving social sciences. The challenge to adapt and apply these concepts and to provide new materials, with due regard for essential values, rests on responsible leaders among the teachers of the social studies, with the greatest possible measure of assistance from specialists in content who may be summoned to their aid as consultants.

With the growing realization of the limitations of many of the present courses, it is entirely possible that a new formulation of concepts, materials, and plans may eventuate in new courses of study, with new arrangements of materials focused on new situations, the possibilities of which have not yet been visualized or approximated. With a due appreciation of the contributions of the social studies to secondary education in the past, it seems reasonable to anticipate even greater possibilities for the future in terms of the education of youth equipped with an increasing and lasting interest in the social studies, a more adequate understanding of the present social order, and a willingness, on the basis of that understanding, to contribute and to share in those essential pioneering experiences which look toward the possibilities of a better social order.