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HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION

INVESTIGATION OF THE  
SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE SCHOOLS



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CONCLUSIONS AND  
RECOMMENDATIONS OF  
THE COMMISSION

REPORT OF THE COMMISSION  
ON THE SOCIAL STUDIES

CONCLUSIONS AND  
RECOMMENDATIONS OF  
THE COMMISSION

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS

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The original draft of these Conclusions and Recommendations was prepared by a committee appointed for the purpose by the Commission on the Social Studies in October 1932. It was submitted for consideration to a meeting of the Commission in October 1933 and again at a second meeting in December 1933. It was then in part rewritten and submitted to the Executive Committee of the Commission in February 1934. The Executive Committee made some further revision. The revised text was then set in galley proof, and was mailed in that form to every member of the Commission individually for approval. Those whose names appear at the end of the text have signed it without reservations. Isaiah Bowman has signed it with reservations which are printed as Appendix C. Frank A. Ballou, Edmund E. Day, Ernest Horn, and Charles E. Merriam have declined to sign. Each one of these gentlemen was invited to submit a dissenting opinion to be printed over his signature with this report. Only one dissenting opinion was submitted but it was recalled by its author before publication.

CONYERS READ,  
*Executive Secretary*  
*American Historical Association.*

## PREFACE

THIS volume presents the Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools, sponsored by the American Historical Association. It is the outcome of a very large number of special studies and researches and of a vast deal of deliberation and reflection during the past five years,

How the Commission came to be constituted in 1929, how it has functioned, and what particular work it has done, or attempted to do, are sketched in Appendix B, below. Here the summary statement may be made that the labors of the Commission and of its several committees, agents, and investigators, have issued in a comprehensive Final Report, embracing fourteen major and several supplementary published volumes.

Of these volumes, the Commission assumes full responsibility for two: *A Charter for the Social Studies in the Schools*, published in 1931 and dealing with "objectives" of social science instruction; and the present volume of *Conclusions and Recommendations*. The other volumes, the titles of which are given in Appendix B, below, are sponsored by the Commission in the sense that they have been authorized by it, that they have been submitted to the criticism of its members, and that they have provided many of the detailed data on which the generalizations of the present volume are based.

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## Preface

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The Commission desires to direct attention to the fact that the studies here reported constitute but a part of the material on which it bases its conclusions. It was able to profit greatly from nation-wide studies, but recently completed, of the teaching of mathematics, the classics, and the modern foreign languages. All of its members were supplied with copies of the series of volumes, reporting methods of civic training in foreign countries,<sup>1</sup> and with translated reports of the International Committee on the Teaching of History.<sup>2</sup> Also the Commission participated, through its own membership, in the surveys of secondary education and teacher training, conducted by the United States Office of Education. Moreover, since it began its work in 1929, reports of national commissions on law enforcement, child welfare, housing conditions, cost of medical care, economic trends, and social trends, as well as the United States Census of 1930 and the findings of a number of congressional investigations, have all become available. As a result of these studies and of other researches carried on by competent students, the conditions, the activities, the characteristics, the trends of American society are more fully revealed by scholarly and scientific inquiry than at any previous period in the history of the nation. Finally, the con-

<sup>1</sup> Prepared under the direction of C. E. Merriam and published by the University of Chicago Press.

<sup>2</sup> *Commission de l'Enseignement Historique* of the *Comité International des Sciences Historiques*. A number of these articles were translated and published in the *Historical Outlook*, November, 1930, to December, 1932.



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## Preface

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clusions of the Commission rest upon the experience, study, and thought which its diverse membership brought to its work and deliberations.

The Commission is obligated to individuals and organizations so numerous that the listing of their names and services would fill a large volume. Many leaders in the field of education, many eminent scholars of the social sciences, many government officials, thousands of school administrators, classroom teachers, school board members, and members of a wide range of societies and associations have responded liberally to requests for information and help. To each and all, the Commission is grateful.

Certain institutions generously supplied the Commission with staff members or otherwise facilitated its work: Columbia, Harvard, and Leland Stanford Universities, the Universities of Chicago, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, North Carolina, and West Virginia, Smith College, Mount Pleasant Teachers College, and the American Geographical Society.

The Commission is under special obligation to its sponsor, the American Historical Association. Above all, it recognizes its indebtedness to the Trustees of the Carnegie Corporation, whose financial aid made possible the whole five-year investigation of social science instruction in the schools, eventuating in the following Conclusions and Recommendations.

A. C. KREY, *Chairman*.

March, 1934.

## CHAPTER I

### THE OBLIGATIONS AND PROCEDURE OF THE COMMISSION

1. The social sciences, more than any other division of the school curriculum, are concerned immediately with the life, the institutions, the thought, the aspirations, and the far-reaching policies of the nation in its world setting.

2. In view of this fact, the Commission could not limit itself to a survey of textbooks, curricula, methods of instruction, and schemes of examination, but was impelled to consider the condition and prospects of the American people as a part of Western civilization now merging into a world order.

3. The Commission was also driven to this broader conception of its task by the obvious fact that American civilization, in common with Western civilization, is passing through one of the great critical ages of history, is modifying its traditional faith in economic individualism, and

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## *Conclusions and Recommendations*

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is embarking upon vast experiments in social planning and control which call for large-scale co-operation on the part of the people.} It is likewise obvious that in corresponding measure the responsibilities and opportunities of organized education, particularly in the social sciences, are being increased.

4. In the prosecution of its work the Commission has made extensive use of the scientific method in compiling, analyzing, and organizing materials bearing on purpose and objectives, existing and proposed curricula, method of teaching, examination processes, teacher training, administrative functions, and public relations.

5. The Commission has employed the same method in examining American society and its trends, the nature of the social sciences and their functions in education, [and the systems of social thought now bidding for consideration and adoption by the nation and the schools.} Also it has made generous use of the findings of scientific inquiry conducted by other scholars in both America and Europe. It has found particularly

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*Obligations and Procedure*

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helpful the report of President Hoover's research committee on Recent Social Trends in the United States.

6. At the same time, while recognizing fully that the scientific method is a priceless and indispensable instrument of social research, thought, and invention, the Commission realizes that this method, even though pursued with utmost rigor, cannot in itself dictate purpose, policy, or program for either statecraft or education.

7. The Commission, therefore, while utilizing the scientific method as far as practicable, is fully conscious of going beyond its findings and making positive acts of interpretation and judgment based on ethical and æsthetic considerations, as well as on what the Commission believes to be accurate knowledge of relevant social facts.

8. The conclusions and recommendations of the Commission, consequently, are not, and in the nature of things cannot be, mere matters of quantitative determination. They are drawn up with respect to some general point of view or frame of reference. For some frame of reference, large or

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small, clear or confused, conditions every general work in the social sciences, every program of instruction in these subjects, every conception of methods and examinations, and every plan of school administration.

## CHAPTER II

### THE FRAME OF REFERENCE

#### A.

1. The frame of reference here presented is based upon the results of scholarship and consists of generalizations, judgments, interpretations, and affirmations of the Commission concerning (a) the nature and functions of the social sciences, (b) necessarily conditioning factors in American life, and (c) choices deemed possible and desirable in the present and proximate future.

2. The frame of reference is based on a study of the past, of the present, and of trends in past and present—past and present as occurrence and as aspiration.

3. The frame of reference so constructed, a product of contemporary inquiry and reflection, conditions broadly the conceptions of public policy, education, and instruction in the social sciences here advanced by the Commission.

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### B. NATURE AND FUNCTIONS OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

1. The social sciences take as their province the entire range of human history, from the earliest times down to the latest moment, and the widest reaches of contemporary society, from the life and customs of the most remote peoples to the social practices and cultural possessions of the immediate neighborhood.

2. The social sciences thus embrace the traditional disciplines which are concerned directly with man and society, including history, economics, politics, sociology, geography, anthropology and psychology. Each of these disciplines possesses an intrinsic nature and a core of substantial data and inferences, and yet all are intimately inter-related in their several approaches to a common goal—the knowledge of man and society.

3. Without wishing to emphasize what has been called “the conventional boundaries” between the several social disciplines—boundaries which have never been treated as rigid and which of late have been increasingly and very profitably

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cut across—the Commission repudiates the notion that any general or comprehensive social science has been created which transcends the disciplines themselves. Each of these branches of scholarship furnishes a distinctive point of view from which materials are surveyed and brought into an organization of knowledge; each contributes in its own way to general human insight into the world of man and society.

4. The main function of the social sciences is the acquisition of accurate knowledge of, and informed insight into, man and society; that of social science instruction is the transmission of such knowledge and insight, with attendant skills and loyalties, to the individuals composing society. Regardless of the special circumstances of a given time, these functions are vitally important and are likely to be effective in the measure of the breadth and depth of their conception, involving a real knowledge of man and society under most diverse conditions and circumstances.

5. The social sciences and instruction in them are conditioned, and should be, by the spirit and letter of scholarship, by what is called the scien-



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tific method. Scholarship has its own imperatives, and to say that science exists merely to serve the instant need of things, causes, or parties is to betray a fatal ignorance of its nature and of inexorable movements in thought.

6. The Commission believes that fundamentally the disinterested pursuit of truth and the permanent interests of society as a whole are not, and cannot be, incompatible, and that both the social scientist in his study and the teacher of any social science in his classroom are committed to scholarly, scientific ideals inherent in their profession and occupation.

7. The scientific method is invaluable not only as an indispensable instrument of inquiry, thought, and invention, but also as an equally indispensable means of developing in students—and in society at large—the critical spirit and judicial sense in accordance with which individuals learn to seek and weigh evidence, to compare and contrast and to act with an informed rather than a prejudiced mind.

8. Recognizing that scientific method and scholarly ideals, when applied to human affairs,

are likely to run counter to notions of the ignorant and to vested interests of groups, the Commission deems peculiarly desirable the preservation and more complete realization, within the field of the social sciences, of the ideal of freedom of research, publication, teaching, and scholarship.

9. While extolling scholarship and the scientific method, the Commission is aware of their limitations. It knows that their indispensable values apply only to a fragment of human history and experience—a “narrow land of rational certainty, relative, conditional, experimental.”

10. Though it is highly important and necessary that the social sciences should seek to study man and society objectively, the Commission perceives that objective study of itself does not and cannot provide society or the individuals composing it with will, force, or purpose. Such immensely significant attributes of man as creativeness, planning, and ideals rest not on empiricism alone but also on ethical and æsthetic considerations.

11. More specifically, in the case of the schools, the social sciences as bodies of empirical data con-

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tain no inner logic which determines clearly and positively either the scope, the content, or the structure of social science materials to be taught or the social activities to be encouraged. Scientific method should condition, but it cannot determine, the selection.

12. In the light of its assumptions about the nature and the functions of the social sciences, about the value of scholarship and the limitations of the scientific method, the Commission proceeds now, in the further development of its frame of reference, to indicate what it deems to be the factors in American life—the social and economic realities of time and place—which necessarily condition the selection and formulation of any educational program in the social sciences for the present and proximate future.

### C. NECESSARILY CONDITIONING FACTORS IN AMERICAN LIFE

1. The very fact that the Commission is charged with making recommendations concerning education in the social sciences *within the*

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*United States* conditions necessarily the Commission's selection and formulation of a program. For the American nation is an entity with distinctive aspects, traditions, and usages—geographical, economic, political, social, and cultural—of perduring vigor and strength, which must be taken into account if social science instruction is to be something more than abstract, if it is to be properly concrete, realistic, and serviceable.

2. At the same time, the Commission recognizes the further fact of the inter-relationship of the life of America with the life of the world. In all departments of culture—intellectual, æsthetic, and ethical—the civilization of the United States has always been a part of European, or “Western,” civilization. To ignore the historical traditions and usages which have contributed, and still contribute, to this unity is to betray a smug and provincial disregard of basic elements in American life and to invite national impoverishment, intolerance, and disaster. Moreover, the swift development of technology, industry, transportation, and communication in modern times is obviously merging Western civilization into a new

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world civilization and imposing on American citizens the obligation of knowing more, rather than less, of the complex social and economic relationships which bind them to the rest of mankind.

3. Especially significant, as a conditioning factor in American life, is the well-established national tradition of government and society based on the ideals of popular democracy and of personal liberty and dignity—the tradition that government is organized solely for the purpose of promoting the highest welfare of the governed, collectively and individually, that in all great divisions of economy, administration, and culture the interests of the masses of the people are to be considered paramount, and that, since every person is of moral worth and dignity in himself, no man, woman or child can be exploited by another without doing violence to the essential spirit of American democracy and liberty. This is a tradition so strong and, in the opinion of the Commission, so authentic and valid that, despite academic criticisms, despite assaults by selfish or predatory groups, it may be expected to abide and

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to give direction to the further evolution of life and institutions in the United States.

4. Along with traditions of the past, including not only American ideals of popular democracy and of personal liberty and dignity but also many other elements in the heritage of civilization—intellectual, æsthetic, and ethical—which can confidently be expected to endure and hence to continue to exercise a profound influence on American life in the proximate future, there are certain clearly defined trends in contemporary technology, economy, and society of the utmost importance in creating new conditions, fashioning novel traditions, reorienting American life, and thus conditioning any future program of social science instruction. ←

5. The most striking trend in American life to-day, and one which has become gradually more discernible over a fairly long period, is a twofold tendency toward the closer physical unification of the nation and the ever-closer integration and interdependence of all branches of economy, social activity, and culture. Although this trend has not been uniform in the various branches or divi-

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sions of social life, it has effected a rather general dependence of the individual on corporate organization, machinery, and other capital for the right to labor and to share in the profits of production. Coming simultaneously with the ending of free lands and the passing of the more important natural resources into private hands, it has greatly  
→ reduced the opportunities for individual freedom and equality in the economic and social order and thereby created new problems in the preservation, development, and fulfillment of the ideals of American democracy.

6. The emergence of the resulting configuration is a fact established by empirical inquiry. It is described with much detail in contemporary works dealing with recent social and material developments. It is exemplified, increasingly and cumulatively, by historical happenings of the last one hundred years—the passing of the frontier, the binding together of the country with networks of canals, roads, rails, and wires, the application of technology to all branches of industry with attendant overcoming of local and regional economy by national and even international economy,  
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the concentration of manufacturing and banking, the growth of corporate business forms and the concentration of control into fewer and fewer hands, the development of cities and urban life, the progressive differentiation of agriculture and the accelerating dependence of the once "independent farmer" upon national and international markets, the intensifying specialization of labor and the resulting dependence of all industries and of society as a whole on national and international markets. At the present time, the trend has become so clearly apparent that to dwell upon it is to labor the obvious.

7. Contemporary social thought and action in the realms of government, economy, ethics, and æsthetics, despite contradictions and conflicts in interpretation, reflect more and more this growing integration and interdependence, and are increasingly concerned with improving the functional efficiency of this integrated and interdependent society. In short the economic and technological movement is accompanied by a corresponding movement in various phases of culture.



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8. Under the moulding influence of socialized processes of living, drives of technology and science, pressures of changing thought and policy, and disrupting impacts of economic disaster, there is a notable waning of the once widespread popular faith in economic individualism; and leaders in public affairs, supported by a growing mass of the population, are demanding the introduction into economy of ever-wider measures of planning and control.

9. Cumulative evidence supports the conclusion that, in the United States as in other countries, the age of individualism and *laissez faire* in economy and government is closing and that a new age of collectivism is emerging.

10. As to the specific form which this "collectivism," this integration and interdependence, is taking and will take in the future, the evidence at hand is by no means clear or unequivocal. It may involve the limiting or supplanting of private property by public property or it may entail the preservation of private property, extended and distributed among the masses. Most likely, it will issue from a process of experimentation and will

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represent a composite of historic doctrines and social conceptions yet to appear. Almost certainly it will involve a larger measure of compulsory as well as voluntary co-operation of citizens in the conduct of the complex national economy, a corresponding enlargement of the functions of government, and an increasing state intervention in fundamental branches of economy previously left to individual discretion and initiative—a state intervention that in some instances may be direct and mandatory and in others indirect and facilitative. In any event the Commission is convinced by its interpretation of available empirical data that the actually integrating economy of the present day is the forerunner of a consciously integrated society in which individual economic actions and individual property rights will be altered and abridged.

II. The emerging age is particularly an age of transition. It is marked by numerous and severe tensions arising out of the conflict between the actual trend toward integrated economy and society, on the one side, and the traditional practices, dispositions, ideas, and institutional arrange-

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ments inherited from the passing age of individualism, on the other. In all the recommendations that follow the transitional character of the present epoch is recognized.

12. Underlying and illustrative of these tensions are privation in the midst of plenty, violations of fiduciary trust, gross inequalities in income and wealth, widespread racketeering and banditry, wasteful use of natural resources, unbalanced distribution and organization of labor and leisure, the harnessing of science to individualism in business enterprise, the artificiality of political boundaries and divisions, the subjection of public welfare to the egoism of private interests, the maladjustment of production and consumption, persistent tendencies toward economic instability, disproportionate growth of debt and property claims in relation to production, deliberate destruction of goods and withdrawal of efficiency from production, accelerating *tempo* of panics, crises, and depressions attended by ever-wider destruction of capital and demoralization of labor, struggles among nations for markets and raw

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materials leading to international conflicts and wars.

13. If historical knowledge is any guide, these tensions, accompanied by oscillations in popular opinion, public policy, and the fortunes of the struggle for power, will continue until some approximate adjustment is made between social thought, social practice, and economic realities, or until society, exhausted by the conflict and at the end of its spiritual and inventive resources, sinks back into a more primitive order of economy and life. Such is the long-run view of social development in general, and of American life in particular, which must form the background for any educational program designed to prepare either children or adults for their coming trials, opportunities, and responsibilities.

### D. CHOICES DEEMED POSSIBLE AND DESIRABLE

1. Within the limits of the broad trend toward social integration the possible forms of economic and political life are many and varied, involving

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wide differences in modes of distributing wealth, income, and cultural opportunity, embracing various conceptions of the state and of the rights, duties, and privileges of the ordinary citizen, and representing the most diverse ideals concerning the relations of sexes, classes, religions, nations, and races. From this vast range of possibilities the American people will be called upon to make more or less deliberate choices in the proximate future. Precisely what these choices will be the Commission of course has no means of knowing, but it does deem possible and desirable, and even mandatory, the indication and emphasis of certain principles, purposes, and qualifications which, in its judgment, should guide or condition any such choices.

2. The Commission deems desirable the most efficient use of material endowment, technical arts, and productive skills in raising the standard of living of all and in achieving the finest cultural potentialities resident in the American people in their historic and world setting. A survey of the advance of technology in particular reveals clearly the possibility of the realization of this goal in the

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proximate future by the application of appropriate and existing knowledge, methods, and energies—physical and moral.

3. Achievements such as domestic architecture, housing, health, and education, city, regional, state, and national planning and operation, already accomplished in particular areas, indicate the possibility, as well as the desirability, of creating a civilization in the United States which combines utility and æsthetics in a grand conception of the potentialities in American life.

4. Moreover, achievements already accomplished in government, economy, and various forms of associational life indicate that the American people possess co-operative and moral powers of a high order which can be directed into channels of utility and beauty, if acquisitive individualism, with all its cruder manifestations in gambling, speculation, exploitation, and racketeering, is subdued to the requirements and potentialities of the emerging society.

5. The cultural potentialities of the epoch would seem to be commensurate with the economic. On the physical foundations of economic

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security, unprecedented leisure, relative material abundance, and rapid communication with all parts of the world, the extension to the masses of the people of greatly increased opportunities for the cultivation and enjoyment of the things of the mind and the spirit should be possible. In this process of cultural enrichment the American people may and should draw upon the entire heritage of the race and upon contemporary advances in art, literature, science, and philosophy throughout the world.

6. Indeed, the basic reason why the Commission emphasizes problems incident to the transition in economy is not because life is conceived in gross material terms, but because the establishment of a higher and finer standard of living may be expected to free people from absorption in material things and enable them to devote greater attention to ideals of spiritual, scientific, and cultural development.

7. While stressing the necessity of recognizing the emergence of a closely integrated society in America and the desirability of curbing individualism in economy, the Commission deems highly

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desirable the conscious and purposeful employment of every practicable means to ward off the dangers of goose-step regimentation in ideas, culture, and invention, of sacrificing individuality, of neglecting precious elements in the traditional heritage of America and the world, and of fostering a narrow intolerant nationalism or an aggressive predatory imperialism.

8. The Commission deems possible and desirable the retention and fulfillment of the historic principles and ideals of American democracy, outlined in the preceding section, as an accompaniment of the establishment and maintenance of an economically integrated society and as a means of necessary adjustment to new conditions.

9. The Commission deems desirable the reservation to the individual of the largest possible measure of freedom in the realms of personal and cultural growth, and the preservation and development of individuality in its non-acquisitive expressions as the finest flower of civilized society. It believes that the American people, as they fashion whatever institutions they will for the integrated society of the future, should respect and





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that all choices may be made with reason, with understanding, and with due regard to their moral and cultural, as well as their narrowly economic, implications.

12. The Commission deems possible and desirable an enlightened attitude on the part of the masses of the American people toward international relations, involving informed appreciation of the cultural bonds long subsisting among the nations of Western civilization and now developing rapidly among all the nations of the world, and special knowledge of the increasing economic interdependence of politically separate areas and peoples, and of the emerging economic integration of the globe.

13. Being convinced from the study of history that national policies, arising from narrow intolerant nationalism and aggressive predatory imperialism, were largely responsible for the World War, as well as for the intense rivalries among nations before 1914 and after 1918, and that the pursuit of such policies can only lead in the long run to national ruin, the Commission believes that—in keeping with the true interests of civiliza-

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ton in general and of American society in particular—nationalism should be infused with enlightenment, reason, and tolerance, and, by making the wisest and most effective use of domestic resources and by conceiving of foreign trade as the exchange of commodities of mutual benefit rather than as an expression of national power, economic imperialism should be checked.

14. The Commission deems desirable continued and unremitting emphasis on the spirit of science and scholarship, liberty of thought and expression, freedom of press and platform, and tolerant study and consideration of the most diverse ideas, domestic and foreign, modern, medieval, and ancient, as the chief means of defense against the tyranny of bureaucracy, of narrow nationalism, and of brutal uninformed power.

15. The Commission deems desirable continued and unremitting emphasis on the scientific method as an invaluable instrument of inquiry, thought, and invention—a method particularly indispensable to the maintenance and operation of an economically integrated society in which

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ideals of popular democracy and cultural freedom are to be upheld.

16. The Commission, under the frame of reference here presented, deems desirable the vitalizing of the findings of scientific inquiry by the best social thought of the present and of the past; and the incorporation into the materials of social science instruction in the schools of the best plans and ideals for the future of society and of the individual.

### E. SUMMARY IN RELATION TO EDUCATION

1. A frame of reference embracing things deemed necessary, possible, and desirable conditions the selection and organization of materials of instruction in the social sciences.

2. The validity of statements of fact within such a frame of reference can be tested to-day by methods of scholarship; the validity of interpretations and judgments can be fully tested only by the prolonged verdict of the generations.

3. Although the Commission has discovered no all-embracing system of social laws which, im-

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posed upon the educator, fixes the objectives and practices of the school, it believes its frame of reference to be entirely consistent with the findings and thought of contemporary social science.

4. It believes further that this frame of reference conditions the tasks, the responsibilities, the content and the method of education.

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Fruitful discussion and criticism of the program and purposes formulated by the Commission may be achieved, not by setting up a formal ideal of disinterestedness and neutrality in the guise of mere objective description, but by presenting alternative programs and purposes for examination and analysis.

In the sphere of moral decision and choice the very refusal to choose, since refusal has specific consequences, is itself a moral act. The fact is now generally realized that a declaration to do nothing is itself a statement of policy. In so far as the commitments of educators, scholars, and citizens have consequences for the determination of social issues, moral responsibility for things left

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undone, as well as for things done, cannot be escaped. The important thing then is to become conscious of responsibilities and to develop the discussion, not only in terms of the validity of knowledge, but also in terms of the values for which knowledge is used.

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The foregoing chapter is based on, and elaborated in:

- A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools;*  
BEARD, C. A., *The Nature of the Social Sciences;*  
COUNTS, G. S., *The Social Foundations of Education;*  
MARSHALL, L. C., and GOETZ, RACHEL MARSHALL, *A Social Process Approach to Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies.*  
MERRIAM, C. E., *Civic Education in the United States;*  
PIERCE, BESSIE L., *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth.*

## CHAPTER III

### PHILOSOPHY AND PURPOSE IN EDUCATION\*

#### A.

1. Education is a form of action on the part of some particular social group; it is not a species of contemplation removed from social life and relationships.

2. Education always expresses some social philosophy, either large or small, involves some choices with respect to social and individual action and well-being, and rests upon some moral conception.

3. Conceived in a large and clarified frame of reference, education is one of the highest forms of statesmanship: a positive and creative attack upon the problems generated by the movement of ideas and interests in society.

\*In the present chapter the Commission has directed its attention toward the formulation of the philosophy and purpose of education as a whole, as well as toward the problem of the teaching of the social sciences themselves. In attempting this larger task, it desired, first, to place the subject of its special concern in the general setting, and, second, to bring the findings of the social sciences to bear upon the total educational undertaking.

4. Finding its immediate expression in individuals, education so conceived is concerned with the development of rich and many-sided personalities capable of co-operating in a social order designed to facilitate the creation of the largest possible number of rich and many-sided personalities.

**B. EDUCATION AN EXPRESSION OF A PARTICULAR  
GEOGRAPHICAL AND CULTURAL SETTING**

1. Being a form of social action, education always has a geographical and cultural location; it is therefore specific, local, and dynamic, not general, universal, and unchanging; it is a function of a particular society at a particular time and place in history; it is rooted in some actual culture and expresses the philosophy and recognized needs of that culture. Contemporary American society of course is of vast proportions and manifests wide-reaching economic and cultural ramifications extending to the most distant parts of the world.

2. Although the basic biological equipment of man seems to be comparatively invariant and



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→ may therefore be expected to give certain common elements to education everywhere and at all times, human civilization has characteristics of neighborhood, region, nation, and more extended cultural areas, which lend unique qualities to every working educational program, however persistent and pervasive may be the universal elements entering into it.

3. Since culture plays a dominant rôle in giving form and substance to education, the formulation of a relevant and effective educational philosophy for a particular society at a particular time and place in history must rest in a large measure upon the findings of the social sciences, findings pertaining to the nature, trends and thought of that society in its regional and world setting.

### **C. EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY FOR THE UNITED STATES**

1. The formulation of an educational philosophy for the United States requires a study of the basic elements, configurations, and trends of American life and culture. The contribution

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which the social sciences thus make toward shaping the philosophy and purpose of education is as important as any contribution they can make to the content of materials of instruction.

2. Such a study, as stated in the preceding chapter, shows that American society during the past hundred years has been moving from an individualistic and frontier economy to a collective and social economy; this trend has steadily gained in momentum, and is strikingly revealed in the contemporary decline of doctrines of *laissez faire* and in the launching of programs of planning and control in local, state, and national economy.

3. Whatever may be the exact character of life in the society now emerging, it will certainly be different in important respects from that of the past. It will be accompanied by many unaccustomed restraints and liberties, responsibilities and opportunities; and whether it will be better or worse will depend in large measure upon the standards of appraisal applied, the particular choices now made within the limits of the possible, and the education of the rising generation

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in knowledge, thought, and appreciation of its necessities and potentialities.

4. In two respects education will be challenged: (a) the emerging economy will involve the placing of restraints on individual enterprise, propensities, and acquisitive egoism in agriculture, industry, and labor and generally on the conception, ownership, management, and use of property, as the changing policies of government already indicate; and (b) the emerging economy, by the reduction of hours of labor and other measures, promises to free the ordinary individual from the long working day, exhausting labor and economic insecurity, thus providing him with opportunities for personal development far greater and richer than those enjoyed under the individualistic economy of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

5. The implications for education are clear and imperative: (a) the efficient functioning of the emerging economy and the full utilization of its potentialities require profound changes in the attitudes and outlook of the American people, especially the rising generation—a complete and frank

recognition that the old order is passing, that the new order is emerging, and that knowledge of realities and capacity to co-operate are indispensable to the development and even the perdurance of American society; and (b) the rational use of the new leisure requires a cultural equipment which will give strength and harmony to society instead of weakness and discord.

6. Conversely, continued emphasis in education on the traditional ideas and values of economic individualism and acquisitiveness will intensify the conflicts, contradictions, maladjustments, and perils of the transition.

#### D. GENERAL APPLICATIONS

1. Organized public education in the United States, much more than ever before, is now compelled, if it is to fulfill its social obligations, to adjust its objectives, its curriculum, its methods of instruction, and its administrative procedures to the requirements of the emerging integrated order.

2. If the school is to justify its maintenance and

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assume its responsibilities, it must recognize the new order and proceed to equip the rising generation to co-operate effectively in the increasingly interdependent society and to live rationally and well within its limitations and possibilities.

3. It thus follows that educators are called upon to examine critically the frame of reference under which they have been operating, and to proceed deliberately to the clarification and affirmation of purpose in the light of the changed and changing social situation and in the light of those facts and trends which remain compelling, irrespective of individual preferences.

4. Educators stand to-day between two great philosophies of social economy: the one representing the immediate past and fading out in actuality, an individualism in economic theory which has become hostile in practice to the development of individuality for great masses of the people and threatens the survival of American society; the other representing and anticipating the future on the basis of actual trends—the future already coming into reality, a collectivism

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which may permit the widest development of personality or lead to a bureaucratic tyranny destructive of ideals of popular democracy and cultural freedom.

5. If education continues to emphasize the philosophy of individualism in economy, it will increase the accompanying social tensions. If it organizes a program in terms of a philosophy which harmonizes with the facts of a closely integrated society, it will ease the strains of the transition taking place in actuality. The making of choices cannot be evaded, for inaction in education is a form of action.

6. Within the limits of an economy marked by integration and interdependence, many possibilities, many roads stand open before education. The making of choices by either evasion or positive action also cannot be avoided in the development of an educational program.

7. The road which the Commission has chosen and mapped in the preceding chapter is one which, it believes, will make possible the most complete realization, under the changed conditions of life, of the ideals of American democracy

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and cultural liberty: the recognition of the moral equality and dignity of all men; the abolition of class distinctions and special privileges; the extension to every individual, regardless of birth, class, race, religion, or economic status, of the opportunity for the fullest development of his creative capacities, his spiritual qualities, his individuality; the encouragement of social inquiry, inventiveness, and tolerance; the protection of all liberties essential to defense against the exercise of brute power; the development of resistance to appeals to racial and religious passion and prejudice; the establishment of those standards and securities set forth in *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools*.

8. Such an affirmation of human values in education, the Commission holds, is peculiarly imperative in a society moving toward economic planning and control. Recognizing the necessity of living in an integrated economy and aware that such economy may be made to serve either some privileged minority or the entire population, the Commission deliberately presents to education, and affirms the desirability of, an economy

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managed in the interests of the masses, as distinguished from any class or bureaucracy.

9. From this point of view, a supreme purpose of education in the United States, in addition to the development of rich and many-sided personalities, is the preparation of the rising generation to enter the society now coming into being through thought, ideal, and knowledge, rather than through coercion, regimentation, and ignorance, and to shape the form of that society in accordance with American ideals of popular democracy and personal liberty and dignity.

### E. IMMEDIATE IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ORGANIZATION AND CONDUCT OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

1. In the integrated society now emerging the ideal of individual, institutional, and local advancement will of necessity give way increasingly to considerations of general, national, and world welfare.

2. Since the general social welfare requires the free and full development of all social and creative talents in the individual, the denial of edu-



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cational opportunity or the submergence of gifts because of circumstances of wealth, family, race, religion, or nationality impoverishes society and is therefore intolerable.

3. In the organization of the life of the school and the conduct of instruction, emphasis will be placed on the development of the social and creative rather than the acquisitive impulses.

4. The materials of instruction will be selected and organized for the purpose of giving to the coming generation the skills, knowledge, appreciations, and interests necessary to the general understanding and management of an integrated society in its historic and world setting, and of providing all of the special forms of training demanded by a highly complex and differentiated economy.

5. Although the Commission has conceived its work primarily in terms of the necessities and potentialities of American society, it recognizes the growth of world relationships and the urgent need for a better knowledge and appreciation of the common problems of mankind and the significance of international relations.

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6. This excludes any commitment of education to either a narrow or an aggressive nationalism and involves a recognition of the fact that any effective world organization must grow with an organization of national and regional unities and with domestic control of outward thrusts of economic, naval, and military power.

7. Moreover, education, being concerned with all cultural interests, not with practical economic interests alone, is compelled to bring into its program of instruction the scientific, intellectual, ethical, and æsthetic ideals, discoveries, and manifestations which give underlying unity to the culture of the Western world and are bringing Asia within a common orbit of civilization.

8. The growing complexity of social relationships, the rapidity of social change, and the consequent social tensions and conflicts in America and throughout the world demand an increased emphasis on social science instruction in the schools and a more realistic approach to the study of society.

9. Also the critical character of the present period in history calls for a far greater stress on

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the teaching of the social sciences in the schools to-day than in the past; and the difficulties sure to attend the development of an integrated economy, efficiently managed in the interests of the people, will make stress on the social sciences increasingly necessary in the future. There is every reason for believing that this period of adjustment will be prolonged and marked by struggle and uncertainty, by oscillation of action and reaction.

10. For this reason it will be necessary to provide funds, equipment, materials, and training in the social sciences fully adequate to the services they are required to render. Unless the social knowledge and skill required for the operation of the emerging society are forthcoming, the foundations for the support of all cultural interests will crumble away with the disintegration of society itself.

11. The rapid expansion of the secondary and higher schools and the increase in leisure time during the present century give to organized education an unprecedented opportunity and an equally unprecedented responsibility for the prep-

aration of the youth and adults of the nation for the discharge of their social obligations and the exercise and fulfillment of their right to the richness of an abundant life.

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The foregoing chapter is based on, and elaborated in:

COUNTS, G. S., *The Social Foundations of Education*.  
CURTI, M. E., *Social Ideas of American Educators*;  
NEWLON, J. H., *Educational Administration as Social Policy*.

## CHAPTER IV

### SELECTION AND ORGANIZATION OF MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION

#### A.

1. The selection of the substance of the program of instruction is the heart of the educational problem: it constitutes a choice, however wide and elastic the limits, of the knowledge, the ideas, the points of view, the appreciations, the values, and the patterns of behavior to be introduced or transmitted to the coming generation through the school.

2. From the practically inexhaustible source of knowledge respecting the ways, thoughts, and appreciations of mankind, which the social sciences supply, the architects of school curricula make their own selections to fit their own frames of reference.

3. The social sciences, however, do not present to the educator a huge mass of raw and inchoate

materials; rather they present systematic bodies of knowledge, patterns of organization, structures of social thought, and methods indispensable to intellectual operations in this field. To speak concretely and with reference to the immediate problem, they disclose the purposes which American society, acting through public and private agencies of education, has already proclaimed; they present facts and organizations of knowledge and thought corresponding more or less closely to the realities of the social scene in development; they describe the tendencies and trends of society which give indications for forecasting the necessities and probabilities of the future social situations in which children now in school will have to live and discharge their obligations; they report the ethical and æsthetic ideals which furnish guidance for determining what is desirable within the limits of necessity; and they bring to the task of curriculum-making the fundamental conclusion that every one seeking a solution to the problem is influenced by some frame of reference, a more or less definite pattern of things deemed possible and desirable.

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### B. CONTROLLING PRINCIPLES AND CONDITIONS

1. In the selection and organization of the materials of instruction in the social sciences the educational statesman should be guided by five controlling principles or considerations—the purpose of education, the powers of the child, the time allotment of the school, the life of the surrounding community, and the obligations associated with professional competence.

2. The great purpose of the American public school, as developed in the preceding chapter, is to prepare the younger generation for life in a highly complex industrial society that is committed to the ideal of democracy and equality of opportunity for personal growth, that places its faith in intelligence rather than force in the achievement of social ends, that is in rapid transition from an economy based on individual enterprise and competition for private gain to an economy essentially co-operative and integrated in character and dependent for efficient operation on careful planning and co-ordination of production and consumption, that is marked by innu-

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merable conflicts and contradictions tending to place in jeopardy its inherited ideals and to block the full utilization of its energies and talents, and that now, because of its rich natural endowment and its advanced technology, is capable of inaugurating an era of reasonable security and abundance for all, of freeing the human mind from material worries and of devoting its varied resources to the tasks of cultural advance.

3. The achievement of this far-reaching purpose requires the introduction into the school curriculum of materials which will equip the younger generation, as fully as possible, to understand, to appreciate and to evaluate the great changes under way and to act intelligently and in the common interest in facing the innumerable issues that lie ahead.

4. The materials and activities selected must be within the range of the capacity and the experience of the learner and so graded as to insure a steady progression in understanding and power to deal effectually with social data and situations.

5. In view of the revolutionary expansion of the secondary school enrollment during the past



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generation and the general reduction in opportunities of employment, this gradation of materials may be undertaken with little reference to the factor of elimination and on the assumption that the ordinary pupil will remain in school through the period of adolescence and will even have opportunities for continued education in adult years.

6. The critical character of the present epoch in American and world history, with its social stresses and strains, makes especially imperative the organization of a program of social science instruction coherent and continuous from the kindergarten through the junior college and the articulation of this program with a program of adult education.

7. The program of social science instruction should not be organized as a separate and isolated division of the curriculum but rather should be closely integrated with other activities and subjects so that the entire curriculum of the school may constitute a unified attack upon the complicated problem of life in contemporary society.

8. The program of social science instruction, along with the rest of the curriculum, should be

as intimately articulated as possible with the life, the activities, and the institutions of the surrounding community, the fact being fully recognized that the advance of industrial civilization has been attended by an enormous extension of community boundaries and an equally altered relationship of community to regional undertakings and possibilities.

9. In the selection and organization of social science materials the teaching staff of the country, co-operating with the social scientists and the representatives of the public, should assume complete professional responsibility and, resisting the pressure of every narrow group or class, make choices in terms of the most general and enduring interests of the masses of the people.



#### C. THE SUBSTANCE OF THE PROGRAM

1. The program of social science instruction is derived in the main from the following systematic bodies of knowledge and thought: (a) physical and cultural geography, (b) economics, (c) cultural sociology, (d) political science and (e) his-

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tory.<sup>1</sup> In the light of the controlling principles and considerations enumerated in the preceding section, that program will embrace certain relevancies of knowledge, certain conceptions of human relationships and certain systems of thought.

2. The program of social science instruction should give knowledge and understanding concerning the earth as the physical home of man, the relation of geographic factors to the evolution of human culture, the distribution of natural resources over the globe, the struggle of individuals, groups, and nations for possession of lands, mines, and forests, and concerning the whole question of the rational use of the material endowment of the country in the planning of the economy and in the general enrichment of the common life.

3. The program of social science instruction should give knowledge and understanding concerning the major social processes through which the life of society has been carried on throughout all ages—the process of adjustment with the exter-

<sup>1</sup> For an outline of the content of each of these bodies of knowledge and thought see Charles A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, Chapter IX.

nal physical world, the process of the distribution of population over the physical and cultural areas of the earth, the process of establishing value standards, the process of securing minimum adherence to value standards, the process of developing and operating the agencies of social organization, the process of cultural continuance and cultural change.

4. The program of social science instruction should give a broad and comprehensive conception of the evolution of civilization, laying stress on the idea of development, drawing contrasts between the present and the past, embracing the diverse contributions of races and peoples, religions and cultures, and giving a broad perspective of the fortunes, problems, and achievements of mankind.

5. The program of social science instruction should provide for a similar but more detailed study of the evolution of Western civilization, emphasis being placed on changing modes of production and distribution, on the succession of social systems, ways of life and ethical conceptions, on the development of democratic ideals

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and practices, on the accumulation and spread of knowledge and learning, on the advance of science, technology, and invention, on the abiding traditions of the unity of Western culture and on its growing integration in world culture.

6. The program of social science instruction should provide for a yet more detailed study of the history of the American people with particular reference to the material conquest of the continent, the development of the democratic heritage, the popular struggle for freedom and opportunity, the spread of individualistic economy, the rise of technology and industrial civilization, the increase of productivity, the emergence of an integrated economy, the growth of local, regional, and national planning and the extension of economic, political, and cultural relationships with other nations and peoples of the world.

7. The program of social science instruction should provide for a realistic study of the life, institutions, and cultures of the major peoples of the contemporary world, of the rivalries, the conflicts of interest, and the underlying causes of war

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among the nations, and of all efforts directed toward the promotion of international peace and the rational ordering of the life of mankind. In view of the growing interdependence of the nations, the increasing significance of the Far East, and the rapid development of certain newer regions, relatively more attention should be given to Latin America, to Africa and particularly to Asia.

8. The program of social science instruction should provide for a realistic study of the life, institutions, and culture of contemporary America. In doing this, it cannot omit study of the inefficiencies, the corruptions, the tensions, the conflicts, the contradictions and the injustices of the age, or consideration of the material and spiritual potentialities implicit in man's mastery of natural forces.

9. The program of social science instruction should make generous provision for the thorough and judicial study of all the great theories, philosophies, and programs, however radical or conservative they may appear, which have been de-

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signed to deal with the growing tensions and problems of industrial society.

10. The program of social science instruction, besides including bodies of knowledge and thought, should introduce the younger generation to *sources* for new and current materials and to *methods* of inquiry, scrutiny, criticism, authentication, and verification. Knowledge of such sources and ability to use such methods should constitute one of the major aims of all social science instruction.

11. The program of social science instruction should not be regarded as wholly instrumental to the induction of boys and girls into the responsibilities and duties of citizenship and social living. It should also stimulate intellectual curiosity and sympathy and foster the growth of avocational as well as practical interests. It should open up to every pupil a wide field for the delights of the eye, the heart, and the mind—for the rich and wholesome cultivation of æsthetic, emotional, and intellectual interests, appreciations, and activities.

D. THE ORGANIZATION OF THE PROGRAM

1. The organization of the program of social science instruction in terms of age levels or school grades is fundamentally conditioned by the experience and powers of the child.

2. In the process of maturing the child manifests a twofold development: he extends his experience and he deepens his powers; he progresses from the near to the remote in time and space, and from elementary sensory response to the most abstract forms of thought; he moves out from the family into the neighborhood, the commonwealth, the nation, and the world, and from the present to the most distant reaches of the past and the future; he proceeds from absorption in his immediate physical surroundings to an appreciation of such universal concepts as liberty, equality, and fraternity; he advances from a condition of helplessness in social situations to ability to participate effectively in group life, to engage in profound movements of social reform and reconstruction, and even to provide political, intellec-



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tual or moral leadership for community, nation or mankind.

3. Organized instruction in the social sciences is designed to hasten, extend, and perfect this two-fold process of maturing, always building on the actual experiences and powers of the child and never over-leaping that frontier of functional knowledge, thought, and will which marks the boundaries of the real world of the learner.

4. To place complete dependence on words and books and thus to disregard the laws and conditions of mental growth results inevitably in giving to both teacher and pupil a false sense of achievement. It is therefore imperative that each phase, aspect or topic of instruction be related to the actual life experiences of the pupil.

5. The application of these principles to the teaching of the social sciences suggests the unreality of a program composed of disparate units of study for the several grades of the public school, organized primarily in terms of academic testing and the accumulation of credits. That program should represent a steady, unified, and continuous progression from year to year in ex-

tending the social horizon of the child, in deepening his understanding of human society and in strengthening his capacity for co-operative action and civic leadership.

6. Every topic of instruction in the social sciences, if concerned with actuality, contains at least six elements or aspects: location in physically conditioned space, occurrence at some point in time, action by human beings, relationship to other social happenings (economic, political, and cultural), relationship to other ideas and application to life situations. The seemingly most simple subject is in fact extremely complex and capable of comparatively infinite development. Consequently, almost any social event, practice, institution or idea, if brought into relationship with the experience of the learner, may be studied with some profit at almost any level of maturity.

7. All of this means that instruction in the social sciences should begin in the earliest years of schooling, not with the life and institutions of some people remote in time, space, and cultural development, but with the life and institutions of

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the surrounding community—the simple social relationships of the family and the neighborhood and the modes of providing food, clothing, shelter, medical care, education, recreation, cultural opportunities and security of person.

8. Observation and discussion, however, should be coupled with actual participation in the organization and conduct of the life of the school and in all socially useful activities in the community that can be co-ordinated with the work of the school—the government of the school, the organization of social undertakings, the observation of institutional functioning, the study of social, economic and political operations, the consideration, preparation and criticism of plans (economic, hygienic, and æsthetic) for community betterment, and, as social interests dominate new areas, the integration of the school with movements in local, national, and international life.

9. On this foundation of concrete and first-hand social observation, activity and experience—much of which the child inevitably brings to the school when he begins his formal education, and

which expands as he matures, travels about and bears social responsibilities of ever-increasing gravity—the entire program of social science instruction should be erected.

10. In order that the teacher or administrator may have a more concrete picture of the application of these broad principles, the Commission, without special or exclusive endorsement, suggests the following plan of organization as sound and relevant and illustrative of what might be attempted in any system of schools embracing the years of elementary and secondary education:

a. In the elementary school major attention would be devoted to a study of the making of the community and the nation, although materials bearing on the development of world society and culture would by no means be excluded. The program would begin with the neighborhood in which the child lives. Starting from a first-hand study of the life, institutions, and geography of the community, it would proceed to an examination of social changes taking place in the locality, of the history of the place, of the civilization of

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the Indian in the same area, of the contrasting elements of European and Indian culture and of early and later American culture. Emphasis would be placed throughout on actual participation in the social activities of school and neighborhood, and every part or phase of the program would begin and end in the contemporary and surrounding community which the child knows directly. Thus the pupil would develop an active interest in the fortunes of society and acquire a stock of ideas which would enable him to go beyond the immediate in time and space. He would then be led by natural connections—genetic and functional—to the study of the making of the region and the nation. Through such an organization of materials the elementary school would acquaint the child as fully as possible with the evolution of American culture—local and national—and to some extent with the origins of American culture in the Western world.

b. In the secondary school the central theme would be the development of mankind and the evolution of human culture, with the emphases suggested elsewhere in this chapter and with

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constant reference to the present and to American civilization. This program might culminate in the study, through concrete and living materials, of regional geography, of comparative economics, government and cultural sociology, of the major movements in social thought and action in the modern world, of the most recent developments on the international stage—a study in which the experience, the knowledge and the thought of all the preceding years would be brought to bear, by means of comparison and contrast, upon the emerging problems, tensions, and aspirations, the evolving social programs and philosophies of mankind and of the American people in their regional and world setting. Also special attention would be given in the secondary school to the reading of historical and social literature, including newspapers and magazines, great historic documents, classics of social thought, and to the achievement of familiarity with the methods and instruments of inquiry in the social sciences, with historical criticism, analysis, verification, and authentication. This program should embrace both the junior and senior divisions of the secon-

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dary school and reach into the years of the junior college.

11. In the organization of all social science instruction an effort should be made to develop in the pupil the concept of the principle of continuity—the concept that nothing ever did or does exist in isolation, that everything is always in process of change or becoming, that no event is without antecedents and sequences. Through such a study the pupil should acquire a realistic outlook upon the world and a broad perspective for the appraisal of persons, events, programs and ideas.

### E. MATERIAL AIDS OF INSTRUCTION

1. Both the content and the organization of the social science program are strongly conditioned by the various material aids employed in teaching. Effective instruction consequently requires a far more generous and discriminating provision of these aids, particularly in rural communities, than most American schools now enjoy.

2. Although the gifted and well-trained teacher will be able to achieve much from the use of a

few textbooks and the utilization of the life and institutions of the school and surrounding community, a well-equipped library is indispensable to the realization of the purposes outlined by the Commission. In spite of the recommendations of a succession of important committees during the past forty years, the library of the ordinary school remains pitifully inadequate. In some school budgets library equipment for the social sciences receives smaller appropriations than typewriters. The American people have generally regarded the purchase of books as a waste of money; they have preferred to devote their resources to the construction of great buildings, or to the development of a winning football team. Children are consequently permitted to grow up with only the most perfunctory acquaintance with books. The current economic depression has practically wiped out even the modest appropriations customarily assigned to this service, at a time when the library should be accorded one of the first claims on public funds.

3. The library should include books of reference, source materials, contemporary writings in



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the social sciences, current newspapers and periodicals, and the great classics of social thought. The fact is too little known that any one of these classics can be had for the price of seventy cents.

4. The library should also include a good selection of maps, atlases, charts, and pictures. But here the Commission would issue a word of caution. While an analytical catalogue of geographical photographs of minimum number, country by country, is of great value to the school, excessive or indiscriminating use of merely pictorial illustration is deplorable in either scientific or educational exposition. Unless pictures are selected with discrimination and in clear relation to purpose, to facts, ideas, or conclusions which are expected to emerge from an analysis of landscape, city composition, mode of transport or production practice, they may result in the wasting of time and the debauching of instruction. Maps, charts, and pictures, as well as books, newspapers, and periodicals, should always be selected and utilized with reference to some clearly conceived purpose of education.

5. The program of the Commission, however,

calls for something more than the utilization of printed materials already available; it also calls for the systematic preparation, according to the general conception outlined in the earlier pages of the chapter, of a rich and comprehensive body of literary and graphic matter for use in the schools from the first grade through the twelfth and even into the junior college—source materials, books, newspapers and periodicals, maps, charts, and pictures. Particularly needful is the development of an extensive children's literature which will relate in fascinating detail and episode the story of the evolution of culture and man's adventure upon the earth—a literature which will describe the rise of industrial society and tell, in language a child can understand, of the achievements, the failures, the wonders, the tragedies, the potentialities of the modern world.

6. In conclusion the fundamental fact should be recognized that the greatest of all material aids is the actual life of the school and the surrounding society. This life should of course be utilized to the fullest in the instruction of childhood and youth in the ways of man and society.

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### F. A FINAL CAVEAT

1. The Commission refuses to endorse any detailed scheme of organization as best calculated to accomplish the purposes above stated and as suited in one precise form to the schools of the entire country.

2. The Commission believes that, within the limits of the general principles outlined above, considerable variety of adaptation to local conditions is both possible and desirable, but that specific recommendations for any school system should be made by competent teachers in the social sciences in consultation with able scholars.

3. Since some frame of reference, clarified or confused as the case may be, does in fact control the selection and organization of materials, it is obvious that any professional or pedagogical method of selecting and organizing materials, professedly applicable to all subjects and guaranteed to produce "results," is formalistic self-deception.

4. The major task of the social science teacher is to clarify his purposes and adjust the substance

of his instruction to those purposes, bringing to the members of the younger generation a body of thoroughly relevant knowledge, thought and appreciation, and developing in them power for equally relevant thought and action.

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The foregoing chapter is based on, and elaborated in:

BEARD, C. A., *The Nature of the Social Sciences*;

BOWMAN, ISAIAH, *Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences*;

COUNTS, G. S., *The Social Foundations of Education*;

JOHNSON, HENRY, *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences in the Schools*;

KELLEY, T. L., and KREY, A. C., *Progress in Learning in the Social Science Subjects as Indicated by Tests*;

MARSHALL, L. C., and GOETZ, RACHEL MARSHALL, *A Social Process Approach to Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies*;

MERRIAM, C. E., *Civic Education in the United States*;

TRYON, R. M., *The Social Studies as School Subjects*.

## CHAPTER V

### METHOD OF TEACHING

#### A.

1. Method of teaching is a rational ordering and balancing, in the light of knowledge and purpose, of the several elements that enter into the educative process—the nature of the pupil, the materials of instruction, and the total learning situation.

2. Method of teaching in the social sciences is a rational ordering and balancing of these elements directed toward the achievement of the broad purpose outlined in earlier pages—the development in the mind of the pupil of a large and clarified conception of man in his social relations, the release and cultivation of the creative and self-directing powers of the pupil as an independent, active, co-operative personality, and the induction of the pupil into effective participation

in the life of a democratic society which in its local, national, and world aspects is becoming increasingly integrated.

3. Since purpose gives direction and meaning to every educational undertaking, it follows that method apart from purpose lacks both direction and meaning; that the best method linked to inferior, irrelevant, confused or unsocial purpose, as judged by some accepted frame of reference, can give only inferior, irrelevant, confused or unsocial results; and that method, like knowledge, must be conceived, applied, and appraised in terms of purpose.

#### B. CRITIQUE OF CONTEMPORARY EMPHASES

1. Faith in method, divorced from knowledge, thought, and purpose, has long been the besetting sin of pedagogy in the United States. Whether in the sphere of classroom teaching, curriculum construction, testing procedures, or school administration, the consideration of substance and values is all too often subordinated to method and technique.

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2. This devotion to method and technique *per se* is revealed in the interest aroused by the invention of a new or the rediscovery of an old pedagogical device, in the heated discussions at educational meetings over the relative merits of competing "methods," in the spread of various techniques for the "objective" determination of programs of civic training, and in the time, energy, and money consumed in the construction of tests, scales, score-cards, outlines, units, and stereotypes of one kind or another.

3. This obsession with formalistic methodology has also manifested itself very generally in the programs of teacher training institutions. During the past generation these institutions have tended to overload their curricula with courses in the mechanics of instruction and administration, have directed their attention too largely to the refinement and super-refinement of techniques, have neglected the more fundamental problems of purpose, thought, value and content and have lamentably failed to co-ordinate training in teaching procedure with scholarship in subject matter. Being absorbed in improving the mechanics of

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the educative process, they have unwittingly accepted social conceptions and purposes inherited from the past.

4. The traditional and generally current emphasis on a narrowly conceived methodology requires correction, and is actually being corrected in certain schools and teacher-training centers. It is totally out of harmony with the conception of education outlined in this volume; it violates the principle here maintained that the validity and adequacy of the school program depend both on the adjustment of its content and procedures to the nature of the pupil and on the correspondence of its purposes with the unfolding fortunes, potentialities, and hopes of society.

5. In the measure that method is dissociated from appropriate content or knowledge of pupil growth, education becomes shallow, formal or capricious, or all three. There is no procedure that can render substance unnecessary; there is no technique of classroom legerdemain that can take the place of scholarly competence; there is no device of instruction that can raise the quality of the educative process above the purpose, the



knowledge, the understanding, the vision of the teacher who employs it.

6. When the nature of the social sciences, as system and flow of thought, is taken into account, it becomes evident at once that methodology, however useful and indispensable when developed in relation to content and purpose, is utterly incompetent in itself to organize, control, and direct the teaching process. Even in the mind and work of the purest methodologist some frame of reference, not method, dominates organization and emphasis. These considerations are particularly applicable to teacher training institutions, curriculum makers, and persons engaged in the supervision of social science instruction.

7. Since methodology, if considered intrinsically, is inseparable from the content of thought in the field involved, it cannot be organized successfully into a separate discipline and be made the peculiar possession of a teacher, a supervisor, or even a teacher-training institution.

8. Methodology, if it revolves around its own center, becomes an intellectual operation akin to that of the Sophists of ancient Greece or of the

minor scholastics of the Middle Ages; if it advances to the center of the substance with which it deals, it becomes a relevant aspect of purposeful activity.

9. In concluding this criticism of the contemporary emphasis on formalistic method the Commission would point out that this emphasis, as indicated in chapter VII, represents in some measure a reaction from an equally formalistic emphasis or knowledge in the colleges and universities and a widespread disregard of the psychological problems involved in the teaching and learning processes. Many a college education has been filed away in a drawer of notes and notebooks, there to gather dust and be forgotten. Knowledge, like method, if ineffectively related to significant purpose, is sterile.

#### C. BROAD CONDITIONING FACTORS

1. Method of teaching in the social sciences is broadly conditioned in American schools by a number of important factors which should be mentioned and appraised.

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2. Method of teaching is conditioned by the fact of continuity in child growth. The Commission regards as fundamental the organization of social science instruction in a single unified and comprehensive program extending from the kindergarten to the junior college and marked by steady progression from year to year. Only confusion can flow from the theory that instruction in any grade can be organized without reference to what has gone before or what is to come after.

3. Method of teaching is conditioned by the organization of the materials of instruction. Indeed a decision concerning the general pattern of the organization of the course of study in the social sciences is at the same time a decision in method. The Commission, as already pointed out, places its stamp of approval on no particular plan of organization.

4. Method of teaching is conditioned by the facts of grading and classification. These practices almost compel a large measure of group instruction, encourage the regimentation of the pupil and make peculiarly imperative conscious and planned provision for the development of

individuality. The problem involved is the more difficult because of the wide range of abilities at each grade level and even in the so-called "homogeneous group."

5. Method of teaching is conditioned by the extent and excellence of the material aids of instruction. At present, as pointed out elsewhere, the library and teaching equipment for the social sciences is utterly inadequate to meet the demands of the program outlined by the Commission. Even the materials available, now badly curtailed by the depression, are unsuited to the purposes here developed.

6. Method of teaching is conditioned by the public relations of the school. If instruction in the social sciences is to be marked by realism and honesty, the surrounding community must serve as a laboratory for the uncensored study of social life—conflicts, tensions and cases of corruption, as well as trends, achievements and examples of devotion to the public welfare. To-day, because of the relative isolation of the school, the timidity and weakness of the profession and the power of vested interests and privileged groups, the teacher

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seldom dares to introduce his pupils to the truth about American society and the forces that drive it onward.

7. Method of teaching is conditioned by the character and training of the teaching staff. In comparison with the social science teacher in the more advanced European countries the American teacher is poorly trained. Except in the larger population centers and a few favored states his professional preparation is small in quantity and poor in quality, and he has no adequate conception of the significance of education as a social force. Until this situation is drastically improved the school cannot be expected to play an effective rôle in equipping the younger generation to discharge its arduous and urgent civic and social obligations.

8. Finally, method of teaching is conditioned by the character of the supervision provided. In view of the low level of social science instruction in the country and the inadequate training of the teacher, the need for high grade and disinterested professional service here can scarcely be over-emphasized. The aim of such service, however,

should be, not the imposition upon the school of a minutely prescribed program and a system of close inspection, but rather the stimulation of the personal and professional growth of the teacher and the creation of those conditions of work which will release to the fullest possible extent the creative powers of the profession.

#### D. GOOD TEACHING

1. The fact that a large part of so-called teaching method is formal and barren does not mean that the question of method is without importance; it means rather that method should take its place in a balanced conception of the educative process. The Commission recognizes the need of seeking constantly for better means of relating materials to the experience of the pupil and generally of improving instruction in the social sciences.

2. Although observations, conducted by the Commission, of reputed good teaching and of recognized superior teachers in the social sciences, reveal no uniformity in the use of classroom de-

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vices and techniques, and although the personality and general competence of the teacher would seem to transcend any formula of instruction, there are certain large considerations which should guide the teacher in the development of the course of instruction from day to day and in the adjustment of the teaching process to the changing situation created by the growth and spontaneity of the pupil and by the appearance of new relevancies in the life of society.

3. The competent teacher will hold in mind the broad purpose of American education and will see clearly the special responsibilities of the social sciences in leading boys and girls to a fuller understanding of and a more effective participation in the complex and dynamic social world of material things, persons, institutions, conflicts, thought, ideals, and aspirations.

4. The competent teacher will adjust his instruction to the experience and ability of the pupil in order that the knowledge, powers, and loyalties acquired will be useful and related to the world in which the pupil actually lives and thinks and acts. Verbalism, the use of words without

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understanding, has cursed the school all down through the centuries and, as investigations by the Commission prove, continues to corrupt social science instruction in American schools to-day.

5. The competent teacher will supplement the textbook, which will doubtless play an important rôle in social science instruction for many years, by an abundance of collateral reading, by books, newspapers, and magazines, by maps, photographs, charts, models, motion pictures, museums, and materials for constructive activities, and by carefully organized journeys, excursions, and field studies in the home community and, if possible, in more distant regions.

6. The competent teacher, without substituting a fictitious world for the reality, will encourage the pupil to make imaginary journeys, draw imaginary pictures and diagrams, write imaginary letters, diaries and autobiographies, engage in imaginery debates and participate in various forms of dramatization.

7. The competent teacher, in order to improve the quality of his instruction, will seek to integrate his specialty with the work of his colleagues



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in the social sciences and with the total school curriculum—with instruction in literature, language, mathematics, natural science, and the arts.

8. The competent teacher, in an effort to keep his instruction in touch with living reality, will make full use of the class group—its diverse personalities, its differences in talent, its varied experiences, its conflicts of interests, its collective life; will relate his work so far as possible, to the organized life of the school as manifested in social activities, student groupings, and school government; and will regard the surrounding community as his social laboratory, utilizing its life and happenings and moving out through the normal avenues of communication—the press, the movie, and the radio—to observe and appraise the more important events in the nation and the world.

9. The competent teacher will relate the educative process to the interests of the pupil, not because of any romantic faith in child nature or of any equally romantic distrust of adult society, but rather because learning, in order to be vital, must enlist the active and sustained interest of the

learner. At the same time the competent teacher will be constantly aware of the fact that countless interests lie dormant in every child, waiting to be aroused by appropriate experiences, and that he is under professional obligation to develop in the pupil a continuing interest in social affairs.

10. The competent teacher, sensitive to the implications of the democratic ideal and conscious of the growing interdependence of social life, will appeal as little as possible to those motives which tend to exacerbate the struggle between individuals and will encourage the fullest development of the social and creative impulses.

11. The competent teacher, aware of the wide differences among children with respect to every trait or combination of traits, will adjust his instruction within the class group to individual differences, will respect divergences of personality, and will stimulate the growth of all socially desirable abilities.

12. The competent teacher, being familiar with the various material aids of instruction, already mentioned, and with diverse teaching devices, such as the question, the discussion, the individual

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report and the group project, will employ them rationally in the achievement of purpose, knowing the value of each but being bound by none.

13. The competent teacher, while avoiding all forms of academic pedantry and distinguishing the significant from the trivial, will know that learning is usually a difficult and arduous business, will make provision for indispensable drill and repetition, and will prepare and administer tests of progress from time to time; but in it all he will appraise with appropriate humility the adequacy of his own judgments and of any classroom examinations to measure the long-time social results of instruction.

14. The competent teacher, without evading a single iota of his responsibility as the guiding and directing force in the educative process, will be unalterably opposed to the doctrine that the pupil should be a passive recipient of his ministrations, an inert receptacle into which he is expected to pour the knowledge and wisdom of the race through the pipe-lines of the written and spoken word. Knowing that real learning requires the active response and participation of the pupil and

that the supreme goal of education within the general frame of reference adopted is the growth of an independent yet socially sensitive personality, he will strive continuously to develop in the child habits of independent study, inquiry, thought, and action and thus free him as quickly and completely as possible from reliance upon the formal and authoritarian tutelage of teacher, school, and elders. In particular he will endeavor to acquaint the pupil with diverse ideas and points of view and cultivate in him a reasoned scepticism regarding the claims advanced in support of any social doctrine or program.

15. In fine the competent teacher will strive to emulate, even though his powers be relatively feeble, the methods of great thinkers and teachers of all ages—will become acquainted with the classics and fundamental works in the given field, will know how to use bibliographical and library apparatus in the acquisition of knowledge, will know how to apply the engines of scholarly criticism, verification, and authentication to facts true and alleged, will know how to analyze complicated documents and social situations, will

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know how to take and weigh testimony by the judicial process, will know how to observe the occurrences and participate in the life of the neighborhood, will illustrate these procedures in classroom and community, and by precept and example will strive to transfer his powers to his pupils. Above all, the competent teacher should know thoroughly the subject matter which he professes to teach, should see its relation to the life of mankind, and should have an infectious enthusiasm about it—to this, all teaching methods are subordinate.

16. When all is said that can be said concerning method, the great teacher defies analysis. He can neither be defined, nor his method dissected or described; but whoever comes into his presence feels the power of a human spirit.

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The foregoing chapter is based on, and elaborated in:

HORN, ERNEST, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Sciences*;

JOHNSON, HENRY, *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences in the Schools*;

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*Method of Teaching*

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KELLEY, T. L., and KREY, A. C., *Progress in Learning in the Social Science Subjects as Indicated by Tests.*

MARSHALL, L. C., and GOETZ, RACHEL MARSHALL, *A Social Process Approach to Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies;*

MERRIAM, C. E., *Civic Education in the United States.*

## CHAPTER VI

### TESTS AND TESTING

#### A.

1. Testing and learning are two aspects of a single process.

2. Some kind of test, practical or scholastic, has been associated with education from the earliest times, whether it was the education of the Indian boy in the use of the bow and arrow, the young Chinese in the memorization of the sayings of Confucius or the American child in the mastery of the English language.

3. The setting of goals to the learning process, however tentative and partial they may be, implies a program of testing or appraisal of some kind.

4. In the schools the test or examination has always played a prominent rôle both as a teaching device and as a measure of scholastic accomplishment. In its more refined forms it may also possess some value for the long-time guidance and

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counselling of individual pupils and for the advancement of professional knowledge concerning the organization and conduct of education.

5. In the present chapter attention will be directed primarily to certain new forms of tests, not because they have displaced the older methods of examination nor because they have a monopoly of either the merits or the limitations of academic testing, but rather because of their wide use and the interest which they have aroused among both teachers and citizens. Much of what follows may be applied with equal force to all types of formal examinations devised for use in the schools. The Commission wishes to emphasize from first to last the fairly obvious, though very important and often neglected, fact that the final appraisal of any program of social science instruction will be made, not in the school, but in the life of the society which the school is expected to serve.

### B. THE TESTING MOVEMENT

1. In the early years of the twentieth century certain new forms of tests, more precise and ob-



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jective within the limits of their operation than the judgments of teachers and the traditional school examinations, appeared and, though opposed in certain quarters, spread through the country with great rapidity.

2. An extensive literature on testing accumulated, departments for developing the theory and practice of testing were established in colleges and universities, school systems were surveyed and appraised in certain of their aspects by means of the new tests, research departments devoted largely to testing were organized by city and state systems of schools, an enormous amount of energy and talent went into the construction of tests and scales, and the hope was cherished by many that the entire process of education would be removed from the domain of personal judgment and evaluation and placed firmly on the foundation of objective determination. In the nineteen-twenties, however, a reaction set in and the more discriminating members of the testing profession came gradually to disavow the more extreme claims of the earlier period.

3. The rapid rise of this testing or measure-

ment movement was due no doubt to a number of factors or conditions—to the demonstrated defects of the traditional modes of testing; to the great popularity and prestige of natural science; to the sustained effort on the part of a number of able young men to convert education into a science; to the rise of quantitative and mechanistic psychology; to the growth of city school systems of great complexity demanding new forms of administration; and to the borrowing by school men of ideas of control and efficiency from large business enterprise.

4. Concerning the value for education of this testing movement as a whole the Commission passes no judgment, but confines itself wholly to the field of its special competence—the use of tests in appraising the results of social science instruction and in the formulation of practices involving social relations, institutions, and policies. For purposes of convenience and relevance these new testing instruments will be considered under three heads: tests of intelligence, tests of character and culture, and tests of classroom products.

C. TESTS OF INTELLIGENCE

1. The intelligence test has commonly been regarded, by both laymen and specialists, as an instrument for the measurement of some inborn and fairly stable intellectual quality or ability.

2. In recent years, owing to the accumulation of evidence of a contrary nature, this interpretation of the results of the test has been considerably shaken. At present there seems to be no general agreement among students as to what it is that the test actually measures.

3. The intelligence test has been employed in the schools for three major but closely related purposes: for the diagnosis of educability at a particular moment; for the classification of pupils into "homogeneous" instructional groups; and for the guidance of children into vocational curricula and into occupations. Since the first use, though important at the lower levels of ability, falls outside the competence of the Commission, and since the second has been found by experience to be of little consequence, the intelligence

test is to be appraised here in terms of its bearing on occupations and the related problems of social organization.

4. In view of the uncertainty concerning the meaning of intelligence test scores, the utility of the test in the formulation of social and educational policies is patently limited and is challenged by contemporary social knowledge and thought.

5. Whatever may be the nature of intelligence, the social sciences, being unable to isolate it from conduct and social manifestations, from social classes and their cultural apparatus, from the evolution of ideas as forces in history, from exercises of will, from ethical and æsthetic aspirations and valuations, cannot accept the theory that intelligence is a self-contained particularity which acts inexorably as an independent and original force in society.

6. If, however, the declared measurements and gradations of intelligence are accepted at face value as corresponding to realities in fact, no positive conclusions and formulations respecting education, citizenship, and public policy automati-

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cally emerge from these measurements and gradations.

7. The idea that, from the standpoint of mental equipment, men may be classified into superior, medium, and inferior is as old as the Greeks and has aroused the most diverse thought among social theorists, statesmen, and practical men.

8. The fact that at the present moment in American society the intelligence of the population manifests a certain distribution with respect to occupations throws little or no light on what the distribution should be in the interests of society or may be as occupations shift under the movement of ideas and interests. Neither does it give precise and positive guidance in determining whether a child with a given level of intelligence should be advised to enter a particular occupation or profession, or embark upon a particular career, irrespective of his economic and cultural circumstances. Such findings give not the slightest clue to the social utility of the various occupations from racketeering to banking, or to the values and restraints which society may or should place on occupational classifications and activities.

9. A review of the history of conceptions of superiority and inferiority—the attitude of the landed aristocracy to the merchant class, of the bourgeois to the working class, of race to race—counsels the use of caution in accepting the pronouncements of psychology, of social science or of any academic, occupational, political, racial or sectarian body as finalities in the realm of social thought.

10. Wide and deep knowledge of the methods and findings of intelligence testing is in itself utterly inadequate to the task of determining social or educational policies, because such policies have their roots in a complex of ideas and interests in which conceptions of intelligence graduation condition, but do not determine, purpose.

11. Since the arrangement of occupations, activities, modes of life, cultural apparatus or other social phenomena in any order of importance or of assigned mathematical value is not determined by the intrinsic nature of the thing rated, as in the case of the correct scale of atomic weights, but is made of necessity by some person or group of persons of given occupational or interest affilia-

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tions, the social sciences will rightly insist on knowing the judges who judge the judged and will proceed to an analysis of the social ideas and circumstances which condition their judgments.

12. In the light of the social sciences the rating of an engineer or a Y. M. C. A. secretary as more *important* or more *valuable* than a skilled artisan is to be regarded as utterly beyond the competence of objective determination.

### D. TESTS OF CHARACTER AND CULTURE

1. In their efforts to measure environment, conduct, honesty, good citizenship, service, knowledge of right and wrong, self-control, will, temperament, and judgment, the testers are dealing with matters that are not susceptible of mathematical description. The assignment of mathematical values to ethical and æsthetic experiences is meaningless to contemporary social knowledge and thought.

2. Before attempting to cover such elusive values and variables the tester should read and ponder the outstanding works of social science dealing with absolute and relative ethics, with the

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relations of mankind and environment, with the connections of ideas and interests, and with the efforts to pass judgment on the "good citizenship" and "service" of such personalities as George III and George Washington, John C. Calhoun and Daniel Webster, Abraham Lincoln and Jefferson Davis, Bismarck and Thiers.

3. Any effort to define and measure honesty, good citizenship, service and other qualities relative to the objectives of instruction in the schools immediately involves the social sciences and raises the fundamental question whether techniques dependent on "paper" and "apparatus" are really applicable to the large and complicated operations of society which come under the head of honesty, service, and other social qualities.

4. It is appropriate to observe that "cheating," which in the classroom is capable of fairly clear definition, in real life runs all the way from actions which are prohibited by criminal law, through actions which are lawful but becoming dubious in social sanction, to cleverness in taking advantage of a victim's ignorance as approved by what is called "business morality." In the light of large community and historical movements



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such tests of honesty and service as have thus far been made are mere trivialities.

5. Finally, as in the case of the intelligence tests, if the findings and measurements of testing with respect to character and culture are taken at their face value, no conclusions with respect to social policy and action automatically emerge from such findings and measurements.

### E. TESTS OF CLASSROOM PRODUCTS

1. From the standpoint of the teaching of the social sciences, the new-type tests for measuring the results of instruction in scholastic terms and in the lower ranges of social knowledge and thought constitute the only significant contribution of the testing movement.

2. These tests, which represent an effort to improve upon the traditional examination, vary much in form, content, and purpose, but are all alike in that they strive after objectivity and the elimination of all subjective and personal factors from the appraisal of pupil performance on the tests.

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3. The new-type tests, when applied to the social sciences, are subject to severe limitations: like all forms of schoolroom examination they are confined to the immediate outcomes of instruction and throw little if any light on the long-time results, but being mechanical in character they are even inapplicable to many of the immediate outcomes of instruction.

4. In the construction of tests in the social sciences, whether old-type or new-type, technique, apart from knowledge of subject matter and thought about the purposes and ends of instruction, is worthless.

5. The experience of social science teachers with new-type tests indicates that such tests are competent to test, for academic purposes, memory of facts, a partial understanding (definition) of terms used in social studies, at least in some relations, and certain logical, discriminatory, and associational powers.

6. In testing these results of learning, new-type tests, within the limits of their operation, may be superior to the general written examination in the range of sources of information which may

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be drawn upon for single tests, in the positive gradation of items from easy to hard, in the establishment of uniform standards from class to class and from school to school and in the objectivity of marking; yet the allegations of superiority rest on the assumption that values assigned to items are real values, that is, values that have meaning for the lives of pupils in society.

7. New-type tests are useful in checking against teachers' judgments and other sources respecting the information, knowledge, and scholastic attainments of students.

8. The experience of social science teachers indicates, on the other hand, that the new-type tests are of very limited competence in measuring the desirable skills, loyalties, and attitudes involved in obtaining information, in authenticating and analyzing sources, in weighing evidence, in drawing conclusions, and in constructing from such operations schemes of knowledge and thought.

9. The perils involved in the use of these tests are many and serious—the subordination of personality to mechanics, the emphasis on mere aca-

ademic performance, the abandonment of other forms of testing and teachers' judgments, the stimulation and admission of guessing on the part of pupils, the propagation of a false sense of security and certainty founded on alleged objective, quantitative or scientific data, the assumption that the mathematical values assigned to test questions correspond to psychological realities, the assumption that quantitative measurements applied to ethical and æsthetic values have meaning, and the assumption that tests may be constructed mechanically from materials in hand without reference to some philosophy, grand or petty, behind the entire program of instruction.

10. Where the new-type tests are chiefly relied upon two major evils are sure to emerge—the placing of a fictitious rating on the student who is clever at learning the “tricks of the trade,” and the encouragement of students to go to college or into life without ever having to put forth continuous and constructive effort in *thinking* and *writing* in the fields of history, political science, economics, sociology, and human relations.

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11. The use by administrative officers of the findings of objective tests in grading and promoting teachers encourages the latter to concentrate on the mechanical aspects of learning, thought, and study. When they form the sole or major basis for judgment they are a menace to education.

12. The general emphasis in these tests on vocabulary encourages reliance on verbalism rather than thought, and leads to the acquisition of words rather than to growth in understanding and competence in the realm of social relationships.

### F. GENERAL APPRAISAL OF TESTING

1. The assumption that new-type tests can guide and measure the efficiency of instruction in the social sciences is based on misconceptions of social processes, and such tests, except where used as occasional checks on other examining methods, do positive damage to the minds and powers of children in the ways already indicated.

2. They have provided no adequate substitute

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for the older forms of examination or for the living, informed, and thoughtful judgment of the competent and thoroughly trained teacher.

3. Since testing of any kind in the school is limited largely to classroom and playground performances, efforts to project the results of such testing into the future lives of students in a changing society should be controlled by realistic knowledge of social thought and action.

4. In the final analysis the actual testing of a program of social science instruction is not conducted by teachers in the schools, but rather by the responses of the individual to social situations throughout life and by the course of social events in which children so instructed participate.

5. The social results of the program of instruction recommended by the present Commission will be tested, not in the classroom by teachers, but in the arena of social and political life and by the long sweep of history.

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The foregoing chapter is based on, and elaborated in:

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BEARD, C. A., *The Nature of the Social Sciences*;

HORN, ERNEST, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Sciences*;

KELLEY, T. L., and KREY, A. C., *Progress in Learning in the Social Science Subjects as Indicated by Tests*.

## CHAPTER VII

### THE TEACHER

#### A.

1. The various inquiries conducted by the Commission point unmistakably and unerringly to one conclusion: the critical condition of American and world society makes imperative social science instruction in the schools of the nation that is marked by scholarship, courage, and vision.

2. If this challenge is to be met successfully, faith must be placed primarily, not in more luxuriously appointed school buildings or in refinements of the material and mechanical aspects of administration and supervision—important though these may be—but in the increase of the competence and spiritual power of the individual teacher.

3. However competent and talented the administration may be, the scholarship, courage, and vision of social science instruction in the



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schools can rise no higher than the scholarship, courage, and vision of the social science teacher. Here is the keystone of the practical program which the Commission proposes for the consideration of the American people.

4. Knowing that the competent teacher has no need of detailed prescriptions of method and subject matter, knowing that no set of mechanical and detailed outlines of procedure can render competent the incompetent teacher, and knowing further that emphasis on the value of mere pedagogical remedies gives a false sense of accomplishment and stands in the way of the real improvement of teaching, the Commission refuses to place its seal of approval on any particular set of pedagogical formulæ.

5. The Commission therefore, fully aware of its choice, frankly and deliberately addresses its report primarily to teachers who are either competent already or desirous of becoming so; it makes no effort to reach those who seek relief, through reliance on particular methods, from the pain of acquiring knowledge, taking thought, and clarifying purpose; it makes no effort to reach

those who have no desire to associate with the great spirits of all ages through the persistent study of the classics of social thought and no desire to become familiar with the great social trends, tensions, and philosophies of the age.

6. In the present chapter the Commission is concerned chiefly with outlining the conditions necessary to the development of a competent profession of social science teaching in the country. The problem is threefold: (a) the selection of gifted young men and women for the profession, (b) the organization of a program of training commensurate with the purpose of social science instruction, and (c) the provision of conditions of work which will encourage the fullest development of the personal and professional powers of the teacher.

#### B. THE SELECTION OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

1. In attacking the problem of selecting gifted young men and women for the profession the Commission is faced with the disconcerting dilemma: until the work of teaching is made

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more challenging, inspiring, and attractive, it will tend to draw persons of mediocre mentality; but until it does succeed in drawing a larger number of capable minds, it will tend to lack challenge, inspiration, and attractiveness.

2. Since the state exercises no power of conscripting persons for the profession of teaching, it can bring the more gifted into the service only by improving the conditions and rewards of work and by making the work worthy of the highest qualities of mind and character potential in humanity. But the state can be expected to move in this direction only in response to pressure arising from some group or groups of citizens.

3. If the Gordian knot is to be cut, it will probably be cut by the more active spirits in the profession struggling for better conditions of work, formulating a more challenging and inspiring conception of teaching and carrying the argument intelligently and persuasively to the public. At this point the question of selection merges into the question of training.

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### C. THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

1. The kind of training which is appropriate for the teacher depends upon how the function of teaching is conceived. If it is conceived in terms of the practice of a narrow technique which is to be mastered in all of its rigid detail, the pattern of training to be followed should be like that of one of the more exact professions, such as mechanical engineering; but if it is conceived in terms of the application of broad and diverse fields of knowledge, thought, and ideal to the physical, intellectual, and moral growth of the child and to the transformation and enrichment of culture, then the pattern of training to be followed should be like that suited to the education of the artist, the poet, the statesman, the spiritual leader of mankind.

2. The Commission takes this second conception of teaching; its members have argued at various places in their individual reports that education should be regarded as involving a peculiarly high and disinterested form of leadership.

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3. Both tradition and practice of teacher training in the United States have tended to follow the first conception, and many efforts have been made since the opening of the present century to reduce education to a quantitative or deterministic science, to make teacher training essentially a matter of the mastery of techniques and formulae and thus to deny the rôle of the human spirit as a dreaming, creative force in history.

4. This narrow emphasis in the preparation of teachers may be traced in part to a dichotomy in higher education that goes far back into the past: on the one hand, are the normal schools and teachers' colleges which, being asked to train thousands of teachers for a rapidly expanding system of public education, conceived their task largely in terms of methods and techniques and so fostered the separation of methodology from the main stream of social knowledge and thought; on the other, are the colleges and universities which, becoming engrossed in the pursuit of learning for its own sake or in the training of students for survival in the acquisitive struggle for economic and social prestige and preferment, tended to neglect

preparation for non-acquisitive leadership indispensable to the endurance of society.

4. With the emergence of an excessive faith in the objective study of education narrowly conceived, the separation of methodology from knowledge and thought was widened and deepened. While teacher training institutions multiplied their technical courses and consolidated their position behind legislative enactment, the departments of social science in colleges and universities carried specialization in scholarship and instruction to ever greater lengths, became more and more absorbed in the minutiae of research, and generally fostered the doctrine that the study of such a subject as the origin of the *tsubo* in Japan was for some reason more important than the education of leaders in public life or the preparation of teachers to lead children into paths of knowledge and good living.

6. Teacher training institutions, neglecting the intensive study of evolving social thought, largely, though unwittingly, served out-moded social ideas and purposes; departments of the social sciences in colleges and universities, scorning the

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study of the relation of their subjects to education, shirked responsibilities and neglected opportunities of the first magnitude.

7. If teachers of the social sciences in the schools are to be prepared for the performance of the tasks outlined in the present report, this old breach must be healed; students of the social sciences will have to view education as one of the main channels through which their work may find fruition; and persons engaged in teacher training will have to become earnest students of human society. Fortunately a movement in this direction is already discernible.

8. For great university departments to refuse to relate their work to the tasks of education will scarcely be tolerated in a closely integrated economy managed in the interests of society; for teacher training institutions to fail to make full use of social knowledge and thought in the formulation of their policies should be regarded as a gross neglect of duty.

9. The Commission, refusing to take sides in this struggle of vested interests in higher education, proposes: (a) a vigorous searching of hearts

by specialists in subject matter and in methodology; (b) a reunion in both instances of specialty with the living tree of knowledge and thought; and (c) a reevaluation of subject matter and methodology with reference to social purpose rather than in terms of abstract logic and schemes of organization.

10. In practical outcome, this will mean: (a) a drastic reduction in the number of highly specialized courses in history, politics, economics, and sociology offered to teachers in colleges and universities; (b) the establishment of general and balanced courses in these subjects for teachers; (c) the organization of seminars in which teachers may receive rigorous training in those methods of research, bibliographical operations, analysis, verification, synthesis, and criticism indispensable to the advancement of learning and effective instruction.

11. In the field of teacher training this will mean: (a) a drastic curtailment in the number of courses—often thin, arid, and duplicating—offered in the principles and methods of education; (b) an insistence that persons engaged in



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training teachers in various branches of learning shall, first of all, be competent scholars in these fields; (c) the abandonment of the conception of a distinct "science of education" and the reunion of education with the great streams of human knowledge, thought, and aspiration—empirical, ethical, and æsthetic.

12. These proposals imply the dominance neither of that anomalous profession known as "subject matter specialists" nor of that equally anomalous group called "educational specialists"; they imply a radical reformation of both traditions and a close co-operation among the individuals in both groups who possess some sense of humor, some breadth of view, some capacity for thinking through and around their own operations, and some feeling of responsibility to the society which nourishes them and to the world in which they live.

13. These proposals imply further that the old division between colleges and universities, on the one side, and normal schools and teachers' colleges, on the other, must be abolished and the two institutions of thought and training united.

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## *The Teacher*

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The weaker normal schools and teachers' colleges should be closed, while the remainder should become centers, not of pedagogy as traditionally conceived, but of knowledge and thought devoted to the organization and conduct of education as a focal point in the evolution of culture. Social science departments in the colleges and universities, besides discharging their other obligations to society, should turn their attention to the preparation of teachers and to the organization of materials of instruction for use in the schools.

14. When the philosophy, program, and purpose of instruction in the social sciences are thus clearly recognized and provisions made for the thorough preparation of teachers in knowledge and thought, the various forms of pedagogical prestidigitation, such as the unit method, the correlation method, the radiation method, the fusion method, the concomitant method, the dioptric method, and the penetralia method, appear in their true light as empty formalisms.

15. In summary, an institution for the preparation of social science teachers should be a center

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## *Conclusions and Recommendations*

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for introducing young men and women to a realistic knowledge of the trends, tensions, and conflicts of American society in its world setting, for bringing them into close and living connection with all the great systems of social thought—ancient, modern, and contemporary,—and for revealing to them the magnificent potentialities of science in the realization of the finest dreams of mankind.

### D. THE CONDITIONS OF TEACHING

1. Given the type of preparation outlined above, teachers would soon achieve those conditions and conceptions of work which might be expected to promote their personal and professional growth and their powers of service to the society that educates and sustains them.

2. Seeing clearly that teaching is primarily a function of a rich and many-sided personality rather than a practice of some narrow technical acquisition, they would resist all efforts on the part of the administration or the public to dwarf the person, the opportunity or the respon-

sibility of the teacher in the name of formal efficiency.

3. They would demand freedom from the rigid prescriptions of formal and detailed supervision, from all practices pointing toward the mechanization and devitalization of the educative process and from every diversion tending to hamper the teacher in the discharge of his central responsibility—the steady improvement of the quality and enlargement of the conception of instruction. On the other hand, they would recognize and strive conscientiously to discharge their responsibilities in promoting the larger life of school and community.

4. They would insist that administration, on its engineering side, assume its proper function of facilitating the work of teaching, and, on its human side, provide both school and community leadership of the very highest order; and on finding such an administration they would support it against all attacks, both from within and from outside the schools.

5. They would join the administration in asking of the community a teaching load that would

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leave them some leisure to rest, to think, to travel, to pursue advanced study in their special and related fields, and to maintain an active and intelligent interest in the affairs of the community, the state, the nation, and the world.

6. They would request that the more gifted of their number be released occasionally from classroom duties so that they might devote their energies and thought to questions of school policy, program making and preparation of materials of instruction—practices that fortunately under enlightened administrative leadership have already been initiated in some communities.

7. They would strive for fair compensation, for security of tenure, for adequate protection from group pressures and generally for conditions of work which would help them in the performance of their special functions for society. (These matters are treated in the next chapter.)

8. Finally, being keenly aware of their obligations to society, they would systematically encourage their own members to grow in professional power and worth, but, failing in this,

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## *The Teacher*

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would support measures calculated to remove the incompetent teacher from the service.

### E. THE POSSIBILITY

1. The Commission believes that the conception of the social science teacher just outlined is not Utopian, but rather is clearly capable of realization in the proximate future. Everything depends on whether leaders of thought and opinion among the American people really want a teacher of this type.

2. The decline of the birth-rate during the past several generations has at last reached the point where the pupil population in the elementary schools is declining from year to year. This decline is already making itself felt in the secondary schools, and even in the colleges and universities.

3. This means that the demand for teachers is slackening, that the preparation of teachers can be done much more thoroughly in the future than in the past, and that the personnel of the profession can be chosen more carefully than heretofore.

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### *Conclusions and Recommendations*

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4. Coupled with the tendency toward the stabilization of population is the complementary tendency of growth in the productive power of the economic mechanism and the consequent steady release of more and more workers for the performance of the various service functions in the fields of medicine, recreation, science, art, and education.

5. These and other forces operating in industrial society make it easily possible for the schools to secure intelligent and thoroughly competent social science teachers—teachers of high scholarship, courage, and vision, and inspired by a love of knowledge and of mankind.

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The foregoing chapter is based on, and elaborated in:

*A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools;*

BAGLEY, W. C., *The Selection and Training of the Teacher;*

BEALE, H. K., *Freedom of Teaching in the Schools;*

NEWLON, J. H., *Educational Administration and Social Policy;*

PIERCE, BESSIE L., *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth.*

## CHAPTER VIII

### PUBLIC RELATIONS AND ADMINISTRATION

#### A.

1. The program for the teaching of the social sciences which the Commission has outlined in its report is designed for a system of public schools functioning in and serving immediately American society.

2. This means that the efficient execution of the program depends on the social forces that envelop and play upon the school, as well as on the general soundness of the conception of administration and teaching and on the personal and professional competence of the administrative and teaching staff.

3. It is neither possible nor desirable for the school to function in a social vacuum; to the degree that it succeeds in drawing away from society its work becomes artificial, formal, and obstructive.



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## *Conclusions and Recommendations*

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### B. THE SOCIAL SITUATION

1. A clear and unequivocal statement of policy regarding this question of the public relations of the school is peculiarly imperative in America to-day because of the complexity and dynamic quality of industrial society, the growing number and power of pressure groups and the development of an ever more formidable technique of propaganda.

2. The extremely rapid tempo of social change and movement, arising out of the drive of technology and the restless energy of the American people, requires the perpetual adjustment and re-adjustment of the school to new conditions.

3. American society, owing to its diversity of races, religions, and cultures and its specialization and differentiation of economic function, is divided into many conflicting groups and is marked by innumerable tensions.

4. Many of these groups, in proportion to their coherence, power, and definiteness of purpose, seek to impose their special points of view upon the schools and to convert public education into

an instrument of propaganda to mould the minds and hearts of the members of the coming generation.

5. Also there are numerous forces operating more or less within the boundaries of the educational enterprise, such as colleges and universities, teacher training institutions, college entrance boards, accrediting agencies, and private foundations, which exert great influence upon the schools.

6. In this welter of external and internal forces seeking influence over the schools, victory has usually gone to groups having resources, time and prestige, and interested in preserving the traditional forms in economy and government and in guarding or advancing their own rights, privileges, claims, and doctrines. Indifference and ignorance on the part of the general public respecting the issues involved have led again and again to control by determined minorities.

7. The struggle has been aggravated and sharpened by a realization on the part of these groups that the school, on account of its phenomenal expansion during the past two generations, has be-

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## *Conclusions and Recommendations*

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come an agency of great power over the thought and action of community and nation.

8. Efforts to control the school have also grown out of the fact that the conduct of public education involves the annual expenditure of between two and three billion dollars on supplies, textbooks, buildings, grounds, janitors' wages, teachers' salaries, bond flotations, and interest charges, which may be used in the punishment of enemies, the rewarding of friends, the forging of political machines and the moulding of social thought and action.

### C. THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROFESSION

1. The charting of the course of the public school through this sea of conflicting forces is one of the most difficult and important responsibilities of educational leadership and can be achieved only by those who have a realistic and penetrating knowledge of the interests and forces that condition and determine social thought and action, as well as instruction in the schools.

2. The responsibility cannot be evaded by the purely legalistic argument that administrators and teachers are merely the employees of the board of education and are therefore to regard themselves as supine agents in the hands of its members, obeying its will and modifying the content of instruction as it changes its mind, as the organization of social forces shifts or as the play of group pressures alters. The ultimate arbiter between teacher and administrator, on the one side, and any particular board on the other, is the entire community.

3. Neither can the responsibility be evaded by the contention that the professional staff of the schools should merely respond to the wishes of the taxpayers, the owners of property, the classes of high social respectability or any other particular group or interest in the community, state or nation seeking to dominate the school. The teaching profession possesses special competence in the field of education, is obligated to think and act in terms of general social welfare, and is expected to remain loyal to the highest conception of the future of the nation and of mankind.

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### *Conclusions and Recommendations*

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4. Also, since industrial society is so dynamic and since education consequently involves a perpetual sifting of values, this responsibility cannot be evaded on the presumption that the school performs a purely conserving function and transmits unchanged to the coming generation the "established values" and the traditional heritage of the race. Particularly should the teacher of the social sciences know that any appeal to the past is an appeal to the spirit of change, because history itself is a record of change.

5. The teaching profession, hiding behind no legal fiction and taking dictation from no special group or class, however powerful and respectable, is under obligation to conceive its task in terms of the widest and most fundamental interests of society, ever seeking to advance the security and quality of living of all the people.

6. The profession therefore must resist with all its power every effort on the part of any group to direct public education to the promotion of narrow and selfish ends.

7. Since the overwhelming majority of teachers

are products of American culture their loyalty to the general good and to the principles of democracy is not subject to question. In fact, being servants of the community as a whole and being trained to think in terms of the more abiding interests of mankind, they are peculiarly dissociated from every special group concerned with the advancement of some narrow end and may therefore be expected to manifest unusual devotion to the common weal.

8. If the school is to discharge the truly conservative function of relieving tensions in American society and of bringing thought and reason to bear on social adjustment, then reliance must be placed on the trained judgment of those to whom the actual conduct of public education is entrusted.

9. From this it follows that teachers in turn are under obligation to avoid even the appearance of the exercise of irresponsible power, to refrain from the expression of uninformed, intemperate, and irrational judgments, to keep in close touch with the thought and aspirations of the American peo-

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## *Conclusions and Recommendations*

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ple, and to perform all their duties in a spirit that becomes those engaged in shaping the future of society.

### D. THE STATUS OF THE TEACHER

1. In order that the teacher may discharge the heavy social responsibilities thus thrust upon him, he must achieve a stronger position in community, state, and nation than he has enjoyed in the past.

2. The first requisite in the attainment of this end, as pointed out in the preceding chapter, is a more intensive and extensive training of the teacher with a greatly increased emphasis on the study of social life as thought and action. Any teacher aspiring to leadership in the profession should be a careful student of American culture in its historical and world setting, of the dominant social trends of the age and of the social thought and action of the contemporary world.

3. A second requisite is economic security, freedom from anxiety about unemployment and an income, not extravagant, but commensurate with the importance of the function performed and

fairly proportioned to the wealth and income of society.

4. A third requisite is working conditions that enable the teacher to pursue the life of a student, not too greatly harassed by the routine demands of the calling, and that stimulate the teacher to grow in professional and personal competence and power.

5. A fourth requisite is the abandonment by the teacher of that seclusion, aloofness or indifference which too often has been his habit and the development on his part of an active interest in the life of the society served by the school, without becoming identified with or overwhelmed by narrow and immediately practical interests and commitments.

6. A fifth requisite is the guaranteeing to the teacher of a sufficient measure of freedom of teaching to enable him to introduce his pupils to a thoroughly realistic and independent understanding of contemporary society—its tensions, its contradictions, its conflicts, its movements, and its thought.

7. A sixth and final requisite is a large increase



in the proportion of the members of the profession aspiring to positions of leadership in the social, cultural, and intellectual life of community, state, and nation.

#### E. THE REDISTRIBUTION OF POWER

1. If the teacher is to achieve these conditions of improved status and thus free the school from the domination of special interests and convert it into a truly enlightening force in society, there must be a redistribution of power in the general conduct of education—the board of education will have to be made more representative, the administration of the school will have to be conceived more broadly and the teaching profession as a whole will have to organize, develop a theory of its social function and create certain instrumentalities indispensable to the realization of its aims.

2. The ordinary board of education in the United States, with the exception of the rural district board, is composed for the most part of business and professional men; the ordinary rural dis-

trict board is composed almost altogether of landholders. In the former case the board is not fully representative of the supporting population and thus tends to impose upon the school the social ideas of a special class; in both instances its membership is apt to be peculiarly rooted in the economic individualism of the nineteenth century.

3. If the board of education is to support a school program conceived in terms of the general welfare and adjusted to the needs of an epoch marked by transition to some form of socialized economy, it should include in its membership adequate representation of points of view other than those of private business.

4. With the expansion of education and the growth of large school systems, involving the co-ordination of the efforts of tens, hundreds and even thousands of professional workers and the expenditure of vast sums of money on grounds, buildings, and equipment, the function of administration has become increasingly important and indispensable. The public interest demands the efficient and economical operation of the schools; the release of the teacher from time- and energy-

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### *Conclusions and Recommendations*

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consuming drudgery requires competent administrative and supervisory leadership.

5. At present, however, this leadership centers its attention too often on the material and mechanical aspects of the educational enterprise. According to the conception here advanced, the creation of a smoothly running educational mechanism should be wholly instrumental to the improvement of teaching and the growth of the teacher as an informed, cultivated, well-poised, socially sensitive and individualized personality—the central purpose of school administration.

6. Since the teacher is the immediate directing and creative force in education, any measures calculated to limit or arbitrarily to control the exercise of his professional skill and judgment or his participation according to his ability in the development of the educational program of his community, degrade his status and, even though adopted in the name of efficiency, actually tend to defeat the purposes of education. The Commission places its trust in the improvement of the teacher rather than in the perfection of the technical aspects of administration.

7. The employment in administration and supervision of any instruments or devices which fail to take into account the broad rôle of the teacher in the evolution of culture tends to dwarf his personality, to develop in him a servile mentality and to hamper him in the effective discharge of the most fundamental obligations imposed upon him by the purposes of education. Many of the social results of education may not be discernible for years after the period of schooling is over, cannot be fully known until the long drama of human history is finally closed; while other results of the highest importance for the enrichment of life are utterly beyond measurement of any kind.

8. Formal, technical, and rigid supervision of instruction, whether exercised by school principal or other agent, is likewise incompatible with the attainment of the highest standards of teaching. Resting on false assumptions regarding the nature of the total educative process, it inevitably stunts and eventually atrophies the initiative of the teacher.

9. In order that the teacher may make his voice

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heard in a world in which power depends increasingly on organization, the entire profession of teaching from kindergarten to college and university, should be brought into a single association organized into appropriate divisions along functional and territorial lines. At present the organization of teachers is both incomplete and chaotic—vast numbers are without any such affiliation, while the existing societies and associations pursue diverse policies and are bound together by no common allegiance. Peculiarly unfortunate, and wholly illustrative of the isolation of pedagogy from the main currents of social thought, is the fact that in their national organizations and meetings persons concerned with the conduct of elementary and secondary education have little association with the leading minds in social science and philosophy. These traditional barriers within the profession should be destroyed.

10. The object of such an association would be twofold: on the one hand, it would make possible the pooling of the thought and wisdom of the profession in the formulation of educational poli-

cies—local, state, and national; and on the other, it would provide protection for the individual teacher in the exercise of his rights, the enjoyment of his privileges and the discharge of his obligations to society.

11. In view of the living and controversial character of the field of instruction embraced by the social sciences, such protection is peculiarly imperative. The only hope for a peaceful settlement of the gigantic and bitter conflicts among groups, classes, and peoples which have already shaken American society to its foundations and produced revolutions in many countries would seem to lie in the direction of keeping open the channels of thought and inquiry. To the achievement of this goal in the schools of the country the teachers of the social sciences, fully aware of the dangers and difficulties, should dedicate their organized energies and resources.

12. In order that the individual teacher, out of loyalty to this supreme ideal of social science instruction, may be protected against the assaults of ignorant majorities, heresy-hunting minorities, and all self-constituted guardians of public morals

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and thought, the profession as a whole must make provision for the review of controversies, thus arising, by trained specialists competent to pass judgment upon the scholarship, subject matter, and manner of presentation in question.

13. In the case of unfair or unwise dismissal the profession must be prepared to conduct energetic and appropriate inquiries and, by resort to the courts if necessary, see that justice is done, damages assessed, and reinstatement achieved. The tradition must be established in American schools that the teacher will be protected in the efficient performance of his professional duty. It is particularly imperative that isolated teachers in small communities and districts shall not be left virtually defenseless. Otherwise, as experience has already indicated, the teaching of the social sciences will become a pure mockery and in the course of time may be expected to increase the terror and bitterness of social conflict.

14. Through similar instrumentalities the courageous and far-sighted administrator, standing at the storm center of the educational system, must be protected against the caprice, the ignorance,

and the animosity of special groups, organizations, and classes.

#### F. THE SCOPE OF THE COMMUNITY

1. In any consideration of the question of the public relations of the school the concept of the community requires definition and clarification, particularly since it continues to carry connotations developed before the advance of technology and the growth of industrial society.

2. Although the country is still covered with a network of political boundaries formed in an age of relatively primitive modes of transportation and communication, no functioning American community to-day can be confined within the limits of a few square miles. Owing to the closely knit texture of the economy, the differentiation and specialization of social function, the interdependence of groups and regions and the high mobility of the population, every school, however remotely it may seem to be situated, serves not merely a particular locality but the nation. Indeed through the migrations of peoples, the travel



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of students and scholars and the movement of ideas beyond the national borders, the American system of education makes its influence felt increasingly throughout the world.

3. The impact of the expansion of the community upon the organization and conduct of education has long been manifest in the consolidation of school districts, the growth of state systems of education, the development of federal concern in the field, and the general tendency to shift the burden of school support to ever larger areas. In the future the trend may be expected to continue until a proper balance is struck between the integration of the educational system and the integration of society.

4. On the side of school support the Commission believes the trend to be desirable. Since districts, states, and regions differ widely in per capita wealth and since the sources of wealth in the present highly integrated economy are correspondingly diffused throughout the country, though centralized in ownership, social justice and equalization of opportunity alike demand that the support of education be shifted more

and more from the locality to the state and nation.

5. Similarly, since the family cannot provide for its immature members economic security and educational opportunity, commensurate with the need and the possibility, society is under obligation in a democracy to guarantee such security and opportunity from early childhood to the age at which employment is possible and socially desirable. This ideal should be applied to all regardless of residence, race, nationality, religion, or economic status, and its realization should constitute an inalienable claim on the resources of locality, state, and nation.

6. At this point the Commission would direct attention to the disaster which has overtaken many schools and which threatens to destroy the foundations of the American system of public education. Under the impact of the economic depression thousands of schools in the poorer localities, states, and regions have been closed, millions of children have been denied the most elementary educational opportunities, and indispensable educational services have been reduced and even elim-

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inated. Still more disturbing are the proposals, advanced and supported by influential groups and organizations, that fees be attached to publicly maintained secondary and higher institutions, that the trend of educational development during the past century be thus reversed, and that the class principle, now being abandoned in Europe, be introduced into the American educational system. To these tendencies the Commission stands in unalterable opposition. In fact, the program of social science instruction which it advocates in these pages demands the further development of the American democratic principle that educational opportunity should be extended equally to all elements in the population.

7. On the side of the organization and administration of education the Commission believes a completely integrated national system to be beset by grave dangers, involving overstandardization, regimentation, and discouragement of local initiative and experimentation. Under these circumstances the Commission hopes that the optimum degree of integration may be achieved, not by coercive and detailed legislation emanating from

the federal Congress, but rather through the friendly co-operation of state and nation, the spread of knowledge, the nation-wide circulation of educational journals, the training of leaders in centers of learning, the removal of all barriers to the free interchange of teachers among the different sections of the country and the development of a professional organization which would embrace practically the entire teaching staff of the United States and would concern itself increasingly with the formulation and execution of the educational policies of the nation. Broad principles for the operation of the schools might be established by national legislation, with the responsibility for administration reserved to local agencies in co-operation with the organized teaching profession. But whatever the ultimate disposition of the problem, the teachers should recognize the necessities growing out of the emergence of an integrated economy and proceed at once to the preparation of a policy of adaptation in harmony with the ideals of American democracy and cultural freedom.

8. Finally, the close integration of industrial

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society implies a close integration of instruction in the social sciences, not only of the public schools of the nation, but also of private schools and other educational and formative agencies; though here again, in order that the process of integration may be attended by the least possible regimentation, it should be qualified by general recognition of the rich values in experimentation and in diversified culture which will accrue to education and the nation from schools conducted under the auspices of cultural minorities and non-governmental authorities.

### G. ADMINISTRATION AND EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

1. Owing to the growing magnitude and complexity of the educational enterprise, as already observed, competent administration and supervision are becoming more and more indispensable to the efficient operation of a modern school system.

2. The administrator discharges a threefold responsibility: (a) he represents the public in its

relations with the school system and the school system in its relations with the public; (b) he controls the engineering and accounting functions incidental to the operation of the school plant; and (c) as head of the school system he provides leadership for teachers and supervisors and gives unity and direction to the entire educational program.

3. In the discharge of this threefold responsibility the administrator, because of the great power necessarily reposed in his office, may contribute materially to the realization or the defeat of any program of education, regardless of how it may be conceived. From the standpoint of the teaching of the social sciences the importance of the first and third functions named above can scarcely be overemphasized.

4. Throughout the nineteenth century and especially in the formative period of American education the men occupying the major administrative posts in public education were pre-eminently social philosophers and statesmen, trained in the democratic individualist school of thought; but during the opening years of the twentieth cen-

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### *Conclusions and Recommendations*

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ture with the rapid growth of enrollment this function of social leadership was too largely submerged in the accounting, technical, and engineering aspects of administration.

5. The emergence of an integrated society and the appearance of the severe tensions characteristic of an age in transition are again demanding the highest social and educational leadership and are requiring that the mechanics of administration be dropped to its proper and subordinate position in the work of the administrator.

6. Important as these technical and engineering functions of administration are, they are entirely secondary to the supreme function of educational leadership. This is axiomatic at all times; but in an age like the present, when education must reconstruct its basic purposes, it is peculiarly of the essence of the problem of administration.

7. In the steadily integrating social order of the present and the future, if education is to be given competent and relevant direction, the emphasis in the professional education of the administrator must be laid again on social science, social philosophy and statecraft.

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*Public Relations and Administration*

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The foregoing chapter is based on, and elaborated in:

BAGLEY, W. C., *The Selection and Training of the Teacher*;

BEALE, H. K., *Freedom of Teaching in the Schools*;

CURTI, M. E., *Social Ideas of American Educators*;

MERRIAM, C. E., *Civic Education in the United States*;

NEWLON, J. H., *Educational Administration and Social Policy*;

PIERCE, BESSIE L., *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth*.



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*Conclusions and Recommendations*

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Signed:

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Frank A. Ballou, Edmund E. Day, Ernest Horn, and Charles E. Merriam declined to sign these Conclusions.

\* Mr. Bowman has signed the Conclusions with reservations which are printed as Appendix C.

## APPENDIX A

### NEXT STEPS

1. The Commission has, for reasons already given, rejected the idea that there is one unequivocal body of subject matter, one unequivocal organization of materials, and one unequivocal method of teaching which, when combined, will guarantee the realization in instruction of the broad purposes set forth above. It was not instructed to provide a detailed syllabus and set of textbooks to be imposed on the school system of the country. Had it been so instructed it would have found the mandate incompatible with its fundamental conclusion that the frame of reference is the primary consideration and that many methods of organizing materials and teaching are possible and desirable within the accepted frame.

2. However, the Commission is mindful of the proper and practical question: What are the next steps? It indicates, therefore, the lines along which attacks can and will be made on the problem of applying its conclusions with respect to instruction in the social sciences.

3. As often repeated, the first step is to awaken and consolidate leadership around the philosophy and purpose of education herein expounded—leadership

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## Appendix A

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among administrators, teachers, boards of trustees, college and normal school presidents—thinkers and workers in every field of education and the social sciences. Signs of such an awakening and consolidation of leadership are already abundantly evident: in the resolutions on instruction in the social sciences adopted in 1933 by the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association at Minneapolis and by the Association itself at Chicago; in the activities of the United States Commissioner of Education during the past few years; and in almost every local or national meeting of representatives of the teaching profession.

4. The American Historical Association, in co-operation with the National Council on the Social Studies, has arranged to take over *The Historical Outlook*<sup>1</sup> (a journal for social science teachers), has appointed a Board of Editors chosen in part from the members of this Commission, and has selected for the post of managing editor W. G. Kimmel, who has been associated with this Commission as Executive Secretary for five years and is thoroughly conversant with its work and its conclusions. The purpose of the *Outlook* under the new management will be to supply current materials, to encourage experimentation in the organization of materials, to stimulate thought and experimentation among teachers and schools, to report projects and results of experimentation, and

<sup>1</sup> Hereafter to be called *The Social Studies*.

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## *Next Steps*

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generally to furnish as rapidly as possible various programs of instruction organized within the frame of reference outlined by the Commission.

5. The writers of textbooks may be expected to revamp and rewrite their old works in accordance with this frame of reference and new writers in the field of the social sciences will undoubtedly attack the central problem here conceived, bringing varied talents and methods and arts to bear upon it. Thus the evil effects of any stereotype may be avoided.

6. Makers of programs in the social sciences in cities, towns, and states may be expected to evaluate the findings and conclusions of this report and to recast existing syllabi and schemes of instruction in accordance with their judgment respecting the new situation.

7. If the findings and conclusions of this Commission are really pertinent to the educational requirements of the age, then colleges and universities offering courses of instruction for teachers will review their current programs and provide for prospective teachers courses of instruction in general harmony with the Commission's frame of reference.

8. The same may be said of special institutions for the training of teachers. It is not too much to expect in the near future a decided shift in emphasis from the mechanics and techniques of methodology to the content and function of courses in the social sciences, thus guaranteeing a supply of teachers more com-

petent to carry out the philosophy and purpose here presented.

9. A similar transfer of emphasis may be expected in the field of educational journalism, resulting in a consideration, criticism, and application of the fundamental philosophy of education formulated in this volume.

10. If the present report aids in bringing about a persistent concentration of thought on the central issues, findings, and conclusions of the Commission, it will help to clear up the confusion now so prevalent in the educational world and give direction to powers now wasted in formalistic debates on methods and techniques.

11. In fine, the Commission has felt bound, by the terms of its instructions and the nature of the subject entrusted to its consideration, to provide a frame of reference for the orientation of philosophy and purpose in education, rather than a bill of minute specifications for guidance. In so doing, it is convinced that unless the spirit is understood and appreciated any formulation of the letter will hamper rather than facilitate the fulfillment of the Commission's offering.

## APPENDIX B

### THE WORK OF THE COMMISSION

THE foundations on which the conclusions set down in the present volume rest may best be revealed by an account of the history of the Commission—its personnel, its organization, its method of work, its objective accomplishments. This account will begin with a brief statement of the career and procedure of the Commission.

#### PLAN AND ORGANIZATION

The investigation may be said to have originated in a preliminary plan which was drawn up in broad outline in 1926 by a committee of nine members appointed by the American Historical Association.<sup>1</sup> This plan, somewhat elaborated and cast into the form of working drawings in 1928, served as a general guide for the inquiry down to the formulation of its conclusions.

For aid during these preliminary stages of its work

<sup>1</sup> The members of this committee were John S. Bassett, Guy Stanton Ford, Ernest Horn, Henry Johnson, William E. Lingelbach, L. C. Marshall, Charles E. Merriam, Jesse H. Newlon, and A. C. Krey, Chairman. The plan was published in December, 1926, by the Association under the title, *History and Other Social Studies in the Schools*.

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the Commission is indebted to the directors of antecedent but similar investigations into other fields of school instruction—mathematics, classics, and modern foreign languages—especially to Professor Robert Herndon Fife, Jr., who continued his aid until the Investigation was well under way; to Dr. Max Farrand and the Commonwealth Fund for their generous aid; to Professor A. E. McKinley who placed his extensive materials at the disposal of the staff; to the group of scholars who conducted the preliminary "History Inquiry," especially to Professor Edgar Dawson, whose efforts led directly to the present social science investigation; and to certain distinguished educational advisers, including Dean William F. Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University, Dean Charles H. Judd of the University of Chicago, Dean George F. Arps and Professor W. W. Charters of Ohio State University, Dean R. H. Jordan of Cornell University, President Walter A. Jessup and Dean Paul C. Packer of the University of Iowa, President L. D. Coffman and Dean M. E. Haggerty of the University of Minnesota, and Dr. Payson Smith, Dr. A. B. Meredith, and Mr. J. M. McConnell, heads of the state departments of education of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Minnesota, respectively. In expressing its gratitude to these scholars it is with the understanding that they are in no way responsible for the final report.

The career of the Commission opened at the beginning of January, 1929, and closed at the end of De-

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ember, 1933. During this five-year period its total membership embraced the following persons: Frank W. Ballou, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.; Charles A. Beard, formerly Professor of Government, Columbia University; Isaiah Bowman, Director of the American Geographical Society, New York City; Ada Comstock, President of Radcliffe College; George S. Counts, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; Avery O. Craven, Professor of History, University of Chicago; Edmund E. Day, Director of Social Science, Rockefeller Foundation, and formerly Dean of the School of Business Administration, University of Michigan; Guy Stanton Ford, Dean of the Graduate School and Professor of History, University of Minnesota; Evarts B. Greene, Professor of History, Columbia University; Carlton J. H. Hayes, Professor of History, Columbia University; Ernest Horn, Professor of Education, University of Iowa; Henry Johnson, Professor of History, Teachers College, Columbia University; A. C. Krey, Professor of History and Professor of the History of Education, University of Minnesota; William E. Lingelbach, Professor of History, University of Pennsylvania; L. C. Marshall, formerly Dean of the School of Commerce and Administration, University of Chicago; Charles E. Merriam, Professor of Political Science, University of Chicago; Jesse H. Newlon, Director of Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, formerly Superintendent of Schools,



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Denver, Colorado; and Jesse F. Steiner, Professor of Sociology, University of Washington. Except for Evarts B. Greene and William E. Lingelbach, who under press of other duties retired in 1930; Avery O. Craven and Carlton J. H. Hayes, who were appointed in the same year to fill the places thus made vacant, and Edmund E. Day, who though appointed in 1929 did not accept appointment until the following year, the membership remained unchanged for the duration of the investigation. A. C. Krey and Frank W. Ballou served as chairman and secretary, respectively, of the Commission throughout the period.

Owing to the broad scope of the inquiry, the Commission faced the necessity of providing for both the differentiation and the integration of its work. The former was achieved through the appointment of five major committees and numerous special investigators; the latter, through the Commission itself, an executive committee, a chairman, a research director, and an executive secretary.

The Commission met for two- or three-day conferences as occasion demanded, holding three meetings in 1929, two in 1930, one in 1931, one in 1932, and two in 1933. The Executive Committee, consisting originally of A. C. Krey, Charles E. Merriam, and Jesse H. Newlon, and enlarged in 1931 by the addition of Edmund E. Day and Guy Stanton Ford, met at intervals between the meetings of the Commission. The immediate conduct of the investigation was in

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the hands of A. C. Krey, who was the directing head of the inquiry from the beginning, and George S. Counts, who served as director of research from August 1, 1931.

A central staff, with quarters at the University of Minnesota, the University of Chicago, and Columbia University, was maintained throughout the period of the investigation. At the head of this staff was W. G. Kimmel, formerly Supervisor of Social Studies for the New York State Department of Education, who occupied the post of Executive Secretary during the entire career of the Commission. Others serving on this central staff at various times were Edith E. Ware, formerly Dean of the Spence School, New York City; Frances E. Baldwin, formerly of Hood College; and Donald L. McMurry, formerly Professor of History in Lafayette College. Among the duties discharged by this staff was the preparation of reports of progress in the several divisions of the inquiry for the consideration of the Commission.

The staff was aided in the investigation of special problems by many scholars and teachers who either worked directly with the staff at intervals or who checked work of the staff at their accustomed places of business or elsewhere. Special acknowledgment is made of services rendered by H. R. Anderson, University of Iowa; Gladys Boyington, North Carolina College for Women; D. S. Brainard, State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota; Prudence Cutright,

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Minneapolis Public Schools; O. M. Dickerson, State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado; Elmer Ellis, University of Missouri; Hallie Farmer, Alabama College for Women, Montevallo; Alice N. Gibbons, East High School, Rochester, New York; Mary Gold, Dorothy Houston and Dorothy Bovee, University of Minnesota High School; Mary Harden, Horace Mann School, Teachers College, Columbia University; George J. Jones, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.; Florence Kellogg, Baltimore, Maryland; D. C. Knowlton, New York University; Paul E. Lutz, James Ormond Wilson Teachers College, Washington, D. C.; Burr W. Phillips, University of Wisconsin; John Perry Pritchett, University of North Dakota; Edna H. Stone, University High School, Oakland, California; William Shepherd, North High School, Minneapolis; R. H. Shryock, Duke University; E. P. Smith, New York State Department of Education; Joseph R. Strayer, Princeton University; Lena C. Van Bibber, Towson Normal School, Towson, Maryland; Edgar B. Wesley, now of University of Minnesota; Ruth West, Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane, Washington; and Howard E. Wilson, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.

Following the making of a number of analytical and exploratory researches, involving bibliographies, textbooks, courses of study, methods of instruction, classroom materials and devices, grade placement, and administrative and public relations, the Commission

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proceeded to organize its work into six major divisions: (a) philosophy, purpose, and objectives; (b) materials of instruction; (c) methods of teaching; (d) tests and testing; (e) the teacher; and (f) public relations. With the exception of (b) and (c), which were combined under one committee, the guidance of the investigation in each of these six fields was entrusted to a committee, specially constituted and appointed for the task. By assigning certain of its own members to each committee the Commission established an interlocking relationship with all committees and thus assured the integration of the several branches of the inquiry.

### INVESTIGATIONS AND REPORTS

The extent and nature of the work of the Commission can best be indicated by listing its objective accomplishments. Mention will first be made of a bibliographical study of a general character which the Commission undertook for purposes of orientation. Thereafter the various studies prosecuted under each of the six divisions of the inquiry will be set down.

Early in its history the Commission began to compile a comprehensive bibliography of writings on the teaching of social science subjects in the school. This bibliography, which included both books and magazine articles and was largely confined to the United States and to the period since 1900, finally numbered more than 15,000 titles. On examination, however,

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the vast majority of these items were found to be of relatively little value. For the most part, this bibliography was compiled by W. G. Kimmel, assisted by staff members.

The questions of philosophy, purpose, and objectives naturally received the initial attention of the Commission as a whole, and was the chief topic of consideration in its earlier meetings. In fact, the original planning committee had proposed a tentative list of objectives for the guidance of the work in test construction. Also, in the exploratory investigations extended surveys were made of the treatment of this subject in pedagogical literature, courses of study, and reports of learned societies. Then in order that the question might be more thoroughly and systematically developed, a special advisory Committee on Objectives was appointed. To this committee were assigned Charles A. Beard, George S. Counts, Guy Stanton Ford, A. C. Krey, and Charles E. Merriam from the Commission, and Franklin Bobbitt, Professor of Education, University of Chicago; Boyd H. Bode, Professor of Education, Ohio State University; and Harold O. Rugg, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University. Charles A. Beard served as chairman. The Committee held four meetings—two jointly with the Commission, one in connection with the Advisory Committee on Tests, and one independently. For the development of the thought of the committee several papers were prepared. Charles A.

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Beard presented a paper on Preliminary Thoughts on Civic Instruction in the Schools; Franklin Bobbitt on The Objectives of the Social Phases of Education; Boyd H. Bode on Objectives in the Social Sciences; L. C. Marshall on What is Involved in Social Living; and Harold O. Rugg on The Typical Objects of Allegiance of the Cultured Man. These papers, as well as the contributions of the other members of the Commission, were drawn upon in drafting *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools*. With the completion of the manuscript of this volume the work of the special committee came to an end. Although every study undertaken by the Commission or under its auspices either postulates or actually considers philosophy, purpose, and objectives, the following publications deal with the subject as a major theme:

*A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools;*

CHARLES A. BEARD, *The Nature of the Social Sciences;*

GEORGE S. COUNTS, *The Social Foundations of Education;*

MERLE E. CURTI, *Social Ideas of American Educators;*

L. C. MARSHALL and RACHEL MARSHALL GOETZ, *A Social Process Approach to Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies;*

CHARLES E. MERRIAM, *Civic Education in the United States.*

The problems of materials of instruction and methods of teaching, though separated in the present volume, are inextricably interwoven and will be treated together here. The preliminary attack on this subject

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embraced investigations of the literature of curriculum construction, analyses of courses of study at grade levels up to and including the junior college, a check list of teaching devices, an analysis of social science curricula, a comparative study of foreign practices, a classified and annotated bibliography for the social studies courses in elementary and secondary schools, and an inquiry into methods of teaching government in the first two years of college. Finally, an Advisory Committee on Materials and Methods of Instruction was appointed. Into this committee were drawn Edmund E. Day, Carlton J. H. Hayes, Ernest Horn, Henry Johnson, A. C. Krey, L. C. Marshall, Jesse H. Newlon, and Jesse F. Steiner from the Commission, and Earl W. Crecraft, Professor of Political Science, University of Akron; Charles H. Judd, Dean of the School of Education, University of Chicago; William H. Kilpatrick, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; A. L. Threlkeld, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado; and Rolla M. Tryon, Professor of History, University of Chicago. This Committee, with Mr. Tryon as Chairman, held two meetings and recommended a series of projects. The following volumes are devoted largely to questions of materials and methods:

CHARLES A. BEARD, *The Nature of the Social Sciences*;  
ISAIAH BOWMAN, *Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences*;

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ERNEST HORN, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Sciences;*

HENRY JOHNSON, *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences in Schools;*

L. C. MARSHALL and RACHEL MARSHALL GOETZ, *A Social Process Approach to Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies;*

CHARLES E. MERRIAM, *Civic Education in the United States;*

ROLLA M. TRYON, *The Social Studies as School Subjects.*<sup>3</sup>

The subject of tests and testing occupied a large place in the early deliberations of the Commission. This interest was due largely to the hope that the new-type test technique might prove an effective instrument in the investigation of many phases of the problem of social science instruction. In order that the possibilities of objective measurement might be thoroughly explored, Truman L. Kelley, Professor of Education, Harvard University, formerly of Stanford University, was appointed to the position of Advisor on Tests in the fall of 1929. At the outset, existing tests, published and unpublished, were examined, and an analysis was made of school programs, individual subjects, topics, concepts, and terms employed in the social science field. In 1929 an Advisory Committee

<sup>3</sup> The Commission co-operated with the American Council on Education and the American Political Science Association in sponsoring the preparation, under the direction of Charles H. Judd, of experimental materials of instruction for the schools.



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on Tests was appointed, which held its first meeting in November of that year. From the Commission Frank W. Ballou, Isaiah Bowman, Ernest Horn, Henry Johnson and A. C. Krey were assigned to this committee. The additional members were Howard C. Hill, Assistant Professor of the Teaching of the Social Sciences, University of Chicago, and Ben D. Wood, Professor of Psychology, Columbia University. Frank W. Ballou was chairman of the committee. The work done in the field of testing was extensive and diverse, including the prosecution of various descriptive and critical studies, the development of lists of terms, skills, attitudes, issues, and interests involved in social science teaching, and the construction of a considerable number of tests in this field.<sup>8</sup> More or less extended consideration of the subject of tests and testing will be found in the following volumes:

- CHARLES A. BEARD, *The Nature of the Social Sciences*;  
ERNEST HORN, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Sciences*;  
TRUMAN L. KELLEY and A. C. KREY, *Progress in Learning in the Social Sciences as Indicated by Tests*.

The study of the social science teacher began with an inquiry into the problem of training by Edgar Dawson and an investigation of superior teachers by

<sup>8</sup> A detailed account of this work will be found in Truman L. Kelley and A. C. Krey, *Progress in Learning in the Social Science Subjects as Indicated by Tests*.

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E. P. Smith. The chief responsibility for this division of the Commission's work was borne by an Advisory Committee on the Teacher, headed by William C. Bagley, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University. The other members were Frank W. Ballou, Avery O. Craven and Guy Stanton Ford, from the Commission, and Robert C. Brooks, Professor of Political Science, Swarthmore College; George W. Frasier, President of State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado; Margaret Kiely, Principal of Bridgeport Normal School, Bridgeport, Connecticut; Leonard V. Koos, Professor of Education, University of Chicago; A. B. Meredith, Professor of Education, New York University; James S. Plant, M.D., Director of Essex County, New Jersey, Juvenile Clinic; and Lida Lee Tall, Principal of State Normal School, Towson, Maryland. The committee held three meetings and launched a number of researches, including a preliminary study of techniques for the analysis of good teachers and good teaching conducted by William L. Wrinkle, Principal of Teachers College High School, State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado. The following published reports of the Commission are devoted largely to the problem of the teacher:

THOMAS ALEXANDER, *The Teacher of Social Science in Europe*; \*

\* Included in volume by W. C. Bagley.

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WILLIAM C. BAGLEY, *The Teacher of the Social Sciences in the Schools*;

HOWARD K. BEALE, *Freedom of Teaching in the Schools*;

E. S. EVENDEN, *Experience and Tenure of Social Science Teachers in the United States*; <sup>4</sup>

W. G. KIMMEL, *A Detailed Study of the Nature of Good Teaching in Social Science Subjects*.

The problems growing out of administration and public relations received the attention of the Commission from the beginning. Exploratory studies were made of the literature of extra-school learning, of relevant laws and regulations in the several states, of groups and organizations interested in school instruction, and of issues involved in the relations of teachers and administrators. The special committee appointed to direct the inquiry in the field was headed by Jesse H. Newlon and included the following members of the Commission: Frank W. Ballou, Ada Comstock, George S. Counts, and Carlton J. H. Hayes. The other members were John A. Fairlie, Professor of Political Science, University of Illinois; Robert S. Lynd, Social Science Research Council, now of Columbia University; and Bessie L. Pierce, Associate Professor of American History, University of Chicago. The Committee held two meetings and recommended studies of the programs, aims, and methods of citizens' organizations for civic training, and

<sup>4</sup> Included in volume by W. C. Bagley.

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of the social beliefs and attitudes of school board members, administrators, and teachers. Claude E. Arnett,<sup>o</sup> F. H. Bair,<sup>o</sup> J. Flint Waller,<sup>o</sup> R. B. Raup, and M. G. Fraser conducted investigations in this field. In the following studies published by the Commission the problems of administration and public relations receive attention:

MERLE E. CURTI, *Social Ideas of American Educators*;

JESSE H. NEWLON, *Educational Administration and Social Policy*.

BESSIE L. PIERCE, *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth*.

## APPENDIX C

### DR. ISAIAH BOWMAN'S RESERVATIONS IN SIGNING THIS REPORT

*Page 18, Par. 12, lines 8 and 9:* Omit the phrase "the artificiality of political boundaries and divisions." The antithesis to artificial is natural and what is natural for one group of people in the form of a political boundary is regarded as wicked and grasping by a neighboring nation. The whole subject is far too complicated to be disposed of in this superficial manner. Society has always been "exhausting" itself and I think there are several stages short of exhaustion which ought to be considered in reading Par. 13. Again, referring to the last two lines of Par. 12, may I observe that international conflicts and wars take place not alone because of struggles among nations for markets and raw materials. How can we eliminate such struggles except in Utopia? We can regulate the relations of nations, diminish the intensity of the struggle and come to working agreements with our neighbors. It is not necessary in constructing a framework of good relations that the individualism of nations should be eliminated. World society is like national society in this respect. Regional diversity is one of the blessings of the world and the boundaries

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between countries express the idea of neighborhood or region in the large sense.

*Page 27, Par. 16, lines 6-8:* Reference is here made to "the best plans" and "the future of society." Who is to know the best? There should be a qualifying statement. Otherwise the criticism might apply that the statement is "perfectly true, perfectly general and perfectly meaningless." As to the future of society, this is again one of those vague terms that has very little meaning unless defined. How distant a future?

*Page 34, Par. 4, lines 10 and 11:* "to free the ordinary individual from the long working day." Decidedly this is not a promise of the future. Who wants to be so freed? This reads as if we wanted to give every man eternal rest. What we want is to free the ordinary individual from the too-long day of the one-task type.

*Page 36, Par. 4, line 6:* "individuality for great masses of people." This is a bit of Utopian yearning. The "great masses" have no such individuality. The statement is wrong in the historic sense as well as from the realistic standpoint of today in spite of all the general education that we have had.

*Page 40, Par. 5, last 2 lines:* I would omit these lines and insert instead: "The national and regional settings of people that give their problems an individualism that has to be harmonized with the common welfare."

*Page 41, Par. 7, last 2 lines:* Who had the temerity to write that Asia is being brought within a common

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orbit of civilization? That phrase was written in metropolitan New York and not by one whose shoes still carry the dust of Asia. Asia has borrowed some of our tricks. Its people are not swinging in our orbit in even the modest sense of that phrase.

*Page 50, Par. 2, bottom of page, line 4:* Change the word "factors" to "conditions." Continuing with the same phrase "the evolution of human culture" change to "the volution and spread of human cultures." In the next line, after the word "globe" insert "and the diverse forms of exploitation." Two lines farther down, after the word "forests" insert "and trading areas."

*Page 57, Par. 7:* I take serious exception to the form of this paragraph. It assumes that the child in his earliest years of schooling knows nothing of the life about him and that he should know that first. As a matter of fact, quite a good deal is known by children, about neighborhood, town, and community. More can be taught rather readily. But there is no reason why the imagination-evoking study of distant peoples should not be introduced at the same time. It is not necessarily a case of first the community and then the distant place, but the community and the distant place at one and the same time by comparative methods. Most children find home geography pretty dull. They like to know about strange peoples, and it appears that some of the remote peoples of the world live under such simple conditions that they

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form ideal cases for the study of the simple forms of life that may be taught in useful contrast to the complex forms of which we are a part. As it stands, the paragraph is too categorical and exclusive and has been written with too little appreciation of the tested and approved varieties of experience which children have in studying the varied material of geography.

*Page 71, Par. 4:* The last four or five lines of the paragraph break down readily into two items, the adjustment of and the correspondence of. There should be added a third item, namely, the nature of the subject matter. The text is striking at "a narrowly conceived methodology." This is therefore just the place in which the point should be emphasized that good teaching takes account of the nature of the subject, how its facts were gathered, its inner organization, its modes of discovery. This is "methodology," if you please, of the highest type. It rarely gets consideration.

*Page 79, Par. 6, lines 3 and 4:* "draw imaginary pictures and diagrams." Why should such pictures and diagrams be drawn? There has been no mention of any basic need which such pictures and diagrams fill. When there is an abundance of lively and real material, why draw upon the imagination? That quality of the mind can be well applied to other things. The result of this recommendation would be farcical. Just omit the phrase.

*Pages 115-18:* It seems to me on ending this chap-



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ter that it doesn't hang together. It needs clearing up with respect to the type of training that the writers have in mind. There is too much of the inspirational and emotional in it. The truly scientific possibilities of teacher development do not seem to me to be brought out. I know that this is pale generalization and that the ready answer is "What are the specific possibilities?" This is not the place to set them forth or argue the matter at length, but should the committee have had the question in mind in making their last revision?

The exact titles of the reports of the Commission cannot yet be definitely announced. The following, therefore, must be regarded as tentative.

1. A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools, by Charles A. Beard, formerly Professor of Politics, Columbia University.
2. An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences in Schools, by Henry Johnson, Professor of History, Teachers College, Columbia University.
3. Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth, by Bessie Louise Pierce, Associate Professor of American History, University of Chicago.
4. Progress in Learning in the Social Science Subjects as Indicated by Tests, by Truman L. Kelley, Professor of Education, Harvard University, and A. C. Krey, Professor of History, University of Minnesota.
5. Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences, by Isaiah Bowman, Director, American Geographical Society of New York, with special studies by Rose Clark, Nebraska Wesleyan University; Edith Parker, University of Chicago; and R. D. Calkins, Central State Teachers College, Michigan.
6. Education in an Industrial Age, by George S. Counts, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, and Charles A. Beard.
7. The Social Studies as School Subjects, by Rolla M. Tryon, Professor of the Teaching of History, University of Chicago.
8. Methods of Instruction in the Social Sciences, by Ernest Horn, Professor of Education, University of Iowa.
9. Civic Education in the United States, by Charles E. Merriam, Professor of Political Science, University of Chicago.

10. **School Administration and Educational Leadership**, by Jesse H. Newlon, Director, Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University.
11. **The Selection and Training of the Teacher**, by William C. Bagley, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; Guy Stanton Ford, Professor of History and Dean of the Graduate School, University of Minnesota; and others.
12. **Freedom of Teaching in the Schools**, by Howard K. Beale, formerly Professor of History at Bowdoin College.
13. **Social Ideas of American Educators**, by Merle Curti, Professor of History at Smith College.
14. **A Social Process Approach to Curriculum-making in the Social Studies**, by Leon C. Marshall, Institute for the Study of Law, Johns Hopkins University.
15. **The Nature of the Social Sciences**, by Charles A. Beard, formerly Professor of Politics, Columbia University.
16. **Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission.**

Other volumes or reports have been projected, dealing with the history of the social ideas of American educational leaders and with the problem of freedom of teaching or the growth of tolerance in the teaching of these subjects.

It is also planned to publish a number of miscellaneous studies, many of them of an exploratory character, which have been made for the committee in one connection or another.

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