TEACHING LOCAL HISTORY AND COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

IN WASHINGTON, D. C.

By

Theodore Libber
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Much has been written and much has been said relating the value of teaching local history and local problems to our school population. Because of the nature of the subject matter, no one specific course of study in local affairs would satisfy any large region of our country, but each community would have to build its own course of study. Such a course would be subject to constant revision and alteration, as community problems are encountered. Rather than have a separate course of study, separate units enriching the already established curriculum in the social studies seems preferable. To the educator faced with the responsibility of preparing such units, the active and intelligent cooperation of members of the community would be most welcome. This project attempts to create such units for Washington, D.C., and solicits the help of various members of the community.

The Social Studies Curriculum

In describing the present social studies curriculum of the Washington, D.C. public secondary schools, this paper has attempted to make such description brief, limiting itself to description sufficient for the purpose of the research involved. Thus, where the title of the course is "Ancient History" and where there is little chance of inserting a unit on local problems or local history, the description of this course is very brief. On the other hand, where the course is entitled "American History and Local Problems," the description of such course is more detailed, more inclusive.
The social studies curriculum in the secondary public schools of Washington, D.C. may be divided into two general groups: the required courses and the elective courses. The school year is divided into two semesters, making the 7A course the first course the pupil encounters upon promotion from the elementary grades.

The Program in Grades 7 and 8. This course attempts to articulate the previous schooling of the child with his new junior high school educational program. Thus, 7A history, a required course entitled "World Background" (27) provides a very brief and elementary study of the background for the required work in American history which the pupil will study in later grades. This course begins with early civilization and continues to the transition to modern times in the seventeenth century. The latter half of the course offers the alternative of using the biographical approach to history, or continuing with the topical method, and covers the story of mankind from the seventeenth century to the present.

The 7B course, required, entitled "American History (chiefly to about 1850) and Local History and Civics" (28) devotes about two-thirds of the time to a study centering about the city of Washington. "While these two parts of the semester's work are relatively distinct, they also have important interconnections, as the early national history provides a setting for the study of the capital city, and as the bringing of the local story up to the present time affords a perspective of high spots of later national history." (28, p.1) The first twelve weeks of the course are spent on the story of early American history, from the time of discovery and exploration to the middle of the nineteenth century. Approximately the last six weeks of the semester are reserved to the unit on "Local History and Civics." A separate textbook, (43) Washington, Yesterday and Today (1943 ed.) by Jones, Hodgins and others, provides
much of the material for class work. However, teachers are asked to place stress upon the direct contacts the pupils have with the city and its activities. The unit is subdivided as follows, as quoted from Jones and Brewer:

A. Historical background and geography of the capitol site and the surrounding region....
B. The main course of the capital's history.....
C. Neighborhood history and other special studies.....
D. How the city carries on its work: covering chiefly the economic activities of the city and surrounding area....
E. Civic and cultural opportunities and responsibilities.

(23, pp. 10-12)

Parts D and E lend themselves to providing opportunities for occupational and educational guidance, especially valuable to children planning their choice of electives in their eighth grade program of studies.

Unquestionably the attempt made in grade 7B is to promote a deeper understanding of the local community. However, there seems to be no problem approach to controversies or issues upon which the community has become involved. Again, there seems to be a slavish adherence to the textbook provided, with little reference to source material available in the community.

The 8A required course in the social studies curriculum is entitled "Geography of the United States." (29) It emphasizes economic geography. After studying the economic relationship of the United States to the rest of the world, the pupil studies such units as farming, fishing and forestry, hunting, manufacturing, minerals and power. While the 8A course includes the geography of the United States, little mention is made of the geography of the local community. Such mention may be made in subject matter studied, but the integration is left to the discretion of the teacher.

American government forms the first unit of the 8B required course, entitled "American History and Government." (30) Because the District has
no state government and an unusual form of local government, the main study is that of the Federal government. The remaining twelve weeks of the semester continues the history of the nation, taking up from where the 7B course terminated — the middle of the nineteenth century. The 8B course continues up to the present time. A study emphasizing the Federal government but minimizing local government seems to be missing a wonderful opportunity for promoting civic consciousness in the child. The inclusion of a unit on local government in the 8B course, where it would be met by nearly every child of school age, seems more advisable than the present system — where local government is taught in the twelfth grade, a grade not attained by many children.

The Program in Grades 9 and 10. Beginning with the ninth grade, the courses in the social studies are largely elective. To earn a senior high diploma, each pupil must successfully complete a two-semester course in U. S. History, offered in grades 11A and 11B, and a course in American Government, offered in grade 12A. Otherwise, all the social studies courses are elective. Because of the large number of electives in the social studies curriculum compared to other curricula, because of pupil interest, and because of other reasons, nearly all pupils choose at least one year of study in the social studies beyond the minimum requirement. Thus, the ninth grade offers especially for academic pupils, a two-semester course in "Ancient and Medieval History," (33) from the beginning of civilization to the mid-nineteenth century. To those ninth grade pupils who do not elect this course, usually the non-academic pupils, an alternate choice consists of a 9A course in "Civics" followed by a 9B course in "World Geography." Topics which may be studied in "Civics" (31) include group relationships, self-study, occupations and jobs, economic civics (stressing consumer education), governmental civics, health and safety. "World Geography" (32)
includes units on the globe, colder parts of the earth, equatorial region, Asia, Europe, natural resources, and the various parts of the world living and working together.

Two elective courses, each two semesters in length, comprise the social studies curriculum for the tenth grade. "Modern History," (34) a two-semester course, follows the ninth grade Ancient and Medieval History." The first semester deals mainly with eighteenth and nineteenth century Europe, while the second semester deals with the modern history of the other continents, and with both world wars. "World History" (35) provides the alternate elective for tenth grade social studies. This course, especially designed for those who did not take "Ancient and Medieval History" covers the same material, but in a more limited manner, the subject matter of "Ancient, Medieval and Modern History."

The Program in Grades 11 and 12. By the time the average pupil reaches the eleventh grade he has fulfilled most of his subject requirements, and is searching for electives to round out his program. Thus, the social studies curriculum increases its electives for the eleventh and twelfth grades. A two-semester course in "Sociology," a two-semester course in "Law," a one-semester course in "Latin-American History," a one-semester course in "Advanced Geography," are electives for these grades. Not all high schools offer all these courses, much depending upon the availability of teachers and upon pupil-interest. "Sociology I" (37) discusses personality, special problems of adolescence, marriage, and vocational adjustment. "Sociology II" (37) includes a study of our social institutions, such as family, school, church, government, and our economic order, plus an intensive study of American social problems, such as race relations, housing, crime, poverty and world peace. "Advanced Geography" (38) includes units on mapping, climate, transportation and communication, the city, population and resources. "Latin-American History" (39) discusses
the culture, the people, the geography, the history and the development of Latin American countries. "Law I" (40) provides an introduction to the study of law, a study of contracts, sales of goods, liability, and common relationships of persons. "Law II" (40) covers insurance, negotiable instruments, business associations, and property.

A one-semester elective course "Economics" (41) is limited to twelfth year pupils. Units in consumption, production, exchange and distribution make up the course of study. Another elective for this grade is a one-semester course in "World Problems," the course of study now being in the process of formulation.

The required courses "United States History" (two semesters) in the eleventh grade, and "American Government" (one semester) in the twelfth grade, were introduced as separate courses in September, 1949. "United States History I" (36) begins with European backgrounds to the discovery of America, and continues through the Civil War and Reconstruction. "United States History II" (36) continues the story until the present day. "American Government" (42) emphasizes local, state and national governments, with an intensive study of the Federal Constitution. A unit on local government includes material on law-making, finances, services of local bureaus, civic participation, important local interests and services, and how the latter are provided for by the combined activities of governmental and private agencies.
A summary of all the courses in the social studies curriculum, by titles, follows:

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<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
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<tr>
<td>7A (required)</td>
<td>World Background</td>
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<td>7B (  )</td>
<td>American History and Local History and Civics</td>
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<tr>
<td>8A (  )</td>
<td>Geography of the U. S.</td>
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<td>8B (  )</td>
<td>American History and Government</td>
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<td>9A and 9B (elective)</td>
<td>Ancient and Medieval History</td>
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<td>U. S. History I, II</td>
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<td>11 or 12 (elective)</td>
<td>Advanced Geography</td>
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<td>Latin American History</td>
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Criticism of the Social Studies Curriculum

In criticizing the social studies curriculum of the Washington, D.C., public secondary schools, criticism is limited to the research involved in this paper. No general criticism of the entire curriculum is attempted, but instead there is the narrower criticism of the curriculum in relation to local history and local problems.

In general the social studies curriculum of the Washington, D.C., public secondary schools is well planned and varied. With twenty-three semesters of social studies courses offered for the six grades of the junior and senior high school, the pupil has ample opportunity to follow his interests in this area. The two heads of the Social Studies Department not only deserve much credit for executing their responsibilities for developing the courses of study, but also for continually revising and modernizing these courses. Some overlapping would not only seem necessary, but also would be deemed advisable. As the topic of this project emphasizes the study of Washington, D.C., the courses of study were analyzed for possible integration of these courses with local history and local community problems. The 7B course "American History and Local History and Civics" offers the best opportunity in the junior high school for such integration, not only because of its title, but also because it is required of all pupils in grade 7B. As now established, the 7B course devotes two-thirds of the semester to American history, and the last third to local history. According to the opinion of many educational leaders, quoted in Chapter II of this project, such sharp division of local history from national history is undesirable. Instead, integration of units on local history with national history has been recommended.

The 8B course in "American History and Government" places no emphasis on local government. A unit on local government could fit in very well.
The 9A "Civics" course lends itself very well to stressing local problems. Consumer education, health and safety, occupations and jobs, are all topics which must revolve around the local situation for these topics to be functional. The 9B "World Geography" course omits local geography, but a study of such could be included easily. While the courses in ancient, medieval, modern, and world history need not have any separate units on local history and problems, these courses will of necessity integrate the subject matter to our present community living. Thus, Greek architecture is reproduced in the public buildings in the District, Roman law is basic to the code of laws in the District, etc. "Sociology" constantly refers to the local scene for study of institutions, occupational information, and community problems such as crime and health. The same situation prevails in regard to the courses in "Law" and "Economics". However, because many pupils will not choose the elective courses, much of the study of the local scene will probably have to come in the required courses "U. S. History" and "American Government" in order to reach each pupil.

The Statement of the Problem

This project was undertaken to develop and to utilize a co-operative technique in determining what should be taught about Washington, D. C., and to decide how the learning should be organized.

The purposes may be stated more specifically as follows:

(1) to determine available literature pertaining to the need for the study of local problems and procedures in curriculum revision.

(2) to determine from pupils, teachers, parents and other interested adults, what should be taught about Washington, D. C.

(3) to prepare a resource unit as an illustration of how the material developed may be organized in such units.
(4) to suggest where similar units, when developed, might be used within the present social studies curriculum.

The Overview of Procedure

The procedure used in this project consisted of several parts. A survey was made of the literature of educational leaders especially interested in the social studies. This survey revealed the philosophy that the study of local history and community problems should be emphasized. While these leaders approve of such study, they do not suggest units in the course of study which may be used by the teacher. These units must be formulated by teachers, or by supervisors, or by other agents. Just how the curriculum should be altered led to the second part of the project. Again a survey was made, this time of the literature of educational leaders especially interested in the theory of curriculum making. As a result of this latter survey, this project adopted the co-operative technique, using a questionnaire as a device for gathering the viewpoints of interested individuals.

The questionnaire outlined subject matter which could be used in the secondary schools, social studies classes. Each person assisting in filling in the questionnaire indicated, in his opinion, which of the subject matter was indispensable to the course of study, which was important to study if there were sufficient time, and which was unimportant and could be omitted entirely. Pupils in social studies classes of secondary schools, teachers, supervisors, parents of secondary school pupils, and other interested adults participated in filling out the questionnaire. The results were tabulated, and the data interpreted. Definite trends indicated that certain subject matter was deemed essential to the course of study.
Because of these trends, the next step in the procedure was to formulate units for the classroom teachers. These units include objectives, source materials, references, and recommendations for field trips, as guides and aids to the teacher. The present courses of study in U.S. History (for grades seven and eleven) as well as those in Economics, Sociology, Commercial Law, and Government, were studied in order to inter-relate the units on Washington, D.C. to these already established courses.

The final step in the project consisted of a summary of the results obtained, with recommendations for the integration of the units on local history and problems into the established courses of study, and with further recommendations for continued research for an ever-changing curriculum.

**Delimitations**

This project does not attempt to make suggestions for the improvement of the entire Washington, D.C. secondary school social studies curriculum except where the study of local history and community problems may be interrelated. Because problems are endless, and are created anew almost daily, this project limits itself to only a few pertinent problems. Again, because of the time available to students for the study of such, this project limits itself in the number of problems. Undoubtedly the reader may have in mind several other units which could be employed successfully in the courses of study. This project suggests only a few problems and units, with full realization that there are many others which may be more purposeful, more functional, and more interesting to the pupil.

In utilizing the co-operative technique, this project attempted to contact many individuals, using a comparatively selected group rather than random respondents. Limitations of time and human energy have prevented
a wider sampling, one which would have included every interested person in the Washington, D.C. area.

Again, time did not permit the full use of the co-operative technique in the preparation of units for the social studies curriculum. A committee of teachers assisted and made suggestions as to the development of one resource unit, to illustrate how further units may be developed.

Organization of the Project

The reader may wonder why increasing emphasis has been placed upon the study of the local community. Chapter II of this paper summarizes the philosophy in regard to teaching local problems, taken from the writings of leaders of education specializing in the teaching of social studies. Just who should formulate new units, who should participate in changing the curriculum and how these changes should be made, make up Chapter III. Because modern education encourages the theory of co-operative planning in curriculum making, this project contacted many individuals by way of a questionnaire. The questionnaire, the tabulation of viewpoints, and an interpretation of the data, constitute Chapter IV. In the interpretation of the data, indications for specific units on local history and problems were evident. Chapter V consists of the development of one resource unit, for use of the classroom teacher. This resource unit includes objectives, possible activities, analysis of the subject matter, suggestions for evaluation and bibliography available. The final chapter, Chapter VI, summarizes the entire paper, as for procedure and material, with recommendations for further study.
CHAPTER II

VIEWPOINTS ON THE NEED FOR TEACHING LOCAL HISTORY AND COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

Research indicates a wealth of printed material urging the need for teaching local history and community problems. As a preliminary step in this project, literature was surveyed for the findings of research and viewpoints of thinkers on the teaching of local history and community problems. The survey provided encouragement for continuation of the project since the material indicated strong sentiment for including in our curriculum the teaching of local history and community problems.

Viewpoints on the Need

Educators have criticized for many years the methodology and scope of the history curriculum. Johnson reports that Solzmann, a minister called to Dessau, established his own school in 1784. Solzmann wrote, "History, as it is ordinarily taught, lifts the pupil out of the society of living and places him in the society of the dead." (26, p.40) Johnson is in hearty agreement. He writes:

The pupil learns what happened a thousand years ago without learning what is happening now. He is taught to admire the wonders of Athens, Rome, and Sparta, their wars, their buildings, their art... without knowing what assemblies, mayors, and the like really are. He is taught to prattle about consuls, tribunes and dictators. He is taken to visit in imagination the Forum and the Aeropagus, without ever seeing with his eyes the inside of his own city hall. Solzmann's remedy was the community approach to history. (26, p.90)

The soundness of using the pupil's immediate environment in the study of history is beyond dispute. This environment determines most of his experience, and experience is the key to any understanding of history. In an important sense, every course in history should, therefore, begin in the community and end in the community. There should be a constant passing, not only from the near to the remote, but also from the remote to the near. The principle is fundamental. (26, p.90)
However history may be conceived, and whatever may be the aims set up for historical instruction, the fundamental condition of making history effective in the classroom is to invest the past with an air of reality. The most effective appeal to the sense of reality is, of course, through reality itself. Every community offers at least the community itself, a local geographic environment, local remains, and local customs. Everywhere materials are provided for making the local past real. All ground associated with human life is in a true sense historic ground. All products of human art or industry are historic products. All human customs are historic customs. Any local past properly realized not only contributes in a general way to a feeling of reality in dealing with the larger past, but supplies specific elements for reconstructing the larger past. This is not the only reason why teachers and pupils in any community should know the past and present of the community, but it is a sufficient reason. In every community there should be, not merely such casual use of the local past and present as may happen to occur to the teacher, but a systematic search of local resources for points from which the pupil may begin his journey to the past and to which he may return. The result should be an added sense of the reality both of the past and of the present. (26, pp. 163-4)

Wilson makes a strong plea for the teaching of community problems.

A possible element in the competence of citizens is information about the communities in which they live. Most of the activities of most human beings center in the individual communities in which they secure their schooling, find their vocation, and pursue their recreational and cultural interests. Community welfare itself, and to a certain extent individual welfare within the community, is safeguarded by widely disseminated information about the characteristics, resources, problems, and trends of life within that community. Large numbers of Americans live in communities other than those in which they were educated, but it may be that this very footloose characteristic of American life should be balanced by giving pupils, while yet in school, deeper roots in their present localities. (30, pp. 41-2)

Judd agrees with Johnson and Wilson, when he states: "Infinitely more will be accomplished for the development of an intelligent social attitude on the part of pupils if teachers of social science will devote themselves to the interpretation of the environment instead of limiting their instruction to formal abstractions about federal and state government." (44, p. 16) He also concludes that the school must relate itself in signifi-
cant ways to the life which surrounds it, and that the teacher needs to become sensitive to the outstanding factors that give this life its own peculiar character.

Hullfish acquiesces with the thought that the teaching of local history is important. He observes that "it is commonplace to say that education must start with the present..... It ought to mean.... that the teacher of the social studies may make an important contribution to the educative process in helping the student get his bearings in the immediate community in which he is normally participating as a member." (25, p.23) He also indicates that the pupil should study the occupations of the community, how occupations are related to education, the status of recreation, government, home-making, etc., contributions of the community to other regions, and the dependence of the community to other regions. The community should be surveyed in an effort to discover the points of study that will lead to an understanding of and participation in community life, based upon an intelligent understanding.

The Report of the Commission on the Social Studies recommends that the program of social science instruction should be articulated as much as possible with the life, activities and institutions of the surrounding community. Instruction in the social sciences should begin in the elementary school with the study of local life and institutions of the surrounding community. "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." (13, p.65)

Wesley, in urging the teaching of local history and community problems, is critical of present teaching. He feels that too many teachers
operate as if their school were in a typical, not a particular city. (76, p. 70) He also claims that teachers do not modify, adjust and localize instruction, that teachers ignore the wealth of local resources in the way of industry, art, geography, government and history. According to him field trips or visits are desirable, but not essential to such study. He claims that if local resources were inventoried carefully, the resulting curriculum will be adjusted far more likely to the city, the county, or the district for which it is intended. The study of remote places or of past narratives have meaning to the pupil as he recognizes them as similar to his own experience. The teacher must point out similarities and differences of events, customs and habits. Wesley states:

The pupil who fails to identify the local counterpart of what he studies in a book is failing to utilize the most promising materials. In fact, his learning is not complete or functional until he is able to complete the cycle by realizing that the local instance is the reality that he has studied in the textbook. The local community thus furnishes the standard of achievement as well as the laboratory of materials. (76, pp. 413-4)

Pupils must utilize the available resources of the local community to make the life of other times and places seem closer to the pupils interests and experiences. Horn (24, pp. 130-1) suggests that a study of the fundamental needs of the community shows a dependence upon other peoples. He asserts that the past as well as the present impinges upon the community in many ways, such as evidenced in the tastes, customs and ideas of the community.

Stormzand and Lewis (70, p. 209) stress the need for teaching community problems. They feel that such teaching is of great importance. According to them one of the objectives of the social studies is to promote amongst the pupils the attitude of active participation in community affairs. The pupil should develop the conscious desire to take the initiative in promoting enterprises for the group. Quillen (59, p. 10) recog-
nizes recent trends in curriculum modification. Among the most promising of these trends has been the effort to unite the work of the school with the activities of the community. He states that three aims of social studies should consist of:

1. Participation in community activities to be directed towards developing an understanding of our evolving culture. "The community offers the raw materials for an understanding of our total culture." (59,p.10) A knowledge of community activities may be the bases for understanding American culture and world cultures.

2. Development of a wholesome framework of values. Pupils should understand what is and what ought to be.

3. Gaining of social competence necessary to participate effectively in community life.

Petersen waxes enthusiastic concerning the values of local history. "The use of local history as a point of departure for the study of various phases of American history has been too little appreciated by teachers of the social studies..... The writer is of the firm opinion that the history of any one of the forty-eight states affords an excellent opportunity for humanizing and interpreting the national scene." (57,p.101)

McCollum (51,pp.391-4) claims that a study of local history is needed not only to preserve the local historical data which otherwise might become lost, but also that such study contributes to the activity of the school. A study of local history should prove valuable in the following ways:

1. It would stimulate interest in history.

2. It leads to a study of present-day problems.

3. It trains pupils in the use and significance of source material in history.

McCollum argues as follows:
As the student of biology develops scientific mindedness by collecting, analyzing, and classifying specimens gathered from nearby fields, and of which he has empirical knowledge already; so the student of history, in collecting and evaluating the data that he collects or that others before him have contributed to the historical museum, gets the same type of training that the student of science gets in the laboratory. He develops that rare, but precious quality, historical mindedness. (51, p. 394)

The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association sees hopeful signs that teachers are using community resources, (67, pp. 2-92) that they are pushing beyond the classroom walls. The Department notes that pupils do not merely read, they actually observe social processes at first hand, and participate in these. However, the Department points out that there are neglected areas in the social studies. Examples of these neglected areas are "direct analysis of pupil's own social and institutional life; regional surveys and community planning; the study of the social structure of the community planning; the study of the social structure of the community." (67, p. 93)

Some teachers have tried to keep education close to concrete and real things. Comenius used texts illustrated with pictures; Rousseau preached a return to nature; while Froebel emphasized games and gifts for kindergarten children.

Tryon made a scholarly investigation of the need for teaching local history and community problems. He pointed out that there is much sentiment in favor of such teaching. He suggests five reasons for teaching local and state history, as follows:

1. State history serves as a basis for the development of an intelligent and elevating state pride.
2. State history puts the pupil in touch with local political, social, and industrial developments and furnishes him the background knowledge necessary for interpreting them.
3. State history furnishes the pupil with concrete illustrative material which aids him in securing an adequate understanding of national history.
4. State history supplies the opportunity for the pupil to come face to face with historical material, thus creating
in him a feeling of historical reality and giving him training in handling historical sources.

5. State history supplies the teacher with many opportunities to make his teaching conform to the modern educational principles of proceeding from the concrete to the abstract and from the known to the unknown. (74, p.139)

Tryon recognizes that there are arguments against the teaching of local history. He summarizes these arguments very briefly.

1. People think in terms of areas, not of states.
2. The economic life of a state is determined by physical features, not by state boundaries.
3. A mobile population makes teaching of state history impractical.
4. Such study violates the teaching principle of moving from the whole to the parts.
5. There is no need for such teaching of local history. The teacher needs merely to emphasize the state's part in current events.

According to Tryon there is no objective evidence to support either side. The arguments favoring teaching local history balance the arguments against such teaching. He suggests that where local history is taught, it should be based on fact and not on fiction. Pride of the individual in his local community should be encouraged. "To foster pride in one's local community and state is a very worthy end of instruction in state history, for one who is proud of his community is likely to be active in making it a better place to live, and one who is proud of his state is likely to be a better citizen because of his pride." (74, pp.140-1)

Viewpoints on Curriculum Organization

Recognizing that the teaching of local history and community problems is gaining popularity in the Washington, D. C. public schools, discussion arises as to where to fit such teaching in the curriculum. Quillen (60, p.122) recommends a course for grade 7 to be entitled "Social Relations
and Problems in Community and State." He feels it wise to begin with
the direct experiences of youth in the family, in the school, and in
the community. Such a course would be excellent as a basis for group
and individual guidance. Wilson (31,p.172) recommends a course for
grade 9 to be entitled "American Community Today." Such a course would
include a study of local population, the economic life of the community,
recreation and educational opportunities, local government, and the re-
lation of the community to the nation. Krey warns that the listing of
courses is not as important as the teacher. "The best curriculum, there-
fore, would seem to be one which offers the greatest opportunity to link
the lessons of human experience with the actual operation of society."
(46,p.74)

In a survey conducted in 1936, Tryon found that thirty-five states
required teaching of local history in the elementary school. He states:

While it is a fact that courses in state history have occasion-
ally been taught in a few high schools in different parts of
the country for at least fifty years, the subject has never
been seriously considered by those in charge of the school
curriculum. ....The two outstanding facts concerning the teaching
of state history in the high school at the present time are (1) the small amount of consideration being given to it,
and (2) the absence of any signs in the horizon of the present
curriculum revision movement that the subject will receive in-
creased attention in the near future. (74,p.136)

State history as an independent subject has never made much head-
way in United States high schools. Instead, much attention has been placed
upon stressing local facts and conditions in connection with the course
in U. S. History. Some schools have included a unit based upon local and
state history, this unit being added to the regular course in U. S. History.
Since 1907, civics courses have had material of a historical nature. "It
is not difficult for one to believe that local and state history when taught
in connection with American history and community civics is more vital and
realistic than when taught as an independent subject." (74,pp.136-7)
Hartwig (20) made an objective study, and reached the conclusion that
the integration of state history with U. S. History could be accomplished
successfully.

Tryon feels that there is no future for state history as an inde­
pendent subject in the secondary school. As it is now, the curriculum
is overcrowded. "The success attained in the grades with the present
supply of textbooks in state history does not offer much hope for a highly
successful career for the subject in the high school, should it be gen­
ernally introduced.** (74,p.137) He argues that high schools have a paucity
of material for local history and that few state histories could be used
as textbooks. Furthermore, he claims that teachers are not trained to
teach local history. It is also difficult to keep local history as part
of the greater story, national history. "When state history is taught
independent of the national story, much of its value is lost." (74,p.138)

The procedure according to Tryon seems to be to abandon separate
state history courses. Instead, proper units on local affairs should be
selected and inserted in the courses in American history that are now
generally taught in the junior and senior high school. Local history will
therefore be presented in connection with the nation's story. Tryon
asserts: "There is not known to the writer a single course in American
history in any junior or senior high school in this country which deliber­
ately and systematically meets the requirements of a course which at all
times maintains the proper connection between the history of the com­
munity and the national story." (74,p.143) This fact should not deter
interested parties in changing the curriculum.

For such a change in the curriculum Tryon advocates two large
undertakings:
1. Select and organize for teaching purposes, units of instruction in American history for both junior and senior high schools.

2. Prepare and publish material to be placed in the hands of the pupil. The material would be source type and secondary type.

Tryon emphasizes the need for organizing material into units of instruction which would dovetail readily into the general units of the course. The State History Societies might join with the State Department of Education, to complete these two undertakings. The History Societies might carry on the latter undertaking, while the Department of Education might specialize in the preparation of the teaching units.

This project recognizes that the social studies curriculum is well established in the D. C. Public Schools. The likelihood of creating a separate course in local history and community problems seems remote. Nor is there sufficient evidence in research to indicate that such a separate course is desirable. Instead, provision is made to present units on local history and community problems in several of the already established courses of study. This project, therefore, suggests that such learning be organized into units, to be integrated with the courses now offered. This project has prepared one resource unit to illustrate how such units may be further developed.

Summary

From the research undertaken in this project, evidence points strongly to the need for teaching local history and community problems. The conclusion reached by the writer of this project is that such teaching is definitely worthwhile. The public secondary schools of Washington, D. C. should continue to develop interest in such teaching.

Some of the objectives of such teaching may be stated as follows:
1. The pupil, in studying his environment, learns to understand history.

2. The past becomes real to the pupil when he observes the influences of the past as evinced in his own environment.

3. In understanding his community the pupil is enabled to become a more competent citizen.

4. The pupil and the school are parts of the community. The study of the community makes social studies more interesting.

5. The pupil develops an interest in present-day community problems.

6. The pupil receives training in handling historical sources.

Specific outcomes may be stated as follows:

1. The pupil participates actively in improvement of the community.

2. The pupil understands American culture as practised in his community.

3. The pupil develops a wholesome framework of values.

4. The pupil gains social competence to participate in community affairs.

5. The pupil develops a pride in his community.

In organizing material on local subjects to be included in the course of study, research indicates the prevailing procedure consists of creating either a separate course on local history, or in developing separate problem units to be integrated in present courses of study. This project adheres to the latter viewpoint, as the one which has met with approval by the majority of our leaders in the teaching of social studies. Such units would fit in well by allowing themselves to be dovetailed in the present social studies curriculum of Washington, D. C.
CHAPTER III

VIEWPOINTS ON CURRICULUM REVISION

Curriculum revision has become the fashion in our schools, so much so that a tremendous and bewildering amount of literature on the subject has been produced. Some educators prefer to keep the curriculum stable, with comparatively few changes. Bagley (2, p. 26) urged that schools should remain stable in an unstable society, that any changes should be made slowly. Others claim that the educational program must be based upon, and grow out of, a critical analysis of contemporary life. American civilization, to be vital, must be wrought out of the material of current life. The Report of the Commission on the Social Studies (13) favors this viewpoint, recommending perpetual adjustment and readjustment of the school to new conditions. Norton and Norton (55, p. 36) state that Dewey and Rugg urge that schools teach for a new social order. Thus, we have divergent, conflicting viewpoints.

The purpose of this chapter is to survey literature to determine who is responsible for curriculum revision: the role of teachers, pupils, trained experts, interested adults, state and federal agencies, etc. in such revision. This chapter also surveys the procedures used in curriculum making and the suggestions for organizing and administering a program of curriculum revision.

Definitions

Oftentimes confusion has originated in terminology. For the purpose of this project the following definitions will be used: "the curriculum consists of all the activities and the experiences which result in the school from a carefully organized plan that is conceived as desirable
for the continuous development and enrichment of the individual and for the good of the society of which he is a part .... A course of study is a written manual or guide which has been prepared to assist teachers to direct satisfactorily the development of the curriculum." (69,p.332)

Procedure in Determining Objectives

In revising the curriculum the formulation and integration of objectives must be basic. It is not the purpose of this project to determine a list of objectives for any school system. Rather, each school should formulate its own objectives. Where a school prefers to use lists of objectives already prepared, the school will find many available. Thus, Harap (19,p.19) recalls that Spenser would have education prepare the child for the major activities of life, as follows: self-preservation, activities indirectly leading to self-preservation (economic), activities in preparation for the rearing and disciplining of offspring (parenthood), and activities leading to enjoyment of leisure time. Bobbitt (6,pp.7-13) suggests that the curriculum be based on the activities in which man participates, such as language, health, citizenship, general social living, leisure, keeping mentally fit, religion, parental, non-vocational, and labor. Harap (19,p.19) states Snedden's list includes activities in language, health, culture, morals, civic worth, religion, vocations, and family. Swindler (73,p.164) in discussing the objectives of the social studies, prepares a list applicable to the entire curriculum. His list recommends education in basic facts, fundamental principles, practical abilities, proper ideals, correct attitudes, sympathetic appreciation, critical judgment, efficient co-operation, reasoned self-confidence, and socially directed will and desire. Harap (19,p.21) recounts that Counts and
Chapman formulate as their objectives education in the care of the body, rearing children, recreation, religion, economic pursuits and organizing for civic action. Michener (53, p.1) feels that most curriculum makers will accept the objectives as formulated by the Educational Policies Commission (58, p.47). These objectives consist of self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency and civic responsibility. This project accepts the objectives as stated by the Educational Policies Commission.

As herein listed, educational objectives are often vague and possibly unattainable. Wesley (76, p.73) sets up four criteria for an educational objective, and warns that all four must be met if the objective be incorporated into the philosophy of the school. The objective must be approved by society, is achievable through instruction, is within the capacity of the school population, and is actually accepted and undertaken by the school. Based upon these criteria, the school setting up its own objectives has an advantage over the school which accepts an outsider's list of objectives, a list which often is either misunderstood or neglected.

In the light of the above comments, the procedure a community can follow in setting up its objectives might be to accept a list of objectives as formulated by one or more of our frontier thinkers, or to set up its own set of objectives. The latter seems preferable, inasmuch as such a procedure would promote the acceptance of such objectives.

Responsibility for Curriculum Making

The question as to who shall make the curriculum is still a controversial one. The issue must be related to the nature of the subject matter. Thus, if the purpose of education is to pass on the intellectual heritage, we would eliminate parents, pupils and most teachers as being unqualified to help make the curriculum. Instead, we would turn to experts
in subject matter. If it makes little difference as to what the pupil studies, there is no need for organization and sequence. Pupils alone would build the curriculum. If we say learning is a matter of direct interaction between environment and the individual organism, the teacher facilitates the learning by teaching methods he uses, and by the selection of subject matter. The teacher would decide the final selection of appropriate subject matter. However, the teacher would make use of the interests and suggestions of pupils as well as be alert to the needs of the community.

Present Status of Pre-Planning Curriculum Material. The earliest curricula were pre-planned very definitely. At the other extreme, no pre-planning was done at all, until the teacher faced the class. At the present time, the usual practice of pre-planning consists of one or more of the following procedures:

1. Lessons, assignments or units can be laid out carefully and handed to the pupils. These lessons may faithfully follow the course of study, or a textbook, or curriculum units. They are orderly, definite, and final, and are prevalent in our secondary schools.

2. Source units, organized ideas on certain social or personal problems, are prepared by teachers for teachers, and serve as potential subject matter.

3. Weekly conferences of teachers, where ideas may be exchanged.

4. Education of the teacher, where the teacher is encouraged to develop his teaching capacities to the optimum (48, pp. 130-5)

Thus, in Washington, D.C. public schools, the present status of pre-planning curriculum material consists of at least three of these practices. The practice of weekly conferences of teachers for exchange of ideas
is not customary procedure in the secondary schools. Source units for the benefit of teachers exist, but in limited number. The education of the teacher is definitely encouraged, with an extensive in-service training program. Pre-planning, consisting of units, is popular with many of the teachers.

**Obstacles to Curriculum Change.** Any systematic reconstruction of the curriculum will meet with obstacles, the most serious one being that of vested interests. Vested interests include the teachers who resent interference with the courses which they teach. The traditional content in existing textbooks and courses of study, the conservation of teacher-training institutions, the influence of the entrance requirements of various colleges, the financial cost of the ideal curriculum, the character of existing buildings and equipment, and limitations of our present knowledge of the curriculum, create obstacles to a real revision of the curriculum. (65,p.430) Counts says:

> If the high-school curriculum is ever to be revised in the pure light of educational need, one of two things must happen. Either the major problems of the curriculum will have to be solved by a group of persons specially trained for the task or the high-school teacher will have to undergo a process of professional enlightenment commensurate with the scope of the responsibilities which he bears. At present, neither of these two conditions is fulfilled. Consequently efforts at the reconstruction of the high-school curriculum takes the form of partisan conflict and educational policy is determined by a balance of power among the vested interests. (14,p.157)

Such obstacles may be overcome, however. According to Caswell:

For a considerable time the procedure of curriculum change seemed like a pretty simple matter — organize committees, prepare courses of study, have them adopted officially, and install them. Now we see that improving the curriculum is a complex process. The forces of inertia and vested interests meet. Trained leadership and administrative support are necessary. Lay participation, especially in broad aspects of planning, is required. Central to the whole process is the participation of classroom teachers. As teachers and pupils work together the real curriculum emerges. (8,p.505)
While there is much difficulty in changing curriculum due to the resistance of invested interests, inertia, and lack of professionally enlightened teachers, the resistance can be overcome. The active participation of teachers, pupils, laymen and trained leaders, and with support of administrators, the curriculum can be revised. This project has enlisted the aid of pupils, teachers and laymen to make such curriculum revision, and has had the support of the administrators involved.

Co-operation Needed in Curriculum Revision. To make a real reconstruction in the curriculum, many groups will be required to participate. Teachers, administrators, parents, children, laymen, psychologist, sociologist, philosopher, curriculum specialist, and organized groups must work co-operatively to achieve this reconstruction. (17,45,56) Spaulding and Kvaraceus say:

Persons who should construct a curriculum are those who are affected by it, who use it, or who can observe the results of its use. In most instances those who are affected most by a curriculum are the pupils in the school, those who use it are the teachers in a school, and those who can observe the results of its use are teachers, principals and supervisors, and other adults in the community. We should endeavor, then, to include in any group some representation from each part of the population — students, teachers and laymen. (68,pp.71-2)

Subject matter specialists alone, or specialists in education alone, are not likely to be especially fitted for making elementary and secondary school courses of study. These specialists find it difficult to put aside their prejudices. Instead, as Schutte has stated:

The needs and welfare of the individual and society, the abilities and achievements of learners in various stages of training, the practicability of the materials offered in the curriculum, the availability of materials, the time at the disposal of the learner and the teacher, the administrative possibilities and difficulties involved, the training
and efficiency of the teacher, and, also, the prevailing climate of public opinion must be taken into consideration. For this work, specialization and wide knowledge in both the academic field of learning and in professional training are imperative. Obviously, curriculum construction, to be adequately done, must be a co-operative undertaking. (66,p.258)

This project accepts the viewpoint that curriculum revision requires the co-operative efforts of many persons, rather than the efforts of a few specialists. The aid of pupils, teachers and adults is enlisted in order to make the curriculum functional to the persons involved directly by the curriculum.

The Role of the Teacher in Revising Curriculum. To some educators, the teacher plays a vital role in revising the curriculum, while to other writers, the teacher's role should be a minor one. This paper has already summarized Leonard's opinion as to the great importance of the teacher in pre-planning curriculum material. A large proportion of curriculum work should be done with staffs of individual schools planning and developing as groups curricula of the individual schools. Curriculum revision should emerge from "grass root" activity. The ideal situation consists of working from the bottom up (8,p.505) to unify the educational program. Watkins (75,p.355) feels that teacher participation in revision of the curriculum is so important in re-education of the teacher that "an excellent school system would not retain a teacher incapable of participating in the curriculum-making procedures of the school." Spears (69,p.321) and Alberty (1,p.440) emphasize the in-service training that results with teacher participation in curriculum revision. "But even more important is the fact that the participation of all in a common enterprise is the best way of underwriting the success of the venture." (1,p.440)

Teachers should initiate the plans for the works of their departments. Teachers should take the lead in curriculum revision but must be
sensitive to the wishes of patrons and other unofficial groups.

(76,p.63) If the existing program is to be enriched by a few additional projects, topics, or activities, no very formal machinery will be necessary. "In fact, every alert teacher feels that he has not only the right to make such changes, but that good teaching requires such modifications." (76,p.63)

The whole idea of teacher participation has been overemphasized, according to Bagley (3,p.144). He claims that the study of the curriculum by committees of teachers has become an educational fashion, based on the silly idea that each community should make a curriculum of its own. He favors instead the work of a curriculum expert to make necessary revisions. Whipple agrees with Bagley by stating:

Too much of present day curriculum making is amateurish, trifling and a sheer waste of time —nay, worse than that, an injection of pernicious confusion in what should be orderly progress. The let-everybody-pitch-in-and-help method is ludicrous when applied to curriculum-building. It is too much like inviting a group of practical electricians to redesign a modern power plant. (78,p.368)

To the contrary, says Bauernfeind. Teacher participation has turned attention to old materials and old methods, formerly used without questioning. "Rather than wrecking the machine, the teachers, in the process of curriculum making, are able to become acquainted with the mechanism which they are called upon to operate, to keep in repair and to improve." (4,p.712) Caswell and Campbell (9,p.75) attempt to settle the dispute by reverting to the definitions for curriculum and course of study. If the curriculum is held to be composed of experiences children have under the guidance of teachers, then teachers must have a part in curriculum development. Teachers make the curriculum take form, and thus engage in curriculum development regardless of formal recognition given in the process. Most people, including Bagley and Whipple, seem to define curriculum and course of study as
synonymous. Specialized personnel, either individuals or committees, should prepare the writing of courses of study. Curriculum making is the larger area, and involves the participation of specialist, administrator, supervisor, and teacher working co-operatively. Stratemeyer, Borkner and McKim state:

The teacher has a major responsibility in the curriculum designing process. He is the one who, with the help of parents and others acquainted with the children, bring the greatest insight into the ramifications of the situations faced by the learners. It is his awareness of persistent life situations as they appear in the lives of his pupils that determines how rich their experiences will be. It becomes his function to help learners to see the implications of their problem and to explore its ramifications, to relate past experience to present, and to test present decisions in the light of their consequences for individuals and groups. It is also his function to be sensitive to persistent life situations in which learners have developed little understanding or competence, and to identify in their daily living concerns which, under proper guidance, make a contribution to needed growth. It further becomes his responsibility to provide a stimulating environment which, through creating new interests and concerns that have genuine meaning for the given group, will enrich the daily living of the learners. (72,p.76)

If teacher participation is to be intelligent participation, provision should be made for the stimulation and guidance of the professional study of teachers, for classroom exploration and experimentation, for illustrative instructional materials, and for discussion of curriculum problems. The entire teacher group would know about the program of curriculum change from the early stages on, would know why the program was being projected, would know the purposes of the program and the means for accomplishing the purposes. Otherwise, the new course of study when completed would be used by only a few teachers. Where the school system has used the entire teaching staff to write up the course of study, the staff does not produce a course of exceptionally high quality. The better procedure would be to use all the teachers in curriculum development, with a few specialists for writing the course of study. "Classroom teachers
should be quite as concerned with provisions made for working on the curriculum in a school as are the administrators and supervisors. They should accept it as part of the job of being a teacher to contribute actively to planning as well as to carrying out procedures of curriculum change which result in educational improvement." (8, p. 505)

Evidence seems heavily in favor of welcoming teacher participation in curriculum making. The teacher interprets the curriculum in his everyday classroom situation. The teacher is sensitive to the needs of the child and the community. The alert teacher will modify the curriculum to meet individual needs and local situations. The teacher must assist in curriculum making if that curriculum is to be accepted and put into use by the teacher. This project accepts the role of the teacher to be vital in any curriculum revision.

Role of State Department of Education in Revising the Curriculum. State departments of education may direct a program of curriculum revision in the state. An increasing number of state departments of education are fostering or sponsoring complete curriculum revision for the state. Such revision of the social studies curriculum was accomplished in Virginia, Mississippi, Georgia and Arkansas, among others.

The state department of education may accomplish excellent results if it employs well-trained consultants and directors for curriculum revision. In such a program the state department promotes in-service training of teachers, helps acquaint teachers with what is done in other communities, arouses teachers to action on school problems, and makes teachers conscious of educational problems.

Sometimes, the state department of education may be of little help in conducting curriculum revision. Too often the state superintendents
who are politically elected or political appointees, are not educational statesmen. Some of them surround themselves with subordinates inadequately trained and lacking in professional integrity and zeal. (66, pp. 259-60)

From the literature available on the role of the state department of education in curriculum revision, it seems that the state department can be valuable in providing guidance and stimulation to teachers in revising the curriculum. The revision itself, however, must be done by local agents, such as teachers and interested laymen, rather than by the state department itself.

Role of U. S. Office of Education in Curriculum Revision. The United States Office of Education provides an excellent means for research in curriculum and for disseminating information. However, such a bureau would not exercise complete control. Such control would be unconstitutional, as well as unwise in a situation where the forty-eight states have different curricula needs.

The U. S. Office of Education, therefore, can provide material on the results of research in curriculum revision. The excellent library facilities can be used to great advantage by the persons making any such revision. The several experts in the office can provide valuable guidance and stimulation to the revisionist. The writer of this project made use of the library facilities, and is grateful for the excellent advice of one of the experts, in conducting his research.

Role of Administrative Officers in Curriculum Revisions. The day is past when the superintendent alone can draw up the curriculum. "Current developments indicate that the day will soon be past when the professional organization as a whole can sit down in total isolation from those from whom they receive their commission and formulate a curriculum.
without consulting those for whom they are agents." (6, p. 234) The superintendent assumes the responsibility or delegates this authority to a member of his staff in making curriculum revision. The superintendent must submit the plans and policies of the curriculum program to the Board of Education for authorization and approval.

The principal, the administrative officer having most direct contact with the teacher, has great influence in a program of curriculum revision. He should himself have a general appreciation of the background of present secondary school program. He must not confuse the efficiency of the school operation with satisfactory instructional program. Rather than limit himself to organizing his teachers for curriculum revision he should assume the position of a serious student of the task, and thus win the confidence of his teachers. Curriculum aids for curriculum organization can be made available by the principal. Above all, he should appreciate that school and society are inseparable, that the curriculum is effective only insofar as it understands the social and economic forces at work in the community. (69, pp. 346–7)

Administrators can set up the physical conditions for curriculum revision. They themselves be alert to the need for such revision, can offer encouragement and advice to those engaged in curriculum revision, and can stimulate interest. School administrators, however, cannot set up the curriculum themselves and expect to secure the co-operation of those who administer the curriculum - the teacher.

Administrators can do a great deal to encourage revision of the curriculum. By stimulating teachers, by allowing teachers time for such revision, by providing the physical conditions of office space, use of office machinery, etc., by giving advice to the teachers, the administrators can be of great service. But with curriculum
revision needing to reach the "grass roots," the teacher must play a vital role in the process of revision, must do more than the administrator. In conducting the research of this project, the writer secured the co-operation and advice of school administrators in obtaining courses of study, formulating a satisfactory questionnaire, distributing the questionnaire amongst several high schools, and organizing a committee of teachers to assist in the resource unit. But the teachers played the more prominent part in filling in the questionnaire and in making definite suggestions.

The Role of Experts in Curriculum Revision. Subject matter specialists, brought into the school system to help revise the curriculum, oftentimes offer little help in such revision. These subject matter specialists frequently do not understand learners, or the laws of learning. They become engrossed in subject matter, to the great neglect of individual and social needs. (66,p.252) If colleges had plenty of time and energy, money, and personnel of high caliber, they might be valuable in making revision. In general the college professor has had too little professional training, thus limiting his value. National committees concerned with curriculum have too often resorted to subjective theorizing. Some schools of education have made very valuable suggestions to curricula. (66,p.262)

Technical advice, usually from the outside, provides the advantage of securing an individual able to see the broad overview of the whole program, without having any entangling alliance with the existing program. (65,p.442) However, the curriculum expert has placed emphasis upon administrative arrangements and committee procedures, while knowing little about content. (76,p.65) For curriculum revision in the social studies, the Commission of Social Studies recommends (13,p.49) that
teachers who are both social scientists and educators should assume the leadership, thus coordinating the work of the social scientist and the educator.

Some few school systems employ a director of curriculum. Most often the superintendent, assistant superintendent, principal, assistant or deputy superintendent may act as the director of curriculum. While his duties are multiple and varied, as described later in this project, the director does not make the curriculum.

Frontier thinkers are related to curriculum development inasmuch as they assist in the development of the philosophy on curriculum. These thinkers stimulate the thinking of their readers, and encourage the acceptance of a broad view.

The development of the curriculum cannot be left entirely to the expert. "Curriculum development is a cooperative enterprise. Teacher, research worker, subject matter specialist, psychiatrist, sociologist, philosopher, educator, administrator and supervisor must all make contributions .... A common purpose binds the varied group of workers together." (9, pp. 30-1)

Thus, evidence seems to suggest the use of many persons in curriculum revision. The subject matter specialist often does not understand learners; the usual college professor has had too little professional training; national committees too often resort to subjective theorizing; and curriculum experts emphasize organization and administration of curriculum revision without knowing much about content. This project accepts the plan of the co-operative technique, securing the opinions of many persons. Two hundred teachers, including forty teachers of social studies, participated in filling out the questionnaire which is part of this research. The advice and guidance of university professors of education and of an expert
in the U. S. Office of Education proved extremely valuable. School administrators also participated. Thus, the advice and co-operation of many seemed desirable.

The Role of Laymen in Curriculum Revision. Lay groups should participate actively and extensively in curriculum revision. "Any program of curriculum revision must take into consideration.... patrons, business organizations and all other individuals who, or organizations which, are vitally concerned with and affected by it, and must seek to inform and prepare them for any proposed change in program." (66, p.263)

To quote Bobbitt:

We have said that those who are nearest the educational procedures should have a voice in initiating the plans for those procedures. As education becomes more and more the process of developing personal qualities and abilities in human beings, as it becomes a process of helping children in all of their experiences to grow up in the right way, the educational responsibilities of parents become more and more evident. They have much to do with guiding the detailed experiences out of which child development emerges. It appears therefore.... we must more and more provide for co-operative planning on the part of the parents. In spite of their obvious unpreparedness, there are certain things which they can do even at present..... The over-domination of the theory of specialization, which has resulted in the isolation of the schools from the community life, has created the belief and the attitude on the part of both lay and professional that the layman bears no responsibility for planning the procedures of education, and conversely that all responsibility for the development of the children is turned over to the professional organization. Both the conceptions and the practices are mischievous in their results. (6, pp.282-3)

As long as an important function of society is to educate its members, the participation of laymen is implied in the reorganization of the curriculum. While professional education will develop the technical aspects of the curriculum, a definite place must be made for the layman. Such participation goes beyond the publicity angle, or beyond the forestalling of possible opposition to curriculum revision. "The necessity of bringing lay groups to a full appreciation of the purposes and scope of
the school program has been widely recommended by educational leaders
..... It is a means of securing from the layman constructive suggestions
for improving the work of the schools." (9,p.474)

Where the public participates actively in curriculum development and revision, such participation gives the public a sense of proprietorship in the school, prevents the school from becoming overspecialized, and compels the school executive to lead the community rather than to drive it by autocratic methods. (22,pp.297-3)
The laymen may approve the general aim of education for the community, suggest subjects that need revision, suggest new subjects to be added and add ones to be dropped, suggest content to be dropped from present subjects or new content to be added, suggest improved methods of instruction, pass upon the success of individual courses after they have been installed, and pass upon the entire educational product which the school system makes from its raw materials. (22,p.316)

Where parents have the facts and are given encouragement to help in curriculum revision, these parents prove enthusiastic and intelligent. School people have often discouraged greater understanding and support on part of parents. When teachers have been criticized, they were inclined to defend the schools, rather than to admit their limitations. Teachers should insist that parents assume equal responsibility for improvement of conditions. (54,p.156)

The staff of the school, with the approval of the board of education, are responsible for determining the curriculum. This fact does not preclude the use of community groups to make suggestions, to assist in gathering data, and to study ways in which the school may effectively utilize the community as a laboratory. "The level and extent of participation will
Laymen should definitely participate in curriculum revision. Their participation helps to end the isolation of the school from community life, to de-emphasize the over-specialization in our subject matter, to encourage equal responsibility with educators for success of curriculum, to promote constructive suggestions for improving the work of the schools, to enlist the enthusiasm of intelligent adults, and to gain the support of the community for the curriculum. This project has utilized the contribution of two hundred interested adult laymen, to choose material to be taught in local history and community problems.

The Role of the Pupils in Curriculum Revision. In revising the curriculum, the assistance of the persons who are most directly involved, the pupils, is often overlooked. Some schools use the child's interest as the focal point in curriculum making. For these schools the first job is to identify the pupil's interests. Other schools say the teacher can arouse interest, can create interest. It is difficult to reach a positive conclusion regarding this controversial question. (82, pp. 6-7)

The curriculum maker must guard against the mere whims of the pupils. Pupil interest should represent bona fide interests. Even then, because of the immaturity of the pupils, their interests need not be the sole approach to revision. It is important to cultivate and direct pupil interests, as well as to foster them. "Indeed, we should not be far wrong if we said that a major function of education is to instill desirable interests in learners." (66, p. 257)

Alberty recognizes the claim that pupils are immature and unable to foresee the distant future. In practice, then, subject matter is often imposed upon them, regardless of interests or felt needs, and without any serious attempt to discover the real problems youths face. "Obviously,
if the school is to become a dynamic force in promoting democracy, it must be transformed into an institution that provides the finest possible illustration of democratic living. The best way to learn the ways of democracy is to live democratically, and administrators, teachers, students, and parents need to discover and practice co-operative planning and working." (1,p.40)

Pupils need to participate and be consulted when curriculum revision is undertaken. The mature pupil, to express his felt needs and wants, should influence the curriculum. Democratic living encourages pupil participation in such revision, as long as the pupil assumes responsibility and shows mature judgement. This project enlisted the help of three hundred eighth semester pupils of the Washington, D. C. public senior high schools in choosing material to be included in the teaching of local history and community problems.

Conclusion Regarding Participation in Curriculum Revision. From the foregoing evidence, it is obvious that curriculum revision is not a one-man job, nor is it the job of a few selected people. Rather, it is and should be a co-operative undertaking, involving the active participation of many people representing different groups.

Philosophers and frontier thinkers stimulate the thinking of their listeners and readers, encouraging them to accept a broad view. Our sociologists and psychologists make their contributions to such revision by observing the results of learning, by utilizing the laws of learning. Our subject matter specialists influence the curriculum as to material which could be emphasized in the high school curricula, but these specialists are often unprepared in professional education, unfamiliar with secondary school youth or their learning. Curriculum experts have their place in guiding, stimulating, organizing and administering a curriculum revision
project, but often lack knowledge of the content material for the different curricula.

On the national level, the U. S. Office of Education provides fine library facilities, disseminates the results of research studies, and offers guidance for curriculum revision. National commissions tend, oftentimes, to subjective theorizing about curriculum, without any objective evidence.

State departments of education, if free of politics, may prove helpful in curriculum revision by providing stimulation to local school faculties, by assisting with suggestions as to organizing and administering the revision program, and by acting as a clearance house for revision programs throughout the state.

The real work of curriculum revision must be done on the local level. Persons in the local community know the local situation better than do outsiders. The curriculum to be interpreted and put into use, must be accepted by the local teachers. Local teachers, administrators, pupils and laymen should be responsible for curriculum revision for the particular community.

School administrators on the local level need to enlist the support of teachers, pupils and adults. The administrator can stimulate the staff and public, can lead them into the actual work of the revision and can provide the physical means and the time needed for teachers to participate in such revision. But the teacher should assume the greater responsibility for the revision.

The teacher is a key figure in curriculum revision. If he is alert, he will recognize that the curriculum must be tempered to the needs of his classes, individual pupils and community. The educated teacher,
with a knowledge of subject matter, teaching techniques and laws of learning, can best represent the school system in the actual process of revising the curriculum. Where the teacher has participated actively in such revision he is likely to have an intelligent understanding of the curriculum, is likely to accept that curriculum as his own work, and is likely to give his support to that curriculum.

Because the pupil is most affected by the curriculum, it seems well to include pupil participation in such revision. Pupils who are mature and aware of their responsibilities can be utilized in making suggestions as to which material should be included in the curriculum. Democratic procedure would encourage such an approach to revision. Pupil participation can result in wider acceptance of the curriculum, as well as in expressing the felt needs and wants of the pupil.

Adult laymen participation in curriculum revision should be welcomed. Adults interested in our schools, observing the results of our educational system, should be asked to assume equal responsibility with educators as to the success of our curriculum. Intelligent adults can make constructive suggestions as to curriculum. Participation by adults usually results in the enthusiastic and intelligent understanding and acceptance of the curriculum.

To revise the curriculum requires the co-operative effort of subject-matter specialists, philosophers, professional educators, research workers, psychologists, sociologists, school administrators and curriculum experts. But the great emphasis on such revision should be placed upon the roles of the teacher, pupil and interested adults. The needs of the community, the materials at hand, the needs of the individual, the time available, the administrative difficulties, would all point to revision to be done on the local level.
Procedures in Curriculum Revision

Because curriculum revision is complex, there has been no one best procedure in revision. This project has surveyed some of the procedures used in the past. The local situation will determine which of these might be used successfully.

**Scissors and Paste.** By the procedure of scissors and paste, the curriculum revisionist examines curricula of other school systems, deletes or extracts the parts of the curricula or courses of study which seem promising, and creates a "new" curriculum or course of study. The revisionist collects course-of-study bulletins from various sources, and may select relevant parts or blocks of subject matter for adaptation to his own situation. Using this procedure one could note the frequency of a unit appearing in the various courses-of-study, and upon the basis that what is good for many is also good enough for his school, the revisionist may accept the unit for his "new" course-of-study.

Some communities still use this imitative method of scissors and paste. (55,p.62) In the studies of Curtis (15), Mann (52), Stratemeyer and Bruner (71), evidence indicates frequent use of this procedure.

Advantages of this procedure revolve around the ease of its use, and the comparative small financial cost. The materials already graded and organized provide for transplanting with a minimum of difficulty. Course of study building is a sifting process, with the new course representing the best material at the time. Eventually, such constant sifting and re-arranging raises school practice everywhere. Comparison of courses of study has a definite place in curriculum building, but such comparison should come near the end of the program of revision. Wesley says, "If the basic courses are widely selected and the adaptation skillfully made, the results will be as satisfactory as many of those obtained by a more
While the procedure of imitation may be the only one for some schools, it is inadequate as the sole method of revision. To a large extent, personal bias determines the "new" course of study. Courses-of-study coming from different parts of the country, representing divergent standpoints, and answering different needs of various communities, do not necessarily prove satisfactory for a new community. Nor is it always wise to follow present practices. The procedure of scissors and paste retains the obsolete, rather than adds something new. It is a method of distributing the good already achieved, rather than augmenting the present possessions of the school. It does not involve a thorough invention, nor a high type of cultural activity.

Analyses of Social Activities. If we could analyze the activities of adults in their group living, then we might set up a curriculum which would train youngsters to assume their places in adult society. "Those who use this approach emphasize immediate social utility in the selection of curriculum content. They are constantly seeking to discover what knowledge and skills are most needed in present day life outside the school, rather than in life as it may be or should be in the future." (56,p.9)

Illustrative of this approach is Horn's study of words. (23) He counted words to discover the words most frequently used in business and social correspondence. Wilson (79) similarly surveyed the community to identify the social and business usage of arithmetic. Bowden's (7) study of arithmetic was based upon an analysis of newspapers, and a study of details of various occupations. Thus, we could "chart human activities in a great variety of ramifications." (66,p.296)

The analyses of social activities procedure has merits. It is an approach to the realities and actualities of life. "Intelligently used,
this approach will keep the curriculum abreast of the times, or at least not very far behind. It provides for the reasonably prompt elimination of obsolete material and its replacement by that which is modern and consistent with the practical needs of current life." (56,p.10)

However, certain disadvantages appear where this is the sole procedure to be used. Identifying all the activities of the human being is in itself an enormous task, consuming a long time. Any revision of a curriculum thus established would become a burdensome task. Consequently, revision would be delayed, with the result that the curriculum would lag behind social changes. Rather than stimulate curiosity, the curriculum would retain the status quo, and would promote mediocrity. The school becomes a follower, not a prophet of social evolution. "In its pure form this type of curriculum construction might act to make the school hasten social degeneration as readily as to contribute to social advance." (56,p.10)

**Shortcomings in Societal Relations.** If we can identify the shortcomings of society, we may establish a curriculum in the school which would educate youth to remedy the shortcomings.

Dulebohn (16) studied the editorials of six magazines and nine newspapers, to analyze civic and social shortcomings as expressed by them. From this material, he classified the shortcomings of a private citizen, various governmental units, certain social groups, and officials. Bagley (2) identified elements of weakness in American education and suggesting substituting elements of strength. Coe (12) listed the weaknesses of youth. Thus, after identification has taken place, we need but train youth to overcome the defects.

The procedure of shortcomings in societal relations has gained some favor. It does have a place in the curriculum building, for it aids in showing where to place emphasis in constructing curriculum. The search for
Weaknesses and failures of our society provides a means for self-evaluation. Social needs must be analyzed constantly. The needs of society and of the individual are, in a sense, identical.

Such procedure has some weaknesses. It may over-emphasize defects, and produce a spirit of defeatism and cynicism in the child. The procedure will not necessarily reveal new material needed in the curriculum. It is expensive financially, for it requires a staff of specialists in various fields of endeavor for research. Highly trained specialists and competent workers would be required. Again, it is impossible to determine objectively all the shortcomings of society, nor to find a remedy for such shortcomings. A deficiency should not be the criterion for selection of new materials in a curriculum. It may well be only that new emphasis is required for the material we now have in our present curriculum. Thus, the procedure of shortcomings in societal relations will not develop a complete course of study.

Problems and Issues of the Social Order. The curriculum revisionist might identify problems and issues still unsolved by society, and base his curriculum around such problems. "This approach seeks to develop a deeper and personal knowledge and understanding of some of the most pivotal world problems. The approach calls for a study of social and economic problems not only in books, magazines, and newspapers, but also in each local community." (56,p.9) Problems such as local housing conditions, communication and transportation facilities, and securing of food supplies may be used. A problem which has troubled generations in the past will probably trouble future generations, too. The approach emphasizes relation of life in school to the social life in the world at large.
The Virginia state course of study in the social studies makes use of the problem procedure. Further use of this procedure is urged by Chase, (11) the Lynds, (49) and Rugg. (64) To a great extent this procedure is being used in Georgia, Arkansas, and Mississippi.

The use of this procedure leads to the use of the problem method in classroom teaching. As such it has great appeal to the curriculum revisionist. The challenge to the mind, the intellectual stimulation, meets with the approval of most teachers. A course of study based upon problems simplifies the work of organization for the curriculum maker.

However, there is no assurance that current problems will continue to remain problems. While such problems are challenging to the adult mind, these problems are adult problems, different usually from pupils' problems. Morton (56, p. 9) states that this procedure must be supplemented by three interrelated lines:

1. The aesthetic and spiritual values must be kept in mind.
2. Basic institutions need to project themselves into the near future to predict the changes that will take place.
3. The school needs to emphasize the development of the integrated personality able to meet present and future conditions of human environment.

Opinions of Selected Groups. School officials may consult with individuals or small groups in order to secure their opinions as to curriculum revision. The opinions as expressed by these people form the basis for revision.

Writings of "frontier thinkers", men who spend all their lives in promulgating theory and in testing the theory in practice, have been used extensively. Rugg, (63) Billings, (5) Hockett, (21) Lee, (47) illustrate the efforts of frontier thinkers to influence the social studies curriculum.
Larger groups are often contacted to secure opinions for curriculum revision. Hand, of the University of Illinois, tried to broaden the membership of the group a survey he conducted recently. Misner, in reporting about the survey, states:

Questionnaires were prepared and distributed to the parents of children enrolled in the schools. Parents were asked to check their reactions to a wide variety of topics, including curriculum practices, discipline, and personnel policies. The questionnaires were returned unsigned and tabulations made of the responses. (54, pp. 156-7)

The procedure of opinion of selected groups has definite merit. Sometimes we secure the best qualified men to give us an insight into, and a more mature judgment concerning our present issues. The number of respondents involved, and the quality of respondents used, will have a direct bearing as to the worth-whileness of this approach. The school curriculum has extended beyond what was formerly known to teachers. Frontier thinkers start us thinking, provide us with vistas beyond the present. They reveal what should be, what could be, and what will be and not merely what is at present. They may even stimulate teachers to thoughts which are superior to those of the original thinkers.

The great weakness to this approach is the respondents' inclinations to give impressionistic reactions, rather than thoughtful deliberation. Usually the group of respondents is too largely composed of educators and specialists in subject matter, neglecting other opinions which might prove very helpful. (66, p. 300) While it is worthwhile to discover the issues, we need to select suitable materials for these issues, to place them in the proper grades for the children, to experiment with them in the schools, and to evaluate them for suitability.

Summary. No one procedure is necessarily the best and only procedure for all communities. Of the different procedures reviewed in this chapter, such as the scissors and paste, opinions of selected groups, problems and
issues of the social order, etc., not one of them is considered perfect.

Each has its strengths and its weaknesses. The individual school or community, recognizing the advantages and limitations of each of the procedures, should choose the one or more procedures which suits its own situation.

As Caswell states:

Curriculum program must be tailor-made for each school situation. Sound procedure will reveal the problems in the given situation and provide an organized means of beginning work on them. In one situation it may be well to start with a community survey; in another with case studies of children; in another with a co-operative study with laymen of what the community expects of its schools, and in another with specific teaching problems. Trained leadership can utilize any one of these as avenues of opening up the whole curriculum problem. Improvement in the experiences of pupils is the test of all curriculum procedures. (8,p.505)

Organization and Administration in Curriculum Revision

Before curriculum revision can be successful, the community must be prepared to accept the revisions suggested. The curriculum cannot proceed too far in advance of the community. "The building of an effective program in any community must wait upon the emergence in the community of a thoroughly professional and research attitude toward the problem." (65,p.440) Adequate funds will be necessary for continuous and comprehensive prosecution of curriculum construction. Two principles seem basic in the actual organization for curriculum provision: one person or a small committee should have the responsibility of curriculum revision, while every member of the staff should participate in the program of revision.

Suggestions for Procedure in Organizing for Curriculum Revision.

Wesley (76,pp.67-74) lists twenty-two suggestions for organization for curriculum revision.

1. Try to secure the consent and interest of every member of the faculty, or department.

2. Secure administrative consent and support.
3. Decide on scope of revision.
4. Determine extent of revision.
5. Set a time limit.
6. Set up a plan of organization.
7. Prepare a plan of procedure.
8. Survey the school.
9. Survey the existing curriculum.
10. Survey other school systems.
11. Review research available.
12. Survey social trends, for new topics of national, state or local significance.
13. Survey local resources.
14. Prepare outline of ideal program.
15. Decide upon a few realistic objectives.
17. Decide upon principles for grade placement.
18. Plan to organize materials.
19. Prepare the contents of the revised program.
20. Select a committee for form and style.
21. Incururate new program.
22. Evaluate program.

Current Practices. Counts (14,p.147) in a survey published in 1926, related that in small communities the practice was to have the superintendent or principal set up curriculum changes for the high school. In other communities, a common practice was to have a small group make the changes. This group consisted of members of the general administrative and supervisory staff, high school principals, and high school teachers. The most common procedure
was to organize a committee of teachers, usually with an administrative or supervisory officer as leader.

**Director of Curriculum.** The superintendent of school assumes responsibility for curriculum revision. He may delegate this authority to a member of his staff. After securing the necessary authorization and approval by the Board of Education, he himself, or the assistant or deputy superintendent, or principal will act as director of the curriculum revision program. The director would assume responsibility to develop and propose the organization for curriculum work on approval of the superintendent, to recommend appointment of personnel for such organization, to secure the services of consultants, to assist in organizing committees, scheduling their activities and checking their progress, to supervise preparation of bulletins, to assemble materials and bibliographies for committees, to supervise the printing of materials, and to develop a plan for securing effective use of the course of study when completed. (9, p.495)

**Specialists and Consultants.** The director may choose specialists or consultants to assist him. These experts would have no administrative function and no direct authority in connection with the program. Their duties consist of giving advice as to policies and procedures, and to aid the director in planning, preparation of bulletins, organizing the program, guiding various committees, and preparing materials of instruction to be included in the course of study.

**Committees.** Caswell and Campbell (9, p.497) suggest that committees may be organized as follows:

1. Administrative, to correlate the work of all committees.
2. Production, to organize the materials of instruction.
3. Editing and reviewing, to prepare materials for publication.
4. Special problems, such as library facilities.

5. Advisory, to help other committees.

In a wealthy community, the committees might be made up of technically trained research staff of specialists, clerks, statisticians, educational psychologists and teachers. Most communities cannot afford such an organization, and will have to depend upon teachers almost exclusively. Teachers serving on these committees should be released from some or all of their other duties, in order to have the energy and desire to accept the responsibilities involved. Teachers should be selected in terms of intelligence, technical training in curriculum making, understanding of child learning, attitude on general research, and strong teaching ability. While the preparation of courses of study will be in the hands of small groups, the entire faculty and administrative body must be kept informed as to purposes and progress, and must be solicited for suggestions and ideas.

Laymen. Because the active cooperation of the parents and other adults proves especially constructive to curriculum revision, means by which these laymen may participate must be provided. The means may be by way of the questionnaire as reportedly used by Dr. Rand. Another means may be by personal interview, with business men, alumni, professional people, members of labor organizations, etc. Still other means consist of specially prepared bulletins for parents, or courses in curriculum revision arranged by the Parent Teachers Association. Laymen may be invited to attend teachers study groups, to discuss the curriculum program.

Tryout and Evaluation. As an outcome of all the activity in curriculum revision, teachers should receive a systematic outline of proposed or possible activities for her classroom. Lists of reading books, of excursion and field trips, and of optional topics and problems for classroom discussion should be included. The new course of study may be tried out by all teachers in a given course, or may be criticized by the teachers without any class-
room tryout, or may be used in organized experimental classes followed by testing the results. The new course then may be introduced gradually, at first by providing that it be an optional course, and that it be supervised carefully.

Summary. Again, the local situation will decide what the organization and administration should be for curriculum revision. If we subscribe to the theory that each school set up its own curriculum, based on the needs of that school's population, then the organization will revolve around that particular school. Decentralization results. If we favor a more centralized organization, we need a more complex organization. In either case the revisionists may look for constructive help from specialists, consultants, administrators, laymen, pupils, and especially from those who administer the curriculum — the classroom teacher.
CHAPTER IV

REACTIONS OF GROUPS ON RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF LOCAL PROBLEMS

Of the various procedures in curriculum making, the cooperative procedure has been receiving increasing emphasis. This procedure would enlist the opinions of pupils, teachers and adults in making curriculum revision. Thus, a more democratic approach than is customary would prevail, with a more widespread interest in the curriculum. Whether or not the opinion of pupils as to relative importance of subject matter is at great variance with that of teachers or adults, and whether or not the opinion of teachers is at variance with that of adults, could be measured objectively by a questionnaire especially prepared to measure such opinions.

The purpose of this chapter is to report on the results of such a questionnaire. The chapter discusses the procedure in formulating the questionnaire on material to be included in the curriculum as a basis for the teaching of local history and community problems in the Washington, D.C. public secondary schools. Then the chapter discusses the procedure in securing replies from a sampling of respondents representing pupils, teachers and adults. A copy of the questionnaire is included. This chapter then proceeds to describe the method used to tabulate the results of the respondents and to arrange these results into tables easy to interpret. A brief interpretation follows, pointing out significant results as shown in the tables. Based upon the replies of the respondents, a new outline of subject matter is made, this outline representing the material that should be included in the curriculum of Washington, D.C. secondary schools in teaching local history and community problems.
Procedures in Developing and Administering the Questionnaire

In order to draw conclusions as to pupil-teacher-adult reaction to course of study material in teaching of local history and government, a questionnaire of 124 items was prepared. These items consisted of subject matter which might be included in courses of study dealing with local history and government for Washington, D.C. public junior and senior high schools. Each respondent checked the items as follows: 1, if the respondent considered that particular item to be indispensable, an item which should by all means be included in the secondary school course of study; 2, if the respondent considered the item worthwhile, but which might be omitted if time were scarce; 3, if the respondent considered the item to be unimportant, an item which should be omitted from the course of study. The 124 items of the questionnaire were grouped within eight major topics, such as the topic on "geography" of D.C., or the topic on "government" of D.C. Each topic allowed sufficient space for respondents to add any item or items they thought pertinent and of sufficient importance for inclusion in the courses of study.

The Respondents. In order to receive a sampling of the reactions of pupils, teachers and adults which would be representative of the people interested in curriculum revision, seven hundred questionnaires were prepared, distributed, answered, collected and tabulated. Three hundred of these questionnaires were filled in by members of the senior class in three high schools: one hundred from Dunbar High School (colored students), 1st and 0 Sts., N.W., another hundred from Coolidge High School (white students), 5th and Tuckerman Sts., N.W. and the third hundred from Central High School (white students), 13th and Clifton Sts., N.W. Two hundred questionnaires were filled in by twenty junior high and one hundred and eighty senior high
teachers. The faculties of Dunbar, Coolidge and Central High Schools participated, as well as the faculties of McKinley High School, 2nd and T Sts., N.E., and Eastern High School, 17th and East Capitol Sts., N.E.

The respondents came from the following departments:

- Social Studies..........................40
- English......................................20
- Science.....................................20
- Shop and Home Economics................20
- Mathematics..............................20
- Commercial...............................20
- Language.................................20
- Fine Arts..................................20
- Physical Education.......................20

Two hundred questionnaires filled in by adults other than teachers came from the following occupational groups:

- Professional and Administrative........40
- Clerical and Sales.........................40
- Service Occupations.......................40
- Labor, skilled and semi-skilled...........40
- Housewives..................................40

The classification of occupational groupings for adults follows the classification as used in Dictionary of Occupational Titles, United States Employment Service, 1939. Where a questionnaire listed the occupation of the respondent as being other than the exact title of one of the five occupational groups above, the Dictionary was consulted to provide the proper grouping.

All seven hundred questionnaires asked for personal data from the respondents, so that the results of the questionnaire could be tabulated according to various objectives. Each respondent was asked to fill in his
occupation, age, residence, length of residence in D. C. area and highest level of education achieved. Tabulations based upon this personal data could be and were made, to ascertain significant differences in opinions of youth compared to older people, of D. C. residents compared to suburbanites, of high school graduates compared to college graduates, etc.

The Questionnaire. A copy of the entire questionnaire follows:
In order to assist in a research project on the selection of content for the social studies curriculum, grades 7 to 12, in the District of Columbia public schools, you are requested to fill in the blanks as indicated.

PERSONAL DATA

I. Your occupation or profession_____. (If a teacher, indicate your subject field and grade level.)

II. Your age, in years. (Please check one.)
   A. through 18___.
   B. 19 through 24___.
   C. 25 through 35___.
   D. 36 through 50___.
   E. Over 50___.

III. Your residence. (Please check one.)
   A. Within the District of Columbia____.
   B. In the suburban area of the District of Columbia____.

IV. Your length of residence in Metropolitan Washington, D. C. area. (Please check one.)
   A. Less than one year____.
   B. One through five years____.
   C. Six through ten years____.
   D. Over ten years____.

V. Highest level of education attained by you. (Please check one.)
   A. 8th grade or less____.
   B. Attended high school____.
   C. High school graduate____.
   D. Attended college____.
   E. College graduate____.
   F. More than four years of college____.
Instructions

The following check list includes items which may be included in a secondary school (grades 7 to 12) course of study to help students learn about Washington, D.C. You are to write a 1, 2, or 3, in each blank according to the following instructions:

Write 1 if you consider the item indispensable—an item which should by all means be included in the secondary school course of study.

Write 2 if you consider the item worthwhile—but one which may be omitted, if time is scarce, as other items are more important.

Write 3 if you consider the item unimportant—an item that should be omitted from the course of study.

Sufficient space under each of the headings is provided for you to include items not mentioned but which you believe should be included.

CHECK LIST

(Please remember—1 for an indispensable item,

2 for a worthwhile item,

3 for an unimportant item.)

I. What should the schools teach about the topography and climate of the District?

_____A. Rivers in the Washington area and their tributaries.

_____B. Principal hills and other landmarks.

_____C. Climatic conditions, including factors which determine the conditions.

_____D. Soil characteristics and related topics.

_____E.

_____F.

_____G.

II. What should the secondary schools teach about the historical background of the District of Columbia?

_____A. Indian inhabitants.

_____B. Early explorers.

_____C. Early settlers.
D. Why the site was chosen for the capital.

E. Names and locations of principal streets, avenues, circles, etc.

F. Plans used in naming streets, and avenues.


H. Growth of the city, 1800 to 1812.

I. The effect of the War of 1812 on D. C.

J. Interesting personalities and incidents, up to 1850.

K. D. C. in the Civil War.

L. Changes during the Reconstruction Era.
   1. Changes in population.
   2. Changes in local government.
   3. Physical appearance in the 1870's.

M. Changes since Reconstruction days to the present.
   2. Continued beautification program.
   3. Effect of World War I upon D. C.
   4. Effect of World War II upon D. C.
   5. Interesting personalities and incidents.

N. History of the neighborhood in which the child lives.
   1. History of the school in which the child is enrolled.
   2. History of interesting buildings.
   3. History of industries.
   5. Changes in the neighborhood (e.g. population growth and change.)
III. What should the schools teach about the economic life of D.C.?

__A. Vocational opportunities.

__1. Opportunities for employment with U.S. Government.

__2. " " " " D.C. " .

__3. " " " in adjacent Maryland.

__4. Opportunities and requirements in agricultural pursuits.

__5. Opportunities and requirements for craftsmen, operatives and laborers.

__6. Opportunities and requirements for domestic service workers.

__7. Opportunities and requirements in clerical and sales occupations.

__8. Opportunities and requirements in professional and semi-professional occupations.

__B. Transportation facilities

__1. Within the city, ownership and control.

__2. Within the Metropolitan area, ownership and control.

__3. Between Metropolitan area and other cities.

__C. Economic relationship of D.C. to surrounding region.

__1. Sources of foodstuffs and water supply.

__2. Co-operation with regions to maintain health.

__3. Expansion of residential area to surrounding region.

__4. Co-operation with nearby communities e.g. in extension of public utilities.

__5. Co-operation with nearby communities e.g. park developments for beautification and recreation.
D. Various economic groups; membership, procedures and influence.
   1. Board of Trade.
   2. Chamber of Commerce.
   5. The Congress of Industrial Organizations.
   7. The independent unions.
   8. The apprenticeship system.
  10. Various consumer organizations.

E.

F.

G.

IV. What should the secondary schools teach about the educational opportunities available?

A. Opportunities in general secondary schools.
   1. Public.
   2. Private.
   3. Parochial.

B. Opportunities in vocational schools; curricula offered.

C. Opportunities in colleges and universities.
   1. General curricula.
   2. Specialized schools of the universities.

D. Special schools (Art, Music, Technical, etc.)

E. Libraries.
F. Museums.
G. Moving-picture houses.
H. Need for legitimate theater.
I. Choral groups.
J. Symphony orchestra.
K. Zoo.
L. Botanic gardens.
M. Newspapers and magazines.
N. Public buildings.

V. What should the secondary schools teach about the government of D. C.?

A. The commission form of government.
   1. Powers of the commissioners.
   2. Duties of the commissioners.

B. The work of the Police Department.

C. The construction and maintenance of streets.

D. The relation of D. C. to U. S. Congress.

E. The relation of D. C. to U. S. President.

F. Plans for home rule for D. C.

G. Sources of revenue (taxes, etc.) for the government of the District.
H. School Administration.

1. The selection of School Board Members.

2. Selection of teachers.
   a. qualifications.
   b. compensation.
   c. retirement.
   d. tenure.

3. Selection of administrators.
   a. qualifications.
   b. compensation.
   c. retirement.
   d. tenure.

4. The sources of funds for school support.

5. Authority of the School Board.

6. Authority of the Commissioners.

7. Powers of Congress in regard to schools.

I. Civic responsibilities of the individual.

1. Obedience to the laws.

2. Concern for others.

3. Respect for public and private property.

4. Pride in the community.

5. Participation in groups concerned in promotion of civic affairs.
VI. What should the secondary schools teach about the health and welfare facilities available in D. C.?

___A. Sources of funds for maintenance of hospitals.
___B. Public clinics; their work and support.
___C. Private clinics; their work and support.
___D. Group hospitalization plans; organization and administration.
___E. The role of the D. C. health department in maintaining good health facilities.
___F. The community chest; its work and organization.
___G.
___H.
___I.

VII. What should the secondary schools teach about retirement system in D. C.?

___A. Civil Service retirement.
___B. Social Security retirement.
___C. Railroad retirement.
___D.
___E.

VIII. Should the pupils study controversial social problems?

___A. The causes of crime and delinquency; ways in which crimes and delinquency may be decreased.
___B. The improvement of housing; ways of accomplishing it.
___C. The reorganization of the government of D. C., including the extension of suffrage.
___D. The problem of socialized medicine.
___E.
___F.
___G.
Procedure of Tabulation. After all seven hundred questionnaires were classified and grouped according to occupations, they were numbered in consecutive order. Thus, pupils' replies were numbered from 05-001 to 05-300, the "05" being classification for pupils, with numbers 001 to 300 indicating the 300 questionnaires filled in by pupils. The 40 adults, professional and managerial, were coded from 00-301 to 00-340; the 40 adults, clerical and sales, were coded from 01-341 to 01-380; the adults, service occupation, coded from 02-381 to 02-420; the laborers from 04-421 to 04-460; the housewives from 06-461 to 06-500. Teachers' questionnaires were coded as follows:

- Social Studies 13-501 to 13-540
- English 23-541 to 23-560
- Science 33-561 to 33-580
- Shop 43-581 to 43-600
- Math 53-601 to 53-620
- Commercial 63-621 to 63-640
- Language 73-641 to 73-660
- Fine Arts 83-661 to 83-680
- Physical Education 93-681 to 93-700

The questionnaires, as coded, went to the card punch operators. The operators used International Business Machine cards, form 5081. Two cards were necessary for each schedule, a white card took care of the first 61 items on the questionnaire (through III - D 10), while a green card took care of the rest of the items of the questionnaire. The operators used the following scheme in punching the cards:

Columns 1 and 2 - occupational group code number

Columns 3, 4, 5 - schedule number
Column 6 - age, punched from 1 to 6, according to which age group checked by respondent (II, page 1 or questionnaire)

Column 7 - residence, punched 1 or 2, according to which group checked by respondent (III, page 1 of questionnaire)

Column 8 - length of residence, punched from 1 to 4 (IV, page 1)

Column 9 - level of education, punched from 1 to 6 (V, page 1)

Column 10 - item I-A, page 2, of questionnaire, punched 1, 2 or 3 according to reply on questionnaire.

Column 11 - thereafter, following procedure of column 10.

After the cards were punched they were sent through the tabulating machine. The machine recorded for each column the number of cards punched 1, the number of cards punched 2, and the number of cards punched 3 for each occupational group. The cards were sent through the machine again, this time to tabulate the results for each age group. The process was repeated to tabulate results for each residence group, level of education, and length of residence. Altogether, thirteen separate tabulations were made, in order to provide the material necessary for interpretation of the questionnaire.

Procedure for the Tables. After the tabulations were made, the material had to be put in a form which would make interpretation simple. A five-point scale was decided upon. If the tabulation showed that the respondents to the questionnaire were emphatic in checking an item as 1, or indispensable, the item would be considered as a 1 on this five-point scale. If the item were checked between 1, indispensable, and 2, worthwhile, that item would be considered as a 2 on the five-point scale. If the item were checked mainly a 2 on the questionnaire, it would earn a 3 on the scale. If the item fell slightly below a 2 on the questionnaire, it would earn a 4 on the scale;
a 3 on the questionnaire would earn a 5 on the scale. To establish a standard by which to indicate whether the respondents had emphasized the 1 on the questionnaire rather than the 2, and thus convert the replies accordingly to the five-point scale, the following procedure was used.

The difference in number between those who checked 1 on an item and those who checked that same item as 3 was noted. Where such a difference was 480 or more (on the basis of 200 replies) in favor of 1, that item was rated as 1 on the five-point scale; if the difference fell between 40 to 479, the item was rated as 2 on the five-point scale; 0 to 439 rated 3; -1 to -40 rated 4; -41 and below rated 5. All the tabulations were thus converted into the three tables.

Reading the Tables. Table 1 consists of all replies to the questionnaire. In the vertical columns, these replies are arranged according to the respondent's occupation, age, residence, length of residence and level of education. Thus, under "occupation", the 40 professional and administrative group, adults, are coded 00 throughout the table; the 40 clerical and sales group, adult, are coded 01 throughout the table; the 300 students are coded 05; and the 200 teachers are coded from 13 to 93, according to the subject matter taught. Under the heading "age", all replies of respondents who are through 18 years old were coded 1, while those over 50 years old were coded 5. In numbers, the breakdown under this heading follows:

through 18 (coded 1) - 294 respondents
19 "  24 ( "  2) - 61 "
25 "  35 ( "  3) - 75 "
36 "  50 ( "  4) - 181 "
Over 50 ( "  5) - 37 "
did not give age - 2 "

Total  700
Under the heading "residence", the 584 residents within D. C. were coded as 1, while the 108 living outside of D. C. were coded as 2. Under the heading "length of residence" the 24 respondents who checked that they lived in the D. C. area for less than 1 year were coded as 1; the 145 who lived in the D. C. area from 1 through 5 years were coded as 2; 102 lived in the area from 6 through 10 years and were coded as 3; the 426 who have lived in the area for over ten years were coded as 4. Under the heading "education" the following replied and code numbers were applied:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8th grade or less</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended high school</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School graduate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended college</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College graduate</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than college graduation</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In all tables the horizontal columns are arranged according to the following: Roman numeral I refers to I on the questionnaire (topography and climate of D. C.), while A on the table refers to item A under Roman Numeral I of the questionnaire (rivers in Washington area); I-B on the table refers to I-B on the questionnaire (principal hill), etc.

Table 2, teachers' answers, follows the same code numbers and procedure as used in Table 1. The teachers listed their ages according to the following breakdown:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age 19 through 24</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 &quot;</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 &quot;</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 50</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Under "residence", 140 teachers live within D. C. (coded 1) while 57 live outside of D. C. (coded 2). Under "length of residence", 4 teachers lived in the D. C. area less than 1 year (coded 1); 20 lived in the area from 1 through 5 years (coded 2); 21 lived in the area from 6 through 10 years (coded 3) and 153 lived in the area over 10 years (coded 4). Under the heading "education", 11 teachers attended college (coded 4), 16 graduated college (coded 5) while 173 have had more than four years of college (coded 6).

Table 3, adults' answers, follows the same code numbers and procedure as used in Table 1 and Table 2. The number of respondents under each of the headings follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residence</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Residence</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tables 1, 2 and 3 are in consecutive order for Items I through II, then Table I (cont.), p. 82, follows for Items II-J through II-N5. Table II (cont.), p. 84, follows for Items II-J through II-N5, followed by Table III (cont.), p. 86, for the same items. The same procedure is followed until all items are recorded.

**Presentation and Interpretation of the Data**

**Items I and II.** In comparing the relative significance of each item on Tables 1, 2, 3, items I and II, there is great agreement between the replies of students (coded 5), the replies of teachers (Table 2) and the replies of adults (Table 3). Teachers tended to check some items as more worthwhile than did students, with adults tending to take a position between that of teachers and that of pupils. Thus, teachers answered 1 to items I-A and I-C, while pupils answered 4 and 3 respectively, and adults answered 3 and 2 respectively. Again, teachers checked item II-E as 2, pupils as 4, and adults as 3; item II-F was checked 1, 3, and 3 by the three groups. These differences between pupil and teacher reappeared under the "age" classification, where items I-A, and I-C were checked 4 and 3 by age group 1, while the same items were checked 2 and 1 by age group 5. Again, the respondents whose highest level of education was high school ("education" group 2) checked item II-F as 3, while group 6 checked the same item as 1. Other than the few exceptions aforementioned, there is no appreciable difference in the replies of different age groups, occupation groups, and residence groups for items I-A to II-I. Table 3, p. 80, item II-E, "length of residence, shows that group 1 checked this
item as 1, while other groups checked the item as 3 or 4. Newcomers to the D. C. area are anxious to learn the names and locations of principal streets, avenues and circles of the city. The replies of the 200 adults as shown in the total, Table 3, p. 80, are in perfect agreement to the replies of the 700 respondents as shown in Table 1, p. 76.

The lack of appreciable differences in the replies of different occupation, age, residence, length of residence, and level of education groups continues for items II-1 through N-5 for all tables. Items N through N-5, dealing with neighborhood and school history, were rated lower by pupils than by teachers, as follows:

Pupils' ratings: 4, 3, 3, 3, 4, 5 (Table 1, p. 82)
 Teachers' ratings: 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3 (Table 2, p. 84)
 Adults' ratings: 4, 3, 3, 3, 3, 4 (Table 3, p. 86)
 Total ratings: 4, 3, 3, 3, 3, 4 (Table 1, p. 82)

The high agreement between the adults' answers to the total answers continues for items II-J through II-N5. For these same items, the teachers ratings are highest, while pupils' ratings rank lowest.

To summarize, teachers stress items as being important while pupils are inclined to place less importance on these same items. Adults take the middle ground, and generally reflect the attitude of all respondents toward the items. Teachers thought schools should emphasize rivers of D. C., pupils thought the topic should be left out, while adults thought the topic worthwhile. Likewise teachers thought such items as climatic conditions, street locations, plans in naming streets, neighborhood history, school history, and history of interesting buildings were all essential parts of the courses of study, while pupils and adults rated these same items as either worthwhile if time were available, or to be left out entirely.
Otherwise, the difference in ratings by the several groups show little significant differences. Re-arranging the items according to their ratings by the total number of respondents would show the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 or 2 (to be taught)</td>
<td>I-C, II-B, C, D, I, K, L, M, Ml, 3, 4,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I-A, II-E, P: N 1, 2, 3, 4,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (worthwhile)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 or 5 (to be left out)</td>
<td>I-B, II-A, G, H, J: L 1, 3:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M 2, 5: N, N 5.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I. What should the schools teach about the topography and climate of the District?

A. Rivers in the Washington area and their tributaries.

B. Principal hills and other landmarks.

C. Climatic conditions, including factors which determine the conditions.

D. Soil characteristics and related topics.

II. What should the secondary schools teach about the historical background of the District of Columbia?

A. Indian inhabitants.

B. Early explorers.

C. Early settlers.

D. Why the site was chosen for the capital.

E. Names and locations of principal streets, avenues, circles, etc.

F. Plans used in naming streets and avenues.

G. Conditions in D. C. in 1800.

H. Growth of the city, 1800 to 1812.

I. The effect of the War of 1812 on D. C.
Table 1. The Relative Importance of Items I A to II I as Determined by Respondents' Answers, Arranged by Occupation, Age, Residence, Length of Residence, Education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code No.</th>
<th>OCCUPATION</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>H</th>
<th>I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>Prof., Adm.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Cler., Sales</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Service</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Laborers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
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<td>Students</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Housewives</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>33</td>
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<td>Shop</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>Math</td>
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<td>63</td>
<td>Comm. L.</td>
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<td>73</td>
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<tbody>
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<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>19 &quot; 24</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>04</td>
<td>25 &quot; 35</td>
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<td>36 &quot; 50</td>
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<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Over 50</td>
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<table>
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<th>RESIDENCE</th>
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<th></th>
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<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Within D. C.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Outside D. C.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
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J. Interesting personalities and incidents, up to 1850.

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   2. Changes in local government.
   3. Physical appearance in the 1870's.

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   2. Continued beautification program.
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   2. History of interesting buildings.
   3. History of industries.
   5. Changes in the neighborhood (e.g. population growth and change.)
Table 1. (Cont.)  Items II J to II N5

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J. Interesting personalities and incidents, up to 1850.

K. D. C. in the Civil War.

L. Changes during the Reconstruction Era.
   1. Changes in population.
   2. Changes in local government.
   3. Physical appearance in the 1870's.

M. Changes since Reconstruction days to the present.
   2. Continued beautification program.
   3. Effect of World War I upon D. C.
   4. Effect of World War II upon D. C.
   5. Interesting personalities and incidents.

N. History of the neighborhood in which the child lives.
   1. History of the school in which the child is enrolled.
   2. History of interesting buildings.
   3. History of industries.
   5. Changes in the neighborhood (e.g., population growth and change.)
Table 3 (Cont.) Items II J to II N5

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Items III-A to III-C5. Items A3, 5, 6, 7 received higher ratings from educational group 6 than from group 2. Those who attended high school considered it less essential to teach about employment opportunities in the area adjacent to D.C., in requirements for craftsmen, domestics, clerks and sales people, than did those respondents who had progressed beyond a college education (Table 1, p. 89). Teachers checked item A-4 (Table 2, p. 91) as 3, but physical education teachers rated this item (opportunities as farmers) as 1, while social studies teachers rated this item as 4 (Table 1, p. 89).

To summarize, no significant differences appeared amongst the groups except in a few items. Re-arranging the items according to their ratings by the total number of respondents would show the following:

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III. What should the schools teach about the economic life of D. C.?

A. Vocational opportunities.
   1. Opportunities for employment with U. S. Government.
   2. Opportunities for employment with D. C. Government.
   3. Opportunities for employment in adjacent Maryland and Virginia counties.
   4. Opportunities and requirements in agricultural pursuits.
   5. Opportunities and requirements for craftsmen, operatives and laborers.
   6. Opportunities and requirements for domestic service workers.
   7. Opportunities and requirements in clerical and sales occupations.
   8. Opportunities and requirements in professional and semi-professional occupations.

B. Transportation facilities.
   1. Within the city, ownership and control.
   2. Within the Metropolitan area, ownership and control.
   3. Between Metropolitan area and other cities.

C. Economic relationship of D. C. to surrounding region.
   1. Sources of foodstuffs and water supply.
   2. Co-operation with regions to maintain health.
   3. Expansion of residential area to surrounding region.
   4. Co-operation with nearby communities e.g. in extension of public utilities.
   5. Co-operation with nearby communities e.g. park developments for beautification and recreation.
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2. Opportunities for employment with D. C. Government.
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5. Co-operation with nearby communities e.g. park developments for beautification and recreation.
Table 2. (Cont.) Items III A to III C5

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**EDUCATION**

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**TOTAL**
1 1 1 1 3 1 3 1 1 3 2 2 4 2 1 1 2 3 3
III. What should the schools teach about the economic life in D. C.?

A. Vocational opportunities.

1. Opportunities for employment with U. S. Government.
2. Opportunities for employment with D. C. Government.
3. Opportunities for employment in adjacent Maryland and Virginia counties.
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1. Sources of foodstuffs and water supply.
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Table 3 (Cont.) Items III A to III C5

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RESIDENCE

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EDUCATION

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6 1 1 2 1 3 1 2 1 1 4 4 5 5 2 1 1 2 3 2
TOTAL 1 1 1 2 3 2 4 2 1 3 3 4 4 2 1 1 4 3 3
Items III-D to IV-C2. Items D7 to D10, dealing with independent unions, apprenticeship systems, etc., are given an average of 4 by pupils (Table 1, p. 96). Teachers and adults rate these items a little higher (Tables 2 and 3, pp. 93 and 94), considering these items as worthwhile if time is available. Otherwise, agreement between pupils, teachers and adults is very high throughout. A summary of the ratings of the various items based upon the total of all respondents, follows:

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<td>4 or 5 (to be left out)</td>
<td>III-D 3, 4.</td>
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D. Various economic groups; membership, procedures and influence.
   1. Board of Trade.
   2. Chamber of Commerce
   5. The Congress of Industrial Organizations.
   7. The independent unions.
   8. The apprenticeship system.
  10. Various consumer organizations.

IV. What should the secondary schools teach about the educational opportunities available?

   A. Opportunities in general secondary schools.
      1. Public.
      2. Private.
      3. Parochial.

   B. Opportunities in vocational schools; curricula offered.

   C. Opportunities in colleges and universities.
      1. General curricula.
      2. Specialized schools of the universities.
Table 1. (Cont.) Items III D to IV C2

| Code No. | D | III | | | | | | | | IV | A | B | C | | |
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| 53 | 3 3 3 4 3 4 3 4 3 3 3 2 1 1 2 3 1 1 1 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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| 73 | 3 2 2 4 2 2 3 2 2 2 2 1 1 1 2 3 1 1 1 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 83 | 1 1 1 1 2 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 93 | 3 3 3 4 2 4 3 3 3 3 3 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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D. Various economic groups; membership, procedures and influence.

1. Board of Trade.
2. Chamber of Commerce.
5. The Congress of Industrial Organizations.
7. The independent unions.
8. The apprenticeship system.
10. Various consumer organizations.

IV. What should the secondary schools teach about the educational opportunities available?

A. Opportunities in general secondary schools.
   1. Public
   2. Private
   3. Parochial.

B. Opportunities in vocational schools; curricula offered.

C. Opportunities in colleges and universities.
   1. General curricula.
   2. Specialized schools of the universities.
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Table 2. (Cont.) Items III D to IV C2
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1. Board of Trade.
2. Chamber of Commerce
5. The Congress of Industrial Organizations.
7. The independent unions.
8. The apprenticeship system.
10. Various consumer organizations.

IV. What should the secondary schools teach about the educational opportunities available?

A. Opportunities in general secondary schools.
   1. Public
   2. Private.
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B. Opportunities in vocational schools; curricula offered.

C. Opportunities in college and universities.
   1. General curricula.
   2. Specialized schools of the universities.
Table 3 (Cont.) Items III D to IV C2

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Items IV-D to V-F. Students checked items IV-D through IV-N, dealing with libraries, museums, etc., lower than did teachers or adults (Tables 1, 2, 3, pp. 103-105-107). Art teachers gave most enthusiastic support to these items (Table 1, p. 103). The summary of the ratings based upon the total of all respondents follows.

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D. Special schools (Art, Music, Technical, Etc.).
E. Libraries.
F. Museums.
G. Moving-picture houses.
H. Need for legitimate theater.
I. Choral groups.
J. Symphony orchestra.
K. Zoo.
L. Botanic gardens.
M. Newspapers and magazines
N. Public buildings.

V. What should the secondary schools teach about the government of D.C.?

A. The commission form of government.
   1. Powers of the commissioners.
   2. Duties of the commissioners.

B. The work of the Police Department.

C. The construction and maintenance of streets.

D. The relation of D. C. to U. S. Congress.

E. The relation of D. C. to U. S. President.

F. Plans for home rule for D. C.
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F. Plans for home rule for D. C.
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**Items V-G to V-H7.** Science teachers rated items V-H through V-H7 as 1, while pupils were interested in the qualification and selection of teachers and administrators, but not in teacher salaries or tenure (Table 1, p.110). Adults followed the student pattern (Table 3, p.114) as did the teachers (Table 2, p.112). A summary of the ratings based upon the total of all respondents follows.

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G. Sources of revenue (taxes, etc.) for the government of the District.

H. School Administration.

1. The selection of School Board Members.

2. Selection of teachers.
   a. qualifications.
   b. compensation.
   c. retirement.
   d. tenure.

3. Selection of administrators.
   a. qualifications.
   b. compensation.
   c. retirement.
   d. tenure.

4. The sources of funds for school support.

5. Authority of the School Board.

6. Authority of the Commissioners.

7. Powers of Congress in regard to schools.
Table 1 (Cont.) Items V G to V H7

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G. Sources of revenue (taxes, etc.) for the government of the District.

H. School Administration.

1. The selection of School Board Members.

2. Selection of teachers.
   a. qualifications.
   b. compensation.
   c. retirement.
   d. tenure.

3. Selection of administrators.
   a. qualifications.
   b. compensation.
   c. retirement.
   d. tenure.

4. The sources of funds for school support.

5. Authority of the School Board.

6. Authority of the Commissioners.

7. Powers of Congress in regard to schools.
Table 2 (Cont.) Items V G to V H7

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G. Sources of revenue (taxes, etc.) for the government of the District.

H. School Administration.

1. The selection of School Board Members.

2. Selection of teachers.
   a. qualifications.
   b. compensation.
   c. retirement.
   d. tenure.

3. Selection of administrators.
   a. qualifications.
   b. compensation.
   c. retirement.
   d. tenure.

4. The sources of funds for school support.

5. Authority of the School Board.

6. Authority of the Commissioners.

7. Powers of Congress in regard to schools.
Table 3 (Cont.) Items V G to V H7

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Items V-I to VIII-D. Clerical and salespeople believe that our schools should not teach about the Community Chest (item VI-F, Table 1, p.117), while teachers feel the schools should by all means teach about the Chest (Table 2, p.119). Pupils rated items VII-A and B, retirement provisions for Civil Service employees, and for those under Social Security, as 1, and rated Railroad Retirement plans as 5 (item VII-C, Table 1, p.117). Teachers agreed as to the last item, but gave a rating of 3 to the item on Civil Service retirement plans.

A summary of the ratings based upon the total of all respondents follows.

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<td>V-I, all; VI, all; VII-A, B; VIII, all.</td>
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<td>4 or 5 (to be left out)</td>
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I. Civic responsibilities of the individual.

1. Obedience to the laws.
2. Concern for others.
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Summary

 Replies to the questionnaire indicated that topic I, "topography and climate of the District", was considered worthwhile if there were sufficient time in the courses of study. The item "soil characteristics" was rated as unimportant, to be omitted from such courses. Topic II, dealing with the historical background of D. C., showed lack of real interest in the early history of D. C., with the exception of understanding why the site was chosen for the capital. The history of D. C. during the time of the Civil War, and changes in the local government during Reconstruction days, are items of interest. The more recent events World Wars I and II and their effects upon D. C. history, rated high according to the replies to the questionnaire. The more narrow history, that of the neighborhood and school of the child, his immediate environment, received a low rating. "The economic life of D. C." topic III, indicated that all groups believed that schools should emphasize employment opportunities with the Federal and District Governments, as well as professional and semi-professional occupations. The pupils rated as 3 employment opportunities in adjacent Maryland and Virginia, and opportunities as craftsmen, while teachers gave the same items a rating of 1. All groups gave a low rating to items on opportunities in farming and domestic service. Pupils teachers and adults gave low ratings to the possibility of studying the transportation facilities of the D. C. area.

 All groups favored co-operation with nearby regions to maintain health, food and water supplies, but did not think it indispensable to include such items as metropolitan public utilities, recreation or beautification programs. Likewise, in regard to including the study of various economic groups the respondents indicated that such study might be worthwhile, but was not indispensable.
Topic IV, "educational opportunities," was rated 1 by all groups. Public school opportunities should be considered as indispensable in our study of local history and government, whereas private and parochial school opportunities rated as worthwhile. All groups gave high ratings to such items as vocational schools and colleges, special schools and museums, while all groups gave a 5 rating to moving-picture houses. Pupils rated low such educational instruments as zoo, choral groups, legitimate theater, all of which teachers rated somewhat higher.

Topic V, "government of D. C." rated 1 by all groups in such items as the form of local government, the work of the Police Department, the relationships of the D. C. government to U. S. Congress and the President, plans for home rule, fiscal relations, and civic responsibilities of the individual. All groups thought it important to include the items on the qualifications of teachers and school administrators, but considered it less important to include items on teachers salaries, retirement and tenure. All groups gave a high rating to topics VI, VII and VIII, dealing with "health", "retirement systems" and "controversial social problems", except the item of "railroad retirement."

Re-arranging the items according to their ratings by the total number of respondents would show the following:

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<td>VII-A, B; VIII, all.</td>
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Pupils were prone to give a lower rating to some items of the questionnaire than were teachers, who in turn were prone to give the highest rating for some items compared to the pupil and adult groups. Adults took a middle position, somewhere between the ratings given by the pupils and by teachers. Compared to the ratings given by the seven hundred respondents, the highest agreement resulted with the adult group. Few significant differences resulted between the ratings given by pupils, teachers and adults. To the contrary, there were more items checked nearly alike by all groups than were checked with significant differences. There was also high agreement between the age, residence, length of residence, and level of education groups, with few significant differences.

Pupils, teachers and adults, regardless of the classification groupings, tended to give a similar rating to most of the items rather than to differ significantly in such ratings. The co-operative procedure in curriculum revision could be employed successfully in Washington, D. C.
CHAPTER V

DISTRIBUTION OF TOPICS IN COURSES OF STUDY AND IMPLEMENTATION
OF A RESOURCE UNIT

With the completion of the tabulation and interpretation of the replies of the questionnaire, this project proceeded to assign the different topics to different areas in the curriculum, and to develop a resource unit based upon one of the topics. The topic chosen was the "Government of the District of Columbia," to be taught in the 12th grade course, "American Government." The topic is of current importance as the United States Congress is now considering plans for granting home rule to the residents of the District of Columbia. The topic lends itself to practical use, as the present course of study for "American Government" includes a unit on local government. The resource unit thus developed would serve as an illustration for further resource units to be developed by interested persons. A committee of teachers suggested the distribution of all the topics of the questionnaire to different areas of the curriculum. The suggestions of the committee are presented first in this chapter, followed by the material on the resource unit.

Distribution of Topics: Procedures and Results

A committee of six Washington, D. C. public junior and senior high school teachers examined the entire questionnaire with the view of making suggestions as to where in the separate courses of study the different topics might be taught economically. It is left to the individual classroom teacher whether the topic will receive an incidental approach or a unit approach. The suggestions of the committee are as follows:
Topic I, topography and climate, may be taught in 7B, U. S. History: 3A, Geography of U. S; 9B World Geography: 11th or 12th Grades, Advanced Geography.


Topic III, economic life may be taught in 9th Grade, Civics: 3A Geography of U.S; Sociology I and II; 11A and 11B, U. S. History: 11th or 12th Grades, Advanced Geography: Law I and Law II.

Topic IV, educational opportunities, may be taught in 9A, Civics: Sociology I and II.


Topic VI, health and welfare, may be taught in 9A, Civics: 11B, U. S. History: 12A, American Government: Sociology I and II.

Topic VII, retirement system, may be taught in 11B, U. S. History: 12A, American Government: Sociology I and II: Law I and Law II.


Definition of Resource Unit

Albery (1, p.250) defines a resource unit as "a systematic and comprehensive survey, analysis and organization of the possible resource which a teacher might utilize in planning, developing and evaluating a learning unit." The resource unit was intended to meet the needs of teachers who believed in student participation in planning units of study, but at the same time these teachers felt the need for adequate preplanning to make their teaching effective. (61, pp.184-5)
The purposes of the resource unit are stated by Albertgr as follows:

1. To furnish suggestions for materials, methods, activities, teaching aids, and evaluative procedures for building a learning unit.

2. To provide a means of helping the teacher to organize materials so that he can depart from the traditional use of the textbook as a guide in curriculum development.

3. To provide suggestions for the teacher for translating an educational philosophy into practice.

4. To serve as a guide in helping the teacher to include in the learning unit certain important values basic to education in a democracy.

5. To sensitize the teacher to all of the significant problems and issues that have a bearing on an area of living.

6. To utilize the personnel resources of the school appropriate to the co-operative pre-planning of a particular unit.

7. To conserve the time of the teacher.

8. To make it possible to have teaching materials available when needed. (1, p.272)

Quillen and Hanna point out that:

a resource unit differs from a teaching unit in that (1) it is made for teacher rather than student use; (2) it contains more suggestions than can be used by any one class; (3) it covers a broad area from which materials can be drawn for the study of specific topics or problems; (4) it gives a number of possibilities for achieving the same objectives; and (5) it is not organized as a classroom teaching guide. In other words, it is extensive rather than definitive, and flexible rather than rigid. It encourages creative adaptation by the teacher to meet individual needs and democratic planning in the classroom. (61, p.186)

In developing one resource unit based upon the results of the questionnaire, this project attempted to develop such a unit as a basis for further units. It was felt that the comparative scarcity of textbook material for student use, and the nature of the subject itself, local history and government, a unit approach might prove advisable and practical. This project, therefore, has developed one resource unit, as a possible sample for teachers to expand and improve upon, and to continue with develop-
ment of other units. Thus, the questionnaire consisting of eight major topics, may be the foundation for eight or more resource units, any of which may be developed into such units by a teacher or committee of teachers.

The Procedure in Developing Resource Unit

The procedure used in developing the resource unit began with choosing a major heading of the questionnaire. A majority of the respondents had checked the topic "Government" (V of questionnaire) as being essential. This topic seemed desirable because such a topic is part of the present course of study. The unit as herein presented is to be used by more than one teacher, contains more references and suggested activities than any one teacher can possibly use in the limited time allotted for teaching the unit.

Steps Preceding Teacher Participation. After the topic for the resource unit was chosen, this project prepared an overview directed to the classroom teacher of social studies, explaining the use and limitation of the resource unit. Then a short list of objectives was prepared, a list which in itself is not final, but which may be altered according to the philosophy of education held by the teacher. The project then prepared the scope of the unit, presenting an over-all survey or an analysis of the subject area covered in the unit.

The next step in preparing the resource unit was to formulate some problems and questions based upon the content area of the unit. These problems and questions are merely suggestions, to be modified and changed by the classroom teacher. Since the problem-solving approach to the unit will be used at one time or another, pupils will state and define the problem as it seems most meaningful to them. The list of problems as herein presented lacks the stimulation of pupil participation.
A list of suggested activities was prepared, a list which includes more activities than any one class can probably accomplish in the limited time allotted for teaching the unit. This list of activities is grouped according to whether the activity is an individual project, or whether it is a project involving a small group, or whether it is a project which might involve the entire class.

A resource unit usually provides suggestions for evaluating the learning-teaching process. Some teachers, according to Albery,

think of evaluation as a continuous process which is an integral part of the learning-teaching situation ..... Evaluation includes the idea of placing value upon things and studying situations in terms of these values. Therefore, it begins when planning for the unit begins, is continuous throughout the unit, and must be considered an integral part of the learning unit. (1, p. 283)

While evaluation will take place continuously in a unit such as a study of the government of Washington, this project has prepared some suggestions for such evaluation.

The next step was to provide a bibliography of material which is readily available to pupil and teacher. Almost all the bibliographical references may be secured at the Washingtoniana Room of the Washington Public Library, 8th and K Streets, N.W., Washington, D.C. With public interest in local history being at a high level at the present time because of the sesquicentennial celebration in 1950, the press and publishing houses continually add to the total of reference material suitable to the classroom.

Teacher Participation. After the work of preparing the resource unit had progressed as far as described above, a committee of teachers was formed to advise, criticize and suggest. The committee met on Monday, Jan. 23, 1950, at 3:00 P.M., Central High School, 13th and Clifton Streets, N.W., Washington, D.C. Three of the committee are teachers of the social studies, junior high school, while the other three are teachers of the social studies,
senior high school. Each of these teachers has had fifteen years or more of teaching experience, with at least five of those years in the Washington, D. C. Public Schools. The committee examined, criticized and made suggestions and additions to the list of objectives and to the list of activities as previously drawn up by this project. These criticisms, suggestions and additions have been incorporated in this resource unit. The questionnaire was then examined, as to where in the present courses of study the separate topics may be included. Rather than limit examination to Topic V, "Government," the committee thought it would be helpful to the classroom teacher if all the topics were examined, for recommendation as to possible use in the present courses of study. The committee acted accordingly and have made recommendations for the incorporation of the entire questionnaire into the present courses of study.

Thus, the committee recommended that "Government of Washington" may be taught in the courses "9A Civics," "U. S. History I," "U. S. History II," "American Government," "Sociology II," "Law I," "Law II" and "7B History." It is left to the individual teacher whether or not the topic will receive an incide tal approach or a unit approach.

The Resource Unit

Overview. The results of the questionnaire indicated that a majority of the respondents considered the topic on "Government of Washington, D.C." to be an essential topic. This evidence substantiated the present courses of study in Washington, D.C. public schools. Because a unit on "Government" is already an integral part of the course "American Government," it was thought that developing a resource unit on that topic would be of practical value. Probably no unit made by a teacher or a group of teachers would be applicable to every situation. The philosophy of each school, the character
of the class, the personality of the teacher would of themselves make for differences in presentation of teaching material. It is the hope that the unit as hereby presented will be of help to teachers and pupils, to be used as suggestive material in developing the subject matter in the classroom.

Objectives. In addition to the general objectives of the teaching of local history and community problems, the unit on the government of the District of Columbia has specific objectives. Some of these may be stated as follows:

1. An understanding of relationship between Federal and District governments.

2. An understanding of the problems connected with possible home rule for the District of Columbia.

3. An understanding of the fiscal problems of the government of the District of Columbia.

4. An understanding of the part the school plays in carrying on the work of the community, and an active appreciation thereof.

5. The student should develop an understanding of his responsibilities to the community, and develop attitudes of willing assumption of these responsibilities.

6. A willingness to participate in group activities concerned in the promotion of civic affairs.

7. An objective exploration of self-interests and aptitudes with a view to possibly fitting himself into a vocation under the administration of the District government.

8. An understanding of the many ways in which the government of the District may be used for the improvement of living, and positive attitudes towards laws and policies making for wholesome living.
9. An interest in the activities of the District government which will be continued through independent study, reading and exploration.

10. An understanding that the pupil is a part of the community, and that his activities make up part of the whole community's activities.

Scope. Many young people take government for granted — as something apart from themselves, and to which they owe allegiance without any further participation on their part. Understanding the local organization of the government should change this attitude. The younger of junior high school age will usually be too immature to profit by a study of the organization and activities of the local government. However, the senior high school pupil in the eleventh or twelfth grade will be able to understand such study if the subject matter be made comparatively simple. In recent years the established form of government in the District has been re-examined, while the United States Congress has shown greater interest in home rule for the District. Because of these activities, pupil interest in the present governmental organization with plans for reform should be comparatively easy to arouse. The students' own experiences with District governmental agencies such as securing work permits, automobile drivers licenses, etc. may be used as bases for or in relation to the study of the organization of the government. The pupil who may find fault with the public school system may develop a more sympathetic understanding of the problems facing the School Board once the student has studied the organization and limitations of that Board.

Individuals seem prone to suggest additional governmental services without being willing to accept additional taxes to pay for such services. Again, people seem prone to accept and defend their rights as citizens without assuming their duties and responsibilities as citizens. Pupils enabled to study the fiscal relations of the government are able to understand their
obligations and to assume their responsibilities as active citizens in the community. The relationship between active participation in the school community and active participation in the non-school community can and should be made clear to the student. The government is not something apart from the student, but is representative of the entire population, attempting to serve the whole people, and interested in obtaining the good wishes and support of every individual in the community.

Suggested Problems. With discussion in Washington, D.C. currently interested in possible home rule for Washington, the study of the problems connected with the local government seems especially pertinent. Some of these problems are suggested herein.

A. Should the District of Columbia change its local form of government?

1. When and why did D.C. turn to the commission form of government?

2. What is the commission form of government?

3. What are the powers of the commissioners?

4. Who are the present commissioners?

5. What are the duties of the commissioners?

6. What are the advantages of the commission form of government?

7. What contributions have the commissioners made to D.C.?

8. What are the criticisms made against the commission form of government?

B. What is the work of the Police Department?

1. What is the organization of the Police Department?

2. How does the Police Department try to prevent crime?

3. To what extent does the Police Department co-operate with Police Departments in other cities and states to combat crime?

4. To what extent does the Police Department depend upon the help of the citizenry?

5. What are some of the problems of the Police Department?
C. How is adequate construction and maintenance of streets related to efficient city life?

1. Why are well-kept streets necessary for transportation of people and goods?

2. How are well-kept streets related to the beauty of the city?

3. To what extent has the increase of motor vehicles added to the problems of the street department?

4. Which government officials are in charge of the street department?

D. What is the relationship of the District Government to the United States Congress?

1. Why does Congress exercise authority over D. C.?

2. Where in the U. S. Constitution is there provision for such authority?

3. What provisions does Congress make for legislating for D.C.?

4. How would a citizen proceed to make his wishes known in regard to legislation for D. C.?

E. What is the relationship of the District to the United States President?

1. Why is the President given authority to name the D. C. commissioners?

2. How does the President assist in law-making for D. C.?

F. Should the District have home rule?

1. What are the arguments favoring home rule?

2. What are the arguments opposed to home rule?

3. Is a constitutional amendment needed to grant home rule?

4. What are some of the suggested plans for home rule?

5. Should the people of the District be permitted to vote for the U. S. President?

6. Should the people of the District be permitted to vote for U. S. Representatives or a delegate to Congress?

7. Will the U. S. Constitution have to be amended before D. C. is permitted to vote for President or Congressmen?
G. How does the District Government obtain revenue to carry on its duties and responsibilities?

1. What is the budget for the present fiscal year?
2. How is the budget prepared?
3. What are some of the taxes, fees, special assessments, licenses, etc. which are levied by the D. C. government?
4. What are some of the chief expenditures of the D. C. government?
5. To what extent and why does the U. S. Government contribute to the expenses of the D. C. Government?

H. What is the work of the School Board?

1. How are School Board members selected?
2. What are the qualifications for teachers and administrators?
3. What provisions have been made for the welfare of teachers?
4. How does the School Board obtain funds?
5. What is the authority of the School Board?
6. What is the relationship of the School Board to the District Commissioners?
7. What are the powers of Congress in regard to D. C. schools?

I. What are the civic responsibilities of the individual?

1. How does the citizen's obedience to the laws help the welfare of the entire community?
2. Why does the government depend upon the cooperation of the citizens in obedience to laws?
3. Why is the individual's concern for others of prime importance in group living?
4. How can the individual promote respect for public and private property?
5. To what extent does pride in the community promote the welfare of the community?
6. How does participation in civic groups encourage the individual's responsibilities to the community?
Activities. Pupils and teachers will suggest many activities by which the class would profit. This project has prepared a list of activities as suggestions for possible use by teacher and class. No class will probably be able to participate in all of these activities, due to the limited time available for the unit. The activities are grouped according to whether they seem best fitted as individual projects, or projects for small groups, or projects in which the entire class participates as a group.

A. Individual projects.

1. Have each pupil visit one or more of the following: District Building; Municipal Center; U. S. Capitol; Franklin Administration School Building.

2. Students to make posters as models, or plan exhibits to encourage local clean-up campaigns, or any campaign to improve the community.

3. Pupils to make street maps, showing the streets in the school area.

4. Students to use library facilities for information on the biographies of the commissioners, the Superintendent of Police, and other government officials.

B. Small Group projects.

1. Some pupils to attend a civic association meeting, and report on the association's attempts to influence government officials.

2. Some pupils to attend a meeting of the Board of Trade or some other organization which has as its program a discussion of plans for home rule for the District of Columbia.

3. Students to invite a speaker to address them on a topic related to the government of the District of Columbia, the topic to be chosen by the class.

4. A committee to draw up a list of suggestions for the entire student body to improve the immediate school community.

5. Pupils to attend Police Boys Club and to report on the activities of such club.

6. Pupils to report on various plans for home rule, using library facilities.

7. Students to bring in diagrams or charts depicting the organization of government bureaus in the District.
3. Students to attend open meetings of the Board of Education, and, when deemed necessary, ask for hearing from members of the Board.

9. Students to report on the qualifications for selection of teachers in the school system, their salary schedule, retirement provisions and tenure.

10. Some of the students dramatize the future of the District government. Such topics as the following might appeal to the students:
   - Our Community in 1970
   - The City of To-morrow
   - Our Children's School

11. Some pupils to interview leaders in the community to obtain their viewpoints on problems in which the class may be interested, such as maintaining the dual segregated school system.

12. Pupils to organize into committees, each committee to be responsible for some community problem. Problems such as the following may be investigated:
   a. Fiscal problems of the District.
   b. The budget of the District.
   c. Tuition payment for non-resident students.
   d. Traffic problems in the District.

C. Projects for the whole class

1. Students select a daily paper and follow the activities of one of the departments of the District Government, such as D.C. Police Department, or D.C. Street Department.

2. Entire class to visit the United States Congress, House of Representatives, on District Day.

3. Students to prepare and maintain a bulletin board of newspaper clippings, articles and pictures illustrating activities of District government agencies.

4. Students to prepare articles for publication in school newspaper, suggesting possible reforms in the community.

5. Students to write letters to the daily newspaper expressing their opinions on controversial issues.

6. Plan series of debates. Some of the following questions might be of interest to the group:
   a. Resolved: that people of Washington, D.C. be permitted to have home rule.
   b. Resolved: that people of Washington, D.C. be permitted to elect the commissioners.
   c. Resolved: that the sales tax be abolished.
7. Students to plan and conduct an assembly for the entire student body, in which a panel discussion on local government will be discussed.

8. Discuss various aspects of government activities, such as the work of the street department, the work of the police department, etc.

Evaluation. Because evaluation will be a continuous process, some general suggestions rather than specific suggestions for evaluation are here-in presented. Perhaps the best criterion for evaluating the unit would be to evaluate the individual as he fits into his adolescent and adult social groups. If the pupil is at present a good citizen, and in the future will co-operate with his fellowcitizens, will assume responsibilities and will participate actively and intelligently in civic affairs for the welfare of the community, that pupil has successfully absorbed the values related to the unit on the government of the District. During his school days the following techniques of evaluation might be helpful.

1. Records of student participation. Teacher and students to compile list of community activities in which the child participates, such activities centered around the school, the church, civic organizations, places of employment, the home, etc.

2. School records. Records kept by the teachers, school administrators, guidance counselors, concerning the citizenship of the pupil.

3. Student-constructed charts of his own status as a citizen, his strengths and his weaknesses, with plan for continued growth.

4. Teacher-constructed tests, to evaluate information, attitudes, skills, appreciations, beliefs, and ability to think critically.

5. Reports and observations by parents. Conferences with parents might reveal the growth of the child in situations outside of the school.
Bibliography. A suggested list of references follows:


of Columbia," Congressional Record, (May 12, 1941), 4004-27.


Conclusion

This chapter reports the co-operative procedure in assigning topics in different areas and in developing a resource unit. This chapter indicates the technique of implementing the results of this research. Assuming that the co-operative procedure will be followed, more such units might be developed. If the co-operative procedure will not be used, the individual teacher can develop further units on her own initiative.
CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was conducted to develop and utilize the co-operative technique in determining what should be taught about Washington, D. C., and to decide how the learning should be organized.

Summary of Related Theory and Research

Related research indicated that the recognized leaders in the area of the teaching of social studies favor the need for teaching local history and community problems.

Objectives. Some of the objectives for such teaching may be stated as follows:

1. The pupil, in studying his environment, learns to understand history.
2. The past becomes real to the pupil when he sees the influences of the past upon his immediate environment.
3. Understanding community history and problems enables the pupil to become a more competent citizen than if he did not have that understanding.
4. Social studies receives great motivation with study of community history and problems.
5. Pupils develop an interest in current community problems and possible solutions.
6. The pupil receives training in handling historical sources.

Outcomes. The teaching of local history and community problems has specific outcomes, which may be stated as follows:

1. Active participation by the pupil in community improvement projects.
2. Pupil understanding of American culture as practiced in the community.
3. Pupil development of a wholesome framework of values.
4. Pupil gaining social competence to participate in community affairs.

5. Pupil pride in his community.

**Curriculum Revision.** Educators disagree as to the means and methods to revise the curriculum. Some writers would limit revision to the few curriculum specialists, while others would allow the children themselves to decide the material to be studied. Most of our present theory and research indicate that many people should be included in curriculum revision. Curriculum experts, subject matter specialists, research workers, sociologists, psychologists, teachers, school administrators, parents of school children, other interested adults, and children, all may be employed successfully in changing the curriculum. Such revision, undertaken co-operatively, has advantages of promoting democratic procedure, of promoting interest in the curriculum and of promoting mutual understanding and respect amongst the participants.

**Summary of Procedure**

This project used the co-operative technique in order to make recommendations as to what material should be included in a study of local history and government. A questionnaire dealing with subject matter which could be included in such a study was prepared.

Seven hundred copies of the questionnaire were filled in by selected respondents. Those respondents included three hundred high school seniors, one hundred of these from the colored pupils, the other two hundred from white pupils, the approximate proportion of colored pupils to white pupils in the senior high schools. Two hundred teachers from the junior and senior high schools also filled in the questionnaire. Those teachers represented nine separate subject areas. The remaining two hundred questionnaires came
from adults interested in curriculum revision, and represented in equal numbers five different occupational groups. Each respondent listed his occupation, age, residence, length of residence in the D. C. area and level of education. Each respondent checked the items on the questionnaire, rating each item as being either indispensable, or worthwhile, or unimportant.

Replies to the questionnaire made up the raw material for this project. The replies to each item were punched on International Business Machine cards, and tabulated as to how many times an item was given a rating of indispensable, or worthwhile, or unimportant. Thirteen different tabulations were made, to find total returns for separate classifications, such as occupations of respondents, age, level of education, length of residence in D. C. area and present residence. Tabulations based upon replies of teachers were made separate from the replies of adults. Comparisons therefore could and were made between pupils, adults and teachers.

Three separate tables were made as follows: Table 1, to include all replies by the seven hundred respondents, and classified according to occupation, age, residence, length of residence and level of education; Table 2, to include replies of teachers and classified according to age, residence, length of residence and level of education; Table 3 to include replies of adults and classified according to age, residence, length of residence and level of education. The replies to the questionnaire, after being punched on cards and tabulated according to total replies for each item, had to be converted to a five-point scale for ease of interpretation.

The five-point scale used the following procedure. Where the difference between the number of respondents who checked an item as 1 was greater by 480 or more than those who checked that item as 3 (based upon 200 questionnaires), then that item was given a rating of 1 on the conversion
scale. Where the difference was greater by +40 to +79, it was rated as 2; where the difference fell between 0 to +39 it was rated as 3; the difference between -1 to -40 was rated as 4; the difference between -41 and below was rated as 5.

Once the tables were completed, it was noted that the topic of "Government of D. C." received a very high rating from all groups. That topic was chosen, therefore, for development into a resource unit. A committee of six D. C. public secondary school teachers advised and suggested as to which activities could be included in the unit. They also recommended just where in the present courses of study the resource unit could be fitted without upsetting the established social studies curriculum.

Summary of Findings

In determining what item was considered indispensable, the project turned to the tables for the total responses of the entire seven hundred respondents. Items which received a rating of 1 on the tables were considered indispensable; a rating of 2 was considered important; a rating of 3, worthwhile if time were available; a rating of 4 or 5, the item could be left out entirely.

Indispensable Items. Items which were considered indispensable, to be included in the courses of study, are as follows:

I. Historical Background

1. Early settlers
2. Why the site was chosen for the capital
3. D. C. in the Civil War
5. Effect of World War I upon D. C.
6. Effect of World War II upon D. C.
II. Economic Life of D. C.

1. Vocational opportunities
2. Opportunities for employment with U. S. Government
3. Opportunities for employment with D. C. Government
4. Opportunities and requirements in clerical and sales occupations
5. Opportunities and requirements in professional and semi-professional occupations.
6. Sources of foodstuffs and water supply
7. Co-operation with regions to maintain health

III. Educational Opportunities in D. C.

1. Opportunities in general secondary schools
2. Opportunities in public schools
3. Opportunities in vocational schools; curricula offered
4. Opportunities in colleges and universities; their general curricula and specialized schools.
5. Special schools
6. Libraries

IV. Government of D. C.

1. The commission form of government; powers and duties of commissioners.
2. The work of the Police Department
3. The relation of D. C. to U. S. Congress
4. The relation of D. C. to U. S. President
5. Plans for home rule for D. C.
6. Sources of revenue for the D. C. government
7. Qualifications of D. C. teachers
8. Sources of funds for school support
9. Authority of the School Board
11. Civic responsibilities of the individual  
   a. Obedience to laws  
   b. Concern for others  
   c. Respect for public and private property  
   d. Pride in the community  
   e. Participation in groups concerned in promotion of civic affairs

V. Health and Welfare of D. C.  
   1. Public clinics  
   2. Role of D. C. health department  

VI. Controversial social problems  
   1. Causes of crime and delinquency; ways in which crimes and delinquency may be decreased.  
   2. The improvement of housing; ways of accomplishing it.  

   Important Items. Items which were considered as being more important than worthwhile, to be given serious consideration for inclusion in the courses of study, are as follows:  

I. Climatic Conditions of the District  

II. Historical Background  
   1. Early explorers  
   2. The effect of the War of 1812 on D. C.  
   3. Changes during Reconstruction Era  
   4. Changes since Reconstruction days to the present  
   5. Growth of D. C. and suburbs  

III. Economic Life of D. C.  
   1. Opportunities for employment in adjacent Maryland and Virginia counties.  
   2. Opportunities and requirements for craftsmen, operatives and laborers.  
   3. Economic relationship of D. C. to surrounding region  
   4. Board of Trade  
   5. Chamber of Commerce  
   6. The American Federation of Labor
IV. Educational Opportunities Available

1. Museums
2. Newspapers and magazines
3. Public buildings

V. Government of D. C.

1. School administration
2. Selection of School Board members
3. Selection of teachers
4. Qualifications of administrators
5. Authority of the Commissioners

VI. Health and Welfare Facilities of D. C.

1. Sources of funds for maintenance of hospitals
2. Private clinics
3. Group hospitalization plans
4. The community chest

VII. Retirement System in D. C.

1. Civil Service retirement
2. Social Security retirement

VIII. Controversial Social Problems.

1. Re-organization of government of D. C., including extension of suffrage
2. Socialized medicine

Comparison of Responses on which Groups Differed. In comparing the responses on which groups differed, mention is made only of comparisons where significant differences occur. These differences are as follows:

1. Comparing the replies of students, teachers and adults, the students were inclined to give a lower rating than did the teachers to several of the items, while the adults took a middle ground. The highest agreement between any of the groups to the total responses occurred among the adult group.
2. Significant differences among the three groups were rare, the groups tending to agree rather than to disagree on most of the items.

3. Pupils and adults showed a lack of interest in the history of the neighborhood in which the child lives, or in the history of the school in which the child is enrolled. Teachers rated these items higher than did either the pupil or the adult group.

4. All groups emphasized the importance of vocational guidance as to including in the courses of study material in relation to opportunities for employment with United States and District of Columbia Governments. Teachers also emphasized material relating to opportunities for employment in adjacent Maryland and Virginia counties, while pupils gave this same item a rating of worthwhile. D. C. residents agreed with the pupils, while the suburbanites agreed with the teachers.

5. Pupils showed little interest in learning about opportunities for farmers, craftsmen, operatives, laborers or domestic workers. Newcomers to D. C. rated these items higher than did those who have lived in the area for longer than a year. Physical education teachers rated as indispensable the item on farm opportunities, while the social studies teacher rated the same item as not being worthwhile.

6. College graduates believed material on transportation facilities should be left out of the curriculum, while the total respondents believed such material was worthwhile.

7. D. C. residents checked as worthwhile the item on the expansion of the residential area to the surrounding region, while the suburbanites thought such item was indispensable.

8. Students showed little interest in material on independent labor unions, apprenticeship system, non-union workers and consumer organizations, whereas teachers and adults gave a higher rating.
9. All groups emphasized educational guidance, as to curricula in public secondary and vocational schools, colleges, universities, special schools and libraries. Other education media, such as theaters, orchestras, botanic gardens, were considered less important, whereas moving-picture houses were considered as best left out of the courses of study. Art teachers disagreed with all other occupational groups, by considering these media (except for movies) as indispensable in the courses of study.

10. Respondents emphasized the inclusion of items on the government of D. C., the powers and duties of the commissioners, plans for home rule, relation of D. C. to U. S. Congress and President, and sources of revenue. Adults, pupils and teachers would include items on the selection and qualifications of teachers and school administrators, the authority of the School Board, and the powers of Congress in regard to school. The respondents showed less interest in including material on teacher welfare provisions and salaries.

11. The adults in the clerical and sales group gave a low rating to the item on community chest, while other groups rated this item somewhat higher.

Implementation of the Findings

The co-operative technique was used to implement the findings of the questionnaire. A committee of Washington, D. C. public school teachers distributed all the topics on the questionnaire according to grade levels.

The Resource Unit. Topics on the questionnaire lend themselves to the organization of resource units. A resource unit to illustrate the possibilities of such unit organization was prepared. Because of the interest shown by the respondents to the topic of the government of Washington, D. C.
and because the topic is already a part of the present course of study, this project chose that topic for the development of the resource unit. Objectives for such a unit would include pupil-understanding of the following.

1. relationship between Federal and D. C. governments
2. problems connected with possible home rule.
3. fiscal problems
4. school's part in community life
5. pupil responsibilities to his community
6. need for participation in organizations promoting civic affairs
7. vocational opportunities in D. C. government
8. influences of government in improvement of living
9. need for continued interest and self-education in the activities of local government.
10. pupils' activities are part of communities' activities

The scope of the unit was made purposefully broad, mainly because the local government situation is now in a state of flux due to home rule agitation.

A committee of six experienced Washington public junior and senior high school teachers advised and suggested activities which teachers may use in teaching the unit. The activities, classified as to possible use by the entire class, or by committees, or by individual pupils, included field trips, reports to class, map and poster making, panel discussions, dramatization, etc. The teachers examined the entire questionnaire and made definite suggestions as to just where in the separate courses of study the various topics might be taught successfully. Because there is no separate course on the teaching of local history and government, and because the recommendation has been made to incorporate such subject matter in existing courses
of study, the committee made the suggestions for incorporating the separate topics of the entire questionnaire. The resource unit on "Government" was recommended especially for Grade 12A - United States Government. The U. S. History, Civics, Sociology and Law courses could all stress material of this unit, in whole or in part.

Bibliographical material on the government of the District of Columbia is extensive. In order to assist the classroom teacher, the bibliography listed in this resource unit is readily available in the Washingtoniana Room, D. C. Public Library, 8th and K Sts., N. W., Washington, D. C. The bibliography includes textbook, pamphlets, newspaper clippings, reports of speeches, articles, copies of bills introduced into Congress, etc., and includes material on each item of the topic. Further resource units on each of the topics might be developed by teachers in the future. The suggestions for the use of all topics have been incorporated in this project.

Evaluation of Procedures and Suggestions for Further Application

While the material to be taught in the courses of study might have been selected by one individual or a small group of persons, the material as selected in this project represents the viewpoint of seven hundred persons. This project concludes that the co-operative effort of many interested persons provides a sound basis for selecting such material. Such co-operative effort is democratic, feasible, and promotes a greater interest in such curriculum than if revision were accomplished by a few school officials.

In developing the co-operative technique several media might have been used, such as the personal interview, group conferences and panel discussion. The questionnaire was used exclusively as the instrument to
poll public opinion. A careful sampling, including pupils of the eighth semester of the senior high school, teachers of the special subject areas, and interested adults of the several occupational classifications, contributed to the total opinion by responding to the questionnaire. This project concludes that such questionnaire procedure is economical, and provides data which represents the opinions of the groups involved.

Resource units, developed with the advice of a committee of experienced teachers, are of definite help to the classroom teacher by suggesting activities, outcomes, analysis, evaluation and bibliography.

This project recommends that further study in the co-operative technique be made for curriculum revision in all the high school subject areas. It would prove interesting to utilize this technique in revising English grammar and literature courses, biology and mathematics courses.

This project recommends that further study be made in the reasons why items on the questionnaire were rated as they were by the respondents. For instance, some educational leaders urge that local history teaching begin with the study of the history of the neighborhood and school in which the pupil is enrolled. Yet pupils and adults do not feel that such material is important.

Only one resource unit based upon local history and government was developed. Several such resource units could be developed. The resource units need to be evaluated after being put into use, in order to keep the material up-to-date, to delete and to make changes where necessary.

The procedure of utilizing committees of teachers to formulate resource units can be developed further in curriculum making. Such committee activities may be used for developing questionnaires, writing courses of study, stating objectives for entire courses of study, and for continuous evaluation of the curriculum.
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