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FOREWORD

FEDERAL PARTICIPATION in the support of education is inevitable. Without it there is not the remotest possibility of providing an equitable minimum standard of educational opportunity thruout the nation. This conclusion is based upon the following indisputable facts:

- (1) There are the most appalling differences in educational opportunity, both among the states and within the states.
- (2) These differences in educational opportunity are the result of economic conditions largely beyond the control of the states.
- (3) Regardless of the effort made, many states will never be able to provide, from their own resources, a minimum acceptable program of educational opportunity.
- (4) The recent development of corporations and holding companies, and changes in the forms of wealth, have made it impossible for the states to tax the greatest potential sources of revenue.

The federal government has an inescapable interest in the maintenance of public education, and it must bear with the states the financial burden of supporting school facilities thruout the nation. Considerations leading to this conclusion are as follows:

- (1) Citizens of the state are none the less citizens of the nation, and, as has been pronounced by every American statesman, schools and the means of public education are indispensable to a democratic nation.
- (2) The mobility of our population and the higher birth-rates among the poor states compel the interest of each of the states, and hence of the nation, in the character of educational opportunity offered everywhere in the nation.

During the past two or three years there has been considerable legislation designed to reform various economic and social conditions. For example, Congress voted twenty million dollars to enable tenant farmers of the South to become farm owners. Desirable as reform legislation may be, there is often an underlying problem of education. This fact is recognized in a Works Progress Administration publication entitled *Landlord and Tenant on the Cotton Plantation*:

The new order in agriculture, necessary to rehabilitate the South, gives rise to entirely different problems, and these modern agricultural problems cannot be successfully met with ignorance. Yet the schools, the chief agencies by which ignorance may be dispelled, are allowed to languish for want of interest and adequate financial support. The ignorance and shortsightedness of the cotton share-cropper of this generation is but a reflection of his training in the past. In like manner succeeding generations of adults will be handicapped by the inadequacies of their childhood training unless a new order of rural education can be effected.

In this bulletin the Research Division brings before the profession the gist of the argument presented at recent Senate and House hearings on the Harrison-Black-Fletcher Bill. The cause of federal aid goes forward. Let teachers in their local and state groups review the evidence and prepare themselves for the next advance.

WILLARD E. GIVENS, *Executive Secretary,*
National Education Association.

Introduction

Prior to the last two decades the public schools with but few exceptions were supported thru the resources of local communities. Under pressure of sweeping social and economic forces state participation eventually became necessary. These same forces have made it just as essential for the federal government to contribute to the support of education as it has been for the states to do so. What are the facts to support this point of view? The purpose of the present bulletin is to review the evidence in the case for federal aid to education.

Is Federal Aid a New Idea?

Between 1781 and 1802 the thirteen original states ceded to the federal government their claims to the land between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi River. In 1783 Colonel Timothy Pickering, in a proposal for settling soldiers of the Revolution in a part of the present state of Ohio, suggested that surplus western lands should be disposed for the common good including the establishing of schools and academies. The Ordinance of 1785, ordering the rectangle system of survey of public lands, provided that "lot No. 16 of every township" should be reserved for the maintenance of public schools. The Ordinance of 1787 stated that "schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged" in the states to be developed from the western territory. In the same year the Ohio Company purchased land on the Ohio River with the understanding that Section 16 should be reserved for schools. Similar terms were made in the sale of Ohio land to John C. Symmes in 1788. In these laws and grants of Congress we have the beginnings of a *national* land-grant policy for the promotion of education.

The earlier policy was definitely established and extended in the admission of states carved from the western lands.¹ In the admission of Ohio in 1802 the sixteenth section of land in each township was granted for schools, on the condition that the state should exempt from taxation for five years all public lands sold by Congress. Similar bargains were made in the admission of Tennessee, Indiana, Mississippi, Illinois, and Alabama. With the exception of Maine, Texas, and West Virginia, all states

admitted after the establishment of this land policy received grants for schools. Most of the states west of the Mississippi River received two and sometimes four sections in every township. In most of the states, also, similar grants were made for college and university purposes. By the Morrill Act of 1862 additional grants for colleges of agricultural and mechanical arts were made not only to the western states in the form of land, but to the southern and eastern states in the form of land scrip. Taken together, the federal land specifically granted for common schools constituted an area larger than Italy, over twice as large as England and Wales, and twenty-five times the size of Connecticut.²

After the Civil War there were several proposals that federal aid to the states for education should take the form of money grants. The Hoar Bill of 1870 provided that proceeds from the sale of public lands should be distributed in proportion to illiteracy in each state. This bill was never enacted into law. The three Blair bills (between 1884 and 1887), also providing for the distribution of funds to the states on the basis of illiteracy, passed the Senate but were never approved by the House.

In 1887, by the passing of the Hatch Act, Congress appropriated \$15,000 a year to each of the land-grant colleges for agricultural experimental stations. Later the basic amount was increased and provision was made for annual increases. By the so-called "Second Morrill Act" of 1890 Congress granted additional money to the land-grant colleges. Beginning at \$15,000 per year for each college, the law has been amended to provide for grants up to a maximum of \$50,000 per year. The Hatch Act and the Second Morrill Act together make it possible for each state to receive \$140,000 each year in direct aid for higher education.

Since 1911 the general policy of federal aid, other than that of recent emergency grants, has followed the pattern set by the Weeks Act for fire protection. The significant features of this act were: (1) state matching of federal funds; (2) details of administration in state hands; and (3) federal supervision and inspection of the operation of the plan.

In 1914 the Smith-Lever Act provided na-

¹ Cubberley, Ellwood P. *State School Administration*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927. p. 15-76.

² See Table V in F. H. Swift's *Federal and State Policies in Public School Finance in the United States*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1931. p. 26.

tional aid to the states for the diffusion of information on subjects relating to agriculture and home economics. In 1924-25 the total federal grants under this act amounted to nearly six million dollars. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 provided federal aid for vocational education. The states must appropriate a sum equal to the federal grant. In August 1937 a supplementary law was enacted, providing \$14,000,000 of federal funds to meet the provisions of this bill and subsequent legislation.

In addition to the foregoing provisions for federal aid to education, there have been other less well-known grants of assistance. These include gifts of saline and swamp lands, grants from the sale of public lands, the distribution of "surplus revenue" from the federal treasury, the gifts of public lands for internal improvements, and various enabling acts upon the admission of territories to statehood. Since the World War, there have been large federal appropriations for the vocational reeducation both of veterans and of persons disabled in industry. Federal assistance in the form of money grants has been given during the recent depression years to help "closed" schools, to provide nursery and adult education, to construct school buildings, and to carry out the programs of the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration.

The National Education Association and Proposals for Federal Aid

As early as 1869 the National Teachers' Association, a forerunner of the present National Education Association, became interested in the establishment of a national university. A bill was introduced in 1873, providing that the federal government should pay the proposed university 5 percent on an endowment of \$20,000,000. Congress took no action on this measure or on similar proposals which have been introduced from time to time. The idea, however, is discussed from year to year by members of the Association who believe that the proposition has considerable merit.

A committee of the Association proposed in 1919 that there be established a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet and that \$100,000,000 a year be granted to the states for the improvement of schools. In essentially the same form (Smith-Towner, 1919; Sterling-Towner, 1921; Sterling-Reed, 1923) the bill was reintroduced into

Congress. Without the provision for federal aid, a similar bill was unsuccessfully advocated in 1925.

In 1936, thru its Legislative Commission, the National Education Association had introduced into Congress the Harrison-Black-Fletcher Bill. The main provisions of the proposal were:

Appropriations to the states—Funds are appropriated to the states to be used by them for schools. The manner in which the funds received shall be used for the maintenance of a program of public education is left wholly to the respective state legislatures.

Basis of apportionment—The funds are apportioned to the states and territories according to the number of persons 5 to 20 years old in each (\$2.54 per person the first year and increasing to \$7.63 the fifth year). Each state can then apportion the funds to its districts according to any plan it may choose.

Federal control prohibited—All control, administration, and supervision of schools and educational programs are reserved strictly to the states and forbidden to all federal officers and agencies.

What the states must do—In order to qualify for receiving the federal allotments each state or territory must do three things: (a) maintain a system of public schools available thruout the state or territory wherein each school in said system shall be held in session for a term of not less than 160 days, closing of schools due to epidemics, fires, and acts of God being excepted; (b) spend from combined state and local revenues for elementary and secondary schools as much per person 5 to 20 years old as was spent in the school year ending 1936, taking into consideration the total population and each population group for which schools are specifically maintained; and (c) have legislative enactments for the distribution, expenditure, and administration of the fund appropriated by the federal government, and for a just and equitable distribution and expenditure of said funds among the several public schools of that state or territory.

Amount of funds to be required—An initial appropriation of \$100,000,000 and an increase of \$50,000,000 each year until \$300,000,000 per year is provided.

In the spring of 1937 hearings were held before the Senate Committee on Labor and Education and the Committee on Education of the House of Representatives. The Senate Committee voted favorably on the bill, but an "economy wave" prevented its further consideration by the Senate. The House Committee postponed action, pending action by the Senate. Meanwhile educators await with interest the report on the role of the federal government in education which is now being prepared by the President's Advisory Committee on Education.

How the Bulletin Is Organized

The published reports³ of the congressional hearings on the Harrison-Black-Fletcher Bill cover over one thousand pages of statistical evidence and expert opinion. It is doubtful whether any educational proposal considered by Congress has had a more carefully considered and detailed body of supporting evidence. One of the principal purposes of the present bulletin is to make this collection of information available in concise and systematic form.

In presenting the case for federal aid to the congressional committees, the Association drew upon the studies of the Research Division, the investigations of educational and tax authorities, and the experience of experts in numerous fields. In a brief presentation of the data this bulletin will discuss the following major questions:

(1) *What inequalities among the states make federal aid a necessity?* Three topics will be treated in this connection: (a) the inequalities of educational opportunity, (b) the economic ability of the states to support schools, and (c) the size of the educational task.

(2) *Do present conditions tend to perpetuate the inequalities among the states?* Evidence will be presented on three topics: (a) the declining birth-rate, (b) migration from farms, and (c) growth in corporate ownership of wealth.

(3) *Could the states themselves overcome the existing inequalities?* The two points

treated in answer to this question are: (a) efforts required to support an adequate school program, and (b) improvement of state tax systems.

(4) *Can the nation afford to support education?* Particular attention is given here to the topics: (a) school costs and other expenditures, and (b) the incidence of federal taxation.

(5) *Why is the education of children in all of the states of national concern?* This question is answered by evidence on the mobility of population.

(6) *What other questions arise with regard to federal aid for education?* Passing reference is made to several problems discussed at the congressional hearings which do not lend themselves readily to statistical treatment.

How This Bulletin May Be Used

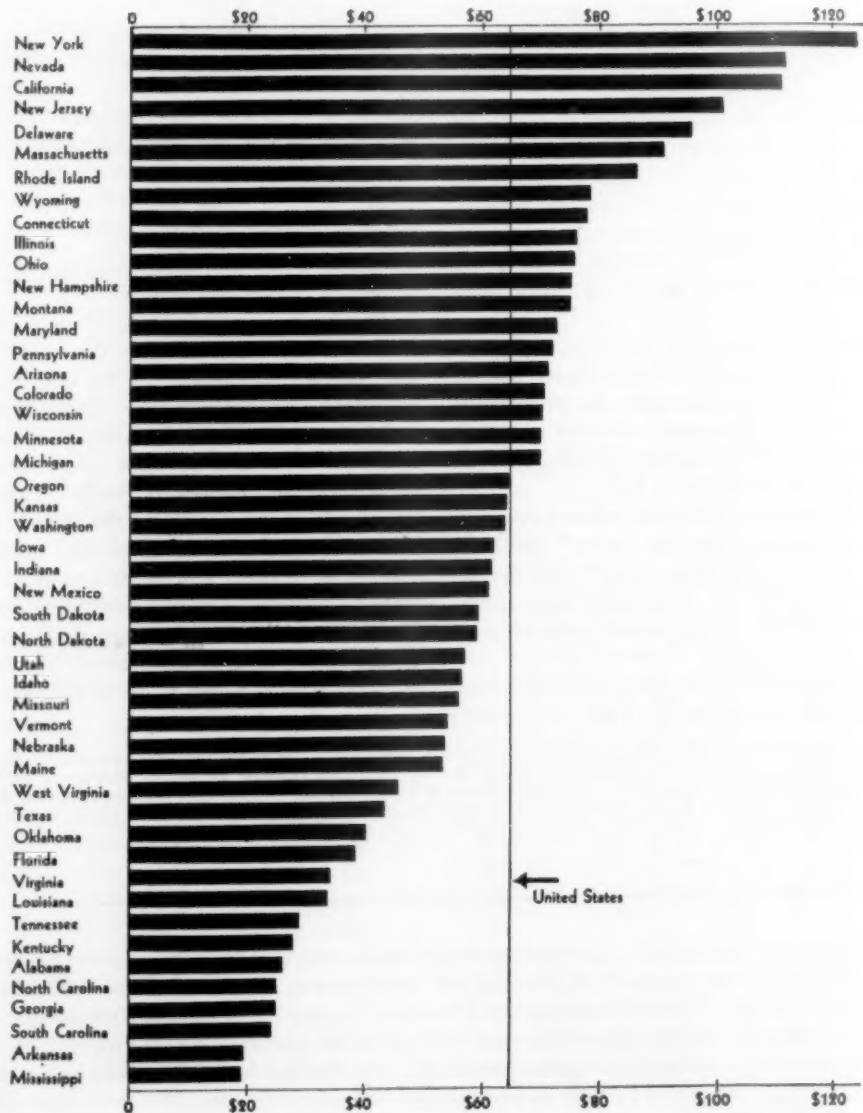
The history of federal legislation indicates an increasing sentiment for a recognition by the federal government of its obligations to education. At some future time appropriate legislation will be passed—either the Harrison-Black-Fletcher Bill or some other. Desirable action will be hastened if teachers themselves are aware of the issues and the facts involved. The evidence needs to be thoroly studied by individual teachers and by groups in local and state associations. Laymen need to be informed by discussions in parent-teacher associations and in the many civic organizations. The present bulletin should prove to be a valuable handbook in all such activities.

³ U. S. Congress, Senate, Committee on Education and Labor, *Assistance to States and Territories in Providing Programs of Public Education*. Hearings on S. 419, February 9, 10, 11, and 15, 1937. 75th Congress, 1st Session. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1937. 307 p. ¶ U. S. Congress, House of Representatives, Committee on Education, *Federal Aid to the States for the Support of Public Schools*. Hearings on H. R. 5962, March 30 and 31, April 1, 2, 6, 8, and 13, 1937. 75th Congress, 1st Session. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1937. 485 p.

NO MORE FUNDAMENTAL RESPONSIBILITY rests upon Congress than that of devising appropriate measures of financial aid to education, supplemental to local action in the states and territories and in the District of Columbia. The wise forethought of the founders of our government has not only furnished the basis for the support of the common-school systems of the newer states, but laid the foundations for the maintenance of their universities and colleges of agricultural and mechanic arts. Measures in accordance with this traditional policy for the further benefit of all these interests and the extension of the same advantages to every portion of the country, it is hoped will receive your favorable consideration."—*Message to Congress, 1879, Rutherford B. Hayes.*

FIGURE I

EXPENDITURES FOR PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, PER PUPIL ENROLLED, 1933-34



Research Division, National Education Association

Based on the "Biennial Survey of Education, 1933-34." Federal Office of Education.

Inequalities of Educational Opportunity

There are wide differences in the extent and quality of the school programs offered by the various states.¹ The full significance of these differences can never be shown statistically, yet their presence is clearly reflected in certain types of data. Some of the more striking disparities revealed by figures on per pupil expenditures, length of school term, ratio of high-school enrolment to total enrolment, salaries paid teachers, and the per pupil value of school property are cited in the following paragraphs.

Figure I, on the opposite page, makes use of only the first of these measures—expenditures per pupil enrolled—to demonstrate the comparative inadequacy of the educational opportunities afforded the children of some of our states. The year 1933-34 is the latest for which reliable and complete information is available.

Inequalities in Pupil Expenditures

Contrast the kind of schools that can be bought for \$18.93 per pupil, annually, with those which cost an annual sum of \$124.32 per pupil. Yet Figure I shows that these were the average amounts spent in 1933-34 for each pupil enrolled in the public schools of Mississippi and New York, respectively. According to these figures the average school child of New York state has about $6\frac{1}{2}$ times as much money spent on his education, each year, as the average school child of Mississippi.

Figure I ranks all of the states in the order of their annual expenditures per pupil enrolled in the public schools, in 1933-34. In the United States as a whole, this expenditure was \$64.76—more than three times as great as that of Mississippi. Seven states spent more than \$80 per pupil enrolled, but eight states spent less than \$30, and eleven states less than \$40 per pupil enrolled.

Other Disparities

The average school term in the nation as a whole is about $8\frac{1}{2}$ months. The average terms supported by the states range from $9\frac{1}{2}$ months to less than $6\frac{1}{2}$ months. In seven states the average number of days attended by rural pupils is less than 6 months. More than 600,000 children attend rural schools which are in session for less than 6 months per year. Are these rural children expected to learn as much

in 6 months as children in some other states, and in city schools of the same states, can learn in 8 or 9 months?

Can a teacher be employed for \$465 annually who will be equal in training and ability to one who is paid an annual salary of \$2361? The former figure is the average, *not the minimum*, salary paid public school teachers in Arkansas in 1933-34. The latter figure is the average salary paid teachers in New York state. Four states pay teachers an average of less than \$600 a year; nine states pay less than \$750.

The ratio of high-school enrolments to total enrolments varies, among the states, from 30.9 percent in Wisconsin to only 10.6 percent in Mississippi. Eleven states have more than 25 percent of their total enrolment in high schools while in eleven other states high-school enrolments represent less than 16 percent of the total enrolment. With our present population, if high schools were universally available and universally attended, high-school enrolments would constitute approximately $33\frac{1}{3}$ percent of total enrolments.

The range among the states in the value of public school property per pupil in attendance is from \$570 in Massachusetts to \$60 in Mississippi. Over 65 percent of all school buildings in the latter state are one-room schools. In the former state, one-room schools represent less than 15 percent of total school buildings.

A study by PWA engineers reveals that about two and one-half million children are not provided with public school facilities. Nearly as many pupils attend school only part-time or in buildings that are unsanitary and unsafe.

Differences among the states in breadth of educational opportunity are as great as the more material differences reflected in the statistical data cited above.

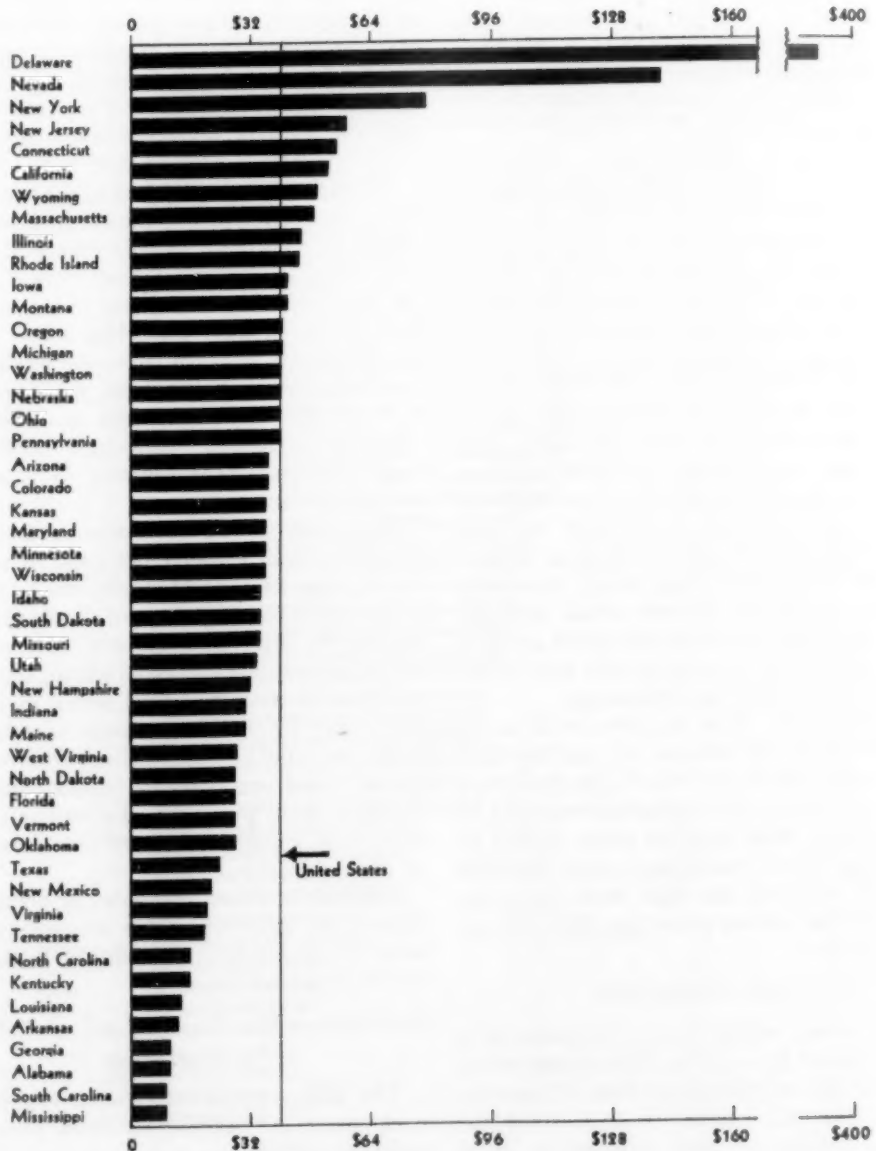
Differences Not Due to Lack of Interest in Education

The differences in educational opportunity cited above are not the result of reluctance upon the part of some states to support schools. They are, in almost every case, due to economic conditions over which the states affected have no control. These conditions are discussed in the following pages.

¹ Based upon *Senate Hearings on S. 419*, p. 29-32; *House Hearings on H. R. 5962*, p. 34-37; and U. S. Office of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education, 1932-1934*, Chapter II, "Statistics of State School Systems, 1933-34."

FIGURE II

RELATIVE PER CAPITA TAXPAYING ABILITY OF THE STATES, 1930



Research Division, National Education Association

Based on data from Mabel Newcomer's "An Index of the Taxpaying Ability of State and Local Governments."

Economic Ability of the States To Support Schools

*The states are unequal in their economic ability to support schools.*¹ Differences among the states in financial ability to support schools have been measured in several ways. In an early investigation Norton measured ability in terms of income and wealth. The expenses of government, however, are paid out of taxes so that the state which can collect the most taxes is undoubtedly the most able to support schools or any other public function. Two more recent investigations of tax resources have been made by Newcomer and Chism. Figure II, on the opposite page, is based on data from Newcomer's study.

Differences in Taxpaying Ability

Newcomer based her measures of taxpaying ability on the estimated yield, in each of the states, of a uniform system of taxation, recommended by a committee of the National Tax Association in 1933. The committee recommended that every tax system should include a personal income tax, a tax on tangible property, and a business income tax. In addition, Newcomer included in her proposed uniform tax system three supplementary taxes—a severance tax, a corporate organization tax, and a stock transfer tax—on grounds that these taxes represent extraordinary taxpaying ability in certain states which should be reflected in any measure of the relative taxpaying ability of the forty-eight states.

According to Newcomer, the estimated tax resources of New York state were \$1,038,000,000 in 1930, 115 times as great as the \$9,000,000 of estimated tax resources of New Mexico. Figure III is based on these data and comparable data for the other states reduced to a per capita basis.

Figure III shows that in 1930, Delaware had a per capita taxpaying ability of \$390—39 times that of South Carolina and Mississippi. The average taxpaying ability in the United States as a whole was \$40, which is just equal to the taxpaying ability of each resident of Michigan, Washington, Nebraska, and Ohio. Nevada, which ranks second to Delaware, had a per capita taxpaying ability of \$141, and the figure for New York, which ranks third on this

basis, is \$79. Residents of eight states had an average taxpaying ability of less than \$20.

Using similar methods, Chism also found a wide divergence in the estimated tax resources of the various states.

Differences in Ability as Measured by Income and Wealth

The United States Department of Commerce has estimated the national income, in the year 1934, at \$50,174,000,000. A distribution of this total among the states, as estimated by the National Industrial Conference Board, indicates that \$8,650,000,000, or about 17 percent of the total, was received by the inhabitants of New York state. The people of only seven states—New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, California, Ohio, Massachusetts, and New Jersey—received \$27,053,821,000, or almost 54 percent of the national total.

The total estimated wealth of the nation in 1932, according to the National Industrial Conference Board, was \$247,300,000,000. The Conference Board's estimate of the distribution of national wealth among the states shows almost one-third of the total wealth of the nation located in four states—New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Ohio.

All available data on the relative financial resources of the states tend to bear out the conclusion that wide differences exist. According to the most conservative of the figures the ability of the richest state to support education is at least six times as great as that of the poorest state. Other estimates indicate that this divergence is even greater.

On any basis, so far presented, the taxpaying ability of states like Delaware, Nevada, New York, New Jersey, California, Connecticut, Wyoming, and Massachusetts averages from two to four times as great as that of the states of North Carolina, Kentucky, Louisiana, Arkansas, Georgia, Alabama, South Carolina, and Mississippi. These differences are great enough to account for many of the variations in educational opportunity cited on page 161, even if they were not aggravated by conditions discussed in later sections of this bulletin.

¹ Based upon *Senate Hearings on S. 419*, p. 21-27, 242-45. ¶ *House Hearings on H. R. 5962*, p. 32-34. ¶ Newcomer, Mabel. *An Index of the Taxpaying Ability of State and Local Governments*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. 85p. For further reference consult Norton, John K., and Norton, Margaret A. *Wealth, Children and Education*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. p. 1-48. ¶ Mort, Paul R., and others. *Federal Support for Public Education*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. p. 115-205.

FIGURE III

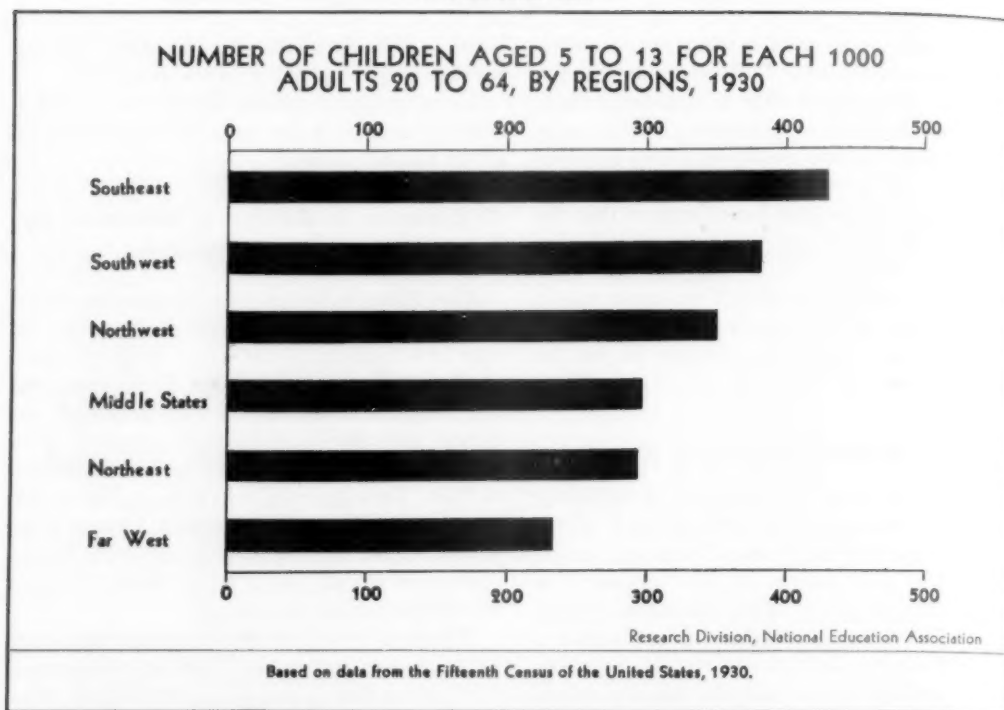
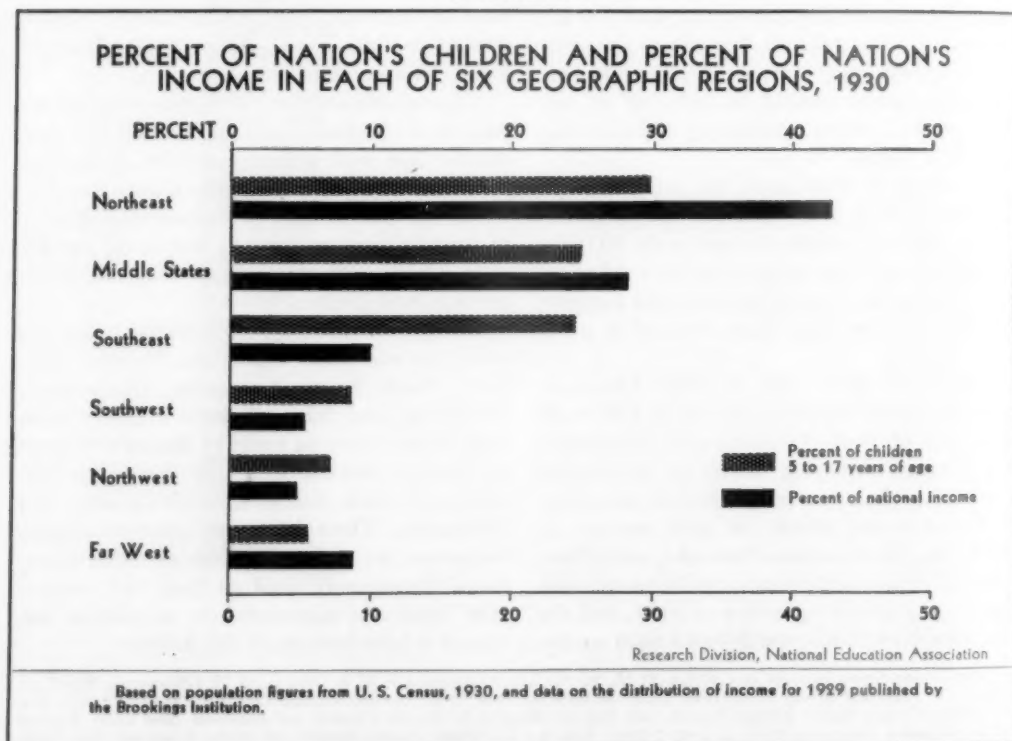


FIGURE IV



The Size of the Educational Task

Inequalities in the economic ability of the states to support education are emphasized by differences in the size of the educational task.¹

It is significant that almost invariably the states with the lowest taxpaying ability and the most meager educational programs are those with the highest number of children in proportion to adults. Figure III, on page 164, shows the number of children 5 to 13 years of age for each 1000 adults in the total population in six geographical regions. Figure IV presents data bearing on the relationship of financial ability to educational load by comparing the percent of the nation's children with the percent of national income received in each of these regions.

Ratio of Children to Adults

Figure III reveals striking regional differences in the ratios of children to adults in the main productive age group. For every 1000 persons between the ages of 20 and 64, there are in the Southeast 426 children of elementary-school age (between the ages of 5 and 13). In the Southwest section of the country the ratio of children ages 5 to 13 years per 1000 adults is 380. There are 350 children per 1000 adults in the Northwest; 297 in the Middle States; 295 in the Northeast, and only 236 in the Pacific Coast States of the Far West. In other words, the productive population of the Southeast is carrying a burden of child care and education which is 44 percent greater than that carried by the Northeast and 80 percent greater than that carried by the Far West.

Differences in the distribution of school population among the individual states are even greater than among the geographical regions. Only a few comparisons between states will be made at this point. The number of children, 5 to 13 years of age, for each 1000 adults between the ages of 20 and 64 is 523 in South Carolina as compared with 225 in California. Similar ratios are 491 in North Carolina and 441 in Alabama, as compared with 254 in New York state and 270 in Illinois.

Usually the relation of the number of children to adults is in inverse ratio to the size of the community. In cities of 100,000 population or more the ratio of children to adults is relatively small. In towns and villages with a

population of less than 2500, this ratio is considerably higher than in large cities, but it is upon the rural farm population that the cost of educating children rests most heavily. For each 1000 adults of the rural farm population in the Southwest and Southeast, there are twice as many children of school age as for each 1000 adults of the population in the large cities. In other regions of the United States the rural farm population is carrying an educational load which is from 65 to 85 percent greater than in the cities.

Percent of the Nation's Children and Percent of the Nation's Income in Different Areas

The rural sections of the nation, by and large, are the ones least able to support schools. The states shown to have the least taxpaying ability in the preceding section of this bulletin are for the most part predominantly rural. When these facts are considered in the light of the data presented above, showing that predominantly rural states and rural areas within states are those which carry the heaviest educational loads, the problem assumes serious proportions.

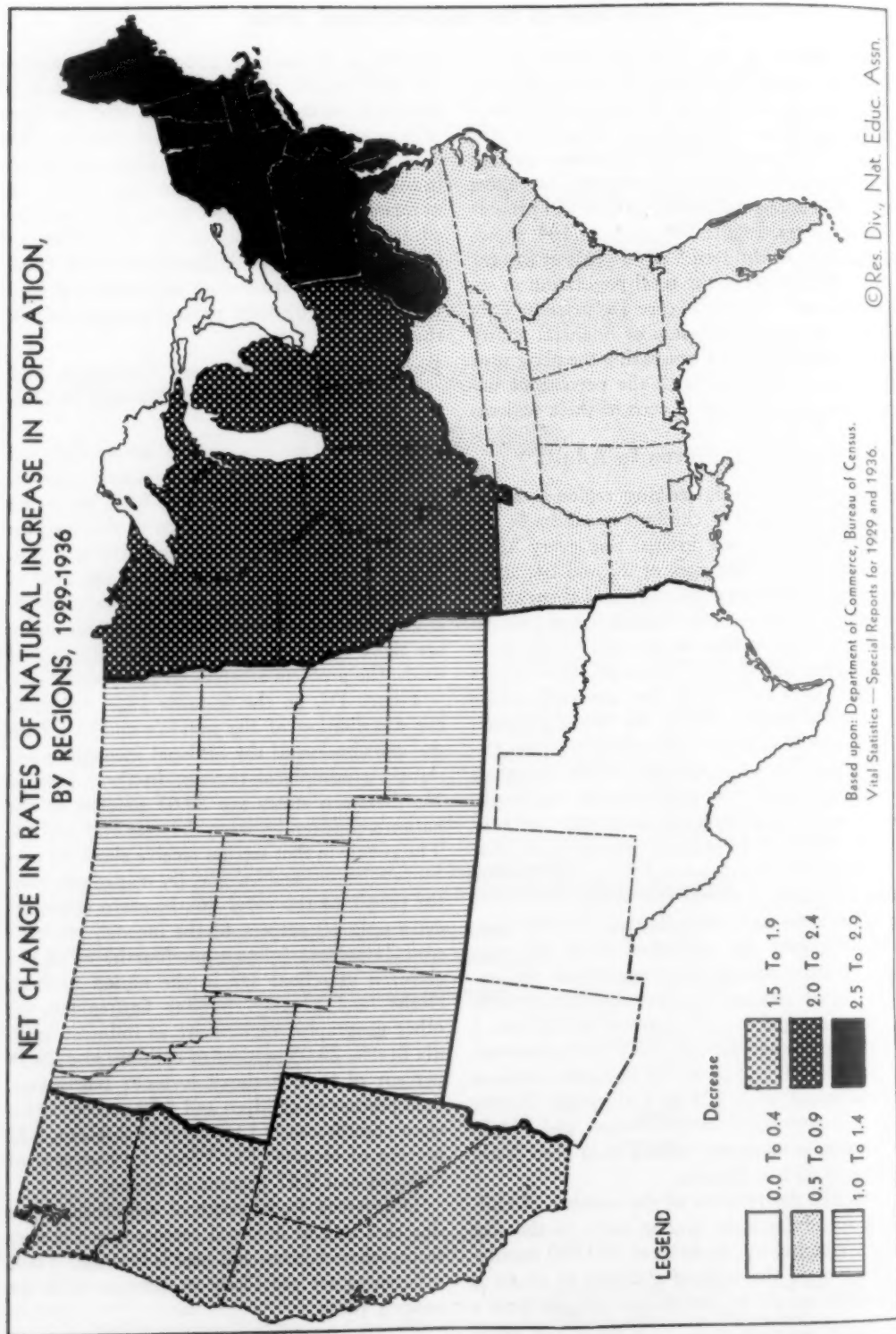
Figure IV, on the opposite page, compares the distribution of the nation's children with the distribution of the national income among the six geographical regions. In the industrial Northeastern states are 29.65 percent of the nation's children between the ages of 5 and 13. The people in that section receive about 43 percent of the national income. By way of contrast, the people of the rural Southeastern states receive only 10 percent of the income, yet have over 24 percent (almost one-fourth) of all the children of school age in the nation to feed, clothe, and educate. Similar figures for the other geographic regions are as follows: Middle States, 26.05 percent of children and 28.38 percent of total national income; Northwest, 6.25 percent of children and 4.59 percent of income; Southwest, 8.13 percent of children, 5.22 percent of income; Far West, 5.48 percent of children and 9.87 percent of income.

Differences in educational opportunity are due to a lack of financial resources in the very states where educational load is heaviest. These differences are not likely to decrease with the passing years.

¹ Based upon *Senate Hearings on S. 419*, p. 44-59. ¶ *House Hearings on H. R. 5962*, p. 33-37. ¶ U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census. *Fifteenth Census of the United States, 1930. "Population."* Vol. II, p. 591. ¶ Leven, M.; Moulton, H. G.; and Warburton, C. A. *America's Capacity To Consume*. Washington, D. C.: Brookings Institution, 1934, p. 172.

FIGURE V

NET CHANGE IN RATES OF NATURAL INCREASE IN POPULATION,
BY REGIONS, 1929-1936



The Declining Birth-Rate

*Differences in the rate of natural increase of population in various regions of the United States tend to perpetuate and increase educational inequalities.*¹ In Figure V the forty-eight states have been grouped into the six major geographic regions used by Odum to illustrate these variations. Rates of natural increase in the population, that is, the excess of live births over deaths per 1000 population, have been used instead of crude birth-rates (live births per 1000 estimated population). Tho it is a well-known fact that the national birth-rate has been declining, a rapidly decreasing death-rate may give the false impression that the actual increase in population has not been seriously affected. If a birth-rate falls more rapidly than a death-rate (which includes infant mortality) the rate of natural increase will drop correspondingly, indicating a decrease in the number of children growing up to replace the maturing population. A study of the changes in rates of natural increase over a period of years, as shown in Figure V, will reveal the true situation created by declining birth-rates in the six major regions of the United States.

Regional Variations

In comparing the net changes in rates of natural increase in population it is significant that certain regions are experiencing far greater differences between falling birth- and death-rates than are other regions. The national birth-rate dropped from 18.9 in 1929 to 16.6 in 1936, and the death-rate from 11.9 to 11.5, thus producing a net decrease of 1.9 in the rate of natural increase for the nation as a whole. But the rate of natural increase in the Northeast region decreased 2.7 as compared with a falling off of 0.9 for the Southeast during this same period. The Middle States showed a decrease of 2.2 compared with drops of 0.3 for the Southwest, 1.4 for the Northwest, and 1.5 for the Far West. These regional variations in the net changes between 1929 and 1936 are particularly important because of the pronounced differences between the actual rates of natural increase for the six geographical regions. In 1929 the Southeast had a 9.5 rate of natural increase compared with 8.9 for the Northwest, 8.1 for

the Southwest, 6.4 for the Middle States, 6.1 for the Northeast, and 3.1 for the Far West. Thus the small drop of 0.9 for the Southeast leaves its 1936 rate standing at 8.6, while the net change for the Middle States sets the 1936 figure at 4.2, the rate for the Northeast drops to 3.4, and a decrease of 1.5 gives the Far West a rate of natural increase of only 1.6 for 1936.

A comparison of rates of natural increase in 1936 with population estimates for that same year shows that approximately 55 percent of the natural increase is coming from three regions—Southeast, Southwest, and Northwest—that contain altogether only about one-third of the total population. Conversely, the Northeast, Middle States, and Far West, with 65 percent of the total population, account for only 45 percent of the total excess of births over deaths. If rates of natural increase continue to decline less rapidly for some years to come in the three regions which contain one-third of the national population, the ratio of children to adults of the productive ages will be disproportionately large in these regions.

With the above situation in mind, this trend resulting from the declining birth-rate is of significance in our problem of the inequality of educational opportunity. It has been shown in previous sections of this bulletin that, on the whole, the states of the Northeast, the Middle States, and the Far West are best prepared to bear the costs of an adequate educational opportunity for their children. In all six regions there are notable exceptions to this general classification, but it is definitely true that the states which are furnishing the larger proportion of the nation's new population are the least able financially to educate it. These states in the Southeast, Southwest, and Northwest have extensive rural areas with low incomes and less desirable levels of living.

If movement of population from rural to urban areas continues, it will be the children of the rural areas who will replace a considerable part of the urban population of the Northeast, Middle States, and Far West. Thus the present trend in rates of natural increase in the six geographic regions may have a profound effect on the distribution and social characteristics of the people of the United States.

¹ Based upon *Senate Hearings on S. 419*, p. 28-29, 44-59. ¶ *House Hearings on H. R. 5962*, p. 33-34. ¶ Odum, Howard W. *Southern Regions of the United States*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1936. p. 7. ¶ U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census. *Vital Statistics, Special Reports*, 1929 and 1936. For further reference consult: Lorimer, Frank, and Osborn, Frederick. *Dynamics of Population*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Chapters 1, 2, and 3.

FIGURE VI

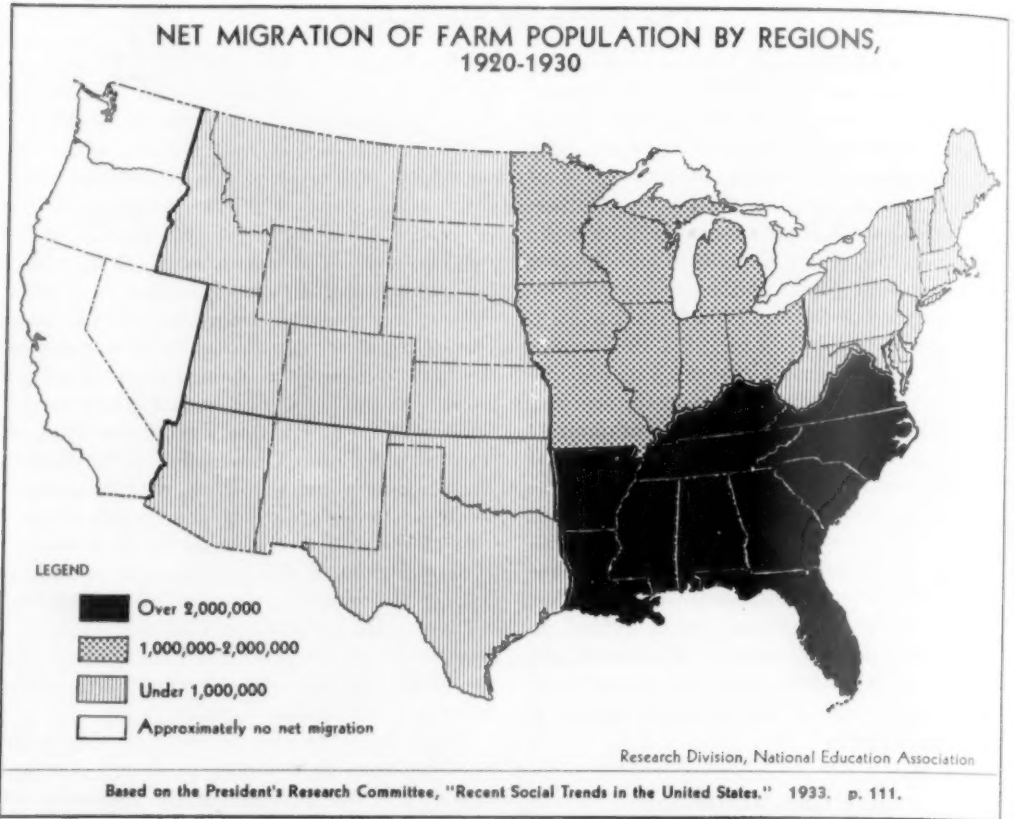
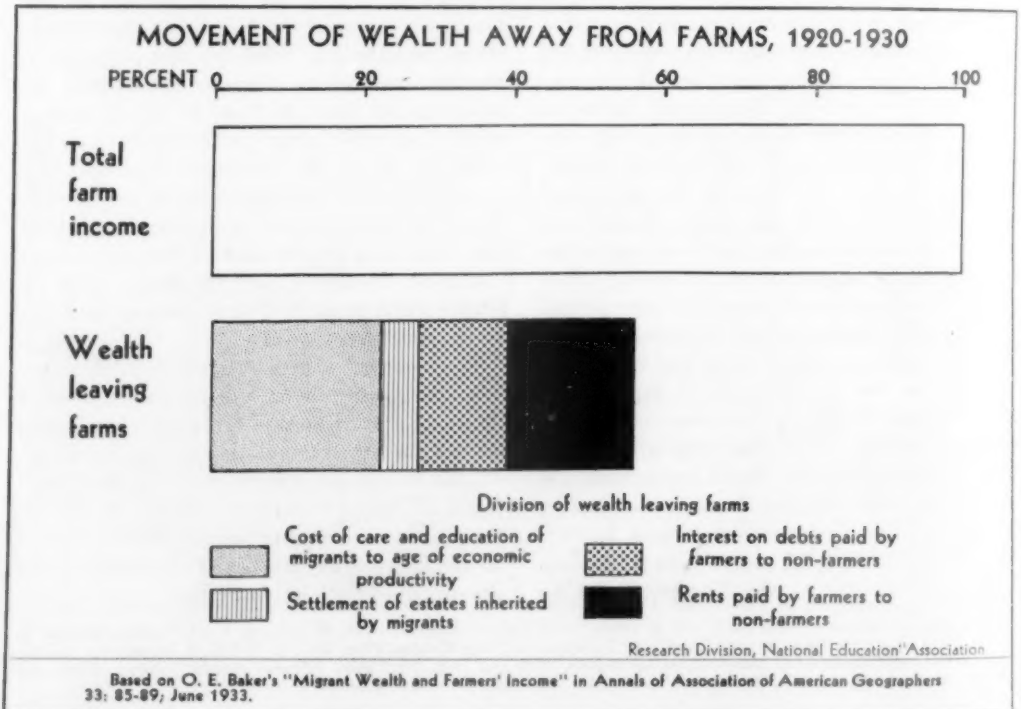


FIGURE VII



Migration from Farms

*Movement of population from farms to non-farm and urban areas results in a movement of wealth in the same direction.*¹ In Figure VI the approximate net migration of the rural-farm population away from farms during the decade 1920 to 1930 is shown for six regions. For comparative purposes the estimates of the movement of wealth away from farms for the same period are shown in Figure VII. Regional estimates of the movement of wealth are not available, but a clear picture of the situation may be ascertained by consideration of the farm incomes of the six regions in comparison with their net migration from farms.

Migration Moves Wealth

Since the World War much of the migration from rural-farm to rural-non-farm and urban areas has come from the Southeast, the eastern corn belt of the Middle States, and the Southwest. Approximately 60 percent of the net migration during the decade 1920-1930, or about 3,437,000 people, came from the combined regions of the Southeast and Southwest. Negroes constituted one-third of this migration from southern farms. About 24 percent of the migration came from the Middle States alone, and the remaining 16 percent moved from the farms of the Northwest and Northeast regions. Though the movement from farms in New York and Pennsylvania was relatively large, a net migration to farms in Massachusetts and Rhode Island reduced the average for the Northeast region. In the Far West the extensive movement to the farm areas of California counterbalanced the small migration from farms in Oregon, Washington, and Nevada with the result that there was virtually no gain or loss for the non-farm areas of the Far West region during the decade.

In all regions the migrants from farm to city were mostly young people. Not quite a third were under 15 years of age, more than a third were 15 to 25 years of age, and about a tenth were 25 to 35 years old. Non-farm areas obtained these people near the beginning of their productive life almost free of cost. The expense of care and education of these migrants up to the age of economic productivity was borne by

the rural areas which lost their investment in the young persons when they left for non-farm centers.

According to Baker the net migration from the farms during the decade 1920-1930 represented a contribution of about \$14,000,000,000. This amounts to \$1,400,000,000 a year, a sum almost equivalent to the annual value of the wheat crop plus half the cotton crop. To this movement of wealth must be added between \$3,000,000,000 and \$4,000,000,000 which was considered to have gone from farms as estates of farm parents were settled among migrant children, about \$7,500,000,000 interest on debts paid by farmers to non-farmers, and approximately \$10,500,000,000 rent paid by farmers to non-farmers. The resultant total of \$35,000,000,000, which left farms between 1920 and 1930, represented 56 percent of the total farm income for the decade.

This movement of wealth from farms is found in all six regions, but the areas of low farm income naturally suffer most. Again the southern regions are affected out of proportion to other sections of the country because the greatest migration from farms occurred there. The Southeast and Southwest, with meager resources for taxation, are left with a disproportionately large number of children. The rural sections of the South must support nearly a third of their population in school, the industrial sections of the North and West less than one-fourth. This means that even when an equal expenditure per adult is made for education, a discrepancy in costs per child remains.

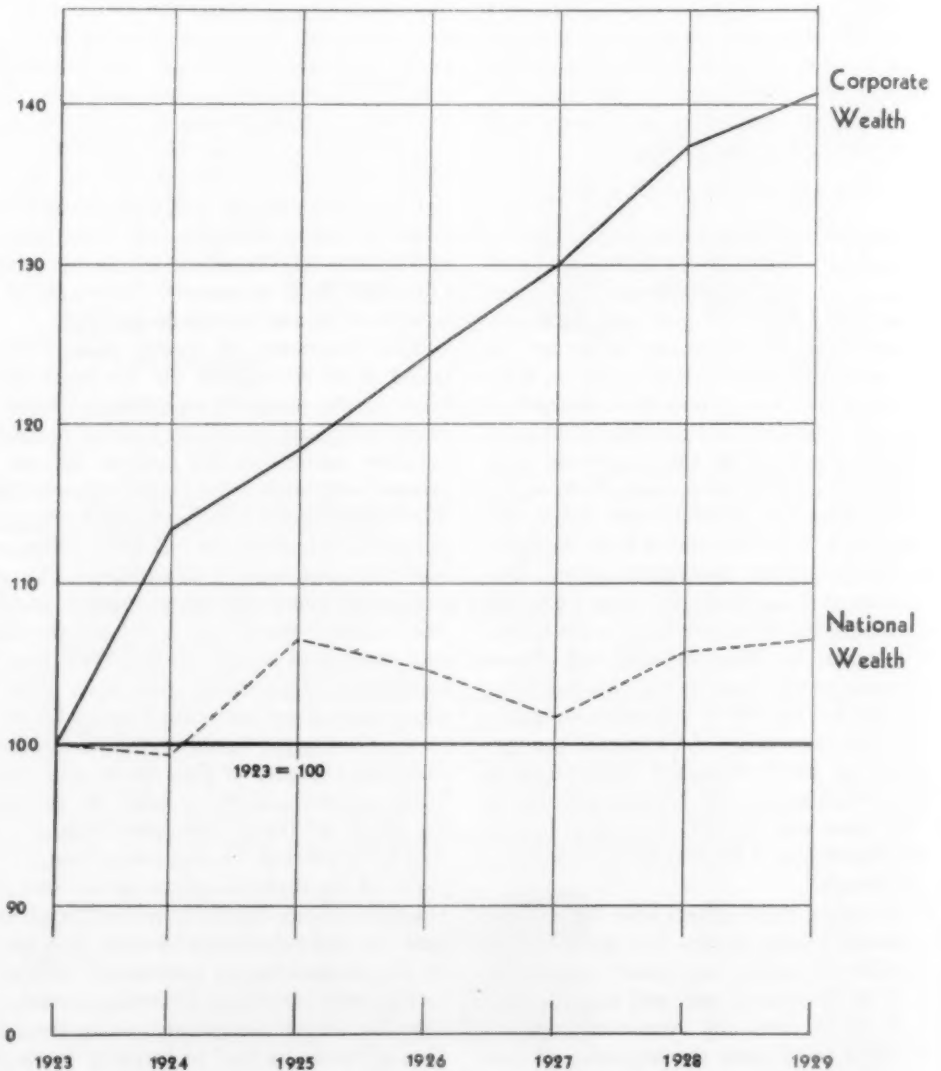
Authorities predict that future migration is likely to continue and possibly to accentuate the trends of the decade from 1920 to 1930. The early years of the depression brought a reversal of the direction of migration, and many unemployed city-dwellers trekked "back to the land" to seek subsistence security. But, because of the competition of commercial agriculture and the ever increasing attractions of non-farm life, already the movement is again away from that self-sufficing type of farming. In the long run no material change has taken place in the great movement to non-farm centers which has persisted for many decades.

¹ Based upon *Senate Hearings on S. 419*, p. 28-29. ¶ *House Hearings on H. R. 5062*, p. 33-34. ¶ Baker, O. E. "Rural-Urban Migration and the National Welfare." *Annals of the Association of American Geographers* 33: 85-90; June 1933. For further reference consult Goodrich, Carter, and others. *Migration and Economic Opportunity*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1936.

FIGURE VIII

COMPARATIVE TRENDS IN CORPORATE AND NATIONAL WEALTH

Index of Change Based on 1923



Research Division, National Education Association

Based on estimates of national wealth by the National Industrial Conference Board, "Conference Board Bulletin," May 20, 1933; and estimates of the wealth of all non-financial corporations by the Federal Trade Commission, "National Wealth and Income" (for 1923) and by Gardiner C. Means, American Economic Review 2: 10-42, March 1931 (for the years 1924-1928 inclusive).

Growth in Corporate Ownership of Wealth

*Growth in corporate ownership and control of wealth is making it increasingly difficult for the states to tap their own economic resources for the support of education and other public services.*¹ This growth in corporate wealth received its first major impetus in the development of railroads in this country, spread to other industries, and proceeded at an accelerated rate after the World War. Figure VIII compares trends in corporate wealth and total national wealth in the years between 1923 and 1929, as shown by figures compiled by Means, supplemented by data from U. S. Internal Revenue Reports, and estimates by the Federal Trade Commission and the National Industrial Conference Board.

Trends in National Wealth and Corporate Wealth

The National Industrial Conference Board estimates the amount of our national wealth in 1923 at \$339,960,000,000. In the same year corporate wealth equaled \$90,507,000,000 or 27 percent of the total. By 1929 national wealth had increased to \$361,837,000,000 and corporate wealth to \$127,318,000,000—an amount equal to 35 percent of the national wealth. Thus, while the total wealth of the nation increased something more than 6 percent in the years between 1923 and 1929, the growth of corporate wealth was about 41 percent. Means estimates that in 1929 the two hundred largest corporations alone, controlled wealth equal to about one-fifth of the total national wealth.

What does this increasing concentration of wealth in the hands of corporations mean in terms of adequate school support from state sources? In the first place, it means absentee ownership of much of the wealth in the form of natural resources located in some of our states. Absentee ownership may mean removal of this wealth, at least to a large extent, as a source of taxation. Often this movement of wealth is from other parts of the country toward the industrial Northeast. For instance, a large corporation organized in the state of Delaware may run pipe lines for gas or oil out of the state of Texas to other states and may carry on a large proportion of its business operations

in these other states. Ownership may be vested in stockholders scattered all over the country, with a large block of the stock controlled by financial interests in New York City. Such a company probably would pay its corporate organization tax in Delaware and would pay only a small proportion of its corporation income tax, even if one were levied, in Texas. Texas could levy taxes on the property of the corporation located within its borders and it could collect severance or sales taxes on the amount produced or sold within the state but it is difficult to pass legislation levying severance or sales taxes at sufficiently high rates to retrieve the loss in revenues suffered, since competitive efforts of the states to attract business tend to limit the rates of state taxation. Fortunes made by the exploitation of the natural resources located in Texas would be principally taxable in other states.

The corporate form of organization also creates technical problems in the administration and assessment of taxes. It becomes difficult to define each state's jurisdiction in the taxation of an interstate business and it complicates the collection of taxes actually levied.

The only agency which can alleviate the injustice resulting from the interstate character of our industrial system is the federal government. The provision of federal assistance to the states in support of education, from taxes collected from the whole nation, would be a step in this adjustment. Federal taxes do not produce the disturbance of competitive conditions which often result from unequal rates of state taxes. Some economists believe that the federal government must more and more act the part of the tax collector and distributor. It is already collecting a major portion of the revenues in certain fields of taxation also occupied by the states.

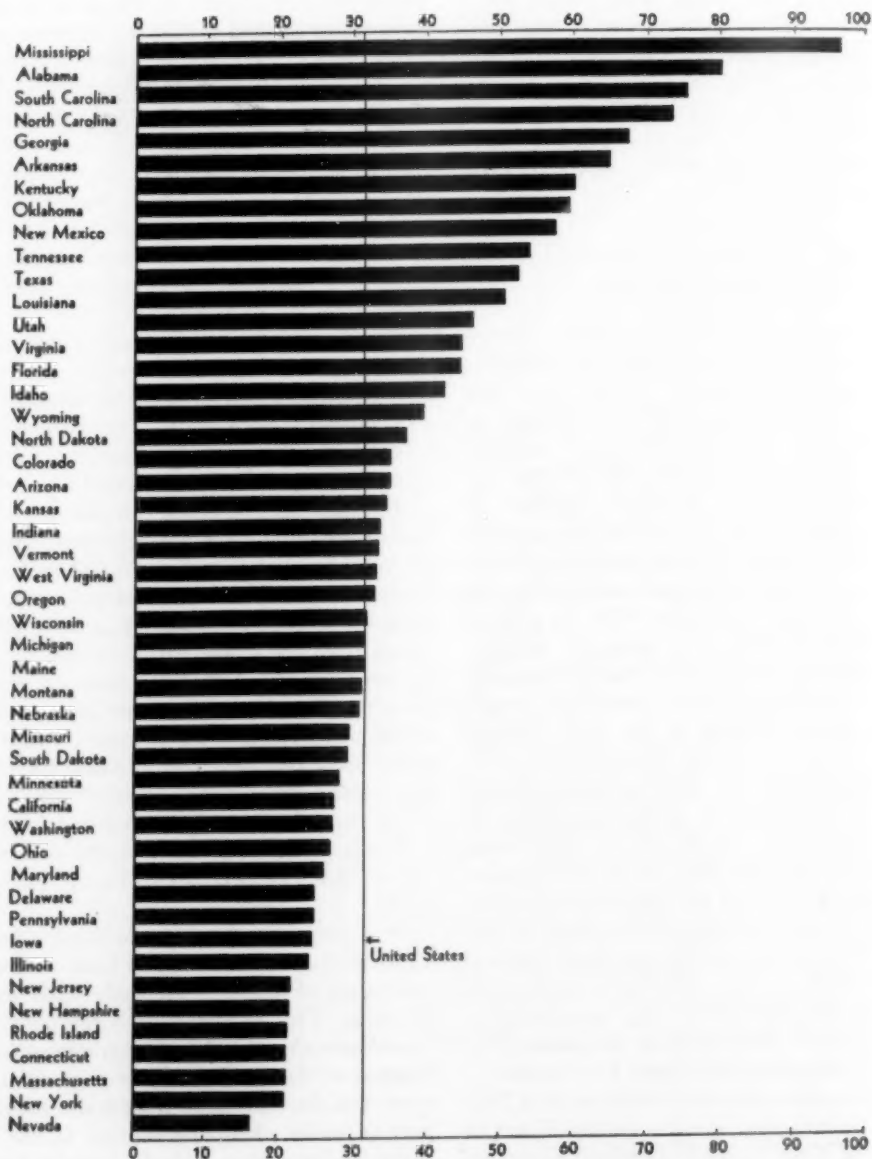
It is not intended here to imply that the states of the Northeast are at fault because the movement of wealth is preponderantly in their direction. This phenomenon is the natural result of many historical and geographical factors. Because of this fact it is all the more true, however, that the citizens of these states should expect to make some contribution to the well-being of those states which are in a less fortunate situation, thru federal aid for education.

¹ Based upon Senate Hearings on S. 419, p. 227-33; House Hearings on H. R. 5962, p. 260-71; and Means, Gardiner C. "The Large Corporation in American Economic Life," *American Economic Review* 21: 10-42; March 1931.

FIGURE IX

EFFORT, BASED ON CHISM'S DATA, REQUIRED TO SUPPORT NATIONAL MINIMUM PROGRAM, 1932

Percent of Tax Resources Required To Support a Defensible Program of
\$60 per Unit of Educational Need



Research Division, National Education Association

Efforts Required To Support an Adequate School Program

*Educational inequalities cannot be removed even tho the states adopt modern tax systems and allot a suitable proportion of resulting revenues to the financing of education.*¹ The statement has sometimes been made that the wide differences in educational opportunities are due less to differences in ability to support schools than to the willingness to do so.

Figure IX shows the percent of tax resources in each state which would be required, even under a modern tax plan, to support a minimum defensible school program.

Ability on the Basis of a Uniform Tax System

In October 1933 the National Tax Association proposed a model tax system. This plan included a personal income tax levied by the state of residence, a business tax levied in the state where the business is conducted, a tax on tangible property, and supplementary taxes made up of an automobile license tax, gasoline tax, and an inheritance tax. With this plan as a basis, supplemented by a 2 percent general retail sales tax, Chism applied a tax program at uniform and reasonable rates to the 48 states. In this way Chism estimated the relative tax resources of the states under a model tax plan between the years 1922 and 1932.

By taking the 1931-32 data it can be shown that even under a uniform system great differences in ability would exist among the states. For example, New York could raise 82 times as much as Nevada; 22 times as much as Mississippi; 19 times as much as Arkansas; $2\frac{1}{2}$ times as much as California. However, to bring these differences into perspective as related to the support of education it is necessary to take into account the number of children to be educated and the quality of the educational program to be provided.

Chism assumes in his investigation that the schools can reasonably claim 31.27 percent of the revenues of each state (the average percent of total tax collection expended on schools in all states in 1932). He then divides this amount for each state by the number of units of educational need in the state. The resulting amounts indicate the ability of the states to support edu-

cation as related to the children and to the educational program. The range among the states in the value of tax resources per unit of educational need is, according to Chism, from \$19.45 in Mississippi to \$113.57 in Nevada. In other words, the richest state has a per capita taxpaying ability nearly six times that of the poorest state.

Effort Required To Support a Minimum Program

If it is assumed that the minimum national educational program should cost \$60 per child, it is possible to calculate the total cost of this defensible program in each state. By comparing these totals with the total revenues collected under a uniform tax plan it is possible to determine what proportion of the revenues would be required for school purposes. These proportions are shown in Figure IX.

To carry out the proposed minimum national school program Mississippi would need to use almost 100 percent of all revenue produced under a model tax plan. Twelve of the states (Figure IX) would require 50 percent or more of all revenues for education. Obviously, under such conditions there would be inadequate amounts available for the other services of government in those states.

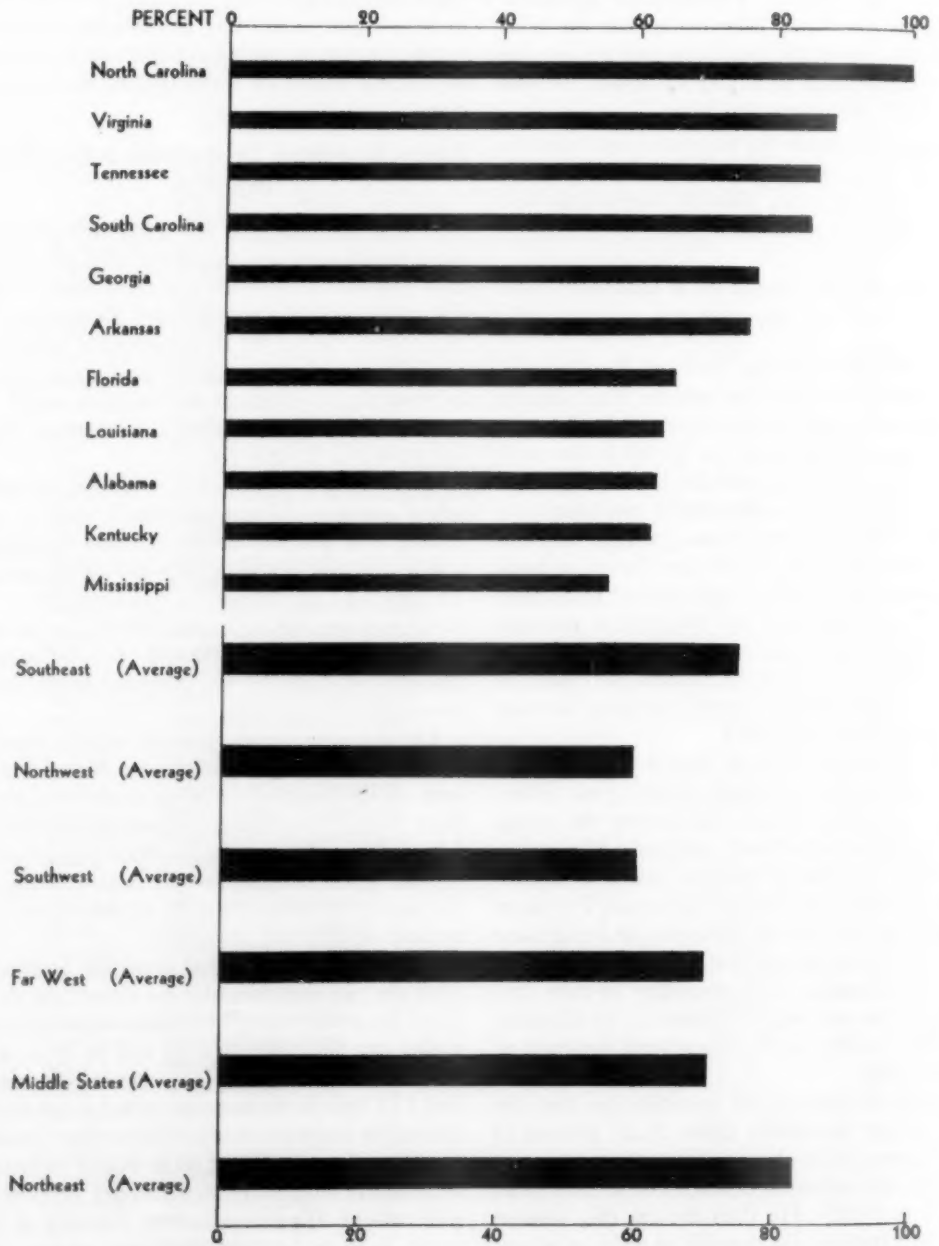
On the other hand, Nevada would require for education only slightly more than 15 percent of its revenues under a model tax plan. New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and New Jersey could provide a program *comparable to the average in the nation* by the utilization of only about 20 percent of their tax resources.

The obvious conclusions from the foregoing facts are (1) that even tho the states "put their fiscal houses in order" by adopting a uniform model tax plan there would still be great differences in their ability to support education; and (2) that if the states provided a minimum defensible program of education, under a model tax plan, the majority of them would be unable to properly support other necessary services of government. Greater effort on the part of the states, even under ideal conditions of taxation, will not eliminate the underlying causes of inequality in educational opportunity.

¹ Based upon *Senate Hearings on S. 419*, p. 21-26; *House Hearings on H. R. 5962*, p. 39-43; and Ashby, Lyle W. *The Efforts of the States To Support Education*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1936. (Also published as May 1936 *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association.)

FIGURE X

PERCENT OF STATE TAX REVENUES FROM SOURCES OTHER THAN PROPERTY TAXES, 1930



Research Division, National Education Association

Based on data from U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, "Financial Statistics of States, 1930."

Improvement of State Tax Systems

*Inequalities in educational opportunity cannot be eliminated by the improvement of state tax systems.*¹ The preceding section of this bulletin has already demonstrated that if all states operated uniform model tax systems, such as those suggested by Chism and Newcomer, many of them would still be unable to support a satisfactory school program and at the same time maintain other government services. This section considers the states which have tax systems most in need of revision. Undoubtedly there is room for improvement in the systems of many states, which would yield increased support of schools and other functions of government. But is this true of the states which are now affording the least adequate educational opportunities? How do these states compare in this respect with those which rank higher both in the amount of their economic resources and the amount of their pupil expenditures?

It is impossible here to apply all of the criteria of a good tax system to the methods of raising revenues used by individual states. One of the first and most universally selected criteria of the adequacy of a state tax system is diversification. Figure X uses this criterion, determined by the percent of state revenues from sources other than property taxes, as a basis for judging the tax systems of the low-pupil-expenditure states of the Southeast.

Diversification of Revenues

Figure I on page 160 of this bulletin has shown that the eleven states with the lowest expenditures per pupil enrolled in 1934 were Mississippi, Arkansas, South Carolina, Georgia, North Carolina, Alabama, Kentucky, Tennessee, Louisiana, Virginia, and Florida. These are the states which, according to Odum's grouping, comprise the predominantly rural Southeast region of the country where economic resources are low and educational load is heavy. Not one of these states spent as much as \$40 per enrolled pupil for public schools in 1934, and eight of the eleven spent less than \$30. Two states spent less than \$20.

When the criterion of diversification is applied to the tax systems of these states, we discover that not one of them derived as much as

50 percent of its revenues from general property taxes in 1930. North Carolina and South Carolina raised 100 percent and 85 percent, respectively, of their total state revenues from non-property tax sources. These other taxes contributed more than 75 percent of state revenues in Georgia and Arkansas. More than 88 percent of state revenues in Virginia and more than 86 percent in Tennessee were raised by the recently developed tax methods. For the whole Southeast region the average of state revenues from non-property tax sources is 75.1 percent. The only other region which shows so high a percent of state revenues derived from special taxes is the Northeast with 83.7 percent. Similar percentages for the other regions are: Middle States, 71.5; Far West, 70.3; Southwest 60.2; and Northwest, 60.1.

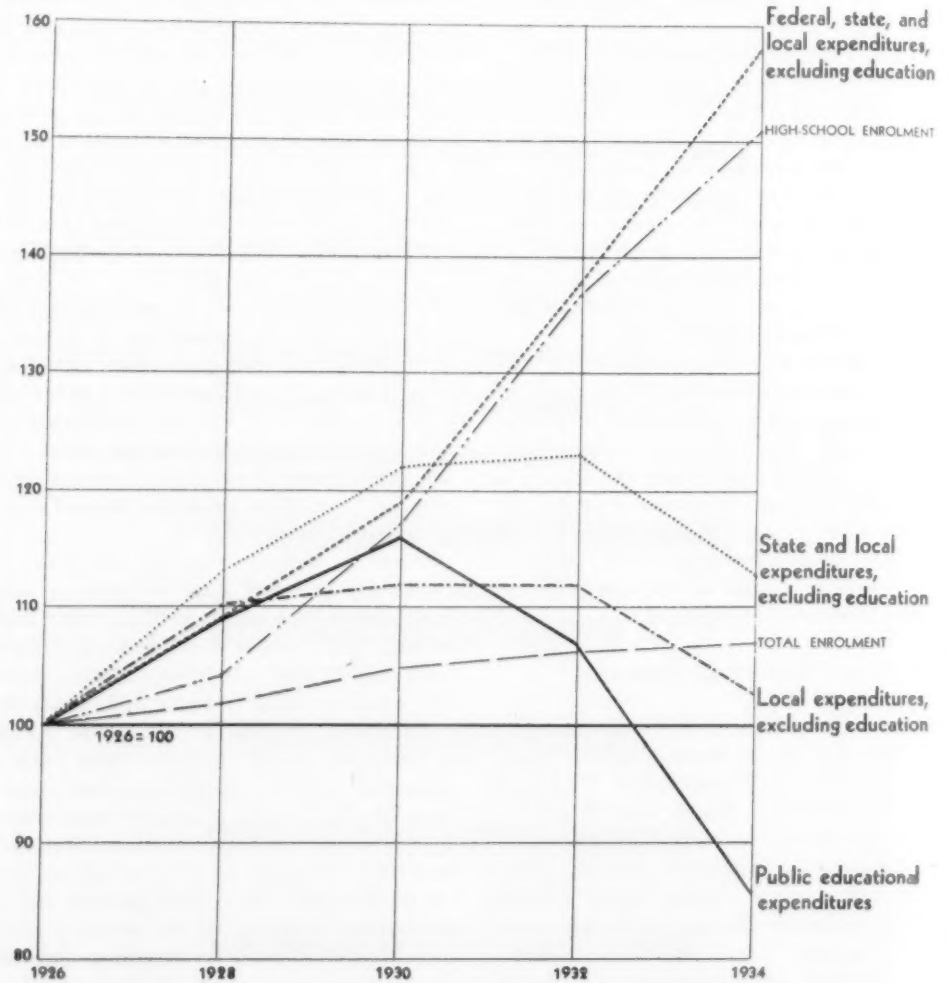
In the states of the Southeast, moreover, the trend toward the increased use of diversified tax methods has continued since 1930. Alabama, Arkansas, and Georgia have added sales taxes since that year. Florida has enacted new chain store tax laws and raised the rates of gasoline taxes. South Carolina has increased its income tax rates. Louisiana has adopted a long line of special taxes.

There is, without question, room for improvements in many state tax systems which would benefit schools as well as other public services. It is probable that if some of the states in the Middle States and Northwestern regions were to make the same effort to diversify their tax methods as has been made, on the average, by the states of the Southeast, their pupil expenditures could be raised to a level equal to those of the highest ranking states in this respect. But it is obvious that diversification has been tried already in the states which are spending the least for public school support and further efforts in this direction would, relatively speaking, yield a much lower return than would the same efforts in states which have a larger amount of economic resources to draw upon. Educational opportunities can never be equalized thru state revision of tax systems. Unless the federal government steps in to aid the states where economic resources are least abundant, the democratic ideal of an adequate education for every child will not be realized.

¹ Based upon *Senate Hearings on S. 419*, p. 233-52, *House Hearings on H. R. 5962*, p. 42-43, *Mort, Paul R., and others, State Support for Public Education*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1933. 496 p. *U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, Financial Statistics of States, 1930*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1932. 123 p.

FIGURE XI

INDEX OF EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURES AND OTHER GOVERNMENTAL EXPENDITURES, 1926-34



Research Division, National Education Association

Based on "Cost of Government in the United States, 1933-35," National Industrial Conference Board; and "Biennial Survey of Education, 1932-34," Federal Office of Education.

School Costs and Other Expenditures

*That the nation can afford to extend federal aid to education is shown by what the people pay for government and for certain commodities and services.*¹ During the congressional hearings the question was raised: "Where is Congress to obtain the money required for federal participation in the support of education?" Members of Congress who appeared before the House committee pointed out that in 1937 almost \$1,000,000,000 was appropriated for national defense, the largest allotment ever made for this purpose in the peace-time history of the nation. Between 1916 and 1932 Congress subsidized the merchant marine to the extent of \$3,000,000,000. Where, then, will federal money be found for education? Obviously, what the nation pays for education and other governmental services is a matter of choice on the part of the people and their representatives.

Since 1926 governmental expenditures have steadily risen. Between 1926 and 1930 the cost of all types of public education increased and then declined rapidly during the depression years. These trends are shown graphically in Figure XI.

Expenditures for Government

In 1926 the total expenditure for local, state, and national government amounted to over \$10,000,000,000—28 percent of the total being spent by the federal government, 14 percent by the states, and 58 percent by local governments. The combined expenditure in 1926 for public elementary, secondary, and collegiate education totaled \$2,250,000,000.

Expenditures for all types of government in 1934 amounted to \$14,500,000,000—an increase of about 40 percent over the 1926 figure. The federal government spent 46 percent of the total, the states 16 percent, and the localities 38 percent. The total cost of education meanwhile dropped to less than \$2,000,000,000—over \$500,000,000 under the highest point in 1930.

Why did governmental costs increase? Between 1934 and 1936 federal expenditures for veterans' pensions and benefits rose from \$500,000,000 to nearly \$2,500,000,000. In this period the postal deficit increased almost \$30,000,000. In 1936 national defense required nearly twice as much as it did in 1934.

An even larger share of the increased cost of

government has arisen from new and presumably emergency activities. Federal expenditures for relief and recovery amounted to \$892,000,000 in 1932, increased to \$4,000,000,000 in 1934, and then declined to slightly over \$3,000,000,000 in 1936. Since 1933, federal grants to the states and localities for unemployment relief and works projects have been larger than all other types of federal aid combined. In the one year of 1936 direct payments to the states by the federal government amounted to \$2,000,000,000.

Are certain governmental services developing at the expense of education? While relief measures have been necessary, there is considerable evidence that the need for some new federal services could be prevented if the federal government assumed its rightful place in the financing of education. Under the circumstances, the people have the right to demand of their legislators that in the selection of fields for federal expenditure political expediency shall not be permitted to outweigh larger social considerations. Education is one of the most essential and fundamental activities of government, and in the budgeting of the available resources it should be made an effective service to all of the people.

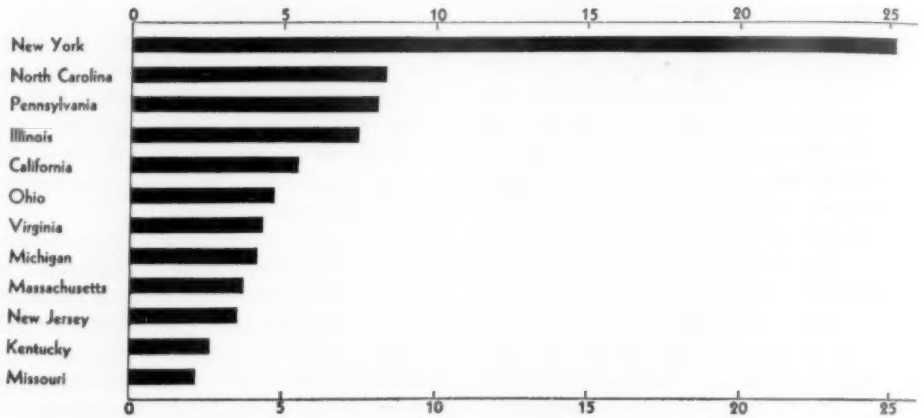
Certain Private Expenditures

In addition to their choices of various governmental services, the people, thru their expenditures, indicate certain preferences for various commodities and services. By these private expenditures, the nation indicates that it has a high degree of purchasing power. Among the large bills paid by the American people in 1934 were the following: \$1,344,000,000 for tobacco; \$1,229,073,000 for ice cream, candy, and chewing gum; \$600,000,000 for theaters, movies, and similar amusements; and \$314,368,000 for toilet preparations and beauty parlor services. In this same year \$1,229,400,000 was spent in purchasing new passenger automobiles, and \$3,066,304,933 was set aside for life insurance premiums. By 1934 the accumulated savings deposits in the United States amounted to nearly \$22,000,000,000. Whether the economic ability represented by these facts will be used for the satisfaction of individual or collective wants, the people will decide.

¹ Based upon *Senate Hearings on S. 419*, p. 30, 41. ¶ *House Hearings on H. R. 5962*, p. 27-28, 124-29, 384-85, 433-36. Also, Kimmel, Lewis H. *Cost of Government in the United States, 1934-36*. New York: National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1937. 127 p.

FIGURE XII

PERCENT OF FEDERAL TAX COLLECTIONS* FROM TWELVE STATES, 1935



*Including internal revenues and customs receipts, but omitting agricultural adjustment taxes.

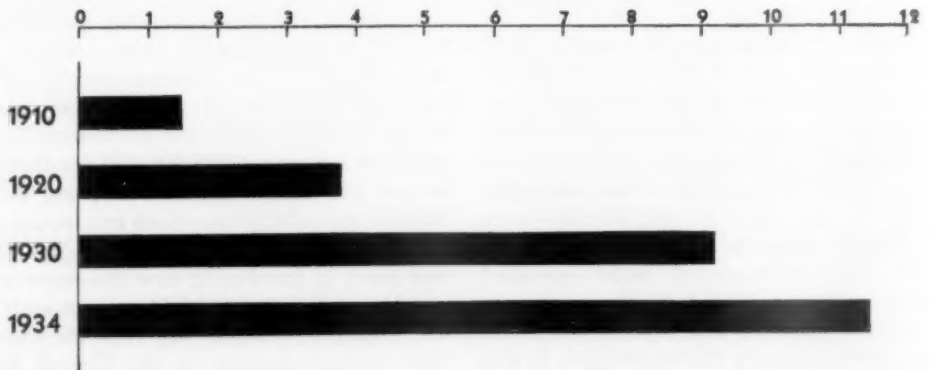
Research Division, National Education Association

Based on "Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury for the Year Ending June 30, 1935." p. 345-46, 355.

FIGURE XIII

GROWTH IN NUMBER OF STOCKHOLDERS IN THREE LARGE CORPORATIONS

Number of Stockholders in Hundreds of Thousands



Research Division, National Education Association

Based on "The Modern Corporation and Private Property" by A. A. Berle and G. C. Means, p. 55; and annual reports of American Telephone and Telegraph Co., the Pennsylvania Railroad, and the United States Steel Corp.

The Incidence of Federal Taxation

*Federal aid for education would place no undue burden upon states where federal tax collections are already relatively large.*¹ An argument frequently advanced against any extension of federal aid for education runs as follows. Federal aid payments now made vary widely among the states and bear no relation to the amounts contributed by the individual states toward the support of the federal government. Any extension of federal aid, distributed on the basis of need, would only increase the discrepancy between federal tax collections within each state and the amount of federal aid received. States already carrying a large share of federal government costs should not be expected to contribute still more for aid from which they would receive a less than proportionate return. In refutation of this argument, Figures XII and XIII, on page 178, present statistics on the proportionate contributions of taxes collected in twelve states to total federal tax revenues and on the incidence of federal corporation income tax payments.

Relation of Area of Collection to Incidence of Federal Taxes

Generally speaking, the place where federal taxes are collected gives no indication whatsoever of the place where these taxes are ultimately paid. In the last analysis, it is the individual citizen who pays federal taxes, regardless of where they are collected.

Figure XIII shows the proportion of these taxes coming from the twelve states in which collections were highest in 1936. It will be noted that New York, according to the data of this chart, is credited with over 25 percent of total collections. But were these taxes actually paid by the citizens of New York state?

The Bureau of Internal Revenue figures show that about one-fifth of the total federal revenue collected in New York consisted of customs duties imposed at the Port of New York. The purchaser of an imported Paris gown may be a resident of New York, or of any other city or state in the nation. Yet New York is credited with the payment of this tax in the federal reports where it is often misinterpreted as an actual contribution made by the people of that state to the federal government.

Approximately another one-fifth of federal tax collections in New York state consists of corporation income taxes. Economists generally agree that the corporation income tax is shifted backward to the stockholders instead of forward to the consumers of the products sold by the corporation. This being so, the facts presented in Figure XIII are of interest. This chart shows a growing diffusion of corporate ownership among small, or relatively small, stockholders. A previous section of this bulletin has shown an increasing concentration of the wealth of the nation in the control of corporations, but this movement is to some extent counterbalanced by an increasing number of stockholders. It is these stockholders who ultimately pay the corporation income taxes collected in New York.

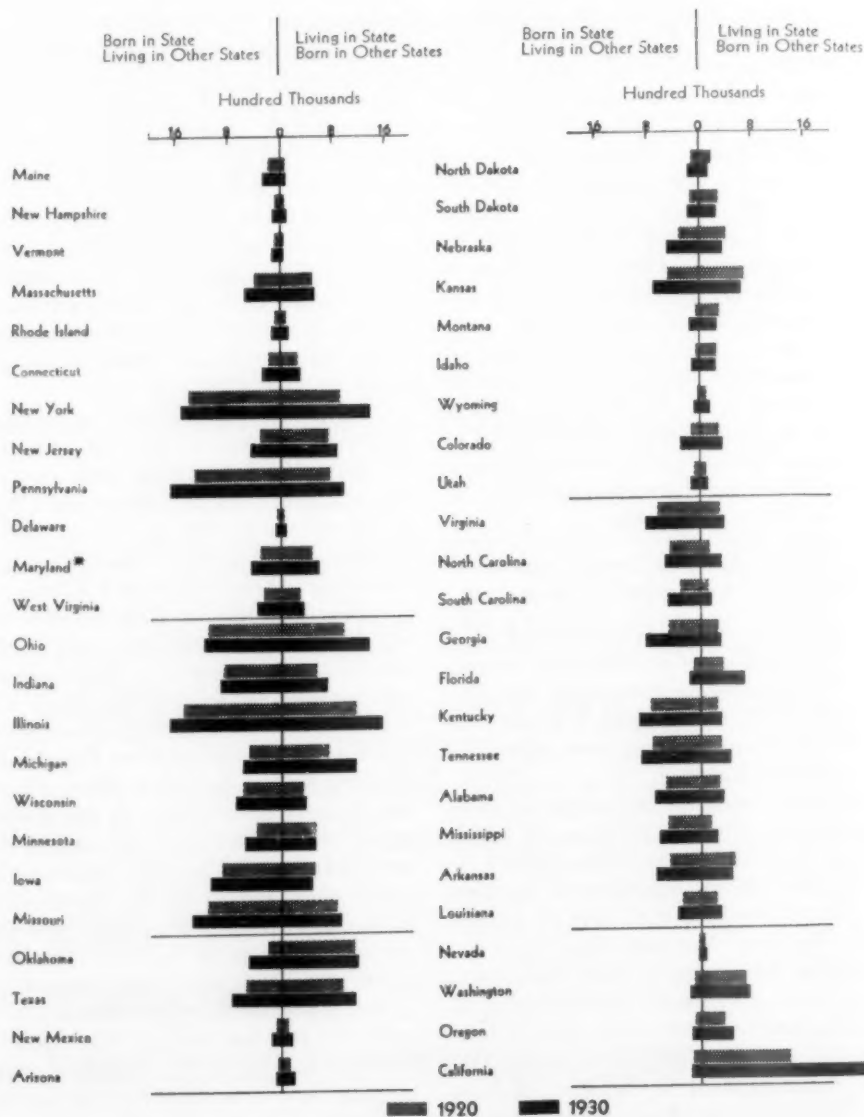
The second ranking state with respect to the percent of federal taxes collected is North Carolina. North Carolina, with only 2.6 percent of the nation's population and 1.5 percent of the national income, is credited with having paid 8.3 percent of total federal taxes. The federal taxes collected in North Carolina, however, consisted of over \$231,000,000 of taxes on tobacco products manufactured in the state and collected at the source. This \$231,000,000 was not paid by residents of North Carolina but by tobacco users throughout the nation.

Thus, the citizens of New York and North Carolina are not bearing as heavy a burden of federal government costs as the statistics on federal tax collections would, at first thought, seem to indicate. The same conclusion is warranted with respect to the shares of federal taxes collected in other states, especially the ten states shown in Figure XII. Manufacturers' excise taxes and liquor taxes, which constitute important items of federal tax income under the Revenue Acts of 1932 and 1934, are collected at the source, the same as tobacco taxes. Like tobacco taxes they are paid by consumers throughout the nation. Any increase in the cost of the national government due to federal assistance in the support of education would be slight in comparison with the cost of other services that recently have been added. But whatever its amount, the incidence of this cost would be widely distributed.

¹ Based upon *Senate Hearings on S. 419*, p. 33-37, 127-34. ¶ *House Hearings on H. R. 5962*, p. 46-47. ¶ U. S. Treasury. *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, 1935*, p. 94-95, and *Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, 1935*, p. 345-46, 355.

FIGURE XIV

GAIN AND LOSS THRU INTERSTATE MIGRATION, 1920-1930



*Including District of Columbia

Research Division, National Education Association

Based on the Federal Census for 1920 and for 1930, U. S. Department of Commerce.

Mobility of Population

*The mobility of population makes the education of children in all states of national concern.*¹ The migration of the population from farm to non-farm areas, as discussed in a previous section, is one problem when it occurs within a state and quite another when it becomes interstate. Figure XIV shows graphically the gain and loss thru interstate migration, as indicated by state of birth and state of residence data from the census, 1920 and 1930. Only native population, that is, population born in the United States, is being considered. By grouping the states into the six geographic regions referred to in earlier sections the areas of greatest mobility are plainly seen.

A Problem for All States

Population is being constantly redistributed thru migration, largely motivated by repulsion from areas of low economic opportunity and attraction to areas offering greater economic, social, and cultural advantages. Attracted by new opportunities in manufacturing and commerce, many people moved into the industrial area around the Great Lakes, into California, and back into the Middle Atlantic States during the decade following the World War. Between 1920 and 1930 the territory around New York City gained 1,120,000 native-born people; the Great Lake States of Michigan, Ohio, and Illinois added around 700,000 native white migrants to their population; and the Pacific Coast States of Oregon, Washington, and California showed a net gain of about 1,750,000 people during the ten-year period. The movement of 1,600,000 native-born people into California alone was phenomenal.

Texas, Florida, and Maryland (including the District of Columbia) were other areas with net gains in population thru migration. In all cases the economic attractiveness of these sections of the country drew migrants from the less favored areas.

Balancing these net gains thru interstate migration are the losses in two sections of the country: (1) the states south of the Ohio and Potomac and east of the Mississippi Rivers,

except Florida; and (2) the states between the Rocky Mountains and the Mississippi River, except Arizona and Texas. These areas each lost about 1,700,000 persons. In addition, about 115,000 moved out of northern New England, and around 390,000 migrated from Pennsylvania.

This movement of people in and out of states presents a significant problem for education. It is not surprising that the states with better educational opportunities are attracting the greater proportion of new residents. These migrants enter such states, California, for example, with conglomerate educational backgrounds granted them by the states of their birth, childhood, and early adolescence. Naturally, many of these people from other fortunate states make distinct contributions to the educational level of the citizenry of California by bringing with them superior training. However, the proportion of migrants who come into the state from less favored areas is large. In 1930, 29 percent of the native population living in California but born in other states had come from the 19 states which in 1929-30 had spent less for education per pupil enrolled than the average for the continental United States.

It is important to recognize that internal migration affects the life of receiving communities quite as profoundly as immigration from other countries as long as there is wide disparity in educational opportunities among the several states. The interchange of people and of ideas from region to region is becoming more rapid. The impact and conflict of divergent social traditions demonstrate clearly the need for federal aid for education. The richer states and those whose educational systems already rank considerably above the average of the country need not be moved by altruism to participate in any program of national equalization. From a purely selfish point of view, if nothing else, these very states are concerned in the development of superior schools in *all* the other states, for it is from these other states that many of the wealthiest states gain their future population.

¹ Based upon *Senate Hearings on S. 419*, p. 61-63. ¶ *House Hearings on H. R. 5962*, p. 80-86. ¶ Dorn, Harold F. and Lorimer, Frank, "Migration, Reproduction, and Population Adjustment." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 188:280-89; November 1936. ¶ U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census figures for 1920 and 1930. For further reference consult: Goodrich, Carter, and others. *Migration and Economic Opportunity*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1936. ¶ President's Research Committee on Social Trends. *Recent Social Trends in the United States*. New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1933. Chapter I.

Further Questions on Federal Aid

Preceding sections of the bulletin have presented the social and economic facts which make federal aid for education imperative. In spite of these facts certain questions regarding federal aid arise. Some of the problems raised have to do with federal aid in general, some are questions about the principles and practises to be used in a federal program, and a few questions may have to do with the specific provisions of legislative proposals. It is the purpose of this section to consider briefly several issues raised in the recent congressional hearings.

Does Federal Aid Mean Federal Control of Education?

First, it is necessary to agree as to what is meant by "federal control." The use of the term may refer to the fact that federal agencies will have to divide the available money, audit accounts, and make sure that the provisions of the law are carried out. Since most people are agreed that there should be minimum requirements and safeguards in the distribution of public funds, this type of "federal control" need not be objectionable. A properly drawn law, however, would reduce even fiscal administration to a minimum.

A second and more common use of the term "federal control" refers to the possibility that state and local direction of education might be endangered. Those who raise this question are afraid not only of the loss of state and local control but of the danger that courses of instruction would be prescribed from Washington. In this way public education might be reduced to a dead level of uniformity and might become a powerful instrument of propaganda for whatever political faction is in control at a given time. It does not follow, however, that federal interference with the administrative control of states and localities must necessarily accompany federal appropriations to education. Two ways of preventing federal direction are: (1) to appropriate funds for education in general, not for special subjects or types of training; and (2) to provide in the legislation specific prohibitions against the exercise of undesired authority by federal officials.

Should Federal Aid Be Provided Before the States Have Eliminated Alleged Inefficiencies in School Administration?

The fact that there are thousands of one-room schools is often cited as a willingness of many states to go on using obsolete organization. It is contended by some that federal aid will only tend to perpetuate existing conditions; that not until states eliminate poor administrative organization, equalize educational opportunity within state boundaries, and levy taxes comparable to best practise should the federal government assume its rightful place in school support.

Questions of educational opportunity within state boundaries and of the progressiveness of states in adopting new methods of taxation have been analyzed statistically in previous sections. There is abundant room for differences of opinion and experimentation in many areas of educational management. The facts show that many states, and particularly the poorer ones, are making more than an average effort to modernize their school administration and tax systems. There is reason, too, for believing that thru federal aid the reorganization and improvement of state school systems would be speeded up. Whether it does or not, it is difficult to justify the penalty imposed upon children by withholding federal aid simply because improvements in school machinery are not proceeding as rapidly as some may wish.

Why Should the Federal Government Have an Interest in the Education of Its People?

Education is a state function. No provision was made in the Constitution for the federal government to organize and to finance a system of public schools. It is contended that federal appropriations for education means an assumption of state prerogatives not contemplated by the Founding Fathers.

Under the American form of government the final power and authority rest upon the will of the people as expressed by the ballot. This is no less true of the federal government than of state and local governments. It is necessary, therefore, that the federal government, the

states, and the communities provide opportunities whereby every person may acquire the attributes necessary to exercise intelligently, honestly, and effectively the privilege of suffrage. Immediately after the American Revolution articles, pamphlets, and books revealed the interest of many in the function of education in the new social order. Washington, Jefferson, John Quincy Adams, and others less well-known anticipated in their writings many educational developments of the past century and a half. As Charles A. Beard has pointed out, "They nearly all insisted that there should be a nationwide system of popular education, universal . . . supported by general taxation,

running from the elementary school to the university."¹

Primary emphasis has been placed in this bulletin upon the economic factors that make federal aid to education a necessity. To this must be added the political argument. A citizen of one of the sovereign states is none the less a citizen of the nation. Under the Constitution the United States guarantees to every state a republican form of government. While the organization and administration of education is a major function of state governments the *financial support* of education is a responsibility which the federal government cannot continue to avoid without endangering democracy itself.

¹ Beard, Charles A., and Beard, Mary R. *The Rise of American Civilization*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930. p. 486-87.

RELATED NUMBERS OF THE RESEARCH BULLETIN . . .

The Ability of the States To Support Education. January-March 1926. 96 p. 50¢.

Can the Nation Afford To Educate Its Children? November 1928. 48 p. 25¢.

Can the States Afford To Educate Their Children? January 1929. 44 p. 25¢.

The Outlook for Rural Education. September 1931. 72 p. 25¢.

Estimating State School Efficiency. May 1932. 68 p. 25¢.

The Nation's School Building Needs. January 1935. 36 p. 25¢.

Efforts of the States To Support Education As Related to Adequacy and Ability. May 1936. 64 p. 50¢.

Financing Public Education. January 1937. 56 p. 50¢.

All orders for publications should be accompanied by funds in payment for same and must be so accompanied when orders for material amount to \$1.00 or less. Orders not accompanied by funds in payment are subject to transportation charges. Make checks or money orders payable to the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

THE PREAMBLE to the Constitution of the United States declares that the Constitution is ordained and established "in order to form a more perfect Union, . . . insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity."

It is an obvious fact to enlightened people everywhere that none of these blessings is possible unless each generation of citizens is educated.

Hence the schools are our most fundamental public institutions and are a matter of first concern for our government.—*Senator Pat Harrison.*

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Introduction

Since the World War increasing attention has been given to the social studies program of elementary and secondary schools. This increased interest has been shown in part by great activity in the preparation of courses of study, by the appearance of numerous new textbooks and supplementary materials, and by the special reports of various professional groups.¹ Yet in all these extensive activities little effort has been made, at least on a national scale, to probe the depths of the experience of classroom teachers. The present study is an attempt to explore this little known area. Thru the cooperation of 1764 classroom teachers, the Research Division is able to present facts and opinions of interest to both instructors and administrators.

Method of Procedure

In September 1936 city superintendents of schools were asked to supply the names of elementary, junior high-, and senior high-school teachers who gave all or a large share of their time to the teaching of the social studies. The term "social studies" was defined as "the topics and the courses ordinarily designated as history, geography, economics, current events, sociology, social problems, problems of American democracy, and general social studies."

About one-third (942) of the superintendents of schools in cities over 2500 in population supplied a total of 6776 names, divided about equally among the three school levels, elementary, junior high, and senior high. If instructions were followed, all were teachers of "recognized ability who had been teaching at least two years in the school to which they are now assigned."

Copies of a questionnaire (reproduced on pages 247-54 of this bulletin) were mailed in November 1936 to the 6776 teachers recommended by superintendents. The inquiry form defined the "social studies" and was accompanied by a letter requesting the cooperation of the recipients. Without any administrative influence by superintendents or a second request from the Research Division, 1764, or 26.0 percent, of the teachers returned usable replies.

The extent of the distribution of blanks and of replies is shown in Table 1.

Limitations of the Study

The first limitation is that the basic data for the study were obtained by questionnaires. Since several professional publications have analyzed the weaknesses of this procedure it will not be necessary to discuss them at this point.² The inquiry form was formulated as carefully as possible to insure thoughtful and accurate responses, and the completeness of most of the replies was reassuring.

A second limitation is that the survey was confined to city school systems. It was necessary to 'do this because of the time and resources available to the Research Division.

The restriction of the study to teachers of recognized ability with at least two years' experience in their present assignments constitutes a third limitation. Obviously, it was necessary to take a sampling from among the thousands of teachers who give all or a portion of their time to the social studies. Since the primary purpose of the study was to obtain competent judgment on instructional problems and to ascertain facts on superior practises, the selective criteria of ability and experience appeared to be amply justified. Some of the characteristics of the respondents and the communities which they represent are shown in Table 2. Except for city size these characteristics are based upon teacher opinions. Participants in the study were asked to rate themselves as radicals, liberals, conservatives, or reactionaries on social questions. Therefore, a term such as "liberal teachers" as used thruout the bulletin really means "teachers who rated themselves as liberals." In much the same way teachers indicated the predominant attitude of parents on social questions, the economic status of the community near the school, the general type of community (residential, factory, etc.), and the predominant nationality group. In each case these ratings were the opinions of the teachers and should be so interpreted when presented thruout this report.

¹ For example, various reports of the National Education Association: (1) 1936 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence; (2) *Implications of Social-Economic Goals for Education*, 1937; and (3) recent yearbooks and bulletins of the National Council on the Social Studies. Also numerous monographs of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association (available from Charles Scribner's Sons, New York).

² For example, "The Questionnaire," *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 8, No. 1: January 1939.

TABLE 1.—NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRES SENT OUT AND TABULATED BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS AND BY CITY SIZE

Geographical area	Cities 2,500-5,000 population		Cities 5,000-10,000 population		Cities 10,000-30,000 population		Cities 30,000-100,000 population		Cities over 100,000 population		Total		
	Blanks sent	Re- plies	Blanks sent	Re- plies	Blanks sent	Re- plies	Blanks sent	Re- plies	Blanks sent	Re- plies	Num- ber sent	Num- ber re- ceived	Per- cent re- ceived
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
New England.....	15	4	93	17	314	75	144	40	100	34	666	170	28.3
Middle Atlantic.....	225	53	268	58	611	163	318	94	291	84	1,713	452	26.4
East North Central.....	208	37	243	53	440	111	380	121	254	96	1,525	418	27.4
West North Central.....	196	30	99	26	293	80	108	31	138	73	834	240	28.8
South Atlantic.....	24	6	61	11	94	13	163	31	134	45	476	106	22.3
East South Central.....	23	4	46	0	42	9	42	5	86	14	239	32	13.4
West South Central.....	51	3	102	11	111	26	53	23	161	65	478	128	26.8
Mountain.....	65	10	81	20	71	11	37	10	24	10	278	61	21.9
Pacific.....	94	11	55	9	193	52	85	39	140	46	567	157	27.7
Total.....	901	158	1,048	205	2,169	540	1,330	394	1,328	467	6,776	1,764	26.0
Percent returned of blanks sent to each city-size group.....		17.5		19.6		24.9		29.6		35.2			

Finally, the question may be raised as to whether or not 1764 teachers are enough to represent truly the opinions of teachers of recognized ability and experience. No final answer can be given on this question. First, it is with great difficulty that estimates can be made of the total number of teachers of social studies in elementary and secondary schools. In the second place, it is a matter of judgment as to how many of the total number, in the estimation of their respective superintendents, have the necessary ability and experience to have qualified for the survey.

Because of these limitations, particularly the last one mentioned, most of the data in the bulletin are presented in terms of city size and school levels only. Other classifications (see Table 2), such as the characteristics of the communities and the attitudes of the teachers, were used in tabulating the replies. Most of these results, based upon the grouping of teachers according to these other classifications, show no statistically significant relationships between the classification factors and the findings. The few that are reliable have been included from time to time thruout the report.

With respect to city size and school level, especially the latter, differences in the reports from teachers are large enough to be statistically significant. That is to say, when the teachers are grouped by grade level, and in

most cases by city size, the findings differ in such a way as to indicate a reliable correlation with these two classification factors. The bulletin includes only those differences which are sufficiently large that there is a nine-out-of-ten chance that a difference in the same direction, that is, favoring the same classification group, would be found if other samplings of teachers were investigated.³

Plan of the Bulletin

The data are presented in general in the same sequence as the questions in the original inquiry form. Part I deals with the objectives of social studies instruction; first, in terms of their estimated importance and, second, the degree of adequacy with which they are met. Part II treats the adequacy and importance of certain areas of instruction.

Part III consists of an analysis of courses of study in terms of teachers' practises and preferences. This section is followed by Part IV reviewing the methods and aids in teaching. Information is given not only of the technics actually used and preferred, but of the supplementary sources available and found to be most useful.

Parts V and VI deal with two specific problems: first, the teaching of controversial issues; and, second, the use of the community as a social studies laboratory.

³ The probable error was computed for each percent and the critical ratio of the difference in each comparison of percents. No difference in percents is reported unless the critical ratio is 1.9 or higher.

TABLE 2.—SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHERS AND COMMUNITIES REPRESENTED IN SURVEY

Classification	Elementary school			Junior high school			Senior high school			Total	
	Number	Percent		Number	Percent		Number	Percent		Number	Percent
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
1											
Size of city:											
2,500- 5,000.....	41	7.5	55	9.8	62	9.5	158	9.0			
5,000- 10,000.....	61	11.1	59	10.5	85	13.0	208	11.6			
10,000- 30,000.....	168	30.7	177	31.5	195	29.8	540	30.6			
30,000-100,000.....	121	22.1	135	24.0	138	21.1	394	22.3			
Over 100,000.....	157	28.6	136	24.2	174	26.6	467	26.5			
Type of community around school:											
Factory.....	129	23.5	155	27.6	130	19.9	414	23.4			
Business.....	58	10.6	76	13.5	74	11.3	208	11.8			
Rural.....	8	1.5	14	2.5	32	4.9	54	3.1			
Residential.....	314	57.3	287	51.1	334	51.1	935	53.0			
Unclassified.....	39	7.1	30	5.3	84	12.8	153	8.7			
Economic level of community around school:											
Well off.....	18	3.3	20	3.5	21	3.2	59	3.4			
Comfortable.....	360	65.7	382	68.0	472	72.2	1,214	68.8			
Poor.....	152	27.7	141	25.1	120	18.3	413	23.4			
Unclassified.....	18	3.3	19	3.4	41	6.3	78	4.4			
Nationality of community:											
White American.....	457	83.4	425	75.6	525	80.3	1,407	79.8			
Negro American.....	3	.5	4	.7	1	.1	8	.4			
Total American.....	460	83.9	429	76.3	526	80.4	1,415	80.2			
Foreign-European.....	69	12.6	105	18.7	97	14.8	271	15.4			
Foreign-non-European.....	4	.7	6	1.1	1	.2	11	.6			
Total foreign.....	73	13.3	111	19.8	98	15.0	282	16.0			
Unclassified.....	15	2.8	22	3.9	30	4.6	67	3.8			
Attitude of parents on social questions:											
Reactionary.....	19	3.5	26	4.6	5	.8	50	2.8			
Conservative.....	322	58.8	288	51.3	375	57.3	985	55.8			
Liberal.....	169	30.8	204	36.3	245	37.5	618	35.0			
Radical.....	17	3.1	17	3.0	11	1.7	45	2.6			
Unclassified.....	21	3.8	27	4.8	18	2.7	66	3.8			
Attitude of teacher on social questions:											
Reactionary.....	3	.5	2	.4	1	.1	6	.3			
Conservative.....	217	39.6	161	28.6	132	20.2	510	28.9			
Liberal.....	317	57.9	376	66.9	510	78.0	1,203	68.2			
Radical.....	1	.2	3	.5	3	.5	7	.4			
Unclassified.....	10	1.8	20	3.6	8	1.2	38	2.2			
Total.....	548	31.1	562	31.8	654	37.1	1,764	100.0			

Part VII consists primarily of the standard tests reported by teachers as most helpful in evaluating their teaching of the social studies. Part VIII presents lists of the textbooks most frequently used at the various school levels.

Uses of the Bulletin

The contents of the bulletin may be of value to curriculum committees. Parts II and VI may be suggestive with regard to the grade placement of social studies topics. Parts III and V should be helpful in matters of devices and aids. Part VIII suggests the many helpful textbooks which are now available.

Many sections of the bulletin represent the

considered opinion of teachers rather than the results of controlled research studies. This fact suggests the possibility of using the bulletin for extensive professional investigation in connection with the in-service training of teachers. Principals and supervisors will find in the report, as indeed many have already found in the questionnaire itself, challenging topics for professional study and discussion.

Individual teachers will discover that the discussion offers many suggestions for the improvement of their own work. The fact that the bulletin is based upon actual classroom experiences of others should increase its possibility of usefulness to most teachers.

WHEN WE COME TO THE PURPOSES of the social studies in the school, we face the question of our thought about them and our desires. The billions of facts recorded in books on history, economics, politics, and sociology, or any selections of them, do not tell us what use we must make of them, any more than chemicals in themselves tell us whether they are to be employed to poison neighbors or to heal the sick. We ourselves individually and in groups decide the question of purposes and uses. Since matters of opinion enter at this point, we necessarily find more or less variety in our thoughts. Yet on many points there is agreement, such a general agreement that large numbers of us can work together in a certain way and go along together a certain distance. It is true that some educators in the United States hold that schools should merely inculcate a love of the good life for the individual or a purely "scientific" spirit and that it is not the business of the schools to make "good citizens," or use learning as a means to any ends. But the number of such persons is small. Doubtless the great majority of people believe that it is the function of the social studies to serve some purposes.—*1936 Yearbook, Department of Superintendence*. p. 56-57.

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I. Objectives of the Social Studies Curriculum

What are the prime purposes of the social studies program? Which of these objectives do teachers think are of first importance in elementary schools, in junior high schools, and in senior high schools? In the opinion of teachers, do these objectives shift in their relative importance? Do classroom teachers feel that under present conditions these objectives are being adequately met? Before proceeding to the more definite fields of content and method, it is highly desirable that some attention be paid to the goals of social science instruction.¹

Relative Importance of Objectives

Objectives in education serve two primary purposes: (1) as guides to the curriculum maker in selecting the large areas of experience and subjectmatter, and (2) as goals for teachers and pupils in selecting specific activities of the classroom and in judging the effectiveness of instruction. Objectives may be classified as either immediate or ultimate. They may also be classified as those of (1) general education, (2) subjects, (3) grades, and (4) specific teaching units. Many examples of these various types may be found in professional literature and in current course-of-study bulletins.

Objectives selected for study—As a basis for obtaining the opinions of classroom teachers the present study used the statement of objectives published in *The Social Studies Curriculum*,² the 1936 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence (now known as the American Association of School Administrators).

The original list of objectives in the yearbook included only the first four in the following list. For the purpose of locating teachers who might still emphasize the "subjectmatter" aim, a fifth statement was included in the inquiry. A few slight changes in the original wording were made in the interest of brevity and clarity. The statements used and a brief characterization of each are as follows:

(1) *To give pupils the truest and most realistic knowledge that is possible of the com-*

munity, state, and world—the social and physical setting—in which they live. The essence of this objective is realism. A teacher who worked toward this goal would of necessity avoid a purely idealistic and highly generalized picture of human affairs. He would require freedom to point out the conflicting groups in society and to deal with controversial issues.

(2) *To prepare pupils for promoting a wiser and more effective cooperation among regions, areas, individuals, groups, states, and nations—a cooperation interracial, interreligious, and intereconomic.* Here the emphasis is upon increasing interdependence in society. Instruction aimed toward this goal would of necessity deal with the changing nature of American civilization, the trend away from rugged individualism and the increase in associational and cooperative activities.

(3) *To develop character by giving pupils a love of truth, an appreciation of the beautiful, a bent toward the good, and a desire and will to use knowledge for beneficent social ends.* Obviously this objective stresses the character training aspects of the social studies. The attainment of this aim would require emphasis upon the social values, the mores, and standards of people both in the past and in the present.

(4) *To train in the intellectual processes indispensable to the functioning of society, such as: skill in locating sources of information on social questions, skill in using these sources, skill in exploring and stating both sides of controversial questions, skill in selecting and verifying information, and skill in discussing social problems.* In this case the emphasis is upon the intellectual processes necessary for individual effectiveness in group living. Content is by implication secondary in importance to the methods necessary to develop certain habits, skills, and attitudes.

(5) *To give pupils knowledge of historical, geographical, social, political, and economic facts which may be of importance to them in*

¹ For a statement of social-economic goals of America consult *Implications of Social-Economic Goals for Education*, published by the National Education Association, 1937, 126 p. For a historical treatment of the values and purposes of various social sciences, consult Rolla M. Tryon's *The Social Sciences as School Subjects*, Part XI of the report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, published by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1935, 541 p. For a general treatment of the nature and objectives of the social studies see Charles A. Beard's *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, Part VII of the report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, 1934, 236 p.

² National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Social Studies Curriculum*. Fourteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1936. p. 56-59. This statement of objectives may be compared with those given in the references cited in the first footnote above.

later life. Most teachers will recognize in this objective the emphasis upon cataloged facts obtained primarily from past events. The curriculum organized on the basis of "subject-matter-set-out-to-be-learned" assumes that the acquisition of certain so-called essentials adequately prepares one for future civic duties. Primary emphasis on this goal has led in the past to subordination of the interests of the learner and to neglect of instruction in the activities of contemporary social life.

No statement of objectives consists of items which are mutually exclusive. Nor have there been many teachers, even in the past, who have focused their efforts upon a single goal to the exclusion of all others. However, it seemed pertinent for the present investigation to see whether or not there were differences of opinion as to the importance of the foregoing objectives at the various school levels. It seemed pertinent also to determine the degree to which teachers thought the objectives were being successfully obtained. Competent judgment on these points may suggest the possibility of redirection of current practises in social studies instruction.

Teacher opinion as to the relative importance of objectives for various grade levels—To discover which objectives should receive major

attention at the various school levels teachers were asked to rate each statement as "1" of great importance, "2" of secondary importance, and "3" of minor importance. The total number of teachers and the percent making each evaluation are shown in Table 3. In this case, the objectives are listed in accordance with the rank order of composite judgment of importance.

The order of arrangement in Table 3 is of considerable interest. Both elementary and secondary teachers placed the "character" objective first and "subjectmatter" at the bottom of the list. Of all the teachers giving their opinions, about three in four rated character education of great importance. On the other hand, about one in four believed that subjectmatter was of primary importance. With reference to the three other objectives, the ratings of secondary teachers differed considerably from those of elementary teachers. Senior high-school teachers particularly believed that realism, interdependence, and the intellectual process of social inquiry apparently should assume a position of greater importance at the secondary level.

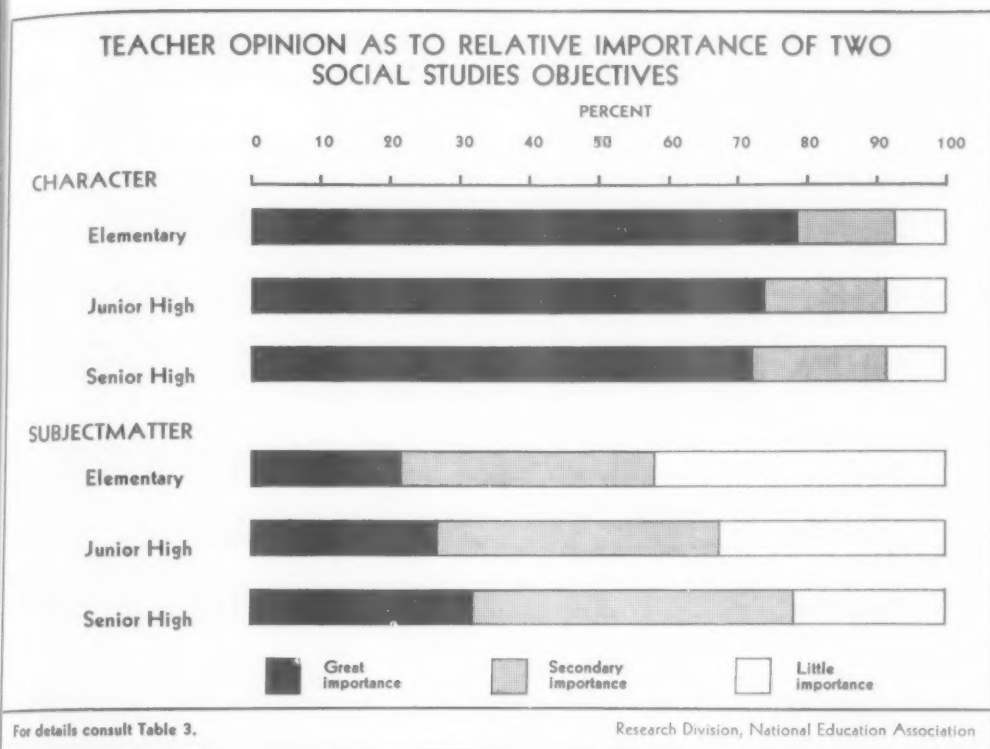
The general pattern of Table 3 is undoubtedly explained by the current trend of thought not only in social studies instruction, but among all teachers. Subjectmatter as an aim

TABLE 3.—JUDGMENTS OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS AS TO THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF OBJECTIVES

Objectives	Grade level	Percent of teachers rating each objective as of			Total number of teachers rating each objective
		Great importance	Secondary importance	Little importance	
1	2	3	4	5	6
I. To develop character by giving pupils a love of truth, etc.	Elem.	78.5	14.4	7.1	534
	J.H.S.	73.7	17.8	8.5	543
	S.H.S.	72.0	19.5	8.5	624
II. To give pupils the truest and most realistic knowledge, etc.	Elem.	57.1	29.7	13.2	522
	J.H.S.	59.9	27.0	13.2	538
	S.H.S.	67.9	23.2	8.9	626
III. To prepare pupils for promoting a wiser and more effective cooperation among regions, etc.	Elem.	55.2	31.3	13.5	551
	J.H.S.	57.7	29.0	13.3	534
	S.H.S.	64.3	27.1	8.6	627
IV. To train in the intellectual processes indispensable to the functioning of society, etc.	Elem.	40.2	35.2	24.6	517
	J.H.S.	46.2	35.9	17.9	532
	S.H.S.	60.7	28.0	11.3	618
V. To give pupils knowledge of historical, geographical, social, political, etc.	Elem.	21.9	36.4	41.7	511
	J.H.S.	27.0	40.6	32.5	530
	S.H.S.	32.1	45.7	22.2	622

Read table as follows: 78.5 percent of the 534 elementary-school teachers who rated the importance of Objective I thought it was of great importance for attention at the elementary-school level. Only about 22 percent of the 511 elementary-school teachers rating Objective V thought that it was of great importance for attention at the elementary-school level.

FIGURE I



has been definitely subordinated, at least in theory and in discussion, to objectives such as character development. It is not surprising then to find the opinions of teachers of recognized ability conforming to the more generally accepted view. Whether or not typical practise also conforms is a question which no inquiry form can determine.

Importance of objectives on the basis of classifications other than grade levels—Special tabulations on the basis of city size (not reported in tables in this bulletin) reveal few important differences in teacher opinion. However, realism in teaching, emphasis on interdependence, and training of the intellectual process for social inquiry were most often stressed in the cities over 100,000 in population. The proportion of first importance ratings on these items declined consistently down to the smallest cities of 2,500 to 5,000 population. If these three objectives should and are to receive increased emphasis, it appears that the responsibility rests most heavily upon the teachers and administrators of the smaller communities.

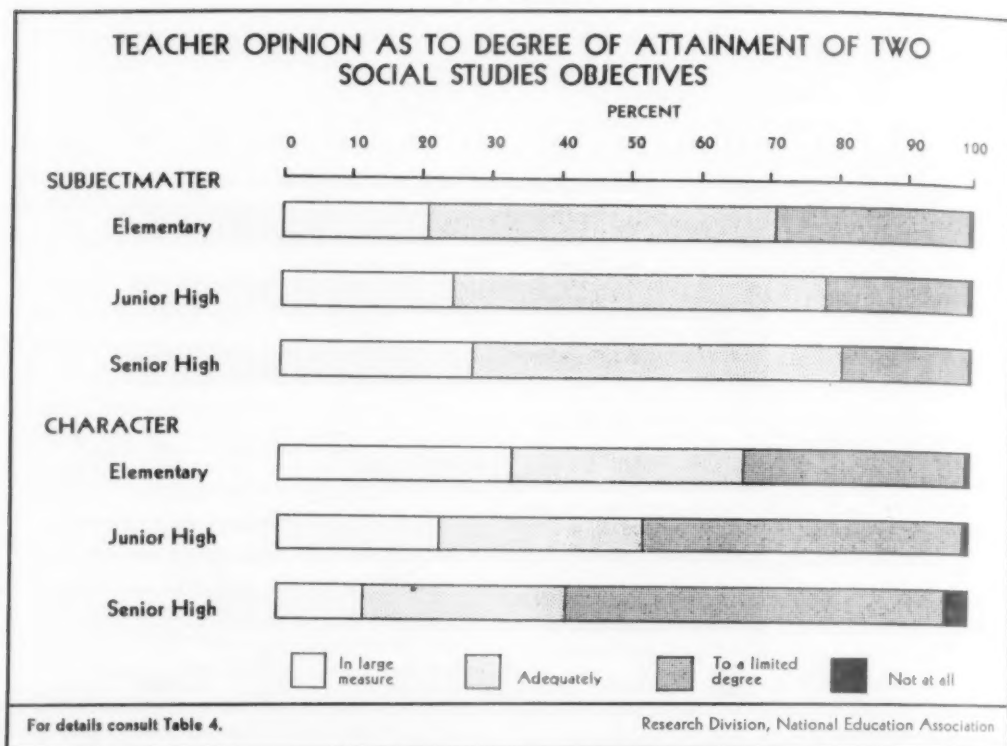
Adequacy of Attainment of Objectives

A complete educational program should include not only the setting up of desirable goals but systematic effort to appraise progress toward these objectives. One method of appraisal is by means of standardized or new-type tests. Other less objective measures are teacher opinions which may or may not be based upon both tests and observation of changes in pupils. In the present study classroom teachers were asked to give their judgment as to the degree to which the social studies in their schools met each of the five objectives.

Teacher opinion as to success in attaining the objectives—The scale upon which teachers indicated the degree of attainment of the objectives in their schools included four items: (1) in large measure; (2) adequately; (3) to a limited degree; and (4) not at all. The distribution of the replies on this request is given by school levels in Table 4.

The objectives are listed in Table 4 on the basis of the proportion of teachers rating each objective as attained "in large measure" and

FIGURE II



"adequately." For example, 70.9 percent of the elementary teachers rated the "subjectmatter" (V) objective as attained at least adequately, if not "in large measure." Even larger proportions of the junior high- and senior high-school teachers rated the objective (V) similarly. Objective III (interdependence) was thought by only 48.8 percent of the elementary teachers to be attained adequately or better. The corresponding proportion of junior high-school teachers was 51.0 percent and of senior high-school teachers, 43.4 percent.

Looking at it another way, only with regard to Objective V (subjectmatter) and Objective II (realism) were the majority of the teachers rather positive that the goals were attained either adequately or in large measure. On Objective I (character) the elementary teachers were still rather sure of the success of their schools; junior high-school teachers were less sure; and a majority (57.7 percent) of the senior high-school teachers marked the ratings "to a limited degree" or "not at all." A similar condition of uncertainty of success held true with Objective IV (intellectual processes) ex-

cept that here a majority of the senior high-school teachers were sure that adequacy or better was attained. Of all the teachers rating Objective III (interdependence) about half believed that the degree of attainment was certainly not adequate.

What do the composite ratings mean if we assume that the opinions of these teachers are reasonably fair measures of success of the schools? Apparently, in connection with Objectives I (character), IV (intellectual processes), and III (interdependence), there must be impediments to a reasonable level of attainment. Do these difficulties lie in the training of the teachers, the methods used, the quality of the supplementary materials, or in the influences upon pupils outside of the schools? In the cases of Objectives V and II there is no occasion for further professional investigation even tho 70 to 80 percent of the teachers believed that adequate success had been achieved? Further questions on the significance of these findings are raised under the next center heading: "Comparison of Importance and Adequacy Ratings of Objectives."

Teachers' opinions on adequacy of attainment of objectives when classified in terms other than grade levels—Tabulations on the basis of city size did not reveal any important differences.

With regard to Objective I (character) and Objective IV (intellectual processes) the special tabulations show certain reliable differences. For example, relatively more of the teachers who rated themselves as conservative believed that Objective I was adequately attained than of those who rated themselves as liberals. This difference may indicate merely that "liberal" teachers are more skeptical of their success in teaching character than are "conservative" instructors. Perhaps supervisors need to cultivate a more general skepticism among the latter.

In the communities of the various types (Table 2) teachers showed marked differences of opinion with regard to Objective IV (intellectual processes). This objective was believed to be adequately met more often in American communities than in those of pre-

dominantly foreign populations. The estimated degree of adequacy of treatment also dropped consistently with decreases in economic level. In communities considered liberal by the teachers the degree of attainment of Objective IV was thought to be higher than in the conservative districts. These differences suggest several problems for teachers and supervisors. Are pupils in the poorer, foreign-born, and conservative communities less responsive to *present* methods directed toward the attainment of Objective IV? Would a study of the nature and needs of these communities reveal the possibility of other methods and content in social studies instruction? Has success in attainment of Objective IV been caused by a lack of opportunity?

Comparison of Importance and Adequacy Ratings of Objectives

It will be apparent that the objectives are not listed in the same order in Tables 3 and 4. For example, in Table 3 the composite judg-

TABLE 4.—JUDGMENTS OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS AS TO THE DEGREE OF ATTAINMENT OF EACH OBJECTIVE IN THEIR SCHOOLS

Objectives	Grade level	Percent reporting each adequacy rating				Total number of teachers rating each objective
		In large measure	Adequately	To a limited degree	Not at all	
I	2	3	4	5	6	7
V. To give pupils knowledge of historical, geographical, social, political, and economic facts which may be of importance to them in later life.	Elem.	21.0	49.9	28.7	0.4	515
	J.H.S.	24.7	53.8	21.1	0.4	550
	S.H.S.	27.9	52.8	19.1	0.2	638
II. To give pupils the truest and most realistic knowledge that is possible of the community, state, nation, and world—the social and physical setting—in which they live.	Elem.	26.1	43.3	30.2	0.4	524
	J.H.S.	24.5	48.0	27.5	0.0	550
	S.H.S.	23.8	46.3	29.9	0.0	642
I. To develop character by giving pupils a love of truth, an appreciation of the beautiful, a bent toward the good, and a desire and will to use knowledge for beneficent social ends.	Elem.	33.7	33.1	32.6	0.6	528
	J.H.S.	23.3	29.5	46.5	0.7	553
	S.H.S.	12.7	29.6	54.1	3.6	639
IV. To train in the intellectual processes indispensable to the functioning of society, such as: skill in locating sources of information on social questions, skill in using these sources, skill in exploring and stating both sides of controversial questions, skill in selecting and verifying information, and skill in discussing social problems.	Elem.	18.2	33.2	43.7	4.9	502
	J.H.S.	19.2	34.8	43.6	2.4	548
	S.H.S.	17.7	40.7	39.8	1.7	631
III. To prepare pupils for promoting a wiser and more effective cooperation among regions, areas, individuals, groups, communities, states, and nations—a cooperation interracial, interreligious, and inter-economic.	Elem.	17.3	31.5	47.6	3.6	527
	J.H.S.	14.6	36.4	47.0	2.0	549
	S.H.S.	14.5	28.9	53.3	3.3	636

Read table as follows: 21 percent of the 515 elementary-school teachers who rated the "subjectmatter" objective thought that their own schools attained this objective in large measure; 49.9 percent thought the degree of attainment was adequate. Similarly read other items. Column 7 shows that a few teachers at various grade levels did not rate each objective. For the total number of teachers at each grade level see Table 2. Roman numbers preceding each objective refer to the rank in Table 3.

ment of teachers as to the objective of greatest importance placed Objective I (character) first in the list. The composite judgment on this objective as to the adequacy of attainment (column 3, "in large measure"; and column 4, "adequately") placed it third in Table 4. Objective V (subjectmatter) apparently fifth in importance in the opinion of all the teachers is believed to be first in adequacy of attainment. A similar difference occurs in the case of Objective III (interdependence). In contrast, however, the ratings of attainment of Objective II (realism) and Objective IV (intellectual processes) apparently correspond with the importance ratings of these objectives.

These relationships suggest that in the opinion of teachers of recognized ability there is

considerable lag between ideals and practise. How extensive and serious this condition may be the present study did not attempt to discover. Perhaps the lag is more serious in certain school systems and some schools than it is in others. The preceding discussion suggests the possibility of less emphasis upon subjectmatter and more effective efforts to develop character and an appreciation of social interdependence.² Decisions as to how imperative immediate action may be and as to the best method of procedure rest eventually with the teachers and administrators of each school. For those who are interested in making a beginning, the remaining sections of this bulletin will offer many concrete suggestions.

² An interesting venture into a program for teaching children to work together is being worked out by the N.E.A. Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. A stimulating guide booklet, *Teachers and Cooperation*, may be obtained (single copies, 25 cents; one hundred or more, 20 cents each) from S. A. Courtis, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

THE FIRST CRITERION which should guide curriculum-making groups and against which the proposed content of social studies must be evaluated is that of *accuracy*. Recognizing that final truth in societal matters is unknown even if knowable, and that most significant problems are highly controversial in such an age as ours, we are still bound by the tenets of a scholarship to which we owe a large measure of allegiance to see that no known untruth be taught as true. A second quality we have the right to demand in material selected for teaching purposes is that of *usefulness*. Usefulness is not a narrowly utilitarian or materialistic quality, but one of the broadest significance. The pupil has the right to expect that that which is taught him in the schools be applicable to and helpful in meeting the situations of normal living. A third criterion is that of *learnability*. We may construct a curriculum which is at once accurate and useful, at least potentially so, and yet find that our efforts are in vain because we have failed to assay the ability of pupils to learn. Learnability is an elusive matter, for it involves method of teaching as well as grade placement and recognition of individual differences, but it is a criterion which contemporary education emphasizes.—1936 *Yearbook, Department of Superintendence*. p. 142-43.

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II. Content of the Social Studies Program

The lag between accepted objectives and success in attaining them, indicated by teacher opinion in the preceding section, may be partly caused by weaknesses in the content of social studies programs. As a means of improving present social studies courses, the Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum briefly outlined sixteen areas or topics believed to be inadequately treated by most schools.¹ These sixteen areas were based upon a consideration of numerous research studies, the present work of the schools, and recent trends in American society.²

In making its proposals the Commission did not answer two important questions: (1) to what extent are these areas now adequately taught in elementary and secondary schools; and (2) at which school levels should the neglected areas be given increased emphasis? One section of the questionnaire was designed to supply information on these two points. Teach-

ers were asked first to mark out any of the sixteen areas which they thought were adequately taught in their schools. The remaining topics were then rated by each teacher as to their relative importance for additional emphasis at his school level. The ratings used were: "1," great importance; "2," secondary importance; and "3," little importance.

The sixteen areas or topics were printed on the questionnaire in topical form (e.g., problems of metropolitan government) and followed by an annotation suggesting possible subtopics. The reproduction of the questionnaire on pages 247-54 of this bulletin shows the complete procedure in detail.

Judgments of Elementary-School Teachers

Of the 584 elementary-school teachers participating in the study, between 384 and 420 marked out or rated each of the sixteen areas.

¹National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Social Studies Curriculum*. Fourteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1936. p. 157-59.

²For other suggestions on the large areas in social studies instruction, see *Curriculum Making in the Social Studies*, by Leon C. Marshall and Rachel M. Goetz, and *Social Foundations of Education*, by George S. Counts, Parts XIII and IX of the report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association; published by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

TABLE 5.—JUDGMENTS OF 584 ELEMENTARY TEACHERS WITH REGARD TO ADEQUACY OF TEACHING AND IMPORTANCE FOR ADDITIONAL EMPHASIS OF CERTAIN AREAS

Areas	Number of teachers answering	Percent of teachers reporting areas adequately taught	Percent of teachers rating importance for additional emphasis		
			Great importance	Secondary importance	Little importance
1	2	3	4	5	6
Consumer education.....	391	12.8	29.7	24.0	33.5
Investment and personal finance.....	384	14.6	20.3	23.2	41.9
Formation of public opinion.....	387	15.5	22.7	27.4	34.4
Vocational analysis and information.....	387	15.8	27.4	28.7	28.1
Taxation and public finance.....	385	17.9	18.7	22.9	40.5
Community analysis.....	386	17.9	26.4	27.5	28.2
Problems of metropolitan government.....	403	20.4	15.6	20.6	43.4
Facilities of social intercourse.....	401	20.5	22.7	24.9	31.9
Relation of industry and government.....	397	21.7	21.4	31.0	25.9
Adult education.....	392	25.5	19.9	15.6	39.0
Social effects of the rise of science.....	393	25.7	24.4	24.7	25.2
Nature of government.....	402	25.9	15.4	21.6	37.1
Activities of the national government.....	404	28.5	18.1	28.2	25.2
International relations.....	420	31.9	25.5	25.7	16.9
School as a social institution.....	399	32.1	19.5	21.8	26.6
Personal analysis.....	404	33.4	40.9	15.1	10.6

Read table as follows: Of the 584 elementary teachers participating in the study, 391 either marked the topic "consumer education" as adequately taught in their schools or rated its importance for additional emphasis. Only about 13 percent thought this topic was adequately taught in their schools; over 29 percent thought the topic was of great importance for further emphasis at the elementary level. One-third of the teachers thought "consumer education" was of little importance for additional attention in elementary schools even tho inadequately taught at present.

In other words, on no single topic did less than three out of five teachers express an opinion. Table 5 shows the proportion of teachers indicating each area as adequately taught (column 3) or giving a rating of importance for further emphasis (columns 4, 5, and 6). Columns 3 to 6 add to 100 percent and are based upon the number answering as given in column 2. The least adequately treated topics, as shown by column 2, are placed first in the table.

Adequacy of present teaching of sixteen areas—Generally speaking, the elementary teachers of recognized ability reported all of the sixteen topics as not adequately taught in their schools. Only on the three topics having to do with international relations, the school as a social institution, and personal analysis did as many as one teacher in three believe that the teaching was adequate. The topics which the fewest number of teachers reported as adequately taught were consumer education, investment and personal finance, formation of public opinion, and vocational analysis and information.

It may be contended that one reason so few teachers reported these sixteen as adequately

taught is that these topics are not now generally placed at the elementary-school level. Perhaps the topics are better suited for the secondary schools. Upon this point the Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum was silent, but by implication at least its report suggests that a beginning should be made on many of these areas in the elementary schools. With this point of view some of the teachers agreed, as will be shown in the next paragraphs.

Importance of additional emphasis on certain topics—Column 4 of Table 5 shows only one topic—personal analysis—as of great importance for additional emphasis in the opinion of two teachers out of five. On no other topic was there as much agreement, altho almost 30 percent of the teachers agreed that consumer education was of great importance.

By combining the percent of teachers rating each item as of "great" and "secondary" importance, other topics stand out for possible additional attention. On this basis, at least 50 percent of the elementary teachers would give increased emphasis to the following seven areas: personal analysis, vocational analysis and

TABLE 6.—JUDGMENTS OF 562 JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS WITH REGARD TO ADEQUACY OF TEACHING AND IMPORTANCE FOR ADDITIONAL EMPHASIS OF CERTAIN AREAS

Areas	Number of teachers answering	Percent of teachers reporting areas adequately taught	Percent of teachers rating importance for additional emphasis		
			Great importance	Secondary importance	Little importance
1	2	3	4	5	6
Consumer education.....	507	16.8	42.0	23.1	18.1
Investment and personal finance.....	509	20.2	29.5	25.9	24.4
Facilities of social intercourse.....	505	20.4	25.9	34.1	19.6
Adult education.....	512	27.9	23.8	20.8	27.4
Community analysis.....	513	32.3	19.9	31.8	16.0
Social effects of the rise of science.....	503	33.6	13.5	31.2	21.7
Personal analysis.....	511	35.8	41.5	13.9	8.8
Taxation and public finance.....	512	36.5	21.1	25.0	17.4
Vocational analysis and information.....	517	36.6	31.3	21.3	10.8
International relations.....	516	39.6	29.3	23.3	7.8
Relation of industry and government.....	516	41.3	23.8	26.8	8.1
School as a social institution.....	512	42.5	14.5	24.8	18.2
Formation of public opinion.....	509	44.2	27.1	20.6	8.1
Problems of metropolitan government.....	509	44.4	16.3	23.4	15.9
Nature of government.....	514	57.6	16.0	13.6	12.8
Activities of the national government.....	519	69.8	12.3	14.6	3.3

Read table as follows: Of the 562 junior high-school teachers participating in the study, 507 either marked the topic "consumer education" as adequately taught in their schools or rated its importance for additional emphasis. Nearly 17 percent thought that the topic was adequately taught in their schools; 42 percent thought the topic was of great importance for further emphasis at the junior high-school level. Almost one in five teachers thought the topic was of little importance for additional emphasis in junior high schools even tho inadequately taught at present.

information, consumer education, community analysis, relation of industry and government, international relations, and the formation of public opinion. These judgments suggest several important areas for the consideration of curriculum committees at the elementary-school level.

Judgments of Junior High-School Teachers

Between 505 and 519 of the junior high-school teachers participating in this study gave their opinions on the sixteen areas. In other words, about nine out of ten of these teachers expressed an opinion on each of the topics. Table 6 shows the number answering each topic (column 2) and the proportion of these reporting "adequately taught" (column 3) or giving a rating of importance for further emphasis (columns 4, 5, and 6).

Adequacy of present teaching of sixteen areas—The two topics, activities of the national government and the nature of government, were thought to be adequately taught by about three out of five of the junior high-school teachers. Two out of five teachers appeared to be satisfied with the treatment of such topics as the problems of metropolitan government, formation of public opinion, the school as a social institution, relation of industry and government, and international relations. All of the topics mentioned in this paragraph pertain more or less to government and its activities.

Among the topics most neglected in junior high schools in the opinion of teachers are the following: consumer education, investment and personal finance, facilities of social intercourse (e.g., cooperatives), and adult education (e.g., agencies and opportunities for). Most of these topics offer possibilities for helping the individual to appreciate and to use his opportunities and resources.

Importance of additional emphasis on certain topics—Over 40 percent of the junior high-school teachers agreed that consumer education and personal analysis were areas of great importance for additional emphasis. In column 4 of Table 6 no other topics attained such a general consensus of opinion. Nearly 30 percent of the teachers rated of great importance the three topics, vocational analysis and information, investment and personal finance, and international relations.

Other areas of possible additional emphasis are revealed by combining the percent of teachers rating items of "great" and "secondary" importance. On this basis at least 50 percent of the teachers agree that additional emphasis should be given to the following eight areas: consumer education, personal analysis, facilities of social intercourse (e.g., cooperatives), investment and personal finance, community analysis, vocational analysis and information, international relations, and the relation of industry and government. The possibilities of these topics for particular school systems should be an object of investigation of curriculum committees at the junior high-school level.

Judgments of Senior High-School Teachers

Of the 654 senior high-school teachers participating in the study, between 618 and 639 marked out or rated each of the sixteen areas. Table 7 shows the number of teachers answering each topic (column 2) and the proportion of these reporting "adequately taught" (column 3) or giving a rating of importance for additional emphasis (columns 4, 5, and 6).

Adequacy of present teaching of sixteen areas—Eighty percent of the teachers thought that the topic, activities of the national government, was adequately taught. The nature of government was also adequately taught according to 70 percent of the senior high-school teachers. About two in five of the respondents thought that there was no neglect of the five topics, relation of industry and government, taxation and public finance, formation of public opinion, problems of metropolitan government, and international relations.

The five topics most seriously neglected in the opinion of the teachers were: facilities of social intercourse (e.g., cooperatives), consumer education, vocational analysis and information, personal analysis, and adult education (e.g., agencies and opportunities for).

Importance of additional emphasis on certain topics—Nearly half of the senior high-school teachers thought that it was of great importance to place additional emphasis upon personal analysis, consumer education, and vocational analysis and information. Investment and personal finance, international relations, adult education, formation of public opinion, and facilities of social intercourse (e.g., cooperatives) were thought to be of great impor-

tance for further emphasis by about one teacher in three.

On the basis of ratings of great and secondary importance, nine topics were thought by more than 50 percent of the teachers to deserve additional emphasis at the senior high-school level. These topics were: consumer education, personal analysis, vocational analysis and information, facilities of social intercourse (e.g., cooperatives), investment and personal finance, community analysis, adult education (e.g., agencies and opportunities for), social effects of the rise of science, and international relations. High-school teachers and administrators, as well as curriculum committees, should be interested in these opinions of teachers of recognized ability.

Other Classifications of Teachers' Judgments

Differences of opinion among teachers at all school levels were not apparent when the data were classified by size of city. Considering the teachers' opinions from the points of view of the type of community in which they teach

and the social attitudes of the teachers and parents, the same general pattern was found as described heretofore in the bulletin. By and large, liberal teachers³ were more doubtful as to the adequacy of the teaching in their schools while conservative teachers were definitely more inclined to be satisfied with the efforts of their schools. Liberal teachers also gave most areas higher importance ratings for further emphasis than did conservative teachers. Teachers in communities of higher economic levels rated most areas as being more adequately taught than did teachers of poorer communities, while the latter judged that greater attention should be given to these topics in their communities (poorer).

The foregoing differences suggest several important questions. Do teachers who rated themselves as liberals tend to set too high goals of attainment for their classes? Are the conservative teachers too well satisfied with present accomplishments in their schools? Are the apparent superior results in communities of the higher economic levels real or merely evidence of biased opinions? If the achieve-

³ It must be remembered that "liberal" teachers are those who rated themselves as liberal.

TABLE 7.—JUDGMENTS OF 654 SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS WITH REGARD TO ADEQUACY OF TEACHING AND IMPORTANCE FOR ADDITIONAL EMPHASIS OF CERTAIN AREAS

Areas	Number of teachers answering	Percent of teachers reporting areas adequately taught	Percent of teachers rating importance for additional emphasis		
			Great importance	Secondary importance	Little importance
1	2	3	4	5	6
Facilities of social intercourse.....	626	17.1	32.1	33.1	17.7
Consumer education.....	625	21.6	48.6	21.3	8.5
Vocational analysis and information.....	622	22.3	48.2	21.6	7.9
Adult education.....	623	22.8	33.2	27.3	16.7
Personal analysis.....	621	22.9	50.1	19.5	7.5
Community analysis.....	619	25.4	29.1	32.8	12.7
Investment and personal finance.....	626	26.8	40.6	22.7	9.9
School as a social institution.....	630	33.5	18.6	30.5	17.4
Social effects of the rise of science.....	618	33.7	21.3	29.8	15.2
International relations.....	639	39.4	33.5	22.1	5.0
Problems of metropolitan government.....	627	42.4	26.8	22.0	8.8
Formation of public opinion.....	631	45.8	33.1	16.3	4.8
Taxation and public finance.....	635	48.0	27.9	18.6	5.5
Relation of industry and government.....	636	50.8	30.2	15.6	3.4
Nature of government.....	635	70.4	16.8	10.3	2.5
Activities of the national government.....	637	80.2	11.1	7.7	1.0

Read table as follows: Of the 654 senior high-school teachers participating in the study, 626 either marked the topic "facilities of social intercourse" as adequately taught or rated its importance for additional emphasis. Only 17 percent thought that this area was adequately taught in their schools; 32 percent thought the topic was of great importance for additional emphasis at the senior high-school level. About one in five teachers thought the topic was of little importance for additional emphasis at the senior high-school level even tho inadequately taught at present.

ments are real why are certain topics neglected in the so-called poorer districts? Do these poorer districts lack essential instructional materials? These are questions for further study in local school systems.

General Conclusions with Regard to Areas of Study

What general conclusions may be drawn from the preceding paragraphs of this section? If the judgments of these teachers of recognized ability were reliable then almost all of the sixteen areas have received far from adequate attention. This conclusion agrees with that of the Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum of the Department of Superintendence.

Generally speaking, the topics dealing with the nature and activities of government were thought to be most adequately treated in these schools. Consumer education has been consistently neglected at all school levels. Facilities of social intercourse (e.g., cooperatives), and adult education (e.g., agencies and opportunities for) have been neglected at the secondary-school level. In the opinion of the elementary-school teachers inadequate attention has been given at their level to investment and personal finance, formation of public opinion, and vocational analysis and information. Would it be desirable in terms of the objectives of the

social studies to give these neglected areas additional attention in social science instruction?

If the answer to the preceding question is in the affirmative, the next question is: "At which school levels should this increased attention be given?" The discussion of Tables 5, 6, and 7 suggests preliminary answers to this second question. Table 8 brings together the points upon which there is considerable agreement. It will be assumed, where 50 percent or more of the teachers of any school level (Tables 5, 6, and 7) suggest a topic for additional emphasis, that the area deserves special consideration of all teachers, principals, and curriculum committees. Check marks in Table 8 indicate the items which 50 percent or more of the teachers rated either of "great" or "secondary" importance. An asterisk indicates cases where the proportion is 60 percent or higher.

On the foregoing basis, 50 percent or more (but in no case as high as 60 percent) of the elementary teachers agreed upon the following seven topics:

Consumer education
Vocational analysis and information
Community analysis
Personal analysis
International relations
Formation of public opinion
Relation of industry and government.

At least 50 percent (asterisk indicates at least 60 percent) of the junior high-school

TABLE 8.—TEACHER OPINION AS TO AREAS FOR ADDITIONAL EMPHASIS AT VARIOUS SCHOOL LEVELS

Areas	Suggested by 50 percent or more of teachers as of great or secondary importance for		
	Elementary school	Junior high school (*60 percent or more)	Senior high school (*60 percent or more)
1	2	3	4
Consumer education	✓	*✓	*✓
Facilities of social intercourse	✓	✓	*✓
Investment and personal finance	✓	✓	*✓
Adult education	✓	✓	*✓
Vocational analysis and information	✓	✓	*✓
Community analysis	✓	✓	*✓
Personal analysis	✓	✓	*✓
Social effects of the rise of science	✓	✓	✓
The school as a social institution	✓	✓	✓
Taxation and public finance	✓	✓	✓
Problems of metropolitan government	✓	✓	✓
International relations	✓	✓	✓
Formation of public opinion	✓	✓	✓
Relation of industry and government	✓	✓	✓
Nature of government	✓	✓	✓
Activities of the national government	✓	✓	✓

Read table as follows: At least 50 percent of the junior high-school teachers believed that "consumer education" was of great or secondary importance (the asterisk indicates that really more than 60 percent thought so) for increased emphasis at the junior high-school level. Similarly interpret other check marks and asterisks.

teachers agreed on the desirability of further emphasis on eight topics:

- *Consumer education
- Facilities of social intercourse
- Investment and personal finance
- Vocational analysis and information
- Community analysis
- Personal analysis
- International relations
- Relation of industry and government.

Fifty percent or more (asterisks indicate 60 percent or more) of the senior high-school teachers agreed upon the following nine topics:

- *Consumer education
- *Facilities of social intercourse
- *Investment and personal finance
- *Adult education
- *Vocational analysis and information
- *Community analysis
- *Personal analysis
- Social effects of the rise of science
- International relations.

It should be noted that five of these topics are found in the lists at all three levels. These topics are: consumer education, vocational analysis and information, community analysis, personal analysis, and international relations. The formation of public opinion is found only on the elementary-school list. Adult education (e.g., agencies and opportunities for) and the

social effects of the rise of science are two topics found only on the senior high-school list. The junior high-school list overlaps both the elementary and the senior high-school lists but contains no topic not found on one of the others.

The outcome of this rating by classroom teachers is not presented as a guide to be accepted uncritically. In specific school systems and in individual schools, where competent judgment is at variance with Tables 5, 6, and 7, the use of even the same procedure as here outlined might result in a listing of items different from that in Table 8. However, even in these schools the procedure for obtaining the judgment of competent teachers and the results in the present case will be helpful. Grade placement of the sixteen areas, regarded by the Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum as generally inadequately emphasized, will have to be made largely on the basis of competent opinion. The success of such placement will be determined in large measure by the skilful use of methods, devices, and supplementary materials. Adjustment of the placement of the topics will necessarily follow from the observed and tested outcomes. Suggestions as to method and instructional materials will be found in the remaining sections of this bulletin.⁴

⁴ For suggestions on the selection of content, grade placement, and similar problems consult *The Social Studies Curriculum*, 1936 Yearbook, Department of Superintendence. Present practise and trends, p. 63-90; organization of program, p. 91-140, 178-232; selection of content, p. 141-64; grade placement, p. 165-77; and evaluation of outcomes, p. 312-43.

III. Characteristics of Course-of-Study Bulletins

Learning takes place in the classroom through the interaction between the pupil, the teacher, and "the thing to be learned." In most city school systems the third of these factors is described in some detail in so-called course-of-study bulletins. Observation shows that these bulletins vary widely as to the general and specific nature of their contents, as to their emphasis upon pupil and social or group outcomes, and as to the rigidity of conformance expected of the teacher. Under what conditions in these matters are teachers of recognized ability expected to do their work? How would the preferences of these teachers change existing practises? Upon these two questions the 1764 teachers in the present study were asked to give their most careful judgments.

General Analysis of Practise and Teachers' Preferences

Rigidity of requirements—Three degrees of prescription of the course of study were submitted for the judgment of classroom teachers: (1) rigid prescription of subjectmatter to be taught; (2) minimum or core content prescribed—freedom beyond this; and (3) general areas stated—specific details and topics left largely to the teacher. Each participant in the present investigation was asked to indicate the predominant nature of the present course-of-study bulletin now used in his teaching and then to indicate his preference. The results of these requests are shown by school levels in Table 9.

Twelve and four-tenths percent of all the teachers reported that rigid requirements are prescribed for them; but only 2 percent preferred to have their subjectmatter so rigidly prescribed. More than half the teachers preferred to have general areas stated with specific topics and details left to the teacher. There seemed to be little difference among teachers from different grade levels, except that more elementary teachers were teaching under rigidly prescribed requirements, whereas greater freedom was given to teachers of older pupils. Size of city, type of community, and social attitudes of teachers and parents had no apparent bearing upon the percent of teachers reporting averseness to rigid prescription of subjectmatter. In general, from 10 to 16 percent of the teachers used bulletins rigidly prescribing subjectmatter.

General plan of course-of-study bulletins—For the most part, the general plans of course-of-study bulletins may be classified into three types: (1) brief lists of topics and pages in textbooks; (2) summary of information, objectives, and sources; and (3) elaborate treatment of information, objectives, sources, methods, tests, and references. Teachers were asked to report the predominant characteristic of the bulletins they were using and then to indicate the type preferred. These data are given in Table 10 by school levels.

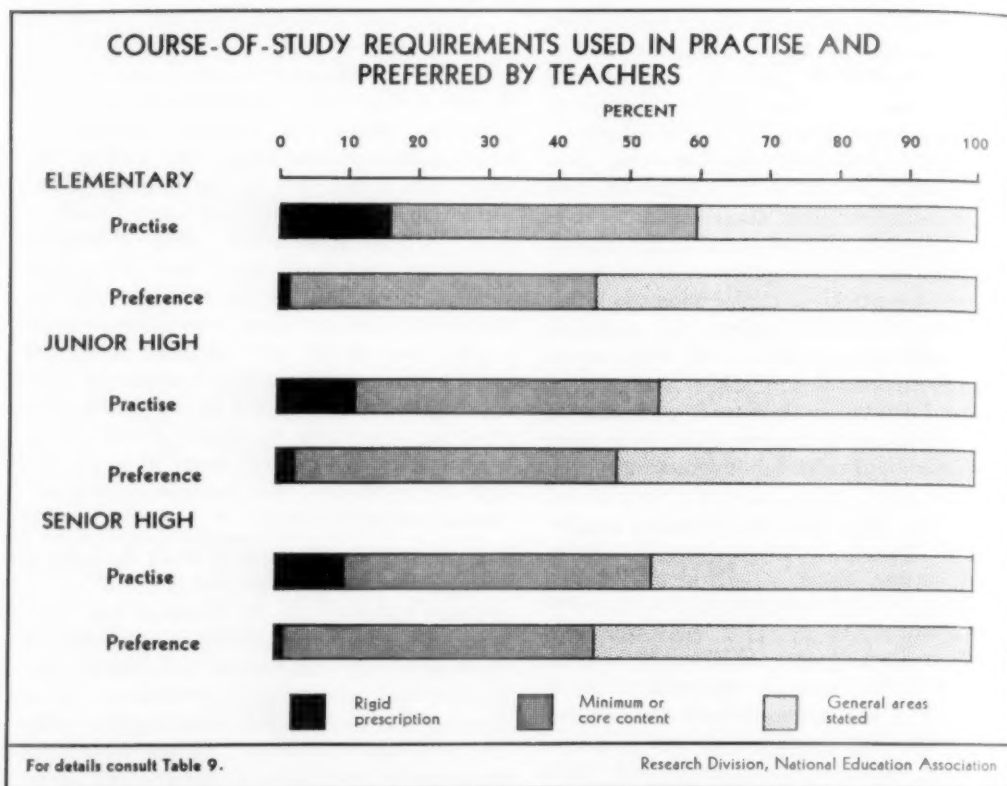
Nearly 25 percent of the teachers reported that in actual practise they used the brief-outline type of course-of-study bulletin; 56.2 percent, the summary type; and 19 percent, the

TABLE 9.—PERCENT OF TEACHERS AT EACH SCHOOL LEVEL FOLLOWING AND PREFERRING DIFFERENT TYPES OF COURSE-OF-STUDY REQUIREMENTS

Requirements	Elementary school		Junior high school		Senior high school		Total all levels	
	Practise	Preference	Practise	Preference	Practise	Preference	Practise	Preference
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Rigid prescription of subjectmatter to be taught.....	16.0	1.8	11.5	2.7	10.0	1.4	12.4	2.0
2. Minimum or core content prescribed; freedom beyond this.....	43.5	43.5	43.1	46.0	43.7	44.1	43.5	44.5
3. General areas stated—specific topics and details left largely to teacher.....	40.5	54.7	45.4	51.3	46.3	54.5	44.1	53.5
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Read table as follows: 16 percent of the elementary teachers reported that practise in their schools required them to follow rigidly prescribed subjectmatter; only 1.8 percent preferred this type of requirement.

FIGURE III



more elaborate plans. When preferences were given there was a definite shift in these percents. Only 6.3 percent of the total group preferred the brief-outline type and 33.5 percent preferred the elaborate bulletins. The summary plan was preferred by 60.2 percent. Only 10.3 percent of the elementary teachers reported a brief list of topics to be their preference, and this type of bulletin was even less popular among secondary teachers. The summary type of bulletin is used more generally by senior high-school teachers; elaborate treatment is less often used and also less popular at the senior high-school level than at the lower grade levels. These facts should be of particular interest to those responsible for the preparation of course-of-study bulletins.

Specific form of bulletins—Proceeding from the general plan of course-of-study bulletins to the specific form of the content, certain predominant types may be found: (1) topical outline; (2) detailed narrative and descriptions; (3) questions and answers; (4) problems; (5)

projects, units, or activities. Upon these types teachers reported their practise as to usage and also their preferences. The results by school levels are given in Table 11. It should be stated that, altho combinations were not provided for in the inquiry form, the teachers wrote them on their replies. In most instances these were various combinations of (1), (4), and (5).

About four teachers in ten reported that the bulletins in use are predominantly topical outline in form. A similar proportion reported bulletins which consist chiefly of projects, units, and activities. On the basis of preferences only about one in ten selected the topical outline form while six in ten preferred the project-unit-activities type. At the various school levels certain differences in practise were apparent and, on the basis of preferences these differences were even more marked. A considerably larger proportion of the elementary teachers preferred the project-unit-activity form of bulletin than did secondary teachers. Also, relatively more senior high-school teachers preferred the topical outline than did teachers at

either the elementary or junior high-school level.

The project-unit-activities type of bulletin is more frequently used by elementary teachers in cities over 100,000 population. The topical outline type increased in use among both junior high- and senior high-school teachers with decreases in the size of city. Preference for the project-unit-activities type increased among elementary teachers with increases in city size; preference for the problem type among secondary teachers. Other classifications also suggested certain differences. For example, in predominantly foreign-born communities the teachers did not report the use of the project-unit-activities type as often as in American-born communities. However, when preferences were given the proportion of teachers approv-

ing the type did not show any differences between types of communities.

Individual and social emphasis—Among educators there are some who urge a subject-matter emphasis in teaching; some advocate primary attention to the individual's needs and interest; others emphasize group or social needs; and still others try to attain a balance between the individual and the social aspects. Most course-of-study bulletins either by direct statement or indirectly thru lists of desirable outcomes may be classified under one of the four preceding points of view. In the present study teachers reported the predominant emphasis in the bulletins used in their schools and followed this judgment with an indication of their own particular preferences. The percent of teachers stating types of practise and pref-

TABLE 10.—PERCENT OF TEACHERS AT EACH SCHOOL LEVEL USING AND PREFERRING DIFFERENT GENERAL PLANS OF COURSE-OF-STUDY BULLETINS

General plan of bulletin	Elementary school		Junior high school		Senior high school		Total all levels	
	Prac-tise	Prefer-ence	Prac-tise	Prefer-ence	Prac-tise	Prefer-ence	Prac-tise	Prefer-ence
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Brief list of topics and pages in textbook...	26.0	10.3	24.2	5.0	24.4	8.9	24.8	6.3
2. Summary of information, objectives, and sources...	54.8	59.1	54.5	59.0	59.2	62.4	56.2	60.2
3. Elaborate treatment of information, objectives, sources, methods, tests, and references...	19.2	36.3	21.3	36.0	16.4	28.7	19.0	33.5
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Read table as follows: 24.8 percent of all of the teachers in the present study reported using bulletins consisting of brief lists of topics and pages in textbooks; only 6.3 percent preferred this general plan.

TABLE 11.—PERCENT OF TEACHERS AT EACH SCHOOL LEVEL USING AND PREFERRING VARIOUS FORMS OF PRESENTATION IN COURSE-OF-STUDY BULLETINS

Specific form of bulletin	Elementary school		Junior high school		Senior high school		Total all levels	
	Prac-tise	Prefer-ence	Prac-tise	Prefer-ence	Prac-tise	Prefer-ence	Prac-tise	Prefer-ence
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Topical outline...	37.6	9.7	33.1	8.1	42.7	18.1	37.9	12.1
2. Detailed narrative and description...	6.2	2.3	2.8	2.0	2.9	1.9	3.9	2.0
3. Questions and answers...	2.9	1.0	2.8	.8	3.4	1.1	3.1	1.0
4. Problems...	4.4	10.7	10.5	16.1	8.8	13.8	8.0	13.6
5. Projects, units, or activities...	43.4	72.5	39.1	64.1	30.7	55.1	37.5	63.7
6. Combinations...	5.6	3.8	11.6	8.9	11.5	10.0	9.6	7.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Read table as follows: 37.9 percent of all of the teachers reported that bulletins used by them are predominantly organized into topical outlines; 12.1 percent of the total group preferred this type of bulletin.

erence is shown by school levels in Table 12. Combinations not specifically listed in the questionnaire were written in by the respondents.

At all school levels about 50 percent of the teachers thought that the emphasis in the bul-

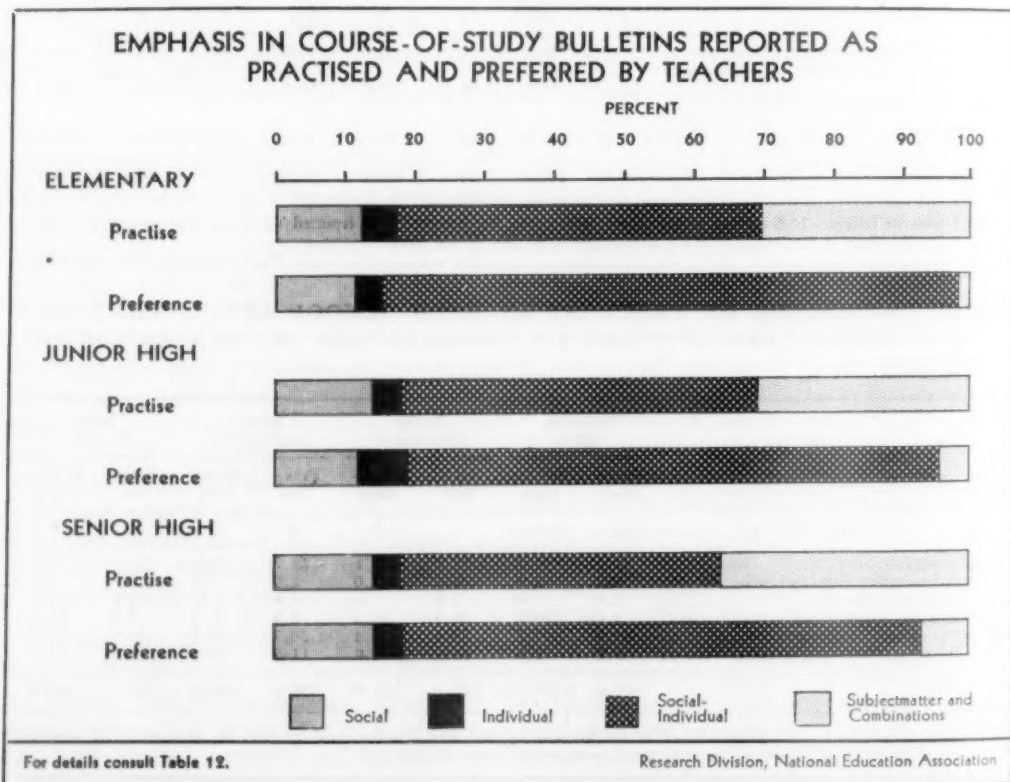
letins was about equal between social and pupil interests. About 30 percent believed the emphasis was predominantly on subjectmatter. On the basis of preferences the vast majority of the teachers chose the balanced social-pupil emphasis. Subjectmatter domination was ac-

TABLE 12.—PERCENT OF TEACHERS AT EACH SCHOOL LEVEL REPORTING EMPHASIS PRACTISED AND PREFERRED IN COURSE-OF-STUDY BULLETINS

Emphasis	Elementary school		Junior high school		Senior high school		Total all levels	
	Prac- tise	Prefer- ence	Prac- tise	Prefer- ence	Prac- tise	Prefer- ence	Prac- tise	Prefer- ence
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Social (or group) interests.....	12.3	11.8	14.2	12.1	14.4	14.7	13.7	12.9
2. Pupil (or individual) interests.....	5.1	4.2	4.4	7.0	4.0	4.6	4.5	5.3
3. About equally—social and pupil interests..	52.0	82.2	50.3	76.2	45.7	72.9	49.3	77.0
4. Subjectmatter.....	30.2	1.4	29.9	3.5	34.5	6.1	31.6	3.7
5. Combination of (1) and (4).....	.2		.2	.2		.4	.1	.2
6. Combination of (3) and (4).....	.2	.4	.6	.8	1.2	1.1	.6	.8
7. Combination of (2) and (4).....			.4	.2	.2	.2	.2	.1
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Read table as follows: 31.6 percent of all of the teachers reported a subjectmatter emphasis in the course-of-study bulletins which they used in practise; 3.7 percent of the total group preferred a subjectmatter emphasis.

FIGURE IV



ceptable to only 3.7 percent of the entire group, the elementary teachers being most nearly unanimous in rejecting this emphasis.

Elementary and junior high-school teachers reported a decrease in use of subjectmatter emphasis with increase in city size. Senior high-school teachers, however, did not indicate that this was true of high-school courses of study. In all city-size groups relatively few of the teachers preferred the subjectmatter emphasis. On other bases of classification important differences appeared. For example, bulletins emphasizing subjectmatter are less generally used in American-born communities than in foreign-born areas; less by teachers in wealthy communities than in the poorer districts.¹ The marked desire of the teachers to move away from the subjectmatter emphasis should be of particular interest to curriculum committees.

Relationship between Use and Preferences of Teachers

Further investigation into the preferences of teachers and the types of bulletins in use showed that many teachers preferred a bulletin form different from the one they were using. Table 13 presents the evidence in support of this finding. Rigid prescription of subjectmatter is preferred by less than 10 percent of those who use courses of study of this type; bulletins

which give general areas only, leaving specific details to the teacher, are the most popular.

Courses of study that consist chiefly of brief lists of topics and pages in textbooks are not popular among those who were using bulletins of this type. Likewise, as to the specific form of bulletins, questions and answers were least liked by those using such bulletins. The bulletins characterized by problems and projects, units, or activities were preferred by a large majority of those using them. Although courses of study organized around problems were not very widely used, 62.7 percent of those using the problem type preferred that kind of bulletin.

Very few teachers whose course of study emphasizes subjectmatter preferred that emphasis, whereas the type of bulletin which balances the emphasis between individual and group activities was well liked by those who have used it.

Summary

A review of the preceding sections suggests that recognition of the preferences of teachers will result in more widespread use of course-of-study bulletins with the following characteristics:

(1) Prescription of general areas but considerable freedom for the teacher to determine specific topics and details

¹ It must be remembered that these classifications of communities are based upon teachers' opinions.

TABLE 13.—PERCENT OF TEACHERS USING CERTAIN TYPES OF COURSE OF STUDY AND PREFERRING TO USE SAME TYPE

Type of course of study	Elementary school	Junior high school	Senior high school	Total
1	2	3	4	5
A. Requirements:				
1. Rigid prescription of subjectmatter to be taught.....	7.8	12.3	9.1	9.5
2. Minimum or core content prescribed; freedom beyond this....	72.6	73.9	70.3	72.2
3. General areas stated—specific topics and details left largely to teacher.....	86.4	77.6	81.4	81.6
B. General plan of bulletin:				
1. Brief list of topics and pages in textbook.....	13.6	19.0	33.3	22.1
2. Summary of information, objectives, and sources.....	89.4	68.8	82.6	80.3
3. Elaborate treatment of information, objectives, sources, methods, tests, and references.....	84.3	76.5	82.7	81.0
C. Specific form of bulletin:				
1. Topical outline.....	23.3	19.9	36.7	27.5
2. Detailed narrative and description.....	16.7	35.7	42.9	27.6
3. Questions and answers.....	23.1	15.4	5.9	14.0
4. Problems.....	61.9	65.4	60.0	62.7
5. Projects, units, or activities.....	88.1	96.8	92.9	92.5
D. Emphasis:				
1. Social (or group) interests.....	42.6	49.3	62.7	52.2
2. Pupil (or individual) interests.....	48.0	61.9	55.0	54.5
3. About equally—social and pupil interests.....	97.6	91.5	93.6	94.2
4. Subjectmatter.....	3.4	9.3	16.2	9.8

Read table as follows: Of the elementary-school teachers using a rigid prescription of subjectmatter, 7.8 percent preferred this kind of requirement; of those using the "general area" type of prescription 86.4 percent preferred this situation.

(2) Detailed treatment of information, objectives, sources, methods, and other aspects of the curriculum

(3) Specific suggestions as to problems, projects, units, and activities

(4) Less emphasis upon subjectmatter as such and more upon a combination of social and pupil interests.

For years there has been widespread advocacy of the four preceding principles, particularly among authorities in the fields of teacher training and curriculum development.

That a large proportion of the teachers adhere in their preferences to these principles should be encouraging to those interested in making improvements in social studies programs. The hiatus here revealed between teachers' preferences (which tend to be idealistic) and practise is undoubtedly related to the lag noted in preceding sections of the present bulletin. Efforts to improve course-of-study bulletins must also take into account the methods and aids which are discussed in the next section.

PROGRESSIVE ADMINISTRATORS and teachers are coming to believe that the only way to prepare the oncoming generation to live successfully in a Democracy is to give them the opportunity to practice Democracy in the classroom, and that teachers for their part cannot develop skill in cooperation successfully unless they, too, are members of a *school system* which operates democratically from top to bottom. With the great awakening in regard to the importance of emphasis upon the principles of democracy has arisen a desire to democratize education, to take the children into partnership (as some schools have already done), to create schools which shall be an integral part of the community life, in which children will face the future, deal with life problems, and learn to solve such problems democratically.

All these new goals and functions mean that attention must be given to the development of skill in cooperation in the schools. Unfortunately the literature on cooperation is meager. New techniques must be invented and new methods of teaching them developed.—“*Teachers and Cooperation*,” published by Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, 1937. p. 2-3.

IV. Methods and Aids in Teaching

What methods are most frequently used by social studies teachers of recognized ability?¹ Under ideal conditions which methods would be used? What use is made of non-school sources and agencies? What are the kinds of help which teachers think would aid them most to do better teaching? Thought-provoking answers to these questions by 1764 teachers are presented and analyzed in this section. Specific titles of textbooks, supplementary publications, and standard tests reported as helpful by teachers of recognized ability are given on pages 232-37.

Technics of Instruction

Each teacher was asked to report the one method which best described his technic of instruction. The inquiry form next called for an indication of the technic he would prefer to use if conditions permitted. In both cases the questionnaire listed four types: (1) textbook recitation; (2) socialized recitation; (3) individual activities; and (4) group activities. Spaces were provided for writing in the names of other technics if any teacher felt that the

four listed were not satisfactory. Most of the items written on the replies were combinations of the four printed on the blank.

Technics used—Table 14 shows the percent of teachers answering the question: "Which item best describes your technic of instruction?" The socialized recitation is most generally reported at all grade levels. The textbook recitation and the individualized activities types were least frequently used. The group activity procedure was the second most widely used type. The item "various combinations of (1), (2), (3), and (4)" consisted chiefly of combinations of the group activity method with one of the other types. Secondary teachers of recognized ability make more use of individualized instruction in the social studies than do elementary-school teachers. The reverse is true in the case of the group activity method.

On the basis of city size these data showed greater use of the textbook recitation in cities under 30,000 population than in the larger cities. No other differences on the basis of city size appeared to be reliable. Group activities were reported as more likely to be used in American-born communities than in the foreign-born areas. Why do teachers report this difference between American- and foreign-born communities? Are group activities less successful with children from foreign homes? Do the course-of-study requirements for foreign areas discourage the use of more informal technics? Are the teachers in these areas not prepared to use group activities?

TABLE 14.—PERCENT OF TEACHERS AT EACH SCHOOL LEVEL REPORTING THE USE OF VARIOUS INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQS

Technic	All levels		Elementary-school teachers	Junior high-school teachers	Senior high-school teachers
	Number reporting	Percent			
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Textbook recitation	201	11.6	10.9	7.6	15.6
2. Socialized recitation	585	33.7	30.7	37.0	33.4
3. Individual activities	186	10.7	5.9	13.2	12.6
4. Group activities	342	19.7	31.8	15.9	12.8
5. Various combinations of (1), (2), (3), and (4)	411	23.7	20.5	25.2	25.0
6. Unclassified	11	0.6	0.2	1.1	0.6
Total	1,736	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

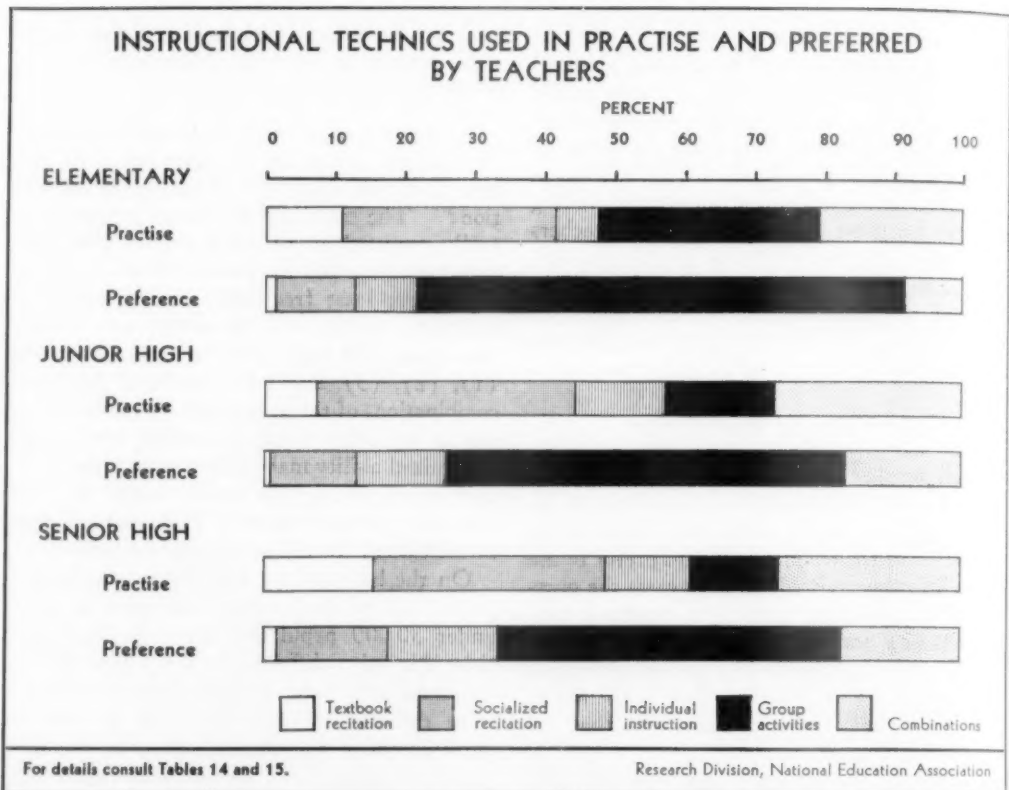
Read table as follows: Of the 1736 teachers reporting best description of their technics, 201 or 11.6 percent were using the textbook recitation type; of the elementary teachers, 10.9 percent indicated that the textbook recitation best described their technic.

Technics preferred—The preferences of the teachers of recognized ability have been presented from somewhat different angles in Tables 15 and 16. Table 15 represents a distribution of all the replies in answer to the question: "Which technic would you prefer to use if conditions permitted?" Table 16, on the other hand, shows preferences related to use as reported in Table 14.

The group of teachers as a whole showed a decided preference for group activities according to column 3 of Table 15. Elementary teachers particularly showed a decided prefer-

¹ For a comprehensive summary of the professional literature on method consult: Hodgkins, George W. *A Guide to Newer Methods in Teaching the Social Studies*. National Council on the Social Studies. Cambridge, Mass.: Secretary of Council, 18 Lawrence Hall, Harvard University, 1936. 75 p. ¶ Also, Horn, Ernest. *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part XV. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. 523 p.

FIGURE V



ence for this type. The textbook recitation was rejected almost entirely at all school levels.

Further analysis of the preferences as related to use showed even more marked enthusiasm for the group activity type of method. These data are reported in Table 16. Of all the teachers using group activities, 86.7 percent preferred this technic. Only 10.3 percent of those using the textbook recitation indicated a preference to continue using it if conditions permitted a change.

Supplementary Instructional Aids

One of the characteristics of the textbook recitation procedure is the rather close adherence to a single source of knowledge. The other technics previously discussed in this section encourage the use of many sources and the examination of different points of view. What are the supplementary sources used most often and regularly by teachers of recognized ability?

Types of supplementary aids most frequently used — Newspapers, magazines, federal and

TABLE 15.—PERCENT OF TEACHERS AT EACH SCHOOL LEVEL STATING PREFERENCES FOR VARIOUS INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQS

Technic	All levels		Elementary school teachers	Junior high school teachers	Senior high school teachers
	Number reporting	Percent			
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Textbook recitation	25	1.5	1.5	0.8	2.1
2. Socialized recitation	232	13.7	11.5	12.8	16.3
3. Individual activities	219	13.0	9.1	13.0	16.2
4. Group activities	967	57.2	69.2	56.4	47.8
5. Various combinations of (1), (2), (3), and (4)	241	14.3	8.7	16.2	17.3
6. Unclassified	6	0.3	0.0	0.8	0.3
Total	1,690	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 1690 teachers stating preferences for instructional technics, 25 or 1.5 percent selected the textbook recitation type; of the elementary teachers, 1.5 percent preferred the textbook recitation.

state government publications, and reference books in general were most often used as sup-

plementary sources by social studies teachers. Other sources listed by the responding teachers were so scattered that less than 10 percent were classifiable in any one category. Table 17 shows the percent of teachers at each grade level reporting use of supplementary sources as classified. Among the less frequently used sources, advertising materials, museums, and trips and visits were most often used at the elementary level. Reference books and visual aids were also more often used at this grade level than in the junior and senior high schools.

TABLE 16.—PERCENT OF TEACHERS AT EACH SCHOOL LEVEL PREFERING THE INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIC WHICH THEY ARE NOW USING

Technic	All levels				
	Number using who expressed preference	Percent using who also prefer	Elementary-school teachers	Junior high-school teachers	Senior high-school teachers
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Textbook recitation	194	10.3	10.7	10.3	10.4
2. Socialized recitation	573	27.1	25.0	23.4	32.2
3. Individual activities	180	36.7	31.3	36.2	39.2
4. Group activities . . .	331	86.7	89.7	84.9	82.5

Read table as follows: Of the 194 teachers reporting that they use the textbook recitation method, 10.3 percent preferred to continue even tho conditions offered opportunity for a change.

Newspapers and magazines were used about equally by teachers at different grade levels; slightly less emphasis was placed on newspapers by senior high-school teachers and more emphasis upon magazines. Government publications were used often and regularly by more teachers at high-school levels than in elementary grades.

Since availability may determine the extent to which teachers use certain supplementary sources, it seemed probable that size of community might be a significant influence on use. When these data were tabulated by city size, however, most of the differences revealed were small. With each decrease in size of community, there was a corresponding decrease in the use of magazines, federal, state, and local government publications, advertising materials, museums, and trips and visits. Since no supplementary source was reported by teachers of

recognized ability to be more generally used in small towns and cities than in the larger cities, a general conclusion may be ventured that teachers in smaller communities do not use supplementary sources as extensively as teachers in larger communities. Observation suggests that this limited use of supplementary materials is related to their non-availability in smaller towns. There would be available to teachers in towns of 2,500 to 5,000 population fewer local government publications, lectures, advertising materials, and museums. Greater availability of radio equipment probably accounts for the fact that teachers in large cities were five times more likely to use the radio as a source of supplementary information than were teachers in towns of 2,500 to 5,000 population.

Government publications were reported as used more frequently by liberal teachers; conservative teachers reported more frequent use of encyclopedias and library reference books. Teachers were also more likely to use government publications if the parents in their community were mainly liberal rather than conservative. Library references were less generally used in business and factory districts than in residential communities. Do these differences indicate that conservative teachers and patrons do not distinguish between the research and

TABLE 17. — SUPPLEMENTARY SOURCES USED OFTEN AND REGULARLY BY TEACHERS OF SOCIAL STUDIES GROUPED BY GRADE LEVEL

Supplementary sources	Percent of teachers using		
	Elementary school	Junior high school	Senior high school
1	2	3	4
Newspapers	89.6	88.3	82.7
Magazines	81.2	82.0	88.4
Federal government publications . .	25.3	39.3	42.5
State government publications . . .	17.3	26.8	27.0
City and local government publications	0.6	3.2	1.7
Foreign government publications . .	0.4	0.4	2.0
Publications of civic associations . .	0.6	0.9	0.5
Publications of private agencies . .	5.6	7.6	3.6
Radio	4.3	4.5	4.9
Reference books	28.3	18.7	19.3
Visual aids (moving pictures or slides, pictures, posters, maps, charts, etc.)	16.2	8.5	3.6
Lectures	1.3	1.1	1.1
Advertising material	3.7	0.9	0.3
Museums	1.1	0.2	0.0
Trips and visits	1.7	0.5	0.8
Others—miscellaneous	1.5	0.4	0.0

propaganda publications of the government and consequently reject them all? Are there ways to overcome the apparent shortage of library resources in schools located in business and factory districts?

Aids thought to be most helpful to teachers and pupils—The social studies teachers in the present study were given opportunity to report the specific supplementary materials and sources

TABLE 18.—PERIODICALS REPORTED BY TEACHERS AS MOST HELPFUL IN SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTION

Most helpful to teachers	Most helpful to pupils
Elementary school	
Current Events	Current Events
Geographic News Bulletin	Geographic News Bulletin
Grade Teacher	Junior Red Cross News
Instructor	*National Geographic
Journal of Geography	*News Review
Journal of the N. E. A.	
Literary Digest	
*National Geographic	
Reader's Digest	
News Review	
Time	
Junior high school	
Current Events	*Current Events
Current History	Every Week (News Outline)
Journal of the N. E. A.	*Junior Review
*Literary Digest	*Literary Digest
*National Geographic	*National Geographic
News Week	News Review
*Reader's Digest	News Week
Scholastic	Reader's Digest
Social Studies	Scholastic
*Time	Time
Senior high school	
*American Observer	*American Observer
*Current History	Current History
Forum and Century	*Literary Digest
Harper's Magazine	National Geographic
*Literary Digest	News Review
Nation	News Week
New Republic	*Reader's Digest
*Reader's Digest	Review of Reviews
Review of Reviews	*Scholastic
Scholastic	*Time
*Social Studies	
*Time	

Explanation: The magazines listed at each grade level were reported by 5 percent or more of the teachers assigned at that level. These teachers, originally selected because of their recognized ability, were asked to report the magazines most helpful to them and to the pupils in their classes. Asterisks indicate the items reported most frequently. In no sense, does this table represent the appraisal of the Research Division of the National Education Association.

they had found most helpful in addition to checking the list of sources used. Eighty-four percent of all teachers in the study reported that they used magazines. Table 18 lists the most frequently mentioned periodicals reported as being especially helpful to social studies teachers and to pupils in social studies courses. Magazines reported by less than 5 percent of

the participating teachers at each school level have been omitted from Table 18. The magazines reported most frequently in each case are indicated by asterisks. The table will be helpful as suggestive of the periodicals which school libraries should expect to find most useful to teachers and to pupils.

The teachers participating in the present study listed a number of other supplementary aids of a more or less ephemeral nature. These included various newspapers, the *World Almanac*, and pamphlets issued by such organizations as the Foreign Policy Association. The textbooks, supplementary books, and standard tests listed by name are reported in the final sections of this bulletin.

Contacts with Outside Agencies

Great emphasis has been placed in recent years upon the values which should be found in establishing contacts with local stores, factories, departments of government, and private welfare groups. The questionnaire identified nine such local agencies and provided space for the addition of others. Teachers were asked to check the agencies with which they made regular and systematic contacts. The percent of teachers making use of local agencies, arranged by school levels, is shown in Table 19. Agen-

TABLE 19.—LOCAL AGENCIES WITH WHICH REGULAR AND SYSTEMATIC CONTACTS ARE MADE BY SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS GROUPED BY GRADE LEVEL

Local agencies	Percent of teachers making contacts				
	Elementary school	Junior high school	Senior high school	All levels	
1	2	3	4	5	
Public libraries.....	87.8	74.2	71.4	77.4	
Health department.....	42.3	33.1	19.1	30.8	
Local government.....	14.2	37.9	35.0	29.5	
Factories and business.....	29.7	26.3	22.6	26.0	
Fire department.....	30.5	28.8	13.1	23.5	
Police department.....	22.3	26.2	18.8	22.2	
Welfare societies.....	18.6	20.8	20.6	20.1	
Courts.....	3.6	18.3	26.1	16.7	
Penal institutions.....	0.5	4.1	8.1	4.5	
*Museums.....	8.8	2.8	2.1	4.4	
No contacts.....	8.9	13.9	19.3	14.3	

Read table as follows: Of the 1764 teachers participating in the study, 77.4 percent reported regular and systematic contacts with public libraries; 14.3 percent of all teachers in this survey made no regular contacts with local agencies. Museums (marked with an asterisk) was an item not listed on the inquiry form.

cies reported by fewer than 4 percent of the entire group of teachers (column 5) have been omitted from the table. The item "museums" (marked with an asterisk) was not printed on the inquiry form.

Extent of regular contacts with local agencies—According to Table 19 only 14.3 percent of the social studies teachers of recognized ability failed to avail themselves of the resources of local agencies. A smaller proportion of senior high-school teachers than elementary teachers made contacts with local agencies; junior high-school teachers reported such contacts more often than senior high-school teachers but less often than elementary teachers. Public libraries, health departments, factories and business houses, fire departments, and museums were reported as used more frequently at the elementary level than at the higher grade levels; state and local government, courts, and penal institutions were visited more often at the senior high-school level than at the other school levels. These differences suggest that the maturity of the pupils has been an influential factor in determining the agencies for regular and systematic contacts.

When the replies on "outside contacts" were arranged on the basis of city size, no differences were revealed in the use made of the agencies listed in Table 19. Considerable difference in practise was shown in the use of miscellaneous agencies. Doubtless since some of these, such as art institutes, civic clubs, and bureaus of the state government, exist less frequently in the cities under 30,000 population these teachers were unable to report regular contacts. Are these smaller communities overlooking other outside contacts of equal instructional value? What use is made of farms, dairies, parks, and historical sites? Are the experiences and curios of old residents drawn upon for classroom activities?

Several other dependable differences were found. In elementary schools, the local government was more extensively visited by liberal than by conservative teachers; in liberal communities more than among conservative parents; in foreign-born communities more often than in American-born districts.² Among elementary teachers there was also a slight decrease in the number of contacts reported with the local government corresponding with a decrease in the wealth of the parents in the com-

munity. On the senior high-school level, several agencies were more extensively visited in certain types of districts than in others. For example, the fire and health departments were more generally used in first-hand instruction in liberal than in conservative communities. Furthermore, neither the economic level of students nor the social attitudes of teachers affected the extensiveness of the contacts with the fire and health departments. Greater variation with the type of community obtained in consideration of the courts as an agency possible for outside contacts at the senior high-school level. Courts were reported as used more often in liberal than in conservative communities, in American-born districts than in foreign-born communities, by conservative teachers rather than by liberal teachers, and in the wealthier communities. These differences suggest the possibility of greater variety in outside contacts on the part of conservative teachers and by teachers in conservative and foreign-born communities.

Reasons for not using outside agencies—What are the reasons given by teachers for making little or no use of non-school agencies? Five possible impediments or difficulties were listed on the inquiry form and space provided for additional reasons. Teachers were asked to mark the *chief* reason for not using non-school agencies. The replies on this question are arranged by school level in Table 20. Reasons reported by less than 1 percent of all the teachers have been classified as miscellaneous. Specific items not printed on the inquiry blank are marked with asterisks.

According to the replies of these teachers of recognized ability (Table 20), the chief impediment to regular contacts with local agencies was a lack of time in the school schedule. Only 7.1 percent of the entire group were dubious as to the value of these contacts. The reason "disapproval of public and parents" (printed on the questionnaire) was checked by *only* two junior high-school teachers! Since the provision of time in the schedule for outside contacts is primarily an administrative problem the composite opinion of these teachers puts the question squarely up to school executives. If the use of outside resources is to increase, principals and superintendents will have to make the necessary adjustments in school schedules.

² It must be remembered that these classifications of teachers and communities are based on teachers' opinions.

TABLE 20.—REASONS GIVEN BY SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS FOR NOT MAKING EXTENSIVE USE OF OUTSIDE AGENCIES

Reasons	Percent of			
	335 Elementary- school teachers	402 Junior high- school teachers	469 Senior high- school teachers	1206 Teachers at all school levels
1	2	3	4	5
Lack of time in school schedule.....	69.3	74.6	72.1	72.2
Teachers' doubt as to their usefulness in social studies instruction.....	8.1	5.0	8.3	7.1
Lack of transportation facilities.....	3.0	2.2	0.2	1.7
Disapproval by administrative and supervisory officers	1.5	0.7	2.1	1.5
Unwillingness of these agencies to cooperate.....	0.3	1.7	1.9	1.4
*Size of classes and number of classes to be taken.....	1.2	2.0	0.4	1.2
*Combinations of two or more reasons printed in questionnaire.....	11.0	10.0	13.2	11.5
*Miscellaneous.....	5.7	3.7	1.7	3.4
Total percent giving reasons.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 1764 teachers participating in the study, 1206 gave reasons why they established few or no regular contacts with local agencies. Over 72 percent of the 1206 teachers reported the chief reason as lack of time in the school schedule. Only 7.1 percent felt that these contacts were of doubtful value in social studies instruction.

The data revealed that teachers of recognized ability in the large cities were more likely to doubt the value of contacts than those in the small towns. There appeared to be less likelihood of administrative disapproval in large cities than in cities of population under 30,000. It was reported that agencies in large cities are more likely not to cooperate than those in towns under 10,000. Transportation facilities are more of a problem in the large cities than in the small towns where distances are not so great. Lack of social agencies was not reported as a problem in the larger cities and towns, but below 10,000 population a few teachers reported this as a reason for not making the contacts. These differences suggest that school executives in the large cities have more difficulties to overcome in making first-hand contacts available to the pupils of their schools. Can transportation problems be overcome by the use of chartered and bonded buses? Could the service clubs be enlisted in opening stores

and factories to visits by pupils? Can interesting community agencies be discovered nearer to each school?

Needs of Teachers

Often an excellent method of instruction is hampered by factors such as a lack of instructional materials, inadequate supervision, rigid course-of-study requirements, large classes, and brief classroom periods. What assistance do teachers of recognized ability think would help them to do better teaching? Fourteen items were listed on the questionnaire and space was

TABLE 21.—PERCENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS REPORTING NEEDS WHICH WOULD IMPROVE INSTRUCTION

Need or change	544 Elementary- school teachers	562 Junior high- school teachers	654 Senior high- school teachers	1764 Teachers at all levels
1	2	3	4	5
1. Smaller classes.....	59.9	57.5	55.4	57.4
2. Longer periods.....	23.9	18.1	20.6	20.9
3. More reference books....	62.2	60.2	55.7	59.8
4. Auditory and visual aids.....	59.3	59.1	54.3	57.4
5. More bulletins and leaflets on social problems....	45.6	52.8	46.0	48.1
6. Improved textbooks.....	51.5	45.0	32.1	42.2
7. More magazines.....	40.0	42.3	38.4	40.1
8. More newspapers.....	19.5	25.4	25.5	23.6
*9. More equipment (e.g., maps).....	6.0	5.5	6.9	6.2
*10. Improved library facilities.....	0.8	0.8	2.6	1.5
*11. Tests.....	1.3	0.4	0.5	0.8
12. More opportunity to take class on excursions....	45.3	48.8	43.1	45.6
13. Freedom from present course requirements....	16.6	8.7	10.2	11.7
14. More definitely formulated courses.....	11.9	12.5	10.9	11.7
*15. Better coordination of subjectmatter thru grades.....	0.4	1.6	0.5	0.8
16. Opportunity to observe other teachers.....	39.1	36.5	35.5	36.9
17. More guidance from supervisors.....	9.1	9.8	7.5	8.7
18. Advice from principal....	4.0	3.0	3.4	3.5
*19. Time for preparation, conferences.....	0.9	1.2	2.3	1.5
*20. Time and money for travel and study.....	0.7	1.2	1.8	1.3
*21. Less clerical and extra-class work.....	0.4	0.7	2.0	1.1
*22. Miscellaneous.....	1.3	2.1	3.5	2.4

Read table as follows: Of the 1764 teachers participating in the study, 57.4 percent thought that one of the greatest aids in the improvement of their instruction would be smaller classes; 59.8 percent thought instruction could be improved by more reference books. Asterisks indicate items not printed on the questionnaire.

provided for additional statement of needs. Those marked with asterisks were not printed on the questionnaire.

Table 21 shows the percent of the entire group of teachers and of those at each grade level mentioning various needs. It should be noted that items (1) and (2) are primarily administrative problems; (3) thru (11), matters of improving the quantity and quality of instructional materials; (12) thru (15), items having to do with the course of study; and (16) thru (21), items essentially supervisory in nature.

The need for "more reference books" is the one most frequently reported. Next in frequency were "smaller classes" and "auditory and visual aids." These three needs were reported by nearly three teachers out of five. Other outstanding wishes expressed by the teachers are for more bulletins dealing with social problems, opportunity for more excursions, more magazines, improved textbooks, and opportunity to observe the teaching in other classrooms.

Apparently elementary teachers of recognized ability, more than senior high-school teachers, felt the need for more reference books and better textbooks. More elementary-school teachers also expressed a desire for freedom from present course-of-study requirements. There was a suggestion, altho the percents were small, that clerical and extra-class duties interfered more with classroom instruction on the senior high-school level than in elementary schools.

When these data were arranged by estimates of the economic level of the communities, the poor districts were shown to have consistently inadequate teaching conditions. Reference books, magazines, newspapers, excursions, and auditory and visual aids were reported as needed with one-third to one-half greater frequency in poor districts as compared with well-to-do communities. Classes also appeared to be larger in the "poor" districts, and course-of-study requirements more burdensome.

* See footnote 1 in this section. Also, Wesley, Edgar B. *Teaching the Social Studies*. New York: D. C. Heath and Co., 1937.

Summary

The present section has not been concerned with the strengths and weaknesses of various methods and aids in social studies instruction. These questions have been discussed in other publications.³ The purpose of the inquiry has been to discover the technics and aids most frequently used by city teachers of recognized ability, the reasons for not using local agencies, and the points at which social studies teachers believe that they require help. On the topic of this section several self-evaluation questions may be suggested for teachers and administrators:

For teachers

(1) Is it possible that the general objectives of social studies instruction have moved ahead in the past few years while my methods have remained relatively static?

(2) Is my teaching characterized by almost exclusive use of one or possibly two methods?

(3) Do I adjust my instructional procedures judiciously to the implications of research and tested practice or am I merely trying to be fashionable educationally?

(4) Am I attempting to keep the minds and the bodies of my students confined within the four walls of the classroom thereby overlooking the available resources in non-school agencies?

(5) Have I been active in eliminating the inadequacies of my instructional environment by conferences with supervisory officers, by establishing contacts with non-school groups, by collecting free and inexpensive instructional materials, and by developing in pupils the maximum responsibility for self-direction?

For administrators

(1) Have teachers participated in the preparation of the schedule of classes so as to introduce the element of instructional as well as administrative efficiency?

(2) Could funds now used for other purposes be used for more and better instructional materials, the improvement of library facilities, visual aids, and other means for enriching instruction?

(3) Have I been willing to make the administrative adjustments and provide the facilities for trips, excursions, and contacts with resources outside of the school?

(4) What effort have I made thru conferences with the teachers under my supervision to discover the extent and the nature of the instructional problems suggested by the foregoing section?

V. Dealing with Controversial Subjects

Altho closely allied with general methods and aids discussed in the preceding section, the problem of dealing with controversial subjects is of such importance as to require detailed treatment.¹ The purposes of this phase of the present study may be suggested by the five questions included in the questionnaire. What controversial topics do teachers of recognized ability think they must avoid entirely? What are the chief reasons why these topics must be excluded from the classroom? What topics must be treated with special tact? Specifically, how does one treat a controversial issue with tact? Do school systems have rules forbidding all discussion of controversial questions?

¹ For a summary of studies on the teaching of controversial topics consult Ernest Horn's *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*, Part XV of the report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association; published by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1937. p. 87-96. For the general question of "What and How To Think" see the same reference, p. 79-121.

² In *The Social Studies Curriculum* (1936 Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, p. 303) the percent of principals reporting that controversial issues did not have to be avoided were: 67.2, senior high schools; 64.2, junior-high schools; 44.5, eight-year elementary schools; 23.2, six-year elementary schools. The extent of agreement between the two studies is rather significant.

Controversial Topics Avoided Entirely or Treated with Special Tact

Since the topics listed by some teachers as avoided entirely are reported by others as merely requiring tactful treatment, the answers to these two questions are considered together. It is interesting to note that of the entire group of 1764 teachers, 63 percent² thought that controversial topics did *not* have to be avoided entirely. Fifty-seven percent of the elementary teachers, 62 percent of the junior high-school teachers, and 70 percent of the high-school teachers reported no controversial issues which needed to be avoided. Only 1.3 percent re-

TABLE 22.—RANK ORDER OF FREQUENCY OF MENTION OF ISSUES AVOIDED AND TACTFULLY HANDLED

Type of issue	Elementary school		Junior high school		Senior high school	
	Avoided	Tactfully handled	Avoided	Tactfully handled	Avoided	Tactfully handled
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Religion.....	1	1	1	1	1	1
2. Politics—general.....	2	2	2	2	2	2
3. Sex questions.....	3	10	3	20	3	10
4. Social legislation and reform.....	11	7	8	9	4	7
5. Local politics.....	8.5	13	6	7	5	9
6. Communism.....	5	12	4.5	5	6	3
7. Racial problems.....	4	3	4.5	3	7	5
8. Policies and practices of national government.....	6.5	5	12	6	8	8
9. Criticism of prominent people.....	10	15	7	22	9	21.5
10. Labor problems.....	6.5	6	18	4	10	4
11. Class distinctions.....	8.5	4	18	8	11.5	15
12. School problems and policies.....	18	27.5	15.5	22	11.5	19
13. Policies and practices of state and local government.....	21.5	16	12	11	13	20
14. Social customs and attitudes.....	12.5	9	9	13	14	13
15. General theories of economics and government.....	15.5	16.5	10	10	15.5	6
16. Socialism.....	14	21.5	12	14	15.5	11
17. Nationalities.....	12.5	8	21	11	18	16
18. Organizations and their influence.....		24.5	23	27	18	23.5
19. Consumer education.....	18	21.5	21	27	18	27.5
20. International relations.....	25	21.5		25	21.5	21.5
21. Public control or ownership of industry.....	21.5	27.5	25.5	15	21.5	12
22. Policies in commerce or business.....	25	24.5	25.5	27	21.5	18
23. War and peace.....	15.5	14	14	17.5	21.5	14
24. Fascism.....	18	18.5	18	12	24.5	17
25. Teacher welfare.....	25		25.5	29.5	24.5	29
26. Policies and practices of foreign governments.....	21.5	11	15.5	16		20
27. National politics.....		27.5		19		23.5
28. State politics.....				24		26
29. Civil war.....	21.5	16.5	25.5	17.5		25
30. War involving the U. S. and foreign countries.....		18.5	21	22		30.5
31. Nazism.....		21.5		29.5		27.5

Read table as follows: Among the senior high-school teachers reporting issues as avoided entirely questions having to do with religion were reported most frequently and therefore this area is ranked first. This area was also most frequently reported among the subjects dealt with tactfully.

ported that local rules prohibited consideration of all controversial topics. The nature of these limitations will be discussed later in the present section.

Twenty-five types of issues and their rank in order of frequency of mention at the senior high-school level (column 6) are shown in Table 22. In many instances, the teachers listed specific topics rather than the general areas given in the table. For example, strikes, lockouts, picketing, and similar questions have been tabulated under the general heading of labor problems.

Comparison of columns 2 thru 7 of Table 22 indicates that issues most frequently reported as needing to be *avoided* were also reported to be in need of *special treatment*. In a few cases only were issues ranking high in the "to be avoided" list less frequently mentioned in the list of issues requiring tact. Sex questions at the senior high-school level is an area which exemplifies this difference. This type of issue is third in column 6 and tenth in column 7. Obviously, the emphasis on this type of issue has been toward avoidance. Labor problems, ranking tenth in the list of issues to be avoided, is ranked fourth in the list of issues to be treated with tact. In this case, the emphasis has been toward tactful treatment rather than avoidance.

The evidence seems to show that regardless of the background of the teacher, the community, or pupils, certain issues are more or less perilous. On every basis of classification of the replies controversial religious topics were most frequently mentioned. Politics was the issue second in rank order of frequency of men-

tion both on the "avoidance" and the "tactfully handled" lists. In both lists neither grade level of teacher, size of community, type of community by several measures, nor attitude of parents and teachers affected the relative position of the first seven issues in Table 22. We may conclude, then, that these seven issues particularly involve debatable factors which arouse highly emotionalized partisanship.

A different sort of picture of the relationship between controversial topics and the school levels is shown in Table 23, which presents the proportion of teachers in each group reporting that the issues must be avoided or handled tactfully. In this connection, each issue should be examined separately with regard to the number of teachers listed at the top of columns 2 thru 7. The first issue mentioned is religion. A larger proportion of elementary teachers reported that controversial religious issues were *avoided* whereas a larger proportion of senior high-school teachers reported that debatable religious topics were *treated with special tact*.

The economic background of the community affects controversial topics as shown by the fact that teachers reporting their communities to be "well off" did not mention the difficulty of religious issues as frequently, proportionately, as did teachers in communities rated to be on a lower economic level. Teachers in communities with reactionary and radical parents more often *avoided* controversial religious issues than those having conservative and liberal patrons, while the latter more often reported that religious questions needed to be treated tactfully than did the teachers in reactionary and radical communities. With regard to political issues, these

TABLE 23.—PERCENT OF TEACHERS AT EACH LEVEL REPORTING CERTAIN ISSUES AVOIDED OR HANDLED TACTFULLY

Type of issue	548 Elementary-school teachers		562 Junior high-school teachers		654 Senior high-school teachers		Entire group	
	Avoided	Handled tactfully	Avoided	Handled tactfully	Avoided	Handled tactfully	Avoided	Handled tactfully
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Religion.....	34.3	25.4	27.0	32.7	20.3	35.8	26.8	31.6
2. Politics.....	21.0	18.8	13.2	29.4	7.5	23.1	13.5	23.8
3. Sex questions.....	8.8	3.6	6.8	1.8	4.9	7.5	6.7	4.5
4. Race problems.....	7.8	13.1	5.3	16.4	3.2	13.1	5.3	14.2
5. Communism.....	5.3	2.7	5.3	13.3	3.8	21.4	4.8	13.0
6. Local politics.....	2.2	2.2	4.3	8.4	4.6	8.7	3.7	6.6
7. Social legislation and reform...	1.8	4.7	2.3	5.3	4.7	11.8	3.1	7.5

Read table as follows: Of the 548 elementary-school teachers, 34.3 percent reported that they avoided religious issues; 25.4 percent reported that they handled these topics with special tact; 40.3 percent did not mention issues in this area.

same findings hold, except that teachers who reported "reactionary parents" more often avoided the problems than teachers reporting their communities to be conservative, liberal, or radical. The differences suggested by these composite opinions clearly indicate that social studies instruction does not take place in a vacuum. Teachers must be familiar with the opinions and prejudices of the communities in which their pupils live. While certain issues are particularly difficult to handle, wise classroom procedure may win public approval of instruction even on most controversial topics.

Considering the issues most frequently mentioned by the entire group of 1764 teachers, we find that religious issues were avoided by 26.8 percent and treated tactfully by 31.6 percent. The next most frequently mentioned area is that of politics which was avoided by only 13.5 percent and treated tactfully by 23.8 percent. The other issues included in Table 23 were the most frequently mentioned issues, yet a very small percent of the teachers reported them. This would indicate that altho the issues ranked in Table 23 assume those relative positions according to rank order of frequency of mention, religious issues and politics are apparently the areas of the greatest general controversy.

Reasons Given for Avoiding Controversial Topics

Why do teachers of recognized ability avoid controversial subjects in their classrooms? Is it because they think that the discussion of cer-

tain topics will bring reprisals from pressure groups? Is it because of local board rules excluding controversial subjects from classrooms? Teachers were asked in the present study to select a specific topic usually avoided and to indicate the primary reason for excluding it from their classrooms.

Reasons given for avoiding controversial subjects—Seven possible reasons were identified on the questionnaire. Altho space was provided for additional items, few were written in. In a few cases teachers gave two or three reasons instead of the primary reason as requested. Altho 650 teachers reported various issues as avoided entirely, only 409 gave reasons for so doing. The proportions citing each reason are given in Table 24.

Table 24 shows that the reason cited most frequently for avoiding controversial topics was "fear of outside pressure groups."³ This reason was most frequently given at the senior high-school level. Immaturity of the pupils was the reason given the greatest number of times by elementary-school teachers. Disapproval of parents apparently is a stronger deterrent in the elementary school than it is at the other school levels. Relatively few teachers reported that they avoided controversial topics because of proscriptions by principals, superintendents,⁴ or schoolboards.

Local rules forbidding consideration of all controversial topics—Of the 1764 teachers, only 1.3 percent reported the existence of local

³ For evidence concerning this fear of pressure groups, consult Howard K. Beale's *Are Teachers Free?*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1936, 855 p.; Bessie L. Pierce's *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth*, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1933, 426 p.; and Bruce Raup's *Education and Organized Interests in America*, G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1936, 238 p.

⁴ On this point compare with Frederick H. Bair's *The Social Understandings of the Superintendent of Schools*, Contributions to Education, No. 625, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934, p. 44-45. Ninety-eight percent of the superintendents of schools answered affirmatively the question: "Do you think the public schools ought to deal with such [controversial] questions?"

TABLE 24.—PERCENT OF TEACHERS CITING CERTAIN REASONS FOR AVOIDING CONTROVERSIAL TOPICS

School level	Total number of teachers giving reasons	Percent giving each reason						
		Forbidden by principal	Forbidden by superintend	Forbidden by school-board	Forbidden by law	Disapproval of parents	Lack of maturity of pupils	Fear of outside pressure groups
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Elementary.....	153	4.5	9.2	13.1	15.7	31.4	50.3	26.8
Junior high.....	127	5.5	13.4	8.7	11.8	24.4	38.6	42.5
Senior high.....	129	4.7	11.6	10.9	10.1	20.9	26.4	61.2
Total.....	409	4.9	11.2	11.0	12.7	25.9	39.1	42.5

Read table as follows: Of the 409 teachers giving reasons for avoiding various controversial subjects, 42.5 percent reported the reason "fear of outside pressure groups"; 61.2 percent of the 129 senior high-school teachers cited this reason.

rules. Tabulations on the basis of school level indicated that elementary-school teachers taught more often under prohibitory rules than senior high-school teachers. When arranged by city size the data indicated that the larger cities were more likely to have rules than the smaller cities.⁵ A few teachers commented that there was no written rule, but a general understanding based upon the superintendent's warning. That these cases could not be very many is shown by Table 24 where only 11.2 percent of the teachers mentioned a superintendent's ruling against *specific* controversial topics.

Examples of local rules excluding controversial topics from the schools are the following:

Sectarian publications: No sectarian or denominational publication of any kind whatever shall be used in the schools or made a part of any school library, nor shall any denominational or sectarian doctrines be inculcated. (Population 30,000-100,000)

Teachers must carefully guard against the introduction of all questions of a sectarian, partisan, or controversial character. (Population over 100,000)

All questions of a sectarian or partisan character shall be carefully excluded from the schools. (Population over 100,000)

All teachers shall carefully guard against the introduction of questions of sectarian or partisan political nature into their instruction. Teachers are citizens and have the citizen's right to form and express opinions. But the schools must not be used for propaganda purposes. (Population over 100,000)

The superintendent and teachers shall prevent the introduction or discussion, within the school, of questions of a sectarian nature or of a political character that may become partisan.

Only such books shall be used by teachers for class or reference work as are approved by the superintendent or the board of education. There shall not be any teaching in the schools which tends to impair the pupil's respect for and confidence in our government. (Population 10,000-30,000)

In addition to local rules against the consideration of controversial topics there are the limitations imposed by general state law and by special laws requiring oaths of teachers. In thirty states the constitutions or statutory laws prohibit sectarian teaching. It is probable that in most instances these laws were designed to safeguard the right of freedom of religion. Teacher oath prescriptions range all the way from simple promises to fulfil the duties of

office faithfully to attempts to control the teacher's thoughts on social and economic questions.⁶

How Teachers Deal with Controversial Subjects

How do social studies teachers of recognized ability deal tactfully with controversial topics? Space was provided on the inquiry for brief statements. A number of illustrations from each school level will be given, as examples of the methods reported. After each illustration is given parenthetically the teacher's description of himself and the community in which he teaches.

Descriptions of procedure at the elementary-school level—Apparently teachers do not consider the teaching of controversial issues on the elementary level as difficult a problem as on the secondary level because of the simplicity of the curriculum content and the immaturity of the pupils. According to the reports, elementary teachers aim to present all sides impartially and remain neutral but give simplified explanations of issues as they arise. Pupils are usually taught tolerance of others' views, broadmindedness, fairness, and independent thinking. In the upper elementary grades such questions may arise as religious, racial, and national prejudices, and issues of personal social relations. Pupils are likely to express the opinions learned at home. The teacher has a difficult task in teaching tolerance to pupils in spite of their family's prejudices without gaining the ill-will of the parents. For illustrations of what teachers think, a few quotations are given with reference to several of the major issues.

Religion—Introduce religion as a worldwide thing. Show its beginnings, paganism, family worship, mythology, etc. Show how Christianity developed as civilization came. Simply mention various kinds of religion existing and speak as if they are *all* beneficial to persons involved. Show that religion is mostly an influence which comes in the upbringing of the person and that many have no definite belief but are still worthwhile people. (Reported by a conservative teacher in a liberal community of population between 2,500 and 5,000. The community is predominantly foreign-born and business type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Religion—Biography of Martin Luther, emphasizing his boyhood days in his father's home, early

⁵ A similar finding was reported by the American Institute of Public Opinion. In small towns, the vote in favor of teaching "isms" was 63 percent; in the ten largest cities, 58 percent.

⁶ The texts of the oaths now required of teachers will be found in *Teachers' Oaths*, a mimeographed report of the Research Division of the National Education Association.

school days, singing on the streets; life in the monastery (omitting any criticism of the priests); particular emphasis on the *heroism* of his stand at Worms (omitting all partisan references); his very valuable contribution of the German translation of the Bible. (Reported by a conservative teacher in a conservative community of population between 5,000 and 10,000. The community is predominantly American-born, of factory type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Religion—The word Catholic is explained as meaning universal. All Christians were Catholic for many years. Gradually, a group disagreeing with certain beliefs of the Catholics and led by Martin Luther, protested. These protesters were excommunicated when they followed Luther and thus started the Protestant religion. This new group set about to reform the Catholic beliefs to suit their ideas and thus the movement became known as the Reformation. Some men within the Protestant group soon disagreed and broke away from Luther and started a new sect, making the changes they believed were needed. Thus, the Protestant group has many sects. (Reported by a liberal teacher in a liberal community of population over 100,000. The community is predominantly American-born, residential, in comfortable circumstances.)

Labor problems—Begin by showing differences in industrial activities in North and South, the struggle between East and West during the westward movement. Show dire results of lack of arbitration in 1863, 1861, and 1865. Class works out adjustments made by East and West. Discuss the financial obligations of mill owners such as overhead, wages, markets, foreign competition, safety devices, etc. The workers' problems such as health, living, and needs are discussed. I lead the class away from direct controversial issues in the locality as hosiery and textile industry are directly affected. (Reported by a liberal teacher in a liberal community of population between 2,500 and 5,000. The community is predominantly American-born and residential type, of high economic level.)

Labor problems—All work is honorable; service to others. Men and women must be trained and fitted to the work they choose, otherwise the worker cannot be contented and happy. As schools have superintendents and grade one has reporters and leaders, manufacturing plants and stores have different duties for differently trained workers and people to keep all departments working together. (Reported by a conservative teacher in a conservative community of population between 5,000 and 10,000. The community is predominantly American-born, of factory type, in rather poor circumstances.)

Modern health rules—Interesting and convincing materials chosen for showing children. Assimilative materials arranged so as to include posters, graphs, and charts, which they can take into the home. Parents are interested by inviting them to programs in which the new ideas are made reasonable and attractive. (Reported by a conservative teacher in a conservative community of population between 5,000 and 10,000. The community is predominantly Ameri-

can-born, factory type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Family relations—Gain confidence of pupils; sympathize with their problems; confer with parents; make whatever adjustments are possible in school; follow-up of cases giving children moral support. (Reported by a liberal teacher in a radical community of population over 100,000. The community is predominantly American-born, factory type, in rather poor circumstances.)

Evolution—Many times no discussion arises, occasionally some child asks "Does that mean our ancestors were monkeys?" (or some similar question), or a child goes home with Van Loon's *History of Mankind* and returns stating that mother said that was evolution and he couldn't read it. We then agree quite frankly that it is evolution, but that evolution simply means change. We are constantly changing to fit our environment and our ancestors did the same. Better brains made strong muscles less necessary, etc. (Reported by a conservative teacher in a liberal community of population between 30,000 and 100,000. The community is predominantly American-born, residential type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Evolution—I never let pupils know my opinion. We never draw any conclusions. We read of the creation in the scriptures, in other stories of evolution. But all are read as stories and not as facts. (Reported by a conservative teacher in a conservative community of population over 100,000. The community is predominantly American-born, residential type, in rather poor circumstances.)

Fascism—There are often children whose parents are great admirers of Mussolini and Hitler. These children are always given a chance to express their point of view and give their reasons. Both sides of the question are discussed. Class ends by coming to conclusion that they prefer to live in a democratic country and that we should strive to keep our country such so that it will not be necessary to resort to a dictatorship. Children are always allowed to express any opinion, but quietly and calmly. (Reported by a liberal teacher in a conservative community of population between 30,000 and 100,000. The community is predominantly American-born, residential type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Descriptions of procedure at the junior high-school level—At this level, a few teachers made general comments to the effect that controversial issues are not so pertinent at the junior high-school level because they are not relevant to certain subjects like geography and are naturally omitted from other subjects because of the immaturity of the pupils. Since the most frequently described issue is politics, a few illustrations are given of how the junior high-school teachers handle these problems.

Politics—We study the history of each party. Try to pick out the good and weak points in each. We study how machine-like they are and how controlled by political bosses. In conclusion the class

shows how much alike the two major parties really are and that much of the campaign literature was an attempt to ruin the reputation of their opponents. (Reported by a conservative teacher in a liberal community of population between 2,500 and 5,000. The community is predominantly American-born, factory type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Politics—Platforms are discussed and bad ones touched only lightly. Good points of both major candidates are mentioned. Ballots are made. Instruction given in straight and split tickets. Straw votes with returns posted hourly. Each votes as he likes. (Reported by liberal teacher in a liberal community of population between 10,000 and 30,000. The community is predominantly American-born, residential type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Politics—Pupils give opinions regarding parties and issues. They list parents' opinions. Project is assigned to find names of officials. Local government and relation to child's life are stressed. Speeches by city officials. Class visits city court, police and fire departments. Class discussion on qualities needed in politicians and wherein our city could be improved. Personal references are avoided. (Reported by a liberal teacher in a conservative community of population between 10,000 and 30,000. The community is predominantly American-born, residential type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Politics—Study an issue that is current. Study newspapers that have different political opinions. Study identical issues in each. Use clippings for notebooks which illustrate contrasts in point of view. Pupils comment. Study articles to distinguish between fact and propaganda. Study the history of parties and issues. (Reported by a liberal teacher, in a community which the teacher rates as indifferent to social issues. The community has a population over 100,000, is predominantly American-born, factory type, in poor circumstances.)

To give a more complete picture of the treatment of controversial issues at the junior high-school level, illustrative comments are given below for a few varied issues:

Comparative government—Study by definition only of kinds and systems of governments in the world. Identification of each system with country as example. Statement of fundamental aims of each system of government. Causes for rise of these types in a country: (1) stress economic conditions of people, (2) importance of minority parties. Comparison and contrast of features in systems. Each pupil draws own conclusion on basis of comparison. (Reported by a liberal teacher in a conservative community of population between 30,000 and 100,000. The community is predominantly foreign-born, factory type, and in rather poor circumstances.)

Labor unions—Good and weak points of each type of labor union. Neutral attitude maintained. Encouraging each pupil to secure sufficient information upon which to base an individual tentative decision. Avoid class conclusions. Develop an attitude of open-mindedness. (Reported by a conservative teacher in

a conservative community of population between 30,000 and 100,000. The community is predominantly foreign-born, residential type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Nationalities—Representatives of various nationality groups in classes. Desire to foster a democratic spirit among mixed groups. Discuss contributions of each nation to civilization. Reasons for variety of peoples in United States. Desirable traits and merits of each group in this country. How various people have been fitted into American ways and become worthy citizens of our nation. Realization of the value of good fellowship thruout the world or the brotherhood of man. (Reported by a liberal teacher in a liberal community of population between 30,000 and 100,000. The community is predominantly American-born, residential type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Religion—In general way discuss how it happens each of us goes to a particular church—usually find it is because we were born in a certain house, a thing over which we had no control. From this point develop a spirit of tolerance, emphasizing that we all live together, must do so, and ought to get along with little or no prejudices. Then go back to historical development of religion (specific) tracing thru various splits down to present time, emphasizing similarities rather than differences. (Reported by a liberal teacher in a liberal community of population between 30,000 and 100,000. The community is predominantly American-born, factory type, in poor circumstances.)

Descriptions of procedure at the senior high-school level—Of the senior high-school teachers, many reported on methods of handling controversial issues pertaining to comparative government, socialism, and communism. Since this topic was one of the most often described issues for tactful discussion at senior high-school level, it will be illustrated by several of the teachers' descriptions.

Communism—Reading of newspaper and magazine items of each form; brief, explanation; comparison with democracy, pointing out the superiority of democracy. Light discussion. (Reported by conservative teacher in conservative community of population 2,500 to 5,000. The community is predominantly foreign-born, factory type, in poor circumstances.)

Comparative government—Summary of class opinion and understanding; much reading; parallel outlines on communism, fascism, and democracy. Parallel outline on various types of socialism. Discussion of original erroneous ideas. Discussion of influences which must follow any accepted facts and principles. (Reported by liberal teacher in a conservative community of population between 2,500 and 5,000. The community is predominantly foreign-born, residential type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Communism—Need for knowledge of all forms of government. Purpose of knowledge is not indoc-

trination. Reports on current articles, pro and con. Discussion of all articles from author's viewpoint. Comparison of communism with other types of government. Weaknesses and strengths in all governments. These are applied to American society and government. All personal animosities and favoritisms are excluded from discussions. Students draw their own conclusions based on facts. (Reported by liberal teacher in conservative community of 5,000 to 10,000 population. The community is predominantly American-born, factory type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Communism—Cause of the philosophy. Absence of conditions in United States which foster this philosophy. Comparison of communism and democracy as to (a) participation of the individual; (b) wage scales and standards of living; (c) social and moral conditions. The purpose or aim of government is health and happiness. Can best be achieved by education and self-direction. (Reported by conservative teacher in conservative community of population 5,000 to 10,000. The community is predominantly American-born, residential type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Socialism—The origin, growth, and aims of socialism are treated under the topic of Third Party Movements along with other parties. A chart is used giving differences and similarities of various types of government. Questions are answered as impartially as possible. (Reported by liberal teacher in liberal community of population 10,000 to 30,000. The community is predominantly American-born, residential type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Communism—I strictly follow the analysis of communism as outlined by the November 23, 1936, issue of the *American Observer*. If any word, phrase, or paragraph is not clear, I explain it as well as I can. Then, of course, I ask questions, and a general discussion follows. In the course of the discussion, we generally discover whether or not the arguments in favor of communism are sound. If one or two of them are sound, we make no pretense by way of denial. In conclusion, we say that the only way we can overcome communism is by offering society a better system of capitalism. (Reported by a liberal teacher in a conservative community of population between 10,000 and 30,000. The community is predominantly foreign-born, residential type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Communism—The good and bad ideas in communism and methods for obtaining a communistic state. Criticisms pro and con. Discussion of how good ideas can be secured by other methods. No outside speakers or news item in school paper, no debates or programs or anything to work up emotion. (Reported by a liberal teacher in a conservative community of population between 30,000 and 100,000. The community is predominantly American-born, business type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Communism—Allowed to develop naturally out of major problems of better production and distribution of goods. Avoids sensationalism by naming it one of several solutions. Students evaluate capitalism and present their own plans for reform. Au-

thoritative sources used by students to evaluate socialism. Teacher guides investigation of material and organization. Critical discussion follows, all sides of issue. Students are then guided back to major problem and discuss better production and distribution of goods. (Reported by a liberal teacher in a conservative community of population between 30,000 and 100,000. The community is predominantly American-born, factory type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Comparative government—We use books, pamphlets, pictures. We are particular about presenting both sides of the question. As a teacher I try to be neutral and I also tell the class I shall not take sides in any discussion nor shall I attempt to change their ideas on the subject. This announcement is not made for this subject alone, but is one I shall always use for any question in order to prevent a pronouncement of fact or conclusion. The question thus always remains open to continued discussion. (Reported by a liberal teacher in a liberal community of population over 100,000. The community is predominantly foreign-born, residential type, in comfortable circumstances.)

Analysis of teachers' procedures—From the reading of several hundred descriptions of procedure given by the teachers, it appeared that certain common practises existed. First, the prevailing method appeared to be discussion designed primarily to bring out facts and points of view rather than to reach final conclusions. Second, the teachers were interested in developing certain attitudes in pupils: (1) self-examination for the purpose of recognizing prejudices as prejudices; (2) objective and impersonal view of facts; and (3) appreciation of the right of others to different opinions.

In fifty-seven descriptions of how junior high-school teachers handled political questions the teachers placed particular emphasis on eleven specific practises. Arranged in descending order, with frequency of mention at the right, these practises were:

- Both sides treated impartially (31)
- Discussion unrestricted (15)
- Polls and straw votes on election day (10)
- Tolerance of others' views emphasized (7)
- Teachers do not give views (6)
- Conclusions avoided in class (6)
- Miniature campaign before election day (6)
- Indoctrination avoided (6)
- Discussion kept neutral (4)
- Discussion restricted (2)
- Conclusions reached in class (2)

On two points there was some disagreement: (1) discussion was not restricted by fifteen teachers and restricted by two; and (2) conclusions were not reached in class, according

to six teachers, but considered a part of the instruction by two teachers.

In descriptions of how seventy-seven senior high-school teachers presented issues pertaining to comparative government, the teachers revealed fourteen specific practises. These practises and their frequency of mention were as follows:

- Comparisons with the United States included (28)
- All sides given impartially (22)
- Indoctrination for democracy (19)
- Pupils draw own conclusions outside of class (11)
- Weaknesses of democracy discussed (10)
- Discussion restricted (9)
- Scientific attitude stressed (7)
- Weaknesses of democracy not discussed (6)
- Tolerance of views emphasized (6)
- Teachers' personal opinions not expressed (5)
- Discussion not restricted (4)
- Conclusions reached in class (4)
- Pupils urged to suspend judgment (3)
- Teacher's opinion expressed, but minimized (1)

Apparent differences in practises appear at three points: (1) ten teachers include a discussion of the weaknesses of democracy, but six avoid this phase; (2) nine restrict discussion and four allow free discussion; and (3) five teachers avoid giving their personal views and one expresses his but does not emphasize them.

Controversial Subjects as an Integral Part of the Social Studies

Why must controversial topics be considered in social studies instruction? The first most obvious answer is found in the nature of the social studies themselves. As stated in the 1936 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence:

Now a true picture of communities, states, the nation, and the world shows many facts beyond dispute, many opinions held by different persons and groups, and frequent clashes of opinions and interests. . . . Hence we are compelled to bring into any true picture of a community or nation, facts, opinions, differences of opinion, and methods employed in settling differences of opinion. . . .

Not only do the social studies deal with debatable questions; they also deal with changing issues. This element of change involves emerging questions and

problems. The social studies, if realistic in conception, cannot be confined to reciting past phrases, traditions, and events. They must come to grips with new things.⁷

In the second place, many laymen recognize controversial subjects as a necessary part of social studies instruction. This statement is supported by a nationwide survey made in 1936 by the American Institute of Public Opinion.⁸ Sixty-two percent of those canvassed by the study were in favor of discussing all "isms" in the public schools. Similar results were obtained in 1936 by a poll of the members of the Commonwealth Club of California, a statewide association of men organized as an impartial forum for the discussion of disputed questions. The vote on three questions was as follows:

(1) Do you believe that there should be free and open discussion in the classroom on *all* controversial issues? Yes, 85.5 percent; No, 14.5 percent.

(2) Do you believe that discussion of *all* sides of public issues is essential for education of youth in democracy? Yes, 92.0 percent; No, 8.0 percent.

(3) Do you believe that teachers *as a group* can be relied upon to support the principle of democracy? Yes, 93.5 percent; No, 6.5 percent.

The club also voted on the questions of whether or not teachers should express their personal opinions and whether or not teachers should advocate one side of a debatable issue. On the first question the members were about equally divided but inclined slightly to the expression of teacher opinion. Ninety percent opposed the idea of advocacy as presented by the second question.

The conclusion follows from the evidence presented in this section that the question of controversial subjects is primarily one of method. Teachers and laymen generally are opposed to the presentation of debatable questions as tho they were not debatable. This would be propaganda, as pointed out in the 1937 Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies.⁹ The intelligent and practical approach, as indicated by the teachers of recognized ability in the present study, is thru the forum procedure.¹⁰ Here the primary purpose

⁷ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Social Studies Curriculum*. Fourteenth Yearbook, Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1936. p. 57-60.

⁸ Philadelphia Inquirer. "America Speaks." *Philadelphia Inquirer*, May 17, 1936. p. 11.

⁹ National Council for the Social Studies (a department of the National Education Association). *Education Against Propaganda*. Seventh Yearbook. Cambridge, Mass.: the Council (Sec.: Howard E. Wilson, 18 Lawrence Hall, Harvard University), 1937. 182 p.

¹⁰ In his study *The Social Understandings of the Superintendent of Schools*, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934, p. 51-53) Bair found that superintendents ranked the methods for treating controversial questions in the following order: (1) careful study of various angles of questions with much "research" reading of competent opposing and intermediate views; (2) class discussion following (1); and (3) debates following (1).

is not "to reach a group decision on a question, but to air varied views in a friendly discussion and clarify the individual thinking of those present."¹¹ A fundamental requisite for discussion groups is contact with many source books

and reference materials. For suggestions on helpful instructional materials consult Tables 26 to 34 of this bulletin, and *Guides to Study Material for Teachers* published by the H. W. Wilson Company.¹²

¹¹ Hodgkins, George W. *A Guide to Newer Methods in Teaching the Social Studies*. Bulletin No. 7. Cambridge, Mass.: National Council for the Social Studies, a department of the National Education Association (Sec.: Howard E. Wilson, 18 Lawrence Hall, Harvard University), 1936. p. 61.

¹² Townsend, Mary E., and Stewart, Alice G. *Guides to Study Material for Teachers*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1936. 113 p.

EVERY COMMUNITY, urban and rural, is filled with challenges to achieve the good life. The physical health and safety of our citizens can be still further increased thru cooperative planning and action. The beauty of our homes, streets, parks and playgrounds, countryside, and public places can be enhanced immeasurably. The recreational and leisure-time facilities for childhood and adulthood need to be expanded in every population center. The cultural life needs to be deepened thru community participation in music, arts, pageantry, and similar spiritual and esthetic endeavors. The quantity and quality of the agricultural and industrial goods and services with which we satisfy our needs for daily living can be multiplied to provide a standard of living far beyond the present level. In general, the community tasks awaiting the positive and vigorous attack of the hosts of eager American children and youth present a thrilling adventure in social betterment.—Paul R. Hanna in *1935 Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals*. p. 544.

VI. The Local Community as an Area of Study

Another important question of social studies instruction, closely associated with the problem of method, but also involving content and grade placement, is: "How and to what extent should the local community be studied?" Current educational discussion, at least, places considerable emphasis upon the values to be obtained from exploring and studying the local environment. This point of view may be illustrated by a quotation from the *Instructional Guide for Elementary Schools* published by the Michigan Department of Public Instruction:

The finest teaching is that which best adjusts the child to his own total life situation and to his own individual life problems. Because of this the child's real community provides the most important teaching situation. It is imperative that each teacher develop the utmost skill in utilizing the community as a natural laboratory. Basing the children's activities upon the realities of the social situation is the surest, most understandable, and most effective way of making the curriculum "modern"—or rather, functional.¹

Do teachers of recognized ability agree with this point of view? What specific phases of

community life do they think should be studied at each school level? To what extent do teachers bring their pupils in direct contact with these specific aspects? It is the purpose of this section to present information in answer to these questions.

The questionnaire described "direct or first-hand contacts" as those obtained, (1) thru trips and excursions, usually informal group expeditions, focused upon a specific area, and limited in time to a few hours or days; (2) thru community surveys, usually involving systematic investigation and record-keeping, more or less comprehensive in character, and extending for weeks or even an entire term; (3) thru speakers, motion pictures, and exhibits, usually attempts thru verbal or visual means to illustrate and explain social processes.

General Topics Studied and Thought To Be Suitable for Study

An outline of items suggested as essential for a comprehensive view of a community and presumably necessary for an understanding of

¹ Michigan Department of Public Instruction. *Instructional Guide for Elementary Schools*. Bulletin No. 301. Lansing, Mich.: the Department, 1936. p. 60.

TABLE 25.—PERCENT OF TEACHERS REPORTING COMMUNITY ASPECTS AS DESERVING AND RECEIVING INSTRUCTION THRU DIRECT CONTACTS AT EACH SCHOOL LEVEL

Categories of outline	Percent of teachers					
	Elementary school		Junior high school		Senior high school	
	Desirable for study	Studied in practise	Desirable for study	Studied in practise	Desirable for study	Studied in practise
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A. Physical environment.....	78.7	54.4	71.8	41.4	43.0	20.2
B. Historical background.....	62.0	37.6	68.7	42.4	56.7	33.5
C. Population.....	15.0	7.8	38.8	18.8	54.5	25.0
D. Community organization and control.....	44.1	26.3	63.0	37.8	62.2	34.3
1. Government structure.....	36.6	18.4	75.9	52.5	73.4	53.4
2. Finances.....	10.8	4.3	39.1	18.9	60.6	29.9
3. Services.....	58.9	36.6	69.9	42.4	60.6	32.2
E. The community's economic and industrial environment.....	40.3	22.3	50.0	24.9	48.6	20.5
F. Supplementary cultural influences and activities.....	46.4	24.4	56.1	26.7	50.7	22.2
G. Conclusions						
1. Evidence of social problems.....	29.4	14.4	57.8	33.8	65.7	39.6
2. Next steps in improving the community.....	40.7	19.3	60.5	32.6	65.9	34.9
3. Evidences of cultural and social growth.....	29.7	15.9	53.9	28.1	58.7	28.0
4. Characteristics of an ideal community.....	51.5	24.5	68.9	38.6	66.5	35.8

Read table as follows: 78.7 percent of the elementary teachers checked items classified as physical environment as belonging in the elementary grades; 54.4 percent of the elementary teachers reported as giving first-hand instruction on these items. 71.8 percent of the junior high-school teachers checked physical environment items as belonging in the junior high-school level, and 41.4 percent of the junior high-school teachers checked these items as receiving first-hand study thru their instruction; 43.0 percent of the senior high-school teachers placed physical environment topics at the senior high-school level; and 20.2 percent of the senior high-school teachers are giving first-hand instruction in physical environment at the senior high-school level.

social problems at the community level was presented to the social studies teachers participating in this study. These teachers checked within the outline those items which they believed properly to belong, altho not necessarily taught now, at the school level at which each was teaching. A second check on the same outline indicated those items which the teacher used regularly to help pupils study realistically and first-hand thru excursions and trips or community surveys.

The complete outline may be seen by inspection of pages 7 and 8 of the questionnaire reproduced on pages 253 and 254. Table 25 gives the broad categories of the outline and the average percent of teachers at each grade level checking the subordinate topics under each classification heading. Two sets of percents are shown for each grade level: the percent of teachers who checked items so classified in the outline as belonging at their grade level, and the percent of teachers who checked the various items as receiving first-hand study thru their instruction. The latter column is headed "Studied in practise," the first column "Desirable for study."

Physical environment was and should be stressed in the elementary grades according to the judgments of most elementary and junior high-school teachers. Governmental structure was checked by a large proportion of junior and senior high-school teachers, as belonging at their high-school levels and receiving more attention than any other main topic. More than half the senior high-school teachers judged all topics except physical environment (43.0 percent) and the community's economic and industrial environment (48.6 percent) as belonging at the senior high-school level.

According to 85 percent of these teachers of recognized ability, population problems do not belong at the elementary level, especially topics bearing specifically on age and sex distribution, birth and death rates, marriage and divorce, size of family, and mobility of family. Occupations, races, and nationalities are the only topics dealing with population which more than 25 percent of the elementary teachers believed should be taught in the elementary grades. Community finances was another area generally thought not to require special emphasis in elementary-school instruction.

Physical environment, historical background, governmental structure, services, certain aspects of the community's economic and industrial en-

vironment, cultural influences and activities were placed more frequently at the junior than the senior high-school level. The topics reserved largely for senior high-school study were population problems and public finance.

Specific Topics Studied and Thought To Be Suitable for Study

Does practise follow the judgments as to grade placement? In all cases, a smaller proportion of teachers reported giving first-hand instruction to these topics than the proportion who placed the several topics at their grade level. There were 63 items on specific topics in the outline. Lists of specific items are presented below to indicate those topics considered by the largest proportion of teachers at each grade level as belonging in the specified grade level and those topics reported by the largest proportion of teachers at each grade level as receiving first-hand study thru their instruction. Each list is arranged in descending order of frequency of checking the items, the percent after each topic indicating the proportion of teachers of that level checking that topic.

The fifteen topics listed below were considered to belong at the elementary grade level by two-thirds or more of the elementary social studies teachers:

<i>Topics</i>	<i>Percent of teachers</i>
Local geography	84.5
Early settlement	82.3
Natural resources	81.6
Climate	81.0
Fire protection	80.1
Communication	79.7
Police protection	77.9
Libraries	77.6
Transportation	76.5
Traffic and streets	75.7
Sanitation and health	75.0
Newspapers and magazines as supplementary cultural influences and activities....	70.8
Schools	69.2
Topography	67.7
Manufacturing	66.8

Despite the fact that fifteen topics were placed at the elementary level by two-thirds or more of the elementary teachers, and nine other topics were placed at the elementary grade level by between 50 and 66 percent, the next list of eleven topics was the only one reported by 50 to 60 percent of the elementary teachers as receiving first-hand study thru their instruction.

The list of topics below shows the proportion of elementary teachers who checked each as receiving first-hand study thru their instruction.

Topics	Percent of teachers
Local geography	60.9
Libraries	60.0
Natural resources	57.5
Traffic and streets	57.5
Fire protection	56.0
Climate	55.7
Early settlement	54.9
Communication	53.8
Sanitation and health	51.1
Police protection	50.7
Newspapers and magazines	50.2

In the entire outline of 63 items, all but seven topics were thought to belong at the junior high-school level by at least 25 percent of the teachers. Thirteen topics were placed at this level by between 25 and 50 percent, and 18 topics by between 50 and 66 percent of the junior high-school teachers. The 24 topics which were placed at the junior high-school level by two-thirds or more of the junior high-school teachers, are listed below with the percent checking these topics.

Topics	Percent of teachers
Fire protection	81.3
Police protection	80.4
Early settlement	79.9
Executive and administrative officers	79.7
Newspapers and magazines	79.7
Schools	79.2
Communication	79.0
Natural resources	77.9
Sanitation and health	77.8
Libraries	76.7
Traffic and streets	76.0
Legislative body	76.0
Occupations	76.0
Local geography	74.9
Transportation	74.7
Water	73.3
Courts	71.9
Manufacturing	71.7
Climate	71.0
Industrial development	69.9
Characteristics of an ideal community	68.9
Population trends	68.7
Participation of community in larger history of county, state, or country	68.3
Electric light and power	66.9

The list of nine topics below indicates which topics were checked by 50 percent or more of the junior high-school teachers as receiving first-hand study thru their instruction. Altho

twenty-four topics were placed at the junior high-school level by two-thirds or more of the junior high-school teachers, only nine topics were checked as receiving first-hand instruction by at least half of the teachers at this level.

Topics	Percent of teachers
Newspapers and magazines	59.4
Libraries	56.4
Executive and administrative officers	56.2
Schools	55.9
Fire protection	54.8
Legislative body	53.4
Communication	53.2
Police protection	52.0

No topic in the outline of 63 items was checked by less than 33 percent of the senior high-school teachers as belonging at the senior high-school level. Therefore, the entire outline applies to some extent to this level. Only eleven topics were so placed by two-thirds or more of the teachers, altho 34 topics were placed at the senior high-school level by between 50 and 66 percent of the senior high-school teachers.

The eleven topics placed at the senior high-school level by at least two-thirds of the senior high-school teachers are listed below. Note that the first three mentioned are the three most practised items.

Topics	Percent of teachers
Executive and administrative officers	74.0
Courts	73.4
Legislative body	72.9
Taxation	72.8
Newspapers and magazines	70.9
Standards of living	70.2
Occupations	69.6
Labor conditions	69.1
Schools	68.3
Characteristics of an ideal community	66.5
Relief	66.4

Inspection of the proportion of senior high-school teachers giving first-hand instruction in the topics of this outline shows that there were only three topics which were checked in this respect by half or more of the senior high-school teachers. As few as 10 percent checked some of the topics. The topic most often checked is "executive and administrative officers" (54.6 percent). The courts (52.9 percent) and the legislative body (52.8 percent) were the other two most frequently checked topics from the point of view of practise.

Comparing the lists of topics placed at each of the three grade levels, it may be seen that all

of the fifteen topics in the elementary list (except topography) are included in the junior high-school list but are listed in a different order of emphasis; five of the topics included in the junior high-school list, but not in the elementary grade list, are also included in the senior high-school list. Five of the topics, including water services, industrial development, population trends, electric light and power, and the part of the community in larger history of the county, state, and country are the only topics which were placed exclusively at the junior high-school level. The four topics, taxation, standards of living, labor conditions, and relief, are the only topics placed exclusively at the senior high-school level. Two topics are carried thruout the lists at all three levels: (1) the school as a community service; and (2) newspapers and magazines as supplementary cultural influences and activities.

Many more topics were placed at each level than were checked with regard to practise. In this respect, the elementary grade teachers showed greater tendency to practise the topics they placed at the elementary grade level than teachers in the higher levels. The senior high-school social studies teachers gave very little first-hand instruction on the topics they placed at their level, possibly because of a fuller and a more rigid schedule than in the lower levels. What small amount of first-hand instruction was practised by the senior high-school social studies teachers, however, dealt primarily with those very topics which the teachers had most emphatically placed at the senior high-school level.

Direct Study of the Community, an Integral Part of Social Studies Instruction

There are two possible misinterpretations of the suggestion that the community should be a laboratory for social studies instruction. The first is the belief that direct experience refers merely to contact with the more or less material objects of the community such as fire stations, city hall, police stations, water works, and similar agencies. This point of view minimizes the people, the climate of opinion, social programs, propaganda, and the other less tangible aspects of community life. As stated in the

1936 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, "if pupils are to have genuine understanding of their environment, they must be given the opportunity to examine and to evaluate the intangible processes of group life as well as the tangible social machinery and institutions."²

A second misinterpretation is the overemphasis of direct contacts as a means of learning. It is neither economical of time nor necessary to have direct experiences so far as many phases of learning are concerned. At the same time the reverse is equally undesirable—namely, to attempt to help pupils acquire insights merely by academic discussion and by reading when understanding may be had more efficiently thru direct contacts. Hence, there falls upon the teacher of the social studies the responsibility of reconciling desired objectives and the psychology of efficient learning with the practical limitations of each teaching situation. Cooperation between classroom teachers and administrators will be necessary on this problem as pointed out in the earlier section of this bulletin under the discussion of methods and aids.

It should be noted that direct community contacts vary as to the amount of pupil participation involved. The 1936 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence identified three types:

- (1) *Observational*—involving primarily passive study or examination of community agencies or processes (excursions and trips).
- (2) *Participational*—where pupils join or cooperate in some established social process (clean-up campaigns, community chest drives, etc.).
- (3) *Contributory*—including original and creative activities of pupils to build upon and to improve community characteristics.³

Examples of types (2) and (3) are to be found in the 1936 Yearbook and in Hanna's report entitled *Youth Serves the Community*.⁴

From the federal Works Progress Administration comes preliminary word of a remarkable series of guides to school, governmental, and other types of community records. For several years the WPA Historical Record Survey has had people examining, classifying, and listing public records. Most of the basic work has been completed for the more than three thousand counties of the United States. The

² National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Social Studies Curriculum*. Fourteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1936. p. 249.

³ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *op. cit.*, p. 254-74.

⁴ Hanna, Paul, and associates. *Youth Serves the Community*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936. 303 p.

problem now is one of reproducing the inventories and distributing them to teachers, archivists, and historians. The following inventories have been published: Allegany County, Maryland; Morris County, New Jersey; Fayette County, Kentucky; and Hamilton County, Ohio. The remaining counties may be issued in more permanent form if the demand warrants the cost.⁵ The report of each county in-

cludes a brief historical sketch, a description of the county governmental machinery, an explanation of the location and classification of the records, and a brief description of the records to be found in each public office. Similar inventories have been made of many cities. The guides produced to date indicate here is an invaluable aid for studying the ramifications of all types of governmental service.

⁵ Works Progress Administration funds have been allotted primarily for salaries for unemployed workers, not for printing the results of their investigations. A general demand for the inventories may be expected to lead eventually to provisions for their reproduction in permanent form. Inquiries may be made at the state offices of WPA or at the national office in Washington, D. C.

CONTINUOUS EVALUATION is essential to determine the degree of effectiveness of the social studies program and to obtain an intelligent basis for curriculum improvement. An adequate program of appraisal provides evidence of the degree to which all of the important purposes of the social studies are being realized. To this end, teachers will increasingly use a variety of evaluation methods instead of limiting themselves to written examinations. A comprehensive plan of appraisal also involves cumulative studies of pupils and cumulative records of their behavior beyond the years of formal schooling so that the relative permanency of these educational experiences may be determined. Evaluation is necessary, it is practicable, but it involves a new conception of methods of appraisal which modify radically our present procedures.—1936 *Yearbook, Department of Superintendence*. p. 343.

VII. Standard Tests in the Social Studies

Continuous appraisal is as essential in social studies instruction as in any other part of education. Thru systematic evaluation the teacher may discover how effective the curriculum is proving for each pupil and where more helpful experiences are needed. Thru systematic information of his progress, the pupil may cooperate more intelligently in directing his own energies toward worthy purposes. Objective evidence from evaluation provides a basis for cooperation between teachers and parents, not only in improving the school's program, but in making all community influences constructive elements in social education.

Standard tests reported by teachers of recognized ability—The present survey asked teachers to list the standard tests which had been most helpful in evaluating their teaching of the social studies. A rather striking fact was that 79 percent of the 1764 teachers did not report a single test. Many who replied to this question apparently did not know what was meant by the term "standard test." Often they listed social studies textbooks, and books on educational psychology and method. Others reported questions found in textbooks and in professional magazines. A few gave the names of tests which had been developed in connection with the preparation of local courses of study. Rarely are any of these tests standardized.¹ If the testing movement has made so little progress in convincing "teachers of recognized ability" of its possible usefulness, what may be said of its impression on typical teachers?

A few teachers gave reasons for not using standard tests. The most frequently mentioned reason was that many tests were inadequate measures of the purpose of instruction. Existing tests were thought to measure subject-matter, but not attitudes, insights, and the less tangible aspects of instruction. Lack of funds to purchase tests was given as another reason.

Four schoolboards were reported as opposed to the use of tests. Perhaps still another reason is to be found in the widespread development of new-type tests in connection with local courses of study.²

One hundred and ten different tests, reported by social studies teachers, were identified as to authors and publishers.³ Most of the tests were reported only once, a few twice, and eighteen tests were mentioned more than three times. The latter are marked with an asterisk.

The tests mentioned at each school level are arranged alphabetically to avoid implications of a rank order of merit. It will be noted that several tests are listed for use in junior and senior high-school classes, whereas others are reported as helpful in elementary schools as well as junior high schools. The range for which each test is intended is noted in each case where the information was available.

Tests Used by Elementary-School Teachers

Analytical Scales of Attainment in Geography, by M. E. Branom and M. J. Van Wagenen. Range: Division 2, grades 5 and 6; division 3, grades 7 and 8. Forms A, B and C. Minneapolis Educational Test Bureau, 1932.

Branom's Diagnostic Tests in Geography, by M. E. Branom. Range: grades 5-8. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight, 1926.

Brueckner-Cutright Essential Location Exercises in Geography, by L. J. Brueckner and P. Cutright. Range: grades 5-8. Minneapolis: Educational Test Bureau, 1927.

Buckingham-Stevenson Place Geography Tests, by B. R. Buckingham and P. R. Stevenson. Range: grades 5-8. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1926.

Check Tests to Accompany Carpenter's "Around the World with the Children," by G. D. Strayer, P. R. Mort, and J. E. Dransfield. New York: American Book Co., 1929.

¹ A standard test is one that has the following characteristics: (1) scientifically constructed for validity and reliability; (2) uniform procedure of administration; (3) objectivity in scoring; and (4) interpretation of results by comparative norms.

² For suggestions in the field of American history consult the monograph by Howard R. Anderson and E. F. Lindquist entitled *Selected Test Items in American History*, published by the National Council for the Social Studies and available from the Secretary, 18 Lawrence Hall, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. For general suggestions on testing in the social studies see Chapter 8 of *The Social Studies Curriculum*, 1936 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association; and Kelley, T. L., and Krey, A. C. *Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences*. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part IV. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. 635 p.

Among the general books in the field of new-type testing are the following: Hawkes, Herbert E.; Lindquist, E. F.; and Mann, C. R. *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1936. 497 p. ¶ Russell, Charles. *Classroom Tests*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1926. 346 p. ¶ Rugh, G. M. *Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction*. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1927. Part III, p. 251-375.

³ For a list of 223 standard tests in the social studies consult the monograph by Gertrude E. Hildreth entitled *A Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Scales*, published by the Psychological Corporation, New York, 1933. 242 p.

- Detroit Examination in Social Science*, by Detroit Public Schools. Range: intermediate grades. Detroit: Detroit Public Schools.
- Detroit Standard Tests in Geography*, by Detroit Public Schools. Range: grades 4-9. Detroit: Detroit Public Schools, 1918, 1922.
- Gregory-Haggerty Geography Test*, by C. A. Gregory and M. E. Haggerty. Range: grades 4-6. Cincinnati: C. A. Gregory Co., 1926.
- Hahn-Lackey Geography Scale*, by H. H. Hahn and E. E. Lackey. Range: grades 4-8. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1918; revised, 1922.
- Harlan Test for Information in American History*, by C. L. Harlan. Range: grades 7 through high school. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1917.
- Iowa State Teachers' College Geography Test*, Parts I and II. Range: grades 4 and 5. Cedar Falls: Iowa State Teachers' College, 1921.
- Junior American History Test*, by H. J. Carman, T. N. Barrows, and B. D. Wood. Range: grades 7 and 8 and junior high school. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1929.
- Kelty-Moore Test of Concepts in the Social Studies*, by Kelty and Moore. Forms A and B. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.
- Learning and Teaching American History in the Middle Grades of Elementary School*, by Mary G. Kelty. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1936.
- Manchester Remedial and Diagnostic Tests*, by Meyer and Hamm. Range: unknown. North Manchester, Indiana: Bureau of Tests and Measurements, Manchester College.
- **Metropolitan Achievement Tests*, (New York City Edition) by S. F. Bayne, F. B. Graham, edited by J. S. Orleans. Advanced Batteries, New York City Edition. Range: grades 7 and 8. Spelling vocabulary, reading, arithmetic, English literature, history, geography. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1932.
- **New Stanford Achievement Test, Forms V, W, X, Y, and Z*, by T. L. Kelley, G. M. Ruch, and L. M. Terman. Range: primary examination—grades 2-3, reading, arithmetic, spelling; advanced examination—grades 4-9, reading, spelling, arithmetic, language usage, literature, history and civics, geography, physiology and hygiene. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1929.
- Philadelphia Survey Test in Geography*, by P. A. Boyer. Range: grade 5. Philadelphia: Division of Educational Research, Philadelphia Public Schools, 1926.
- Posey-Van Wagenen Geography Series*, by M. J. Van Wagenen. Range: Division I, grades 5 and 6; Division II, grades 7 and 8. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1922.
- Pressey-Richards Test for the Understanding of American History*, by L. C. Pressey and R. C. Richards. Range: grades 6-12. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1922.
- Public School Achievement Tests*, Forms I and II by J. S. Orleans; Forms III and IV by T. L. Torgerson. Reading, arithmetic computation, arithmetic reasoning, language usage, spelling, grammar, history, geography, nature study, and health. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1928, 1930 and 1931.
- Ridgley-Russell-Harr Unit Tests in Geography*, by D. C. Ridgley, H. H. Russell, and L. Harr. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight, 1928.
- Silver, Burdett Geography Tests*. (In process of revision to fit new Barrows-Parker geography series.) New York: Silver, Burdett Co., 1937.
- Social Studies Achievement Tests*, by H. O. Rugg and Mendenhall. Forms A and B. Range: Low seventh to high ninth. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1935.
- Standard Graduation Examination for Elementary Schools*, by A. S. Otis and J. S. Orleans. Spelling, reading, vocabulary, arithmetic, grammar, language usage, literature, history, geography. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1930, 1931.
- Tests for Unified Course of Study*, by Meyer, Hamm and Joliff. North Manchester, Indiana. Bureau of Tests and Measurements, Manchester College.
- **The Modern School Achievement Tests*, by A. I. Gates, P. R. Mort, P. M. Symonds, R. B. Spence, G. S. Craig, De F. Stull, H. Hatch, A. I. Shaw and L. B. Krieger. Reading comprehension, reading speed and accuracy, arithmetic computation, arithmetic reasoning, diagnostic test in spelling, health knowledge, language usage, social studies—history and civics, social studies—geography, elementary science. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931.
- Unit Elementary Tests*, by Meyer, Homer and Eikenberry. Range: grades 4-8 inclusive. North Manchester, Indiana. Bureau of Tests and Measurements, Manchester College.
- **Unit Scales of Attainment*, by M. E. Branom, L. J. Brueckner, A. M. Jordan, P. Cutright, W. A. Anderson, M. G. Kelty, A. Dvorak and M. J. Van Wagenen. Includes tests in reading, arithmetic, language, spelling, geography, history, literature, and elementary science. Range: reading (only) 1st grade; reading (only) 2nd grade; division 1, grades 3 and 4; division 2, grades 5 and 6; division 3, grades 7 and 8; division 4, grade 9. Minneapolis: Educational Test Bureau, 1932.
- Wiedefeld-Walther Geography Test*, by M. T. Wiedefeld and E. C. Walther. Range: grades 4-8. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1931.
- Witham Geography Test of Europe—New Series*, by E. C. Witham. Range: grades 6-9. Los Angeles; Southern California School Book Depository, 1929.
- Witham Geography Test of the United States—New Series*, by E. C. Witham. Range: grades 5-8. Los Angeles: Southern California School Book Depository, 1928.

Witham Geography Test of the World—New Series, by E. C. Witham. Range: elementary and high school. Los Angeles: Southern California School Book Depository, 1928.

Witham Standard Geography Tests, by E. C. Witham. Range: grades 5-12. Newark: J. L. Hammett Co., 1916-1921.

Tests Used by Junior High-School Teachers

American Council European History Test, by H. J. Carman, W. C. Langsam and B. D. Wood. Range: high school and college. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1928.

Ancient and Medieval History Tests, by L. N. Brown. Oklahoma City: Harlow Publishing Co., 1930, 1931.

Atlanta Series of Tests. English Test, grades 7-8; Algebra, junior high school; Biology, grade H-9; English Classics; American History, grade H-8; Latin, junior and senior high school; Spelling. Atlanta, Georgia: Board of Education, 1929.

Barr's Diagnostic Tests in American History, by A. S. Barr. Range: grades 8-12. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1920.

Bowman (Gipson) United States History Test, by L. C. Bowman. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1931.

Branom's Diagnostic Tests in Geography, by M. E. Branom. Range: grades 5-8. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight, 1926.

**Brown-Woody Civics Test*, by A. W. Brown and C. Woody. Range: grades 7-12. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1926.

Columbia Research Bureau American History Test, by H. J. Carman, T. N. Barrows and B. D. Wood. Range: high school and college. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1926.

Cooperative American History Test. New York: Cooperative Test Service, 1930, 1931, 1932.

Cooperative Ancient History Test. New York: Cooperative Test Service, 1930.

Cooperative European History Test. New York: Cooperative Test Service, 1930, 1931, 1932.

**Denny-Nelson Tests in American History*, by E. C. Denny and M. J. Nelson. Range: grades 7 and 8. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1928.

Early Progress Workbook, by West and Shellman. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Fourteen Tests in Vocational Civics, by H. C. Hill. For use with H. C. Hill's "Vocational Civics" and "Community and Vocational Civics" and H. C. Hill, and D. H. Sellers, "My Occupation." Boston: Ginn and Co., 1931.

Gregory-Spencer Geography Test, by C. A. Gregory and P. L. Spencer. Range: grades 6-8, and normal school students. Cincinnati: C. A. Gregory Co., 1923.

Hahn-Lackey Geography Scale, by H. H. Hahn and E. E. Lackey. Range: grades 4-B. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1918; revised, 1922.

Harlan Test for Information in American History, by C. L. Harlan. Range: grades 7 through high school. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1917.

**Hill Civic Attitude Test*, by H. C. Hill. Range: grades 6-12. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1926.

**Hill Civic Information Tests*, by H. C. Hill and H. E. Wilson. Range: grades 6-12. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1926.

Hill-Wilson Civic Action Test, by H. C. Hill and H. E. Wilson. Range: grades 6-12. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1928.

Iowa Third Annual Every Pupil Test in United States History, by H. R. Anderson and G. G. Andrews. Range: high school. Iowa City: State University of Iowa, 1931.

Iowa Third Annual Every Pupil Test in World History, by H. R. Anderson and G. G. Andrews. Range: high school. Iowa City: State University of Iowa, 1931.

Junior American History Test, by H. J. Carman, T. N. Barrows, and B. D. Wood. Range: grades 7 and 8 and junior high school. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1929.

Kansas State Teachers College Scholarship Contest American History Test. Emporia: Bureau of Educational Measurements and Standards, Kansas State Teachers College, 1927, 1928.

Kansas State Teachers College Scholarship Contest Constitution Test. Emporia: Bureau of Educational Measurements and Standards, Kansas State Teachers College, 1927, 1928.

Kansas State Teachers College Scholarship Contest Current History Test. Emporia: Bureau of Educational Measurements and Standards, Kansas State Teachers College.

Kansas State Teachers College Scholarship Contest Social Civics Test. Emporia: Bureau of Educational Measurements and Standards, Kansas State Teachers College, 1927.

Kansas State Teachers College Scholarship Contest World History Test. Emporia: Bureau of Educational Measurements and Standards, Kansas State Teachers College, 1928.

Kelty-Moore Test of Concepts in the Social Studies, by Kelty and Moore. Forms A and B. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Kepler's Background Test in Social Science, by Tyler Kepler. Forms A and B. Range: Grades 9-12. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1924.

Lynch American History Test Series, by I. R. Lynch. Range: grade 8. Minneapolis: Educational Test Bureau, 1926.

Manchester Semester-End Achievement Tests, by Meyer, Eikenberry and others. North Manchester, Indiana: Bureau of Tests and Measurements, Manchester College.

**Metropolitan Achievement Tests* (New York City edition), by S. F. Bayne, F. B. Graham, edited by J. S. Orleans. Advanced Battery, New York City edition. Range: grades 7 and 8. Spelling, vocabulary, reading, arithmetic, English literature, history, geography. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1932.

Modern Progress Workbook, by West and Shellman. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Modern School Achievement Tests, by A. I. Gates, P. R. Mort, P. M. Symonds, R. B. Spence, G. S. Craig, De F. Stull, R. Hatch, A. I. Shaw and L. B. Krieger. Reading comprehension, reading speed and accuracy, arithmetic computation, arithmetic reasoning, diagnostic test in spelling, health knowledge, language usage, social studies—history and civics, social studies—geography, elementary science. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931.

**New Stanford Achievement Test, Forms V, W, X, Y, and Z*, by T. L. Kelley, G. M. Ruch and L. M. Terman. Range: primary examination—grades 2-3, reading, arithmetic, spelling; advanced examination—grades 4-9, reading, spelling, arithmetic, language usage, literature, history and civics, geography, and physiology and hygiene. Yonkers: World Book Company, 1929.

Ohio Every Pupil Test, conducted by the Ohio State Department of Education. Includes Plane Geometry, Physics, First Year Latin, Second Year Latin, General Science, Chemistry, Arithmetic Problem Test, one aspect of 7th, 8th, and 12th Year American History, and Algebra. Columbus: State Department of Education, April 1931.

Philadelphia Survey Test in History. Range: grade 7B. Ref.: Browne, E. C., and Boyer, P. A. Report on survey test in history of the United States, grade 7B, conducted June 1928. *Historical Outlook* 20: 17-23, 1929.

Posey-Van Wagenen Geography Series, by M. J. Van Wagenen. Range: Division I, grades 5 and 6; Division II, grades 7 and 8. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1922.

Public School Achievement Tests. Forms I and II by J. S. Orleans; Forms III and IV by T. L. Torgerson. Reading, arithmetic computation, arithmetic reasoning, language usage, spelling, grammar, history, geography, nature study, and health. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1928, 1930, and 1931.

Ridgley-Russell-Harr Unit Tests in Geography, by D. C. Ridgley, H. H. Russell, and L. Harr. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight, 1928.

Rochester Board of Education American History Test for History III. Ref.: Ruch, G. M. "The Objective or New Type Examination." Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1929.

Russell-Harr Diagnostic Geography Tests, by H. H. Russell and L. Harr. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight, 1926.

Stormzand American History Teaching and Testing, by M. A. Stormzand. Range: grades 7-12. New York: Macmillan Company, 1927.

Twentieth Century Test in American History, Tests I and II, by Gale Smith. Range: high school. Fowler, Indiana: Benton Review Shop, 1931, 1935.

Twenty Tests to Accompany Muzzey's "History of the American People", by M. C. Bishop and E. K. Robinson. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1929.

Twenty-four Tests to Accompany Robinson and Beard's "History of Europe: Our Own Times", by M. C. Bishop. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1930.

Twenty-four Tests in Ancient and Medieval History to Accompany Robinson and Breasted's "History of Europe: Ancient and Medieval", by E. P. Stickney. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1931.

Twenty-four Tests in World History to Accompany Robinson-Smith-Breasted's "Our World Today and Yesterday", by E. P. Stickney. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1930.

Unit Elementary Tests, by Meyer, Homer, and Eikenberry. Range: grades 4-8 inclusive. North Manchester, Indiana: Bureau of Tests and Measurements, Manchester College.

**Unit Scales of Attainment*, by M. E. Branom, L. J. Brueckner, A. M. Jordan, P. Cutright, W. A. Anderson, M. G. Kelty, A. Dvorak and M. J. Van Wagenen. Includes tests in reading, arithmetic, language, spelling, geography, history, literature, and elementary science. Range: reading (only) 1st grade; reading (only) 2nd grade; division 1, grades 3 and 4; division 2, grades 5 and 6; division 3, grades 7 and 8; division 4, grade 9. Minneapolis: Educational Test Bureau, 1932.

Vannest Diagnostic Test in Modern European History, by C. G. Vannest. Range: secondary school. Bloomington, Indiana: Bureau of Cooperative Research, Indiana University, 1921.

Van Wagenen American History Scales (Revised Editorial), by M. J. Van Wagenen. Range: Scale S1, grades 5 and 6; Scale S2, grades 7 and 8; Scale S3, grades 9-12; Scale R1, grades 5 and 6; Scale R2, grades 7 and 8. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922.

Wiedefeld-Walther Geography Test, by M. T. Wiedefeld and E. C. Walther. Range: grades 4-8. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1931.

Witham Comprehensive History Test, by E. C. Witham. Range: grades 7 and 8. Newark: J. L. Hammett Co., 1924.

Witham Standard Geography Tests, by E. C. Witham. Range: grades 5-12. Newark: J. L. Hammett Co., 1916-1921.

Tests Used by Senior High-School Teachers

- **American Council Civics and Government Test*, by R. D. Leigh, D. McGoldrick, P. M. Odegard and B. D. Wood. Range: high school and college. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1928.
- American Council Economics Test*, by H. Taylor, T. N. Barrows, and B. D. Wood. Range: high school and college. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1929.
- American Council European History Test*, by H. J. Carman, W. C. Langsan and B. D. Wood. Range: high school and college. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1928.
- American History Tests, Forms A and B*, by J. A. Kinneman. Range: high school seniors and college freshmen. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight.
- Barr-Daggett Tests in American History*, by A. S. Barr and C. J. Daggett. Range: Senior High School. Forms A and B. Minneapolis: Educational Test Bureau, 1932.
- Barr's Diagnostic Tests in American History*, by A. S. Barr. Range: grades 8-12. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1920.
- Bowman (Gipson) United States History Test*, by L. C. Bowman. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1931.
- **Brown-Woody Civics Test*, by A. W. Brown and C. Woody. Range: grades 7-12. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1926.
- Burton Social-Science-Civics Test*, by W. H. Burton. Range: grades 7-12. Cincinnati: C. A. Gregory Co., 1930.
- **Columbia Research Bureau American History Test*, by H. J. Gorman, T. N. Barrows and B. D. Wood. Range: high school and college. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1926.
- **Cooperative American History Test*. New York: Cooperative Test Service, 1930, 1931, 1932.
- Denny-Nelson Tests in American History*, by E. C. Denny and M. J. Nelson. Range: grades 7 and 8. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1928.
- Detroit Examinations in History*, by Detroit Public Schools. Range: high school. Detroit: Detroit Public Schools, 1925, 1926.
- **Gregory American History Tests (revised)*, by C. A. Gregory. Range: grades 7 and 8. Cincinnati: C. A. Gregory Co., 1926.
- Gregory-Owens Tests in Medieval and Modern History*, by C. A. Gregory and A. D. Owens. Range: grade 11 thru normal school. Cincinnati: C. A. Gregory Co., University of Cincinnati, 1926.
- Harlan Test for Information in American History*, by C. L. Harlan. Range: grades 7 thru high school. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1917.
- Indiana Composite Achievement Test*, by W. W. Wright. Range: grades 7 and 8. Arithmetic, American history, Indiana history, civics, geography, language, reading, physiology, spelling. Bloomington: Bureau of Cooperative Research, Indiana University, 1927.
- Institute of Educational Research Ancient History Test*, by B. D. Wood. For college entrance. New York: Institute of Educational Research, Teachers College, 1922.
- Iowa Every Pupil Academic Contest Examination in World History*. Iowa City: State University of Iowa, 1930.
- **Iowa High School Content Examination*, by G. M. Ruch with the cooperation of G. U. Cleeton and G. D. Stoddard. Range: high school seniors and college freshmen. English literature, English grammar, mathematics, science, history and social science. Iowa City: Bureau of Educational Research and Service, University of Iowa, 1925.
- **Iowa High School Content Examination*, by G. M. Ruch with the cooperation of G. L. Huffaker, F. B. Knight and W. Koerth. Range: high school seniors and college freshmen. English literature, English grammar, mathematics, science, history and social science. Iowa City: Bureau of Educational Research and Service, University of Iowa, 1924.
- **Iowa Third Annual Every Pupil Test in American Government*, by H. R. Anderson. Iowa City: State University of Iowa, 1931.
- **Kansas State Teachers College Scholarship Contest American History Test*. Emporia: Bureau of Educational Measurements and Standards, Kansas State Teachers College, 1927, 1928.
- Kansas State Teachers College Scholarship Contest Constitution Test*. Emporia: Bureau of Educational Measurements and Standards, Kansas State Teachers College, 1927, 1928.
- Kansas State Teachers College Scholarship Contest Social Civics Test*. Emporia: Bureau of Educational Measurements and Standards, Kansas State Teachers College, 1927.
- Kelty-Moore Test of Concepts in the Social Studies*, by Kelty and Moore. Forms A and B. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.
- Kepner's Background Test in Social Science*, by Tyler Kepner. Forms A and B. Range: grades 9-12. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1924.
- Learning and Teaching American History in the Middle Grades of Elementary School*, by Mary G. Kelty. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1936.
- **Magruder-Chambers-Clinton American Civics and Government Test for High Schools and College*, by F. A. Magruder, R. J. Clinton, and M. M. Chambers. Range: high school and college. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co.
- Manchester Semester-End Achievement Tests*, by Meyer, Eikenberry, and others. North Manchester, Indiana: Bureau of Tests and Measurements, Manchester College.

Ohio Every Pupil Test, conducted by the Ohio State Department of Education. Includes plane geometry, physics, first year Latin, second year Latin, general science, chemistry, arithmetic problem test, one aspect of 7th, 8th, and 12th year American history, and algebra. Columbus: State Department of Education, April 1931.

Philadelphia Survey Test in History, by B. C. Browne and P. A. Boyer. Range: Grade 7B. Philadelphia: Philadelphia Public Schools, Division of Educational Research.

Pressey-Richards Test for the Understanding of American History, by L. C. Pressey and R. C. Richards. Range: grades 6-12. Bloomington: Illinois Public School Publishing Co., 1922.

Pressey Scale of Attainment No. 2, by S. L. Pressey. Reading vocabulary, American history, arithmetic and English grammar. Range: grade 8. Bloomington: Department of Psychology, Indiana University, 1921.

Questions in Ancient and Medieval History (now discontinued), *Questions in Modern European History*, and *American History*, by D. J. Arrin. Range: high school. New York: College Entrance Book Co., 1929, 1930.

Social Studies Achievement Tests, by Rugg and Mendenhall. Forms A and B. Range: low seventh to high ninth. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1935.

State High School Tests. Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University, Division of Educational Reference. (Annual testing service.)

Tests in Unified Social Studies (Western Hemisphere), by Meyer, Homer and Jollief. Chicago: Follett Publishing Co.

Tests in Unified Social Studies (Eastern Hemisphere), by Meyer, Homer, and Guisso. Chicago: Follett Publishing Co.

Twentieth Century Test in American History, Tests I and II, by Gale Smith. Range: high school. Fowler, Indiana: Benton Review Shop, 1931, 1935.

Twentieth Century Test in Civics, by Gale Smith. Range: high school. Fowler, Indiana: Benton Review Shop, 1936.

Twenty Tests in Community Civics, by H. C. Hill. For use with H. C. Hill's "Vocational Civics" and "Community and Vocational Civics" and H. C. Hill and D. H. Seller's "My Occupation" (revised). Boston: Ginn and Co., 1931.

**Twenty Tests to Accompany Muzzey's "History of the American People"*, by M. C. Bishop and E. K. Robinson. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1929.

Vannest Diagnostic Test in Modern European History, by C. G. Vannest. Range: secondary school. Bloomington, Indiana: Bureau of Cooperative Research, Indiana University, 1921.

Van Wagenen American History Scales (Revised Editorial), by M. J. Van Wagenen. Range: Scale S1, grades 5 and 6; Scale S2, grades 7 and 8; Scale S3, grades 9-12; Scale R1, grades 5 and 6; Scale R2, grades 7 and 8. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922.

Wesley Test in Social Terms, by E. B. Wesley. Forms A and B. Range: junior and senior. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

VIII. Texts and Supplementary Books Reported To Be Most Frequently Used by Social Studies Teachers and Pupils

Social studies teachers reported texts and supplementary books found by them to be most helpful in social studies courses. Tables 26 to 34 which follow give the texts and supplementary books reported by *ten or more* teachers. In each list those books which were mentioned so frequently as to be outstanding in their respective group have an asterisk at the left. The first three tables, numbers 26, 27, and 28, give the supplementary books reported to be most useful to social studies teachers in preparing for their classes. These tables are arranged by grade level. Within each grade

level list the books are separated into three groups: those most frequently reported, those frequently mentioned, and those mentioned still less frequently but reported by at least ten teachers.

Tables 29 to 33 list textbooks reported by social studies teachers of different grade levels to be helpful to their pupils. The texts so reported are listed by the course in which they are most frequently used.

The supplementary books reported for pupils' use are listed in Table 34.¹ Some supplementary books are used by pupils at different

¹ For another comprehensive list of the sources of supplementary materials consult *Guides to Study Material for Teachers*, by Mary E. Townsend and Alice G. Stewart; published by the H. W. Wilson Co., New York, 1936. 113 p.

TABLE 26.—SUPPLEMENTARY BOOKS MOST USEFUL TO ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS OF SOCIAL STUDIES

Author	Title	Publisher	Year
<i>Most Frequently Mentioned</i>			
*Carpenter, Frances.....	New Geographical Readers.....	American Book Co.....	1921-24
Casner, Mabel B., and Gabriel, Ralph H.....	Exploring American History.....	Harcourt, Brace and Co.....	1935
*Kelty, Mary G.....	Learning and Teaching History in the Middle Grades.....	Ginn and Co.....	1936
Stull, De Forest, and Hatch, Roy W.....	Our World Today.....	Allyn and Bacon.....	1931
Van Loon, Hendrik W.....	Story of Mankind.....	Garden City Publishing Co.....	1931
<i>Frequently Mentioned</i>			
Clark, Rose B.....	Unit Studies in Geography.....	World Book Co.....	1924
Hillyer, Virgil M.....	Child's Geography of the World.....	Century Co.....	1929
*Hillyer, Virgil M.....	Child's History of the World.....	Century Co.....	1931
Packard, Leonard O., and Sinnott, Charles P.....	Nations as Neighbors.....	Macmillan Co.....	1935
Rugg, Harold O.....	Changing Civilizations in the Modern World.....	Ginn and Co.....	1930
Rugg, Harold O.....	An Introduction to American Civilization.....	Ginn and Co.....	1929
*Thralls, Zoe A., and Reeder, Edwin H.....	Geography in the Elementary School.....	Rand McNally and Co.....	1931
Wells, Herbert G.....	Outline of History.....	Garden City Publishing Co.....	1931
<i>Less Frequently Mentioned</i>			
*Allen, Nellie B.....	Geographical and Industrial Studies.....	Ginn and Co.....	1916-25
Branom, Mendel E., and Branom, Frederick K.....	Teaching of Geography.....	Ginn and Co.....	1921
Huntington, Ellsworth; Benson, Charles B., and McMurry, Frank M.....	Living Geography.....	Macmillan Co.....	1932
Huntington, Ellsworth, and Cushing, Sumner W.....	Modern Business Geography.....	World Book Co.....	1932
Nida, William L., and Webb, Victor L.....	Our Country Past and Present.....	Scott, Foresman and Co.....	1930
*Petersham, Maud, and Petersham, Miska.....	Petersham Series.....	John C. Winston Co.....	1933-36
Rugg, Harold O.....	A History of American Civilization.....	Ginn and Co.....	1930
Smith, Joseph R.....	Human Use Geography.....	John C. Winston Co.....	1936
Tappan, Eva M.....	When Knights Were Bold.....	Houghton Mifflin Co.....	1911
*.....	Unit Study Booklets.....	American Education Press.....	1932-34
Van Loon, Hendrik W.....	Geography.....	Simon and Schuster.....	1932

* In the case of more than one edition of the same publication the date will identify the latest edition.

grade levels; for example, Van Loon's *Story of Mankind* was reported as frequently used by elementary, junior high-school, and senior high-school pupils. It is listed with the junior high-school supplementary books because it was most often reported at this level. However, parenthetical (E-S) after the title of the book indicates that it was also reported by elementary and senior high-school teachers as being helpful to the pupils at these levels. The *Story of Mankind* is the only book reported at all

three levels sufficiently frequently for its mention at all levels. Many other books were reported as useful to pupils at two levels, usually elementary and junior high-school or senior and junior high-school levels. In each case these books are listed at the level for which they were most frequently reported and the symbol of the other level placed after the title of the book. For example, the first book in the list is Allen's *Geographical and Industrial Studies*. The (J) after the title indicates that

TABLE 27.—SUPPLEMENTARY BOOKS MOST USEFUL TO JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS OF SOCIAL STUDIES

Author	Title	Publisher	Year*
<i>Most Frequently Mentioned</i>			
Bassett, John S.	A Short History of the United States	Macmillan Co.	1929
Beard, Charles A., and Beard, Mary	Rise of American Civilization	Macmillan Co.	1933
*Casner, Mabel B., and Gabriel, Ralph H.	Exploring American History	Harcourt, Brace and Co.	1935
Elson, Henry W.	History of the United States of America	Macmillan Co.	1937
Kelty, Mary C.	Learning and Teaching History in the Middle Grades	Ginn and Co.	1936
Magruder, Frank A.	American Government	Allyn and Bacon	1932
Stull, De Forest, and Hatch, Roy W.	Our World Today	Allyn and Bacon	1931
<i>Frequently Mentioned</i>			
Adams, James T.	March of Democracy	Charles Scribner's Sons	1932-33
Bowman, Isaiah	The New World	World Book Co.	1928
*Edmonson, James B., and Dondineau, Arthur	Citizenship and Occupations through Problems	Macmillan Co.	1931
Gabriel, Ralph H.	Pageant of America	Yale University Press	1925-27
Johnson, Amanda	Teaching of History and Citizenship in the Grades and in Junior High School	The author	1932
Marshall, Leon C.	Story of Human Progress	Macmillan Co.	1928
Rugg, Harold O.	An Introduction to American Civilization	Ginn and Co.	1929
*Rugg, Harold O.	Man and His Changing Society: Rugg Social Science Series, Junior High-School Course	Ginn and Co.	1929-33
Sullivan, Mark	Our Times	Charles Scribner's Sons	1936
Tryon, Rolla M.	Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools	Ginn and Co.	1921
Wells, Herbert G.	Outline of History	Garden City Publishing Co.	1931
<i>Less Frequently Mentioned</i>			
Elson, Henry W.	Sidelights on American History	Macmillan Co.	1928
Hart, Albert B.	Source Book of American History	Macmillan Co.	1925
Haskin, Frederic J.	American Government	Grosset and Dunlap	1930
*Hill, Howard C.	Community Life and Civic Problems	Ginn and Co.	1922
Hill, Howard C.	Readings in Community Life	Ginn and Co.	1930
Huntington, Ellsworth; Benson, Charles B.; and McMurry, Frank M.	Living Geography	Macmillan Co.	1932
Huntington, Ellsworth, and Cushing, Sumner W.	Modern Business Geography	World Book Co.	1932
Rugg, Harold O.	A History of American Civilization	Ginn and Co.	1930
Southworth, Gertrude, and Southworth, John Van Dusen	American History	Iroquois Publishing Co.	1935
*Van Loon, Hendrik W.	Unit Study Booklets, Geography	American Education Press	1932-34
*Vannest, Charles G., and Smith, Henry L.	Socialized History of the United States	Charles Scribner's Sons	1934
West, Ruth, and West, Willis M.	Story of Our Country	Allyn and Bacon	1930

* In the case of more than one edition of the same publication the date will identify the latest edition.

it was reported also by junior high-school teachers, altho more frequently mentioned by elementary teachers. In each list of Tables 26

to 34, the asterisk before the author's name indicates that a book was reported many times more than most of the books in the list.

TABLE 28.—SUPPLEMENTARY BOOKS MOST USEFUL TO SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS OF SOCIAL STUDIES

Author	Title	Publisher	Year ^a
<i>Most Frequently Mentioned</i>			
Adams, James T.	Epic of America.	Blue Ribbon Books	1936
Bassett, John S.	A Short History of the United States.	Macmillan Co.	1929
Beard, Charles A.	American Government and Politics.	Macmillan Co.	1935
*Beard, Charles A., and Beard, Mary.	Rise of American Civilization.	Macmillan Co.	1933
Elson, Henry W.	History of the United States of America.	Macmillan Co.	1937
Hart, Albert B., and Curtis, John G.	American History Told by Contemporaries.	Macmillan Co.	1911-29
*Johnson, Allen	Chronicles of America.	Yale University Press	1921
Magruder, Frank A.	American Government	Allyn and Bacon	1932
Pan American Union	American Nation Series ^b	The Union	1928-32
President's Research Committee on Social Trends.	Recent Social Trends in the United States.	McGraw-Hill Book Co.	1934
<i>Frequently Mentioned</i>			
Adams, James T.	March of Democracy.	Charles Scribner's Sons	1932-33
Benns, Frank L.	Europe Since 1914.	F. S. Crofts and Co.	1936
Breasted, James H.	Ancient Times.	Ginn and Co.	1935
*Channing, Edward	History of the United States.	Macmillan Co.	1927-30
Dorf, Philip	Visualized History Series.	Oxford Book Co.	1933-37
*Hayes, Carlton J. H.	Political and Cultural History of Modern Europe.	Macmillan Co.	1932-36
Ogg, Frederic A., and Ray, Perley O.	Essentials of American Government.	D. Appleton-Century Co.	1936
*Schlesinger, Arthur M.	New Viewpoints in American History.	Macmillan Co.	1922
Sullivan, Mark	Our Times.	Charles Scribner's Sons	1936
Tryon, Rolla M.; Lingley, Charles R.; and Morehouse, Frances M. I.	American Nation Yesterday and Today.	Ginn and Co.	1930
Tugwell, Rexford G., and Hill, Howard C.	Our Economic Society and Its Problems.	Harcourt, Brace and Co.	1934
Wells, Herbert G.	Outline of History.	Garden City Publishing Co.	1931
<i>Less Frequently Mentioned</i>			
Adams, James T., and Vannest, Charles G.	Record of America.	Charles Scribner's Sons.	1935
Becker, Carl L.	American Life Series.	Rand McNally and Co.	1927-33
Bidwell, Percy W.	Modern History.	Silver, Burdett and Co.	1931
Bogart, Ernest L.	American Primers.	University of Chicago Press.	1935
Bryce, James	Economic History of the American People.	Longmans, Green and Co.	1930
Bryce, James	American Commonwealth.	Macmillan Co.	1922-23
*Dorf, Philip	Visualized History Series.	Oxford Book Co.	1933-37
Faulkner, Harold U.	Economic History of the United States.	Macmillan Co.	1937
Harlow, Ralph V.	Growth of the United States.	Henry Holt and Co.	1932
Hayes, Carlton J. H., and Moon, Parker T.	Modern History.	Macmillan Co.	1930
Hill, Howard C.	Readings in Community Life.	Ginn and Co.	1930
MacDonald, William	Documentary Source Book of American History.	Macmillan Co.	1926
Munro, William B.	Government of the United States.	Macmillan Co.	1936
Muzzey, David S.	Readings in American History.	Ginn and Co.	1921
Pahlow, Edwin W.	Man's Great Adventure.	Ginn and Co.	1932
Paxson, Frederic L.	Recent History of the United States.	Houghton Mifflin Co.	1929
Rhodes, James F.	History of the United States.	Macmillan Co.	1928
Robinson, James H., and Beard, Charles A.	Readings in Modern European History.	Ginn and Co.	1908-09
	Unit Study Booklets.	American Education Press.	1932-34

^a In the case of more than one edition of the same publication the date will identify the latest edition.

^b We have assumed that teachers mentioning *American Nation* referred to this series since it is the only one of recent date. However, Albert B. Hart is editor of a series called *American Nation*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1904-1908. 28 vols.

TABLE 29.—TEXTS REPORTED TO BE MOST FREQUENTLY USED IN HISTORY COURSES

Author	Title	Publisher	Year*
<i>Elementary</i>			
Barker, Eugene C.; Duncalf, Frederick; and Bacon, Francis.	Old Europe and Our Nation.	Row, Peterson and Co.	1932
*Barker, Eugene C.; Webb, Walter P.; and Dodd, William E.	Story of Our Nation.	Row, Peterson and Co.	1929
Burnham, Smith, and Jack, Theodore H.	The Story of America for Young Americans.	John C. Winston Co.	1932-33
Clark, Marion G., and Gordy, Wilbur F.	Westward Toward America.	Charles Scribner's Sons.	1936
Gordy, Wilbur F.	American Beginnings in Europe.	Charles Scribner's Sons.	1934
Halleck, Reuben P., and Frantz, Juliette.	Our Nation's Heritage.	American Book Co.	1925
*Kelty, Mary G.	Beginnings of the American People and Nation.	Ginn and Co.	1930
*Kelty, Mary G.	Growth of the American People and Nation.	Ginn and Co.	1931
Nida, William L.	Dawn of American History.	Macmillan Co.	1928
Nida, William L., and Webb, Victor L.	Our Country Past and Present.	Scott, Foresman and Co.	1930
Southworth, Gertrude, and Southworth, John Van Duyn.	America's Old World Background.	Iroquois Publishing Co.	1934
West, Ruth, and West, Willis M.	The New World's Foundations in the Old.	Allyn and Bacon.	1929
<i>Junior High School</i>			
Barker, Eugene C.; Webb, Walter P.; and Dodd, William E.	Growth of a Nation.	Row, Peterson and Co.	1934
Beard, Charles A., and Bagley, William C.	History of the American People.	Macmillan Co.	1932
Breasted, James H.	Ancient Times.	Ginn and Co.	1935
Burnham, Smith, and Jack, Theodore H.	America, Our Country.	John C. Winston Co.	1934
*Casner, Mabel B., and Gabriel, Ralph H.	Exploring American History.	Harcourt, Brace and Co.	1935
Elson, Henry W.	Modern Times and the Living Past.	American Book Co.	1930
Gordy, Wilbur F.	History of the United States.	Charles Scribner's Sons.	1935
Halleck, Reuben P., and Frantz, Juliette.	Our Nation's Heritage.	American Book Co.	1925
Hayes, Carlton J. H., and Moon, Parker T.	Ancient and Medieval History.	Macmillan Co.	1929
Knowlton, Daniel C., and Harden, Mary.	Since We Became a Nation.	American Book Co.	1934
Leonard, Arthur R., and Jacobs, Bertha E.	Nation's History.	Henry Holt and Co.	1931
McKinley, Albert E.; Howland, Arthur C.; and Dann, Matthew L.	World History in the Making.	American Book Co.	1927
McKinley, Albert E.; Howland, Arthur C.; and Dann, Matthew L.	World History Today.	American Book Co.	1930
Southworth, Gertrude, and Southworth, John Van Duyn.	American History.	Iroquois Publishing Co.	1935
*Tryon, Rolla M.; Lingley, Charles R.; and Morehouse, Frances M. I.	American Nation Yesterday and Today.	Ginn and Co.	1930
*Vannest, Charles G., and Smith, Henry L.	Socialized History of the United States.	Charles Scribner's Sons.	1934
Webster, Hutton.	Early European Civilization.	D. C. Heath and Co.	1933
Webster, Hutton.	Modern European Civilization.	D. C. Heath and Co.	1933
*West, Ruth, and West, Willis M.	Story of Our Country.	Allyn and Bacon.	1930
Woodburn, James A.; Moran, Thomas F.; and Hill, Howard C.	Our United States.	Longmans, Green and Co.	1936
<i>Senior High School</i>			
*Adams, James T., and Vannest, Charles G.	Record of America.	Charles Scribner's Sons.	1935
Barker, Eugene C.; Dodd, William E.; and Commager, Henry S.	Our Nation's Development.	Row, Peterson and Co.	1934
Bassett, John S.	A Short History of the United States.	Macmillan Co.	1929
Beard, Charles A., and Beard, Mary.	History of the United States.	Macmillan Co.	1929
Beard, Charles A., and Beard, Mary.	Rise of American Civilization.	Macmillan Co.	1933
*Becker, Carl L.	Modern History.	Silver, Burdett and Co.	1931
Breasted, James H.	Ancient Times.	Ginn and Co.	1935
Elson, Henry W.	History of the United States of America.	Macmillan Co.	1937

Table continued on page 242.

TABLE 29.—TEXTS REPORTED TO BE MOST FREQUENTLY USED IN HISTORY COURSES (Contd.)

Author	Title	Publisher	Year*
<i>Senior High School (Continued)</i>			
Elson, Henry W.	Modern Times and the Living Past.	American Book Co.	1930
*Faulkner, Harold U., and Kepner, Tyler.	America: Its History and People.	Harper and Brothers.	1934
*Hamm, William A.; Bourne, Henry E.; and Benton, Elbert J.	Unit History of the United States.	D. C. Heath and Co.	1914
Hayes, Carlton J. H., and Moon, Parker T.	Ancient and Medieval History.	Macmillan Co.	1929
Hayes, Carlton J. H., and Moon, Parker T.	Modern History.	Macmillan Co.	1930
Hayes, Carlton J.; Moon, Parker T.; and Wayland, John W.	World History.	Macmillan Co.	1932
McKinley, Albert E.; Howland, Arthur C.; and Dann, Matthew L.	World History in the Making.	American Book Co.	1927
McKinley, Albert E.; Howland, Arthur C.; and Dann, Matthew L.	World History Today.	American Book Co.	1930
*Muzzey, David S.	History of Our Country.	Ginn and Co.	1936
*Muzzey, David S.	History of the American People.	Ginn and Co.	1933
Pahlow, Edwin W.	Man's Achievement.	Ginn and Co.	1938
Pahlow, Edwin W.	Man's Great Adventure.	Ginn and Co.	1932
Rogers, Lester B.; Adams, Fay; and Brown, Walker.	Story of Nations.	Henry Holt and Co.	1916
Schapiro, Jacob S., and Morris, Richard B.	Civilization in Europe.	Houghton Mifflin Co.	1931
Thomas, Harrison C., and Hamm, William A.	Modern Europe.	Henry Holt and Co.	1934
Webster, Hutton.	Early European Civilization.	D. C. Heath and Co.	1933
Webster, Hutton.	Modern European Civilization.	D. C. Heath and Co.	1933
West, Willis M.	American People.	Allyn and Bacon.	1928
West, Willis M.	Story of Man's Early Progress.	Allyn and Bacon.	1931
West, Willis M.	Story of Modern Progress.	Allyn and Bacon.	1931
Wirth, Fremont P.	Development of America.	American Book Co.	1936

* In the case of more than one edition of the same publication the date will identify the latest edition.

TABLE 30.—TEXTS REPORTED TO BE MOST FREQUENTLY USED IN GEOGRAPHY COURSES

Author	Title	Publisher	Year*
<i>Elementary</i>			
*Atwood, Wallace W., and Thomas, Helen G.	The Americas.	Ginn and Co.	1929
Atwood, Wallace W., and Thomas, Helen G.	The Earth and Its People. Elementary Book.	Ginn and Co.	1928-30
Atwood, Wallace W., and Thomas, Helen G.	Home Life in Far-Away Lands.	Ginn and Co.	1928
*Atwood, Wallace W., and Thomas, Helen G.	Nations Beyond the Seas.	Ginn and Co.	1930
Atwood, Wallace W., and Thomas, Helen G.	South America and the Old World.	Ginn and Co.	1930
Barrows, Harlan H., and Parker, Edith P.	Journeys in Distant Lands.	Silver, Burdett and Co.	1936
Barrows, Harlan H., and Parker, Edith P.	United States and Canada.	Silver, Burdett and Co.	1936
Barrows, Harlan H.; Parker, Edith P.; and Parker, Margaret T.	Europe and Asia.	Silver, Burdett and Co.	1936
Barrows, Harlan H.; Parker, Edith P.; and Parker, Margaret T.	Geographies.	Silver, Burdett and Co.	1933
Brigham, Albert P., and McFarlane, Charles T.	Essentials of Geography.	American Book Co.	1925
Brigham, Albert P., and McFarlane, Charles T.	How the World Lives and Works.	American Book Co.	1934
Brigham, Albert P., and McFarlane, Charles T.	Our Continental Neighbors.	American Book Co.	1933
Carpenter, Frances.	Our Neighbors Near and Far.	American Book Co.	1933
Dodge, Richard E., and Lackey, Earl E.	Advanced Geography.	Rand McNally and Co.	1932

Table continued on page 243.

TABLE 30.—TEXTS REPORTED TO BE MOST FREQUENTLY USED IN GEOGRAPHY COURSES (Contd.)

Year*	Author	Title	Publisher	Year*
<i>Elementary—Continued</i>				
1940 1934	Huntington, Ellsworth; Benson, Charles B.; and McMurry, Frank M.	Living Geography	Macmillan Co.	1932
1934	McConnell, Wallace R.	Living Across the Seas	Rand McNally and Co.	1934
	McConnell, Wallace R.	Living in the Americas	Rand McNally and Co.	1934
1929	McConnell, Wallace R.	United States in the Modern World	Rand McNally and Co.	1934
	Smith, Joseph R.	Foreign Lands and Peoples	John C. Winston Co.	1933
1940	*Smith, Joseph R.	Human Use Geography	John C. Winston Co.	1936
	Smith, Joseph R.	World Folks	John C. Winston Co.	1930
1932	Stull, De Forest, and Hatch, Roy W.	Journeys Through Many Lands	Allyn and Bacon	1934
1927	Stull, De Forest, and Hatch, Roy W.	Our World Today	Allyn and Bacon	1931
<i>Junior High School</i>				
1930	Atwood, Wallace W.	The World at Work	Ginn and Co.	1931
1936	Barrows, Harlan H.; Parker, Edith P.; and Parker, Margaret T.	Southern Lands	Silver, Burdett and Co.	1936
1935	Brigham, Albert P., and McFarlane, Charles T.	Essentials of Geography	American Book Co.	1925
1936	Brigham, Albert P., and McFarlane, Charles T.	How the World Lives and Works	American Book Co.	1934
1931	Huntington, Ellsworth; Benson, Charles B.; and McMurry, Frank M.	Living Geography	Macmillan Co.	1932
1934	McConnell, Wallace R.	United States in the Modern World	Rand McNally and Co.	1934
1933	Packard, Leonard O., and Sinnott, Charles P.	Nations as Neighbors	Macmillan Co.	1935
1928	*Smith, Joseph R.	Human Use Geography	John C. Winston Co.	1936
1931	Smith, Joseph R.	Our Industrial World	John C. Winston Co.	1934
1931 1936	*Stull, De Forest, and Hatch, Roy W.	Our World Today	Allyn and Bacon	1931

* In the case of more than one edition of the same publication the date will identify the latest edition.

TABLE 31.—TEXTS REPORTED TO BE MOST FREQUENTLY USED IN CIVICS AND GOVERNMENT COURSES

Year*	Author	Title	Publisher	Year*
<i>Junior High School</i>				
1929	Arnold, Joseph I.	Cooperative Citizenship	Row, Peterson and Co.	1933
1928-30	Capen, Louise I., and Melchior, D. Montfort.	My Worth to the World	American Book Co.	1934
1928	*Edmonson, James B., and Dondineau, Arthur C.	Citizenship and Occupations through Problems	Macmillan Co.	1931
	Hill, Howard C.	Community and Vocational Civics	Ginn and Co.	1928
1930	Hill, Howard C.	Community Life and Civic Problems	Ginn and Co.	1922
	Hill, Howard C.	Life and Work of the Citizen	Ginn and Co.	1935
1930	*Hughes, Ray O.	Building Citizenship	Allyn and Bacon	1933
	Hughes, Ray O.	Civic Training	Allyn and Bacon	1933
1936	Hughes, Ray O.	Community Civics	Allyn and Bacon	1927
	Hughes, Ray O.	Economic Citizenship	Allyn and Bacon	1933
1936	Smith, Henry L.; Davies, Sheldon E.; and McClure, Clarence H.	Government in the United States	Laidlaw Brothers	1928
<i>Senior High School</i>				
1933	Garner, James W., and Capen, Louise I.	Our Government	American Book Co.	1930
1925	Kinneman, John A.; Brown, Richard G.; and Ellwood, Robert S.	American Citizen	Harper and Brothers	1936
1934	Lapp, John A., and Weaver, Robert B.	Citizen and His Government	Silver, Burdett and Co.	1935
1933	*Magruder, Frank A.	American Government	Allyn and Bacon	1932
1933	Magruder, Frank A.	National Governments and International Relations	Allyn and Bacon	1929
1932	Munro, William B.	Government of the United States	Macmillan Co.	1936
	Munro, William B.	Social Civics	Macmillan Co.	1931

* In the case of more than one edition of the same publication the date will identify the latest edition.

TABLE 32.—TEXTS REPORTED TO BE MOST FREQUENTLY USED IN ECONOMICS COURSES

Author	Title	Publisher	Year*
<i>Senior High School</i>			
Corbett, James F., and Herschowitz, Minnie L.	Modern Economics	Macmillan Co.	1935
Fay, Charles R.	Elements of Economics	Macmillan Co.	1932
Janzen, Cornelius C., and Stephanson, Orlando W.	Everyday Problems in Economics	Silver, Burdett and Co.	1935
Klein, Jacob, and Colvin, Woolf	Economic Problems of Today	Lyons and Carnahan	1934
Smith, Augustus H.	Economics	McGraw-Hill Book Co.	1936
Tugwell, Rexford G., and Hill, Howard C.	Our Economic Society and Its Problems.	Harcourt, Brace and Co.	1934

* In the case of more than one edition of the same publication the date will identify the latest edition.

TABLE 33.—MISCELLANEOUS TEXTS REPORTED TO BE MOST FREQUENTLY USED IN SOCIAL SCIENCE COURSES SUCH AS SOCIOLOGY, SOCIAL PROBLEMS, PROBLEMS OF DEMOCRACY

Author	Title	Publisher	Year*
<i>Elementary</i>			
Rugg, Harold O., and Krueger, Louise.	Building of America	Ginn and Co.	1936
<i>Junior High School</i>			
King, Clyde L., and Barnard, James L.	Our Community Life	John C. Winston Co.	1929
Marshall, Leon C.	Story of Human Progress	Macmillan Co.	1928
Rugg, Harold O.	Man and His Changing Society; Rugg Social Science Series, Junior High School Course.	Ginn and Co.	1929-33
*Rugg, Harold O.	Introduction to American Civilization	Ginn and Co.	1929
Rugg, Harold O.	Changing Civilizations in the Modern World.	Ginn and Co.	1930
Rugg, Harold O.	History of American Civilization	Ginn and Co.	1930
*Rugg, Harold O.	History of American Government and Culture.	Ginn and Co.	1931
Rugg, Harold O.	Introduction to Problems of American Culture.	Ginn and Co.	1931
Rugg, Harold O.	Changing Governments and Changing Cultures.	Ginn and Co.	1937
<i>Senior High School</i>			
Eldridge, Seba, and Clark, Carroll De Witt.	Major Problems of Democracy	Century Co.	1928
Elliott, Mabel A., and others.	Our Dynamic Society	Harper and Brothers	1935
Ellwood, Charles A.	Social Problems and Sociology	American Book Co.	1935
*Gavian, Ruth M.; Gray, Arthur A.; and Groves, Ernest R.	Our Changing Social Order	D. C. Heath and Co.	1934
Greeman, John T., and Meredith, Albert B.	Everyday Problems of American Democracy.	Houghton Mifflin Co.	1936
Hughes, Ray O.	Making of Today's World	Allyn and Bacon	1935
Hughes, Ray O.	Problems of American Democracy	Allyn and Bacon	1928
Towne, Ezra T.	Social Problems	Macmillan Co.	1931
Williamson, Thames R., and Wesley, Edgar B.	Principles of Social Science	D. C. Heath and Co.	1932

* In the case of more than one edition of the same publication the date will identify the latest edition.

TABLE 34.—SUPPLEMENTARY BOOKS MOST FREQUENTLY USED BY PUPILS
IN SOCIAL STUDIES COURSES

Year*	Author	Title	Publisher	Year*
<i>Elementary Pupils</i>				
1935	Allen, Nellie B.	Geographical and Industrial Studies (J).	Ginn and Co.	1916-25
1932	*Carpenter, Frances	New Geographical Readers (J)	American Book Co.	1921-24
1935	Carpenter, Frank G.	Around the World with the Children	American Book Co.	1917
1934	Clark, Marion G., and Gordy, Wilbur F.	Westward Toward America	Charles Scribner's Sons	1936
1936	Davis, William S.	Day in Old Athens	Allyn and Bacon	1914
1934	Hillyer, Virgil M.	Child's Geography of the World	Century Co.	1929
	*Hillyer, Virgil M.	Child's History of the World	Century Co.	1931
	Nida, William L., and Webb, Victor L.	Our Country Past and Present (J)	Scott, Foresman and Co.	1930
	Petersham, Maud, and Petersham, Miska.	Petersham Series	John C. Winston Co.	1933-36
		Uncle Ben Books	American Education Press	1930-32
		*Unit Study Booklets (S)	American Education Press	1932-34
	Wheeler, William H., and Holmes, Burton.	Burton Holmes Travel Stories	Wheeler Publishing Co.	1925
<i>Junior High-School Pupils</i>				
	Carpenter, Frances	New Geographical Readers (E)	American Book Co.	1921-24
	*Casner, Mabel B., and Gabriel, Ralph H.	Exploring American History	Harcourt, Brace and Co.	1935
	Edmonson, James B., and Dondineau, Arthur.	Citizenship and Occupations through Problems	Macmillan Co.	1931
	*Gabriel, R. Henry	Pageant of America (S)	Yale University Press	1925-27
	Haskin, Frederic J.	American Government	Grosset and Dunlap	1930
	Hill, Howard C.	Readings in Community Life (S)	Ginn and Co.	1930
	Hill, Howard C.	Community Life and Civic Problems	Ginn and Co.	1922
1936	Huntington, Ellsworth; Benson, Charles B.; and McMurry, Frank M.	Living Geography	Macmillan Co.	1932
	Marshall, Leon C.	Story of Human Progress	Macmillan Co.	1928
	Rugg, Harold O.	An Introduction to American Civilization	Ginn and Co.	1929
1929	Rugg, Harold O.	Man and His Changing Society: Rugg Social Science Series, Junior High School Course	Ginn and Co.	1929-33
1928	Stull, De Forest, and Hatch, Roy W.	Our World Today (E)	Allyn and Bacon	1931
1933	Tryon, Rolla M.; Lingley, Charles R.; and Morehouse, Frances M. I.	American Nation Yesterday and Today	Ginn and Co.	1930
1929	Van Loon, Hendrik W.	Story of Mankind (E-S)	Garden City Publishing Co.	1931
1930	Vannest, Charles G., and Smith, Henry L.	Socialized History of the United States	Charles Scribner's Sons	1934
1931	West, Ruth, and West, Willis M.	Story of Our Country	Allyn and Bacon	1930
<i>Senior High-School Pupils</i>				
1937	Adams, James T.	Epic of America	Blue Ribbon Books	1936
	Adams, James T., and Vannest, Charles G.	Record of America	Charles Scribner's Sons	1935
	*Bassett, John S.	A Short History of the United States	Macmillan Co.	1929
	Beard, Charles A., and Beard, Mary	Rise of American Civilization	Macmillan Co.	1933
	Bidwell, Percy W.	American Primers	University of Chicago Press	1935
1928	Breasted, James H.	Ancient Times	Ginn and Co.	1935
1935	Channing, Edward	History of the United States	Macmillan Co.	1927-30
1935	Dorf, Philip	Visualized History Series	Oxford Book Co.	1933-37
1934	Elson, Henry W.	History of the United States of America (J)	Macmillan Co.	1937
1936	Elson, Henry W.	Sidelights on American History (J)	Macmillan Co.	1928
	Faulkner, Harold U., and Kepner, Tyler.	America: Its History and People	Harper and Brothers	1934
1935	Hart, Albert B., and Curtis, John G.	American History Told by Contemporaries	Macmillan Co.	1911-29
1928	Johnson, Allen	Chronicles of America	Yale University Press	1921
1932	Magruder, Frank A.	American Government (J)	Allyn and Bacon	1932
	Muzzey, David S.	Readings in American History	Ginn and Co.	1921
	Pan American Union	American Nation Series	The Union	1928-32
	President's Research Committee on Social Trends	Recent Social Trends in the United States	McGraw-Hill Book Co.	1934
	Robinson, James H., and Beard, Charles A.	Readings in Modern European History	Ginn and Co.	1908-09
	Towne, Ezra T.	Social Problems	Macmillan Co.	1931

* In the case of more than one edition of the same publication the date will identify the latest edition.

* It has been assumed that teachers mentioning *American Nation* referred to this series since it is the only one of recent date. However, Albert B. Hart is editor of a series called *American Nation*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1904-1908, 28 vols.

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National Education Association of the United States
1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D. C.

SOCIAL STUDIES SURVEY

November 1936

Explanation—This inquiry form is being sent to classroom teachers who can report on current practises in social studies instruction, and who may be willing to suggest improvements in existing programs. The final tabulation will be of value to other teachers to the extent that you give accurate facts and, where requested, your best judgment. *You may be sure that replies will be reported so that neither you nor your school system can be identified.* Mail your reply directly to the National Education Association, Research Division, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C. There is no objection to showing this report to administrative officers, but the inquiry has been planned to obtain information on the social studies from the point of view of classroom teachers.

The inquiry is concerned primarily with the instructional aspects of the topics and the courses ordinarily designated as history, geography, economics, current events, sociology, social problems, problems of American democracy, and general social studies.

Name of teacher replying..... Name of school.....
City..... State.....

I. School and Community Background

1. Grades in the school to which you are assigned: (Circle as necessary)
K 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
2. Grade in which you do most of your teaching:
3. Social studies courses or topics which you teach:
.....
.....
4. Predominant character of the AREA from which the pupils in the school come:
(Check one)
Factory..... Business..... Rural..... Residential..... Other (name it).....
5. What economic level *predominates* among the parents of the pupils? (Check one)
Well off..... Comfortable circumstances..... Poor.....
6. What is the *predominant* race or nationality of the parents of the pupils? (Check one)
White American..... French..... Mexican.....
Negro..... German..... Other (name it).....
English..... Italian.....
7. On social questions, do you consider the parents predominantly: reactionary.....; conservative.....;
liberal.....; or radical.....? (Check one)
8. On social questions, do you consider yourself predominantly: reactionary.....; conservative.....;
liberal.....; or radical.....? (Check one)

(1)

II. General Objectives of Social Studies

In column (2) below are listed the major objectives of social studies instruction essentially as they are set forth in the 1936 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. You are asked to give your best judgment as to their importance and as to how successfully they are being attained.

First, in column (1) use the figures 1 (great importance), 2 (secondary importance), and 3 (little importance) to show which objectives should receive major attention at the school level where you are now assigned.

Second, opposite each statement put a check mark in one of the spaces on the scale (column 3) to indicate the degree to which you believe the social studies courses in your school meet that objective.

(1) Importance	(2) Objectives	(3) Scale			
		In large measure	Adequately	To a limited degree	Not at all
(.....)	To give pupils the truest and most realistic knowledge that is possible of the community, state, nation, and world—the social and physical setting—in which they live.				
		(Check one)			
(.....)	To prepare pupils for promoting a wiser and more effective cooperation among regions, areas, individuals, groups, communities, states, and nations—a cooperation interracial, interreligious, and intereconomic.				
		(Check one)			
(.....)	To develop character by giving pupils a love of truth, an appreciation of the beautiful, a bent toward the good, and a desire and will to use knowledge for beneficent social ends.				
		(Check one)			
(.....)	To train in the intellectual processes indispensable to the functioning of society, such as: skill in locating sources of information on social questions, skill in using these sources, skill in exploring and stating both sides of controversial questions, skill in selecting and verifying information, and skill in discussing social problems.				
		(Check one)			
(.....)	To give pupils knowledge of historical, geographical, social, political, and economic facts which may be of importance to them in later life.				
		(Check one)			

III. Possible Areas for Increased Emphasis

The 1936 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence listed sixteen areas as being treated inadequately today in most schools and suggested that greater emphasis on these phases would increase the direct usefulness of the social studies to young American citizens. Please be sure that each of the sixteen areas is either crossed out or rated as the directions below suggest. Some of the items are printed on page 3.

First, draw a line thru the topics which you believe are treated *adequately* in the social studies instruction of your school.

Second, consider the areas *not adequately* taught and show the order in which they should receive additional emphasis at your school level by marking each either 1 (great importance), 2 (secondary importance), or 3 (little importance).

	Rating
1. Problems of metropolitan government:.....	(.....)
Concrete information and critical attitudes concerning overlapping agencies and functions of municipal, county, and state governments.	
2. Nature of government:.....	(.....)
Insight into the real workings of politics, the nature and function of the state, the basic elements of our democratic theory, and the broader phases of political theory.	
3. Activities of the national government:.....	(.....)
The relation of state and federal agencies; the relation of the branches of government to each other; trends toward new governmental functions (public welfare, etc.).	
4. International relations:.....	(.....)
Material about the areas near home (Canada, Mexico, South America, Pacific, etc.), the methods of international politics, foreign policies, and international needs of nations.	
5. Relation of industry and government:.....	(.....)
Economic activities of modern peoples and the political agencies of modern states; relations between them.	

(2)

Rating

6. Taxation and public finance:.....
Types of taxes; public agencies with tax powers; purposes and uses of public revenues; principles underlying sound tax systems. (.....)
7. Investment and personal finance:.....
Possibilities and dangers of savings, insurance, and investment; governmental safeguards of banking and investment; redirection of thrift education. (.....)
8. Consumer education:.....
Problems and possibilities as to the purchasing of goods; evaluation of sales information and advertising; direct evaluation of articles commonly bought. (.....)
9. Formation of public opinion:.....
Activities of energetic minorities, of pressure groups, of lobbyists; the influence of radio and press. (.....)
10. Community analysis:.....
Economic and sociological aspects of community life; local and direct studies of housing conditions, of economic groupings, of club and lodge memberships, of recreational activities, etc. (.....)
11. Personal analysis:.....
Personal inventory of health attributes, social traits, cultural possibilities, limitations, and achievements. (.....)
12. Vocational analysis and information:.....
The relationship between the pupil's analysis of himself and the economic structure of his state and community. (.....)
13. Social effects of the rise of science:.....
Fundamental alteration in patterns of thinking and acting resulting from the rise of the natural sciences and the application of science to the common things of life. (.....)
14. The school as a social institution:.....
Past and present development, purposes, problems, and achievements of public education. (.....)
15. Facilities of social intercourse:.....
More direct study of the personal qualities which facilitate cooperation between individuals; a study of types of group cooperation; an examination of individuals and agencies in existing cooperative enterprises. (.....)
16. Adult education:.....
Information about the possibilities and purposes of part-time vocational training, night schools, public forums, youth programs, community centers, public libraries, and other agencies. (.....)

IV. Courses of Study in Social Studies

1. What are the *predominant characteristics* of the course of study bulletin in one of the courses, areas, or topics which you are now teaching? Write the name of the course or topic here:.....
Check in the spaces below to show your preferences with regard to each characteristic.

*Predominant
nature of
present course*

*Your
preference*

- | | | | |
|--|-------------|--|-------------|
| (a) <i>Requirements:</i> | | | |
| (1) Rigid prescription of subjectmatter to be taught..... | (Check one) | | (Check one) |
| (2) Minimum or core content prescribed; freedom beyond this..... | | | |
| (3) General areas stated—specific topics and details left largely to teacher..... | | | |
| (b) <i>General plan of bulletin:</i> | | | |
| (1) Brief list of topics and pages in textbook..... | (Check one) | | (Check one) |
| (2) Summary of information, objectives, and sources..... | | | |
| (3) Elaborate treatment of information, objectives, sources, methods, tests, and references..... | (Check one) | | (Check one) |
| (c) <i>Specific form of bulletin:</i> | | | |
| (1) Topical outline..... | | | |
| (2) Detailed narrative and description..... | (Check one) | | (Check one) |
| (3) Questions and answers..... | | | |
| (4) Problems..... | (Check one) | | (Check one) |
| (5) Projects, units, or activities..... | | | |
| (d) <i>Emphasis:</i> | | | |
| (1) Social (or group) interests..... | | | |
| (2) Pupil (or individual) interests..... | (Check one) | | (Check one) |
| (3) About equally—social and pupil interests..... | | | |
| (4) Subjectmatter..... | | | |

(3)

V. Methods and Aids in Teaching

1. Which one of the following *best describes your technic* in instruction? (Check one)

a. Textbook-recitation.....	d. Group activity (conferences, committees, library-reading, etc.).....
b. Socialized recitation.....	e. Other (name it).....
c. Individualized units.....	

2. Which one of the following technics *would you prefer to use* if conditions permitted? (Check one)

a. Textbook-recitation.....	d. Group activity (conferences, committees, library-reading, etc.).....
b. Socialized recitation.....	e. Other (name it).....
c. Individualized units.....	

3. Which of the following supplementary sources do you use often and regularly? (Check as necessary)

a. Newspapers.....	d. State government publications.....
b. Magazines.....	e. Other (name it).....
c. Federal government publications.....	f. Other (name it).....

4. With which of the following local agencies do you make *regular and systematic* contacts in your social studies instruction? (Check and write in as necessary)

a. Police department.....	f. Factories and business.....
b. Fire department.....	g. Courts.....
c. Local government.....	h. Penal institution.....
d. Health department.....	i. Welfare societies.....
e. Public libraries.....	j. Other (name it).....

5. If you make little or no use of outside agencies (such as those listed in 4) check below the *chief* reason. (Check one)

a. My doubt as to their usefulness in social studies instruction.....	d. Lack of time in school schedule.....
b. Disapproval by administrative and supervisory officers.....	e. Disapproval by public and parents.....
c. Unwillingness of these agencies to cooperate.....	f. Other reason (name it).....

6. List the *textbooks* which you find most helpful in teaching the social studies to which you are assigned. (Please give exact titles and authors)

7. List the *supplementary* books, pamphlets, and magazines which you find most helpful to you as a teacher (see next item for materials *useful to pupils*). (Please give exact titles and authors)

8. List the *supplementary* books, pamphlets, and magazines which you have found to be *most helpful to pupils*.
(Please give exact titles and authors)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

9. List the *standard tests* which you have found to be most helpful in evaluating your teaching of the social studies.
(Please give exact name)

.....
.....
.....

10. What are your greatest needs as a teacher of the social studies? (Check and write in the changes which would help you most to do better teaching)

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. More advice from principal | 9. Longer class periods |
| 2. More guidance from supervisors | 10. Opportunity to visit classrooms to observe teachers at work |
| 3. More modern textbooks—greater detail, more up-to-date, more on social problems | 11. More auditory and visual aids |
| 4. More supplementary reference books | 12. More magazines |
| 5. Opportunity to take class on excursions and trips | 13. More newspapers |
| 6. Freedom from present course of study requirements | 14. More bulletins and leaflets dealing with current social problems |
| 7. More definitely formulated courses of study | 15. Other need (name it) |
| 8. Smaller classes | |

VI. Teaching of Controversial Issues

1. List three controversial issues which must be *avoided entirely* in your social studies teaching. (Please be specific)

a.
.....
.....
b.
.....
.....
c.
.....
.....

2. Select the ONE controversial issue in (1) above which you believe would be of the highest instructional value. Indicate the one selected by placing (a), (b), or (c) in this space (.....). Indicate below the *primary* reason for excluding it from your classroom.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| a. Disapproved by parents | f. Fear of outside pressure groups |
| b. Forbidden by law | g. Lack of maturity of pupils |
| c. Forbidden by schoolboard | h. Other reason (name it) |
| d. Forbidden by superintendent | |
| e. Forbidden by principal | |

(5)

- (Check one) Yes..... No.....

There are three direct ways in which social processes may be studied by pupils:

- (6)

NOTE: Items continued on page 8.

Community phases or topics which may be studied

Check items
which belong
at your
school level

Check items
receiving
first-hand
study thru
your teaching

1

2

A. Physical environment:

1. Local geography.....
2. Natural resources.....
3. Climate.....
4. Topography.....

B. Historical background:

1. Early settlement.....
2. Growth:
 - (a) Population trends.....
 - (b) Industrial development.....
3. Participation of community in larger history of county, state, or country.....
4. Special events.....

C. Population:

1. Age and sex distribution.....
2. Races and nationalities.....
3. Literacy.....
4. Birth and death rates.....
5. Occupations.....
6. Labor conditions (hours, unions, welfare, etc.).....
7. Transients and unemployed.....
8. Standards of living (wealth, income, etc.).....
9. Political alignments.....
10. Marriages and divorces.....
11. Size of families.....
12. Mobility of families.....
13. Religious affiliations.....

D. Community organization and control:

1. Governmental structure:

- (a) Executive and administrative officers.....
- (b) Legislative body.....
- (c) Courts.....

2. Finances:

- (a) Wealth and income.....
- (b) Taxation.....
- (c) Budget.....
- (d) Expenditures.....
- (e) Indebtedness.....
- (f) Records.....

3. Services:

- (a) Schools.....
- (b) Colleges.....
- (c) Libraries.....
- (d) Fire protection.....
- (e) Police protection.....
- (f) Sewerage control.....
- (g) Relief (poor, aged, etc.).....
- (h) Traffic and streets.....
- (i) Sanitation and health.....
- (j) Zoning and housing.....
- (k) Water.....
- (l) Electric light and power.....
- (m) Gas.....
- (n) Transportation (buses, cars, etc.).....
- (o) Communication (postoffice, telephone, etc.).....

(7)

Community phases or topics which may be studied	Check items which belong at your school level	Check items receiving first-hand study thru your teaching
	1	2
E. The community's economic and industrial environment:		
1. Agriculture.....		
2. Manufacturing.....		
3. Banking.....		
4. Wholesale and retail trade.....		
5. Mining.....		
6. Shipping.....		
7. Crafts and arts.....		
F. Supplementary cultural influences and activities:		
1. Art galleries.....		
2. Museums.....		
3. Music centers.....		
4. Community centers and forums.....		
5. Churches and religious agencies.....		
6. Newspapers and magazines.....		
G. Conclusions:		
1. Evidences of social problems.....		
2. Next steps in improving the community.....		
3. Evidences of cultural and social growth.....		
4. Characteristics of an ideal community.....		

VIII. Comment

1. What type of help would you and other social studies teachers like to have from national teachers associations? (Comment briefly)

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