AN ANALYSIS OF SCHOLARS' CRITICISMS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

Thesis for the Degree of M. A.
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

Nicholas J. Labedz

1957

AN ANALYSIS OF SCHOLARS' CRITICISMS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

By

Nicholas J. Labedz

A THESIS

Submitted to the College of Education of Michigan State University of Agriculture and Applied Science in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

College of Education

1957

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The author sincerely thanks Dr. John Hanson for his advice and the patient assistance rendered in preparing this manuscript.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Statement of the Problem

Criticisms of the theories of public education and the development of these theories in the school curriculum have gained nationwide recognition in newspapers, popular magazines, educational journals and everyday conversation. Professors of education, scholars, laymen, professional and businessmen possess some idea as to what education is or what it should be. Their varying, and often conflicting viewpoints usually reflect the educational training and attitudes which their reference groups advance. The analysis of criticisms included in this study will demonstrate how an individual's educational training and the educational attitudes advanced by his colleagues may affect his determination of what the purposes of education should be.

Scope and Limitations

Because of the complications which would arise if an attempt were made to analyze the criticisms of all groups and all the areas of education which have been criticized, this paper will lend itself to an analysis of those criticisms advanced by scholars from 1949-56. Replies of professors of Education will follow. Scholars' criticisms directed at the field of Education will receive considerable attention, since

they believe that professional educators are primarily responsible for current educational shortcomings. Following this consideration, attention will be directed to criticisms of selected educational theories, concepts and methods propounded by schools of education. Finally, an application of such theories and methods will be applied to a junion high school program and will be followed by criticisms or justifications for their implementation by scholars or professional educators. Related areas of education will be considered only if they clarify the subject under discussion.

The selection of the scholar as the critic for study narrows the problem to convenient proportions and permits a study of criticisms made by men representing the arts and sciences upon which the major portion of the school curriculum is based and from whom teachers acquire specialized training in the subject matter fields. Their criticisms of the development of their field of specialization is important for they are perhaps better qualified than anyone to determine whether a high school graduate is equipped with the basic skills required for advanced study in the fields they represent. Significant critics also include many influential college graduates who represent a specific field of thinking because of their training. They may also occupy key positions in the community as members of boards of education, as professional persons or as leaders to whom laymen look for direction.

Importance of the Problem to the Investigator

Some idea as to the increased criticisms of public education within the past decade may be obtained from a summary of entries in the Education Index under the heading of "Public Schools--Criticism" for the period 1942-52, inclusive. The heading of criticisms was introduced in the Index in 1942 which suggests that considerable attention was attracted to this area. The number of entries from 1942 to 1954 is as follows in Table I.

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATIONAL CRITICISMS OVER THE PERIOD, 1942-1954*

1942 - 3	1948 - 8
1943 - 5	1949 - 13
1944 - 8	1950 - 12
1945 - 7	1951 - 35
1946 - 6	1952 - 49
1947 - 10	1953 - 24
	1954 - 43

*Source: W. C. Scott and C. Hill, Public Education Under Criticism, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1955. p. 3.

These figures also include the reactions to criticisms by professional educators. It is interesting to note that after the publication of Educational Wastelands, written in 1953 by Arthur Bestor, one of the scholars included in this study, a major portion of educational replies covered in the

Index are directed to Dr. Bestor. Certainly the increased criticisms and reactions of educators at this time are significant and a study of the scholar is justified.

Criticism of education should be desired when the criticisms are directed toward the improvement or betterment of education. The ability to recognize sound criticisms of education and the concomitant ability to advance plausible answers to these criticisms is a test of the competent educator.

In such a study, which is both empirical and theoretical in nature, explanations will be provided in answer to the various criticisms directed toward the types and content of public school curricula. Too often, educators are overly complacent with their theories of education and it is fortunate that they are called upon to examine their theories when critics voice their opinions. Any educator should possess the facility to answer general criticisms and support his own claims with reliable evidence. As a member of the profession, it is my intention to equip myself with tools of analysis and empirical data as a result of this study.

Definition of Terms Used

Criticism - A criticism is a reflection or expression of personal thought directed toward a specific issue. The opinion or remarks of a critic usually are interpreted in light of his values or standards.

His remarks may express merits or a lack of them concerning the topic under discussion.

Professional Educator - The expression "professors of education" refers to members of departments of education in teacher training institutions. People in this category are sometimes referred to as "teachers of teachers" and concern themselves with pedagogical problems.

Scholars - We can define the scholar as a member of a society of men learned in humanities or sciences and bonded together to promote the advancement of their special interests. Most of the scholars cited in this study are associated with some higher institution of learning.

Other terms requiring clarification are handled as they appear in context and will be defined relative to the topic under discussion.

Design of Study

Such areas or programs of education as teacher education, school administration, school curriculum, educational philosophy and methods are popular areas for criticism. A number of possible approaches to handling such criticisms exist, such as:

(1) One critic for study could be selected. This approach would solve the problems of determining which

criticisms to cover and would avoid the issue as to which criticisms and answers are "characteristic" of scholars and educators. Arthur Bestor is one of the more prominent critics of most every phase of education. His criticisms range from the education of students in the primary grades to the inadequacies of the professional educators at the college level. The drawbacks which exist in studying one critic are the limitations in analysis of criticisms and the restriction of many scholar's viewpoints to one man's views. Such an approach merely affords explanations to specific arguments of one individual and does not account for areas that may have been omitted which many scholars may deem as highly important. Unless a critic's comments are highly typical of other scholars in his field, the selection of a single individual is not very valid when considering the criticisms of scholars in general.

(2) Comments reflecting similar viewpoints which recur among most scholars could be synthesized and presented as "typical" criticisms. A series of similar answers by various professional educators could be consolidated to determine relatively common viewpoints. The method of selecting answers would follow the same pattern employed in selecting criticisms. After recurrent criticisms have been synthesized, they will be related to curriculum practices. Statements of scholars and professional educators will be injected at points where they would seem to be most applicable.

This procedure would exemplify the relationship of criticisms to actual educational methodology.

It is this second approach which will be followed in this dissertation.

CHAPTER II

APPROACHES OF CRITICS

Too many educators believe that the array of attacks directed against public education originate from biased, misinformed or subversive sources. The range of answers provided by educators runs a wide gamut of reactions. Insufficient funds for school operation, lack of qualified personnel or a disinterested society are but a few of the replies they offer to attacks on educational practice.

Many of the criticisms presented are not definite attempts to conspire against the educational systems. In their investigations of educational criticisms, educational researchers Scott and Hill state that numerous attacks are honest and sincere and that "most of the criticisms, not all of them by any means, are honest and they are made by honest, high-minded, well-intentioned, if often misinformed or uninformed people. They come largely from friends of public education."[1]

These authors further postulate that the "contemporary wave of criticisms is an expression of deep-seated, abiding faith in public education."[2] They elaborate on the unbounded

---

[1] W. C. Scott and C. Hill, Public Education Under Criticism, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955, p. 5.

[2] Ibid.

faith of the American public in education and its influence in correcting and resolving "world ills and of creating and perpetuating the kind of society we hope to develop."[1]

Even though a large percentage of the critics may be sincere in their reactions of educational practices, they knowingly or unknowingly are guilty of employing a multitude of slanted techniques in expressing their varying opinions.

On the other hand, many scholars feel that educators have failed to recognize and justly evaluate criticisms. One professional educator states that many professors of education have been "antagonistic and unresponsive"[2] to fair criticism. He further states that "we interpret many honest criticisms as attacks. By failing to consider or clarify the complaints of honest critics we have alienated the support of many individuals and groups who have a genuine interest in education."[3] Such reactions suggest that other approaches toward resolving educational conflicts may be more rewarding than constant arrogant reactions.

In spite of the fact that a genuine interest by some critics of education may exist, educators should become aware of the various techniques employed in condemning their field of specialization. Therefore, an examination of the validity of criticisms is required so that the educator can

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] E. O. Melby and P. Morton, Freedom and Public Education, New York: Frederick A. Praeiger, Inc., 1953, p. 258.

[3] Ibid.

distinguish attacks which are genuine and sincere from those which are based on petty prejudices, rabble rousing or a sense of emotional appeal.

Expressions of personal prejudice are commonly displayed through the use of loaded words. Trow cites common examples of "loaded value words" which the reader often encounters. Such loaded words as "trivia, preposterous, inanity, nonsense, monstrosity, charlatan, sterile, vicious, wasted, unthinkable, hodgepodge, ineffectual and unfounded"[1] are but a few examples. Popular cliches, metaphors, analogies and deductions are often incorporated by critics when they aid in expressing their personal prejudices.

Another frequent form of distortion is misrepresentation through the use of selective quotations. In such a situation, critics tend to select statements which appear to confirm their assumptions leaving the reader with doubt as to the authenticity of their position. Such selectivity of excerpted material and the omission of supporting data presents a one-sided picture and does not express the intended views of the quoted author. Trow aptly describes this technique as "misrepresentation due to inexcusable neglect of pertinent evidence."[2]

---

[1] William C. Trow, "Professional Education and the Disciplines: An Open Letter to Professor Bestor," Scientific Monthly, LVII (March, 1953), p. 149.

[2] Ibid., p. 137.

There is a widespread belief that much of the contemporary wave of educational criticisms is an expression of general social unrest. Kennan believes that "these are groups that have become frightened and obsessed by the present general condition of threat and fear and uncertainty. They [critics] use the schools as a scapegoat and seem hopefully to expect to find a communist under every teacher's desk."[1] Educational criticisms tend to appeal especially to those who find ills in public education and seek comfort in the dogmatic statements made by critics.

Eloquent testimonies expounded by businessmen regarding the academic inadequacies which their subordinates, the college graduates, exemplify (e. g., poor English, inability to solve simple arithmetical problems, poor expression of thought, etc.) cause scholars to rise and defend their academic stand. The scholars in turn condemn the educational training provided by public schools, claiming that the teaching of such fundamentals is the business of the elementary and secondary schools. Such reactions coupled with any prejudices that scholars may possess, places public education in a vulnerable position.

The thousands of World War II inductees tested and found educationally unprepared to perform tasks which required only a primary education found the schools available

---

[1]Richard B. Kennan, "What Are They Calling You Today?" Childhood Education, XXVIII (October, 1951), pp. 53-56.

to serve as a perfect scapegoat for the shortcomings of the inductees. Thus, we often find that the manifestations of social disorders are partially alleviated when public education can be used as a scapegoat for displaced aggression.

The incorporation of the aforementioned techniques of educational criticism are only external manifestations which may provide some clues as to scholars' underlying motives regarding public education. Unfortunately, professors of education become obsessed with the idea that educational attacks must be squelched with superior counterattacks. Thus, professional educators too often attempt to provide "suitable" answers to specific issues and are led astray or avoid studying the actual cause of educational criticism. Why do scholars criticize? Such methods of resolving educational attacks only afford an understanding of the peripheral issues and limit a realization and analysis of the nucleus of the problem. Thus consideration should first be directed to an investigation of <u>why</u> scholars criticize.

One's definition of education can be readily discerned by synthesizing his purposes of education. The extent of disciplinary training which a profession imparts strongly influences both the fabrication of an individual's concepts and his application of such concepts to other academic areas. This is an exceedingly important fact to remember when analyzing and applying the views of those representing the sciences and humanities to the field of education. Most scholars who

criticize education represent the academic disciplines, e.g., arts, biological and physical sciences. The men representing these fields not only disagree with professors of education as to the purposes of education, but they refuse to accept education as a recognized science. Thus, those persons receiving training in such disciplines assimilate the expressed educational attitudes propounded by their group and tend to define education according to the dictates of their discipline.

With these ideas in mind, we can consider (1) the reason for failure to recognize education as a science, and (2) what ideas these men possess regarding the purposes of education. Both of the preceding considerations are an integral part in the scholar's development of the purposes of education.

Within the last half century, many of the "modern" or social sciences, e.g., anthropology, psychology, sociology, professional education, etc., received limited acceptance by scholars as legitimate subjects of college and university study. Only within the past few decades have most of the social sciences found their niche among the more "proven" disciplines. Education, as expressed by one scholar, "has rapidly assumed that it is the fair-haired child of American educational arrangements. First looked upon with some sentimental compassion, and perhaps also a little bit pampered he has not been received into the family university disciplines."[1]

---

[1]Mortimer Smith, Public Schools In Crisis, Chicago: Henry Regnery Co., 1956, pp. 53-54.

Advancement of the social sciences has been hastened by literary contributions of outstanding educators such as Conant, who states, "For our free society has more need, perhaps for an understanding of the fundamentals of human nature than any other. The empiricism of the past may be sufficient for the members of the police state, but a free people in this modern age requires as much assistance as possible from advances in the social sciences." He also adds "The types of problems where one can hope for help from the social psychologist involve human relations and those conflicts among individuals and groups which have been much intensified by the conditions of modern life. The people of the United States will be the beneficiaries of whatever advances can be made in the study of man as a social animal."[1]

In spite of the profusion of such acknowledgments of the social sciences as accepted fields of study, many scholars spurn such "sciences" and consider them to be inferior to their own discipline. In spite of their societal contributions they receive limited recognition or acceptance. Under such circumstances, scholars' critical convictions of public education are often intensified and a development of their ideas of education are reinforced by corresponding views advanced by their colleagues.

---

[1]James B. Conant, On Understanding Science, New York: New American Library, 1951, p. 243.

Education receives especially heavy criticism as it tends to impinge on most academic disciplines in developing its teacher preparatory curriculum. The field of education can be considered as one of the newest sciences having to contend with both the academic and social sciences for acceptance as a science.

At this point it is rather evident that scholars' opinions as to the purposes of education reflect their educational disciplining. Their views can be expected to coincide with the academic or disciplinary schools with which they identify themselves. Arthur Bestor, historian, author, and Professor of History at the University of Illinois, is perhaps the most outspoken critic of the field of education. He aptly illustrates the preceeding supposition by citing historical references in expressing his purposes of education:

> He (Thomas Jefferson) knew moreover what he meant by education. It is first of all, the opposite of ignorance. Its positive meaning is indicated by the synonyms which Jefferson employs in his letters. The kind of schooling that is vital to a democratic society is the kind that results in the "special information" and the "diffusion of knowledge" the kind that regards "science . . . (as) more important in a republic than in any other government"; the kind that recognizes that "the general mind must be strengthened by education"; the kind that aims to make the people "enlightened" and to "inform their discretion." These are the ends which the schools must serve if a free people is to remain free. These, be it noted, are intellectual ends. Genuine education, in short is intellectual training.[1]

---

[1]Arthur Bestor, Educational Wastelands, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1953, pp. 2-3.

Canon Bernard Bell, former professor at the University of Chicago and important assailant of educational complacency expresses a similar viewpoint:

> They [teachers] must foster a sense of identification with the tried and tested customs and attitudes of our forefathers. It is not the business of schoolmasters to teach their pupils what the pupils wish to learn, certainly not to let them behave as they desire but rather to impart to them wisdom distilled out of the race's long experience, that which the past has learned about what human beings ought to know and to do, and to persuade them that they like it.[1]

Rigid and well-defined patterns which have proven themselves through time and trial are apparently advocated by the disciplinarians. Numerous scholars believe that the underlying goal to be sought for is the establishment of intellectualism as a focal point in the construction of educational objectives. Bestor aptly explains this by declaring, "the purpose of public education today is what it has always been: to raise the intellectual level of the American people as a whole."[2] He directs his opinions specifically at the schools, stating: "The school makes itself ridiculous whenever it undertakes to deal directly with 'real-life' problems, instead of indirectly through the development of generalized intellectual powers."[3] Hutchins' notion of education is in

---

[1]Bernard I. Bell, Crises In Education, New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1949, pp. 31-32.

[2]Arthur Bestor, The Restoration of Learning, New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1955, p. 17.

[3]Bestor, Educational Wastelands, p. 63.

accord with Bestor's position when he declares "Men can live full and good lives only if they have been given the education to achieve their full intellectual powers, so that they act on reason and understanding rather than prejudice and emotion."[1] Lynd contends that the purposes of education are based on a broader continuum, but he still includes the intellectual concept, "I would grant a lot of ancillary functions, but I think the primary function of the school is to transmit the intellectual and cultural heritage and knowledge of the race, and in the process to teach young people to think, and how to buttress moral values."[2] (Italics mine.)

Bestor believes that intellectualism should serve as a framework for educational planning. He contends that schools can contribute toward the advancement of intellectualism by the incorporation of well-defined subject matter courses. He states:

> An indispensable function of education, at every level is to provide sound training in the fundamental ways of thinking represented by history, science, mathematics, literature, language, art, and the other disciplines evolved in the course of mankind's long quest for usable knowledge, cultural understanding and intellectual power. To advance moral conduct, responsible citizenship, and social adjustment is, of course, a vital function of education. But, like the other agencies which contribute to these ends, the school

---

[1]Robert Hutchins, "'Liberal' vs. 'Practical' Education--The Debate-of-the-Month," Public Education Under Criticism, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955, p. 56.

[2]Smith, op. cit., p. 6.

> must work within the context provided by its own characteristic activity. In other words, the particular contribution which the school can make is determined by, and related to, the primary fact that it is an agency of intellectual training.[1]

Bestor argues that a liberal education is the type of education which would meet the demands of scholars. He believes that "liberal education is designed to produce self-reliance. It expects a man or woman to use his general intelligence to solve particular problems."[2] Hutchins' views again coincide with Bestor's position when he explains that education should serve a more vital purpose than just training to make a living. He assumes educational training should be concerned ". . . with enabling the individual to live, with benefit to himself and his nation. Hence, a liberal education best equips the student to achieve the status of a free human being and a citizen."[3] At this point we can conclude that scholars believe that emphasis on intellectualism not only affords a sound educational program, but simultaneously accounts for the social development of the individual--all of which can be achieved via a liberal education.

What other forms of education exist that are spurned by scholars who advocate a liberal education for the enhancement of intellectualism? Botanist Fuller explicitly relates

---

[1]Bestor, The Restoration of Learning, p. 7.

[2]Ibid., p. 63.

[3]Hutchins, Public Education Under Criticism, p. 56.

the inadequacy of intellectualism in schools to professors of education who de-emphasize those academic subjects which constitute the core of the curricula of a liberal education. Fuller says, "What I am arguing for is the restoration of the humanities, the arts, and the sciences to their properly dominant position in our educational system and for the elimination from our schools of the silly fads, the tawdry tricks, the superficial subject matter, and the cheaply utilitarian educational philosophy forced upon them by some education professor."[1] Thus, it is rather evident that the underlying contention of scholars in criticizing public education is the deficiency of intellectualism in educational theory, which subsequently, is evident in educational methodology. But, professors of education were prepared to answer such questions with empirical evidence.

Carlos De Zafra coordinator of the General Education program in the school systems of Rochester, New York, compiled results of a study which concerned ten most significant trends in the content and organization of the junior high curriculum.[2] One of the tests in the experimental curriculumanalyzed the correlation and fusion of compatible subjects into a more meaningful experience for the pupils

---

[1]Harry J. Fuller, "The Emperor's New Clothes, or Prius Dementat," Public Education Under Criticism, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1955, p. 28.

[2]Carlos De Zafra, "General Education--Where It Stands Today," The Clearing House, XXVIII (March, 1954), p. 387.

than had been the case previously. The traditional subject fields were not discarded, but served as a valuable addition enabling students to satisfy personal needs and interests. Traditionally separate discipline courses such as history, economics, and American government were "fused" or combined to form a single course of study; the most common program existing today is entitled, "Social Studies."[1] Under such a program opportunities exist for the superior student to set goals in accordance with his abilities. Hence, such a course of study is more individualistic, meeting the different needs and demands of varying capabilities in a given classroom. Emphasis is not directed toward the acquisition of pure subject matter but is focused on the social as well as academic development of the individual. This type curriculum provides opportunities for a wide range of abilities.

Scholars react to such curricula by claiming that they lower academic standards and are directed toward goals of mediocrity. Without question, the introduction of an additional concept (social) impinges upon the time previously allotted to studying subject matter. Scholars further claim that such substitutions cause the curricula of public schools to become "watered down" with "fads and frills." Professors of education have replied by stating that "General education does say that 'scholarship for the sake of scholarship is

---

[1]Ibid.

unrealistic and drives young people away from school but also places a great premium both on relating the findings of scholarship to the daily lives of each pupil and on developing the pupil's skill to ferret out pertinent facts for himself."[1] Educators further have contended that ". . . evaluation studies indicate pupils in the core are making somewhat more educational progress than those in conventional courses."[2] Such testimonies of increased learning by the use of "core," modern methods or general educational curricula have been constantly provided by educators in defense of their pedagogical methods.

Opposing points of view regarding the extent of emphasis which should be placed upon subject matter or upon developing desirable social attitudes are largely determined by the value orientation which advocates of either viewpoint possesses. Thus value orientations and professional training of individuals are reflected in their opinions and choice. It would be virtually impossible to attempt an elaboration of curriculum construction at this point. In the following chapter a discussion of curriculum content of both schools will be considered and decisions can then be formulated.

Scholars attest that the intellectual shortcomings in the public school curricula are due to the lack of

---

[1] Ibid., p. 390.

[2] Ibid., p. 392.

intellectual training on part of the professors of education. Smith advances a notion which may epitomize the scholar's view concerning the conflict of the traditionalist-humanist versus the pragmatist. He states,

> The traditionalist-humanist asserts that men must be bound together by ties of moral stability and he considers that true education for all men will consist of studies that illumine and strengthen those ties. The educational pragmatist, on the other hand, lacking a belief in man's need for such a central moral stability, sees no necessity for a common education which will connect man with man and man with nature. But without this belief in a common bond between man and man, education tends to become mere animal training, with the educator occupying himself more and more in a search for refined method; the content of education--those studies appropriate to all men--tends to get submerged by the empirical and the practical by fragments of information and skills.[1]

The critic of public education often asserts that the implementation of pragmatism in educational methodology becomes so submerged with the "practical" that moral stability and other values responsible for the development of sound character are ignored.

Because of the array of responsibilities confronting educators which did not exist decades ago, teachers are unable to account for all academic prerequisites which scholars believe to be essential for the development of a well-rounded individual. Hence, aspects of the academic curriculum are extracted and used as a basis for illustrating how such knowledge may be utilized toward the development of sound,

---

[1]Mortimer Smith, The Diminished Mind, Chicago: Henry Regnery Co., 1954, p. 83.

acceptable values. Education directed toward critical thinking, a respect for moral ideals and the development of sound character are but a few of the virtuous objectives which teachers hope to instill in their students. The process involved in relating academic material to the development of such attitudes may assume a utilitarian appearance. What is especially interesting, is the extent (if any) of study by scholars to determine whether intellectual training could overcome all the shortcomings which they discover in educational methodology.

The change of emphasis from the traditional methods of learning skills to newer methods seems likewise to meet with disapproval from scholars. What is interesting about the preceding criticism is the argument against a shift (whether this is the actual intention of the pedagogues or not) of emphasis from content to method. Whether or not the methods of pedagogy enhance learning is not questioned in the aforementioned statement. Since the professional educators' research is characterized by a constant search for implementing skills in "practical ways," such criticisms of scholars are inevitable. Mort and Vincent claim, "No matter how their [scholars] own souls were chastened while they were in school, they view with suspicion, if not alarm, any departures from the practice they have known. They strongly incline toward associating changes in method with a lowering

of standards. At least they feel that change in method is basically a softening process."

Since the traditionalist-humanist values conflict with those of the progressive instrumentalists, educators can expect future surges of criticism from scholars. One professional educator describes the anti-intellectual position which education encounters when either advocating progressive techniques or when misinterpreted and treated as a cohort to anti-intellectualism. He also accounts for the deleting of intellectual values and attributes this to a societal failure because of the public's materialistic demands. He states:

> It is now common to insist that instrumentalism and progressive education are major factors in contemporary anti-intellectualism, considered as "the retreat of learning and reason." It is true that John Dewey showed the weakness in the old-fashioned mental discipline and emphasized problem-solving activities. But it is unfair to identify instrumentalism and progressive education with the current distrust of intellectual values. In the first place, there is little progressive education in the country. Second, much that is called progressive education is a shocking perversion of Dewey's teaching and example. In the third place, the criticisms overlook his emphasis on the great importance of critically reliving and reconstructing experience in terms of new situations. Dewey did not reject reason: he tried to improve reasoning. Nevertheless, many tenaciously hold that his theories have subtracted intellectual values from public school education. They fail to see that these have been deleted largely because of an expanding population and the vocationalism demanded by a business-minded people.[1]

---

[1] Merle Curti, "Intellectuals and Other People," The Education Digest, XX (March, 1955), pp. 7-10.

Insofar as the acceptance of the concept of intellectualism is concerned, Broudy states, "Intellectualism is not a theory or philosophy in itself; it is rather a degree of emphasis placed on the powers of the human intellect to achieve truth and happiness."[1] Many professors of education feel that intellectualism cannot be obtained solely by an accumulation of subject matter courses. Throughout their comments they state that intellectualism exists in various areas and can be brought to light by the use of methods which suit the demands of individuals. Mort and Vincent feel that "it is no disparagement of verbal intelligence to say that there are other equally important ways in which intelligence is expressed. There is social intelligence, mechanical intelligence, artistic intelligence and other expressions of intelligence which in varying degrees may be found highly developed in different individuals."[2] Scholars assert that the discipline should be related to the individual; they also assume that a liberal education can accomplish these goals. The professional educator believes in placing greater emphasis on relating personal interests and abilities in manipulating subject matter so that the optimum of individual success can be realized. Thus, what is important, is the recognition of intelligence in students and the manner in which it is developed.

---

[1]William Broudy, "Anti-Intellectualism," Educational Theory, IV (Fall, 1954), p. 187.

[2]Mort and Vincent, op. cit., p. 41.

Professors of education recognize intellectualism not as an entity to be dealt with separately but explain that intellectualism is manifested in various forms within the personality. Trow accounts for the incompleteness of the "intellectual training" attitude in asserting,

> The human brain is not separate from the rest of the organism. Teachers, and even college professors, have been a long time in realizing the significance of this truism. In spite of the academic concern for intellectual training, children persisted in bringing their bodies to school, and with them their interests and attitudes, their likes and dislikes, their ambitions, and their frustrations. Granted that the intellectual values are the ones the schools should emphasize, they are not developed in vacuo.[1]

Attention will be directed to the pedagogical position concerning the implementation of academic skills which scholars believe to be necessary for the development of intellectualism. Professors of education are apparently under the impression that traditionalists erroneously inculcate intellectualism into minds by assuming that practice will automatically follow precept; that if a principle is learned, it automatically applies. Russell states ". . . the ability to see the application in a new situation of a principle learned in another, is a rare ability; and once having recognized the application, to translate it into action is rarer still."[2] He concludes the pedagogical stand on intellectualism stating

---

[1]Trow, op. cit., p. 150.

[2]William Russell, How Good Are Our Schools? Twenty-First Annual John Adams Lecture at the University of California at Los Angeles, March 24, 1954, California: University of California Press, 1954, p. 13.

> There has been a shift from the traditional subjects and linguistic conceptions, concerned primarily with the intellect, to activities that are closely related to the cultural activities of the race! Apparently the cultural activities of the race are not closely related to traditional subjects concerned primarily with the intellect. You have there the Educationists' reason for freeing your child from intellectual burdens.[1]

Hence, the scholars believe that methods of the professional educators operate at the expense of the content of the discipline whereas professional educators believe the relation of the individual to content has priority over purely intellectual pursuit.

Aside from claims directed at the lack of intellectual training of the professors of education, scholars are especially concerned with the influence and eventual effects of professional educators upon their subordinates. Bestor charges professors of education with indoctrinating prospective educators with their own "particular philosophy of education."[2] The scholars also believe that those educational administrators who tend to uphold the doctrines of professors of education are lauded for their progressive outlook on education whereas those who are inclined to express views other than those expounded by professional educators are held up to public scorn and labeled as "old fashioned." Bestor sums up their influence by concluding: "Powerful organs are in their [p]rofessors

---

[1] Ibid., p. 14.

[2] Bestor, The Restoration of Learning, p. 6.

of education hands. In the long run, the philosophy of the dominant group of professional educators today--unless it is attacked and repudiated--is bound to determine the direction that American public education will take."[1] Coupled with the resentments of scholars regarding the influence of professors of education upon education is their concern for safeguarding academic interests. Bestor denounced professional educators "partly because so many of them, by misrepresenting and undervaluing liberal education, have contributed--unwittingly perhaps, but nevertheless effectually--to the growth of an anti-intellectualist hysteria that threatens not merely the schools but freedom itself."[2]

What deficiencies of professional educators exist that have brought about charges of decline of instructional quality in public education? The American Association for the Advancement of Science directly accuses the faculties of the colleges of education of a lack of emphasis on the subject matter areas which leads to graduating a profusion of "educators" who have limited academic backgrounds. They insist that higher institutions of learning <u>can</u> produce teachers

> . . . who are adequately trained in the fundamentals of mathematics, grammar, history, literature and science. But we shall not secure teachers who are concerned with teaching until we find a means of reinstating in the colleges of education the regard for learning, for fundamentals, and the discipline of the mind and formation of character through

---

[1] <u>Ibid</u>.

[2] <u>Ibid</u>., p. 5.

mastery of simple facts. Unless the importance of content courses in the training of teachers becomes recognized by those whose business it is to secure and train teachers, and until educators in charge of certification re-adopt the examination method of determining competence to teach which they have abandoned, nothing--not even a substantial increase in teachers' salaries--can raise the quality of instruction in public schools.[1]

Thus, scholars assert that the nucleus of educational deterioration lies within the powers of the professional educators. Scholars contend that professors of education are responsible for a philosophy almost void of intellectualism which they transmit to future teachers and school administrators. Coupled with this criticism is the limited instruction in the academic disciplines within teacher preparatory curricula. Such training inevitably molds the intellectual outlook of prospective teachers which in turn is reflected in the performance of their students and could possibly account for the inadequacies in the academic performance of contemporary youth.

Lynd, educational critic, asserts that the overemphasis of pragmatism and the submergence of intellectual ideals of the professional educators is a fault all their own. He cites from historical reference when it was the duty of professors of pedagogy to train teachers in the various disciplinary areas (e.g., mathematics, languages, history, physics, etc.) and to uphold "high standards of scholarship

---

[1]Jean H. Henry, "The Trend In Teacher Training," Facts Forum, February, 1956, p. 35.

in those disciplines."[1] He adds, "as long as the art of science of teaching was thought to be the technique of imparting the intellectual accumulations of the race, the Faculty of Education was dependent upon the Faculty of Letters and Science."[2] He charges professors of education with being persons who have worked "most effectively" via their progressive theories of education to sever any ties to traditional learning. He concludes by placing all blame on education, stating

> The real villain of the piece is Educationism itself; its establishment as an autonomous operation, its growth into a tremendous monopolistic enterprise whose inflated course requirements and artificial standards deflect the prospective teacher from genuine educational interests. The heart of the matter as Professional Bestor wisely remarks further, is the cultural isolation of Educationism from the world of reputable letters and science.[3]

When scholars insist that intellectualism should serve as a focal point for the establishment of educational objectives, it is no surprise that they consider educational viewpoints contrary to the position that they maintain as anti-intellectual. Professional educators have been accused of implementing pedagogical techniques that function at the expense of academic content which scholars believe to be essential to the development of intellectualism.

---

[1]Albert Lynd, Quackery In The Public Schools, Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1953, pp. 168-9.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid.

Scholars place themselves in a vulnerable position when they insist that professional educators are intellectually narrow because of the emphasis which they place upon methods advanced primarily by members of their profession. The scholars' insistence that a "sound" education can be achieved solely via the academic approach is as narrow as the position that they accuse professional educators to be guilty of when they fail to recognize other educational positions. This notion is clearly evidenced by the fact that many criticisms of education would not be advanced if scholars were cognizant of the actual objectives and ultimate accomplishments of professional educators.

One of the primary preoccupations of professional educators is the development of methods which intend to do justice to the interpretation of the arts and humanities. Hence, academic content serves as a definite prerequisite which professional educators take account of in devising methods which are directed at creating more meaningful learning situations. By the very nature of their objectives, they intend to cultivate intelligence and not destroy it. The assertion that they operate in an intellectual vacuum is contrary to the very nature of their work. Perhaps the crux of educational disagreements is the unwillingness of scholars to release their academic holdings and subject the disciplinary areas to empirical testing. Because scholars often refuse to acquaint themselves with the objectives and

methods of professional educators, methods contrived as a result of educational research are alien to them and consequently are summarily condemned as anti-intellectual or utilitarian in nature. Pedagogical methods are at least directed at an attempt to determine the educative value in studying the various academic areas--a test which scholars seemed to have neglected as a result of their complacency in expounding the virtues of disciplinary training.

Since professional educators have been accused of intellectual inferiority which supposedly is directly attributed to their educational training, an examination of their curriculum and course content with comments provided by scholars should reveal areas where controversy is greatest.

One notion which scholars propose as a possible explanation for the low caliber of intellectualism in the teacher training curricula are the "methods courses" almost void of academic content. Bestor implies that the actual accomplishments of pedagogy cannot be measured on the same continuum as courses of the disciplinary areas. He argues that the ultimate purposes of education of both schools differ since academicians favor a philosophical goal and the pedagogues emphasize the <u>how</u> via methodology. He states:

> The exact nature and the limitations of pedagogy need to be more accurately understood than they have hitherto been. Like the various branches of engineering, pedagogy is an applied science. It answers practical questions, not ultimate philosophical ones. It tells HOW something can be

> taught most effectively, but it provides no basis whatever for deciding WHAT should be taught.[1]

Thus he states that the actual accomplishments of pedagogy lack the academic "what" which is basically the subject matter taught in public schools. He concludes, emphasizing that it is the scholar who must help make this "what" decision:

> The question of WHAT subjects should be taught is a totally different one. It cannot be answered on the basis of pedagogical considerations alone, for it involves the ultimate purposes of education.[2]

Scholars assert that one of the inconsistencies of the pragmatists is their de-emphasis of subject matter. Lynd implies that ironically enough, "the doctrine which deplores "subject matter" in the lower schools has itself supplied most of the subject matter out of which endless education courses are contrived."[3]

Scholars are especially critical of professional educators when they attempt to include academic content in their methods. The popular criticism is the failure of professional educators who attempt to encompass more in a semester course than they are capable of accomplishing. Lynd cites what he considers to be a typical education course,

> WORLD LITERATURE. This course will deal with a consideration of the outstanding writers of the world, from ancient times to the beginning of the twentieth century, as well as sketches of

---

[1]Bestor, The Restoration of Learning, p. 103.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Lynd, op. cit., p. 268.

> the lives and times of the writers. Lecture, the reading of selections in an anthology, and the individual research will comprise the course.[1]

The critic comments:

> The outstanding writings of the whole danged world plus the "lives and times" of the writers, plus "individual research"--in thirty days.[2]

Another example cited by the same critics of educational methodology appears in science curriculum:

> This review considers not only such areas as the nature of the cell, metabolism, and other life functions, etc., but as well such areas as ecology, human physiology, conservation of biological resources and similar more functionally designated fields.[3]

The goals of the professors of education in offering such courses may not be to cover all areas in minute detail, but rather to project excerpted examples from areas and relate pedagogical methods when they apply. In spite of this fact, many scholars still wonder how a course in education can cover such a wide variety of material especially when handled by a professor of education who possesses limited academic background. Critics react to the overemphasis on the "how" and insufficient emphasis placed on the "what."

> Subject matter requirements for teachers are pitifully inadequate, and cannot well be otherwise. There is too little time to study the subject one

---

[1] Albert Lynd, "Quackery In the Public Schools," Public Education Under Criticism, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955, p. 170.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., p. 171.

> is to teach, when so much time is taken up by courses in how to teach, and so, all too often a makeshift program of college courses is built around the required "professional" courses.[1]

Such professional training is considered by scholars to be inferior to the academic realm where emphasis is placed on subject matter courses. Scholars predict the type of teacher we can expect as a result of such training:

> Consequently, the appalling fact is that our most poorly educated college graduates are teachers. A college which would raise its academic standards is invariably hindered by the plight of the prospective teacher who because of "professional" requirements cannot carry more than a minimum of academic work.[2]

Thus, the certification of teachers poorly trained in the academic areas to their methods of instruction may account for criticisms of the academic shortcomings of contemporary youth. Yet, professors of education remark that by far the largest portion of the teacher preparatory curriculum consists of subject matter with the remainder of the program directed to methods courses and student teaching. Obviously the problem which lies herein is establishing criteria for determining the relative emphasis to be placed upon subject matter and teacher preparatory courses within certification curricula.

---

[1]Harold Clapp, "The Stranglehold On Education," American Association of University Professors, XXXV (Spring, 1949), p. 341.

[2]Ibid.

Scholars are especially antagonistic toward departments of education which restrict liberal education graduates from teaching in public schools because of their lack of education courses. For example, Dodds states that

> State laws generally demand that the public school teachers have passed certain courses in teacher training. If they don't have such credits, they can't teach. Because of this, high schools miss out on some brilliant teachers whom private schools have access to. An able Princeton graduate who earns a Rhodes scholarship can teach in virtually no high school in the country, because he lacks the required number of "credit hours" in formal courses in pedagogy; but he can readily find a post in a prep school.[1]

Many scholars have expressed similar views. They are especially resentful of the certification requirements placed upon prospective teachers by "colleges of education." Such reactions again reflect the low value which scholars place upon teacher education courses. Scholars especially feel affected because scholarly students (whose views of education usually coincide with their own) are not permitted to teach in public schools because of such requirements. Such restrictions may also prevent them from propagating the intellectual ideals which scholars promote.

The attack upon the quality of education courses also originates within the ranks of the professional educators. One viewpoint is expressed in the following statement:

---

[1]Mortimer Smith, Public Schools in Crisis, Chicago: Henry Regnery Co., 1956, pp. 70-71.

> This brings us to another class of educators who are doing the cause of education a great deal of harm without malice aforethought and perhaps without really knowing that they are doing this harm. This group uses the trapping of academic titles and procedures to create courses, credits, degrees and even academic departments in an overwhelming profusion and confusion.[1]

Broudy, education theorist, feels that an examination and evaluation of pedagogical methodology is long due. He asserts this to be the responsibility of the philosophers of education who cannot

> . . . leave this [re-examination] either to specialists or to administrators. If we are really the theorists of education in the best and broadest sense of that word, then it is up to us to:
>
> (1) define the necessary sub-disciplines within the general discipline of education,
>
> (2) assay the theory and peculiar content that would sustain them as separate courses of instruction,
>
> (3) squeeze out the water of triviality and that of duplication.[2]

He senses that members of the profession should develop consistent viewpoints towards the establishment of education courses so that each course would have a "core of indispensable theory and unique organization of content to justify a paragraph in the catalogue."[3] Finally, he warns professional educators that unless they give heed to his advice, "we should not be too surprised to find ourselves low men on the university totem pole."[4]

---

[1] Broudy, op. cit., p. 199.

[2] Ibid., p. 205.

[3] Ibid., p. 199.

[4] Ibid.

Other professional educators assume a more defensive stand regarding the value of education courses by taking the pragmatic approach of insisting that scholars should offer proof of the extent of value derived from the sheer study of academic courses to determine if "there may be any differences between the educative power of different kinds of subject matter and between different modes of studying them [courses] . In fact, it never is."[1] They insist that scholars are content in adhering to the "unexamined idea of 'subject matter' according to which the study of zoology or physics has just as much to contribute to a person's education as the study of history and literature."[2]

Critics remind professional educators that insofar as the implementation of pedagogical theory is concerned, "theory does not always produce the results it desires or deserves."[3] Other critics believe that even though such discrepancies in educational theory and methodology are brought to the attention of professional educators, the attempt of scholars to resolve what they consider to be an overemphasis on the pragmatic nature of educational theory is futile. One critic believes this assertion to be true because education professors ". . . have vested interests in

---

[1]John Pilley, "Evaluation In Teacher Education," Educational Theory, III (January, 1953), p. 32.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid.

the endless inflation of courses. In this field the most promising reform will begin from the bottom."[1]

If colleges of education are responsible for the spread of anti-intellectualism in public schools, what course of action might scholars pursue to remedy the situation? An investigation of teacher certification requirements reveals that teacher training colleges and graduate schools of education are under the jurisdiction of state legislatures which pass down certification laws to departments of education. Smith, outstanding assailant of education, contends that the schools of education and teachers' colleges "aided and abetted by the N.E.A. [National Education Association] constitute a closed union in public school education."[2] He elaborates on the organizations which lobby their points of view in state legislatures so that "it is practically impossible for a teacher to be certified who has not been through the educational mill."[3] Lynd points out that professional educators usually have well-organized pressure groups operating within state departments of education. "Up-state lawmakers are easily impressed by the academic trappings of its spokesmen, by their specious identification of Education with Education, and by their insinuation that their opponents are 'enemies of the public schools' and therefore enemies of Our

---

[1]Smith, Public Schools In Crisis, p. 257.

[2]Mortimer Smith, "The Failure of American Education," Public Education Under Criticism, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1955, p. 68.

[3]Ibid.

Children."[1] Smith contends that "they [professional educators] have so effectively lobbied their point of view in the state legislatures that today only a miracle can get a well-qualified person in the scholastic sense into the schools without exposure to 'professional education.'"[2]

Smith's assertion is supported by other critics who maintain that "'Education' is not just the private eccentricity of a small group of college professors. It is the force which controls public education."[3] Smith further believes that the professional educator sets the standards of American education through the establishment of requirements for teacher training, and that the major proportion of such requirements are largely in terms of courses taught by professors of education themselves. Such procedures he insists, approaches the definition of a racket."[4]

Besides earning the minimum hours of credit for a teaching certificate, most teachers are expected to accumulate additional credits for the fulfillment of "professional growth" requirements. Periodic enrollment in methods courses enables the teacher to keep abreast of current educational theories and practices, thus contributing to his professional development. Professional growth requirements can usually be completed by electing education courses in summer schools of

---

[1]Smith, The Diminished Mind, p. 87.

[2]Clapp, op. cit., p. 337.

[3]Ibid.

accredited institutions. Smith opposes the emphasis on education course requirements and believes that changes should be inaugurated so that experienced teachers could devote their efforts at summer school "to their own intellectual interests rather than to a further study of teaching methods."[1] The important thing, he suggests, is for teachers "in all their experience to grow as persons rather than to become educational technicians."[2] Henry asserts that professional educators are not accomplishing their sought-for goals by requiring additional education courses, but believes the situation which has resulted from such demands is, in fact, "because of the nature of the criteria for certification, defeating its original purpose of raising and maintaining a high quality of teaching."[3]

If the aforementioned statements are valid, why haven't educators questioned such tactics? Critics discover the fault to lay with teachers who permit the imposition of education requirements. The establishment of such requirements is attributed to education students who are coerced into such predicaments because of their submissiveness. Considering the student of education, scholars state, "There is no reflection here of personal merits of those in a profession of lower ranks, at least who manifest qualities of generosity and

---

[1]Smith, Public Schools In Crisis, p. 9.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Henry, op. cit., p. 34.

sensitivity well above the average. But it is a simple datum--a brute fact--that organized educationism does not attract, in comparison with other professions a high proportion of first-rate minds."[1] Lynd attributes this to the attraction of the "too many who are easily fooled (as students of medicine or law or architecture could not be fooled by the repetition of pretentious jargon)."[2]

Scholars are convinced as to the inferiority of the student of education by studying evidence gathered from results of draft deferment examinations given to over 300,000 students in 1951 where education students performed poorest as compared to the performance of students of other academic areas. According to the findings published by the Educational Testing Service, of 97,800 college freshmen tested, those who scored highest were (in order of highest to lowest):[3]

TABLE II

A COMPARATIVE RANKING OF COLLEGE STUDENTS REPRESENTING THE VARIOUS ACADEMIC AREAS

Field	Percent Passing
1. Engineering	68
2. Physical Science	64
3. Biological Sciences	59
4. Social Sciences	57
5. Humanities	52
6. General Arts	48
7. Business	42
8. Agriculture	37
9. Education	27

[1]Lynd, op. cit., p. 163.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Smith, Public Schools in Crisis, p. 70.

One fact not accounted for such a presentation is the question of what the Selective Service Test attempted to measure. Since the major portion of the test is directed toward the measurement of scientific knowledge, a superior performance by students of the sciences should be expected. Since relatively few questions, if any, tested educational methodology, performance by education majors was naturally low. Still, education students enroll in departments of the arts and sciences for the fulfillment of subject matter requirements and the ranking of education as the lowest percentile is reason for alarm.

Explanations and suggestions for education certification are advanced by both professors of education and scholars.

Before committing themselves to handle the burdens of all educational criticisms, professional educators believe that there is much work for theorists on both sides to "determine more precisely the role of the school in a highly complicated, industrial order before we [professors of education] pledge the school system to a hodge podge of promises to every pressure group in the community."[1] The responsibility of solving educational issues is not only the concern of scholars and professional educators but that of the layman as well. Educational critic Smith disagrees

---

[1]Broudy, op. cit., p. 198.

exclaiming that "tne sad truth is that in most cities and towns in the United States the philosophy of education is determined not by the citizens who own and support the schools but by a close-knit union of super-professionals over whom the citizens have not even an indirect control."[1] Inscfar as the influence of the layman's efforts are regarded, Lynd surmises, "It is not easy, however, for a layman to combat the system at its source in legislation."[2]

Scholars further state that the criticism of public education is necessitated especially since "the wildest extravagance of educational theorists go unrebuked."[3] Scholars assume the role as overseers of the educational theorists since they believe that professors of education operate in an atmosphere almost devoid of self criticism. Such effects, they believe, are dangerous to the general public who, the scholars insist, should have such criticisms brought to their attention "clearly and unambiguously so that they may know where the weight of professional opinion lay."[4] The public may then make "informed judgments of their own concerning the soundness of the proposals submitted for their consideration."[5]

---

[1]Smith, "The Failure of American Education," Public Education Under Criticism, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1955, p. 68.

[2]Bertrand Russell, Education and the Social Order, London: Unwin Brothers Ltd., 1932, p. 266.

[3]Bestor, The Restoration of Learning, p. 180.

[4]Ibid.

[5]Ibid.

Bestor believes that the attitude of professional educators toward criticism "is the acid test of their professional sincerity."[1] Scholars also contend that unlike other professions, one of the most shocking facts about the education profession is the "almost complete absence of rigorous criticism from within [ranks of the professional educators]."[2] Bestor further states that "among scientists and scholars, criticism of one another's findings is regarded as a normal and necessary part of the process of advancing knowledge."[3]

Many scholars are in accordance with the belief that "anyone who ventures adverse comment on the schools finds he has spoken at his peril and that he has incurred the wrath of the powerful, organized groups."[4] Smith supports claims contending that individuals venturing criticisms against public education are either "belittled, denounced or suppressed."[5] He concludes that not only are individuals regarded as "reactionaries" or "crackpots," but "let any group of laymen whose interest in education goes beyond a

---

[1] Bestor, The Restoration of Learning, p. 179.

[2] Bestor, Educational Wastelands, p. 110.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Lynd, op. cit., p. 13.

[5] Smith, The Diminished Mind, p. 100.

docile acceptance of the official line, venture criticism of the schools, and the panjandrums of the N. E. A. and the teacher's colleges descend on them with shrill cries of outrage."[1] Thus anyone intending to criticize public education should, at the outset "make his idological position as clear as possible,"[2] else, (in the eyes of the scholars) he will be denounced by the "hierarchy" of public education.

Professional educators, McGrath and Taylor point out that the greatest resistance regarding some of the progressive theories of education originates within the field of higher education.[3] Trow asserts that professors of education do not necessarily shun criticism but assume a larger part of the responsibility in determining educational standards because they "are the ones who have studied the situation in day and out, who have thumbed through the studies, hundreds of them good and bad, and whose responsibility it is to help, not to stand aloof and criticize."[4] He further extends the notion that the educational crises today prompt educational research for possible solutions to the dilemma of mass education thus limiting the opportunity to answer educational criticism.[5]

---

[1]Smith, "The Failure of American Education," p. 69.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Earl McGrath and Harold Taylor, "A Summary of Some Recent Comments on Progressive Education," Public Education Under Criticism, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1955, p. 104.

[4]Trow, op. cit., p. 151.

[5]Ibid.

Cottrell, professor of education, supports the notion that professional educators do attempt to take account of educational shortcomings that they may discover. With specific reference to teacher certification, he cites three possible goals which should serve to improve certification standards.

1. Joint responsibility of schools and teacher's colleges for educating teachers,
2. Simplified procedures of certification, and
3. Better ways to evaluate teaching and teacher education, including a clarification of the teaching art.[1]

Such attempts to correct educational deficiencies certainly refute the notion that the "wildest extravagances of educational theorists go unrebuked."[2] Criticisms do originate from within the ranks of professional educators and are directed toward the betterment of the profession. Such procedures, coupled with empirical testing, discharge the notion that there exists a complacency among professional educators which fails to recognize educational criticisms or that there is an "almost complete absence of rigorous criticism from within the ranks of professional educators."[3]

Professors of education are especially critical of the scholars who they feel are partly to blame for weaknesses

---

[1]Lecture by Dr. Cottrell, June, 1956, Michigan State University.

[2]Bestor, The Restoration of Learning, p. 180.

[3]Bestor, Educational Wastelands, p. 110.

in public schools.[1] They criticize their [scholars'] failure to keep close contact with the schools. Consequently they feel "academic course offerings (not all by any means) are unrealistic, in that the teachers do not see how the courses they are required to take will help them do the things they have to do."[2] Thus, professional educators defend their influence on education contending that it is they who have supported education through time.

Professional educators insist furthermore, that it is not the desire of the education profession to "smear all critics and stifle criticism."[3] Educators meet the challenge of educational criticism via the establishment of "school-community advisory councils or other avenues of communication through which criticism can be channeled, dispassionately evaluated and acted upon if valid."[4]

In response to educational attacks, educators believe many attacks result from unfamiliarity with changes which have come about in education. Ernest Melby, former Dean of Education at New York University contends that "they [the critics] ignore the fact that the culture of 1951 is differ

---

[1]Trow, op. cit., p. 149.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ernest Melby, "The Pressures on Public Schools," Childhood Education, XXIX (January, 1953), p. 204.

[4]Ibid., p. 206.

from that of their youth."[1] Professional educator Hooper states that criticisms are desirable when they fall in the "Honest Group Type," e.g., criticisms which meet such criteria as: "constructive and specific," "welcomes teachers and administrators in meetings," "making decisions based upon all available evidence and only after exhaustive study."[2] Melby best sums up the position of professional educators stating,

> Criticism of educational practice is desirable. When it is sincere and well-founded it contributes to the improvement of our education. But criticism based upon misinformation and misunderstandings serves only to confuse the public and interferes with the effective discharge of duty by our teachers.[3]

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Laura Hooper, "The Child--The Curriculum--The World of Materials," Childhood Education, XXXI (May, 1955), pp. 443-445.

[3] Ernest Melby, Story of the Phony Three-R Fight. Anti-Defamation League, 1951, p. 36.

CHAPTER III

SCHOLARS' CRITICISMS OF EDUCATIONAL THEORY: THE PUBLIC SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Scholars avow that the fault for the decline of academic emphasis in school curricula is directly attributable to professors of education. The consider the professors of education guilty because of their deliberate attempts to de-emphasize subject matter.[1] Smith, educational critici vehemently argues that,

> . . . learning, in the traditional sense of disciplined knowledge, is rapidly declining in our public schools, not through fortuitous circumstances but by deliberate and almost invariably well-intentioned design of those responsible for setting the direction of public education.[2]

He further asserts that there may have been a time when divergent opinions regarding the degree of emphasis on subject matter and method took priority and was the crucial issue. Times have changed, and today, the problem has become a controversy concerning those who "continue to believe that the cultivation of intelligence, moral as well as intellectual is inextricably bound up with the cultural heritage and accumulated knowledge of mankind," and individuals who concern themselves with the primary task of adjusting the individual

---

[1] Smith, The Diminished Mind, p. 2.

[2] Ibid.

to the group and seeing "that he responds 'satisfactorily' to the stresses and strains of the social order."[1]

Scholars contend that the "New Curriculum" or today's "General Education" concerns itself primarily with the subservience of subject matter to educational theory. This weakness they claim, is clearly exemplified in today's public school curricula. Educational critic Lynd provides further "proof" of "educational distortion" with his deliberations on educational "frills" which serve as substitutes for the disciplinary areas. Surveying general areas of the curriculum, he excerpts examples which illustrate "how a family may play together on home games, leisure reading, entertaining, courtesy in the family, vacations and outings [etc.]."[2] Other areas on "Home and Family Life" deal with a section on the doorbell, the telephone, the gas and water service.[3] In analyzing the curriculum offerings, scholars state that "there is no reference to reading, writing or arithmetic or such."[4] Such discoveries, scholars explain, "are no surprise. It is demonstrable from their own works that many enthusiasts of the New Education are themselves half educated or uneducated."[5] The crucial problem they believe, lies

---

[1] Ibid., pp. 19-20.

[2] Lynd, op. cit., p. 34.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid., p. 16.

in determining the "competence of those who are managing the change."[1]

Bestor directly assigns the blame to those members of the education profession who bear the titles of "Curriculum Experts." He argues that "the idea that there can be a 'curriculum expert' is as absurd as the idea that there can be an expert on the meaning of life."[2] Professional educators have advanced the notion that curricula of schools are determined by school staff--the staff of which comprises individuals representing the various academic areas who present their opinions to curriculum coordinators responsible for developing feasible programs of study. Bestor states, "To devise a balanced and adequate curriculum for any system of schools is pre-eminently a work in which the wisdom of many men must be enlisted."[3] The problem which lies herein is the determination of those who are <u>the</u> "wise men." Bestor clarifies any doubt as to his ideas on the selection of such individuals when he further asserts that:

> We have permitted the content of public school instruction to be determined by a narrow group of specialists in pedagogy, well-intentioned men and women, no doubt, but utterly devoid of the qualifications necessary for the task they have undertaken. These pedagogical experts are making decisions far outside their realm of pedagogy. They are deciding not merely <u>how</u> subjects should be taught in

---

[1] <u>Ibid</u>.

[2] Bestor, <u>Educational Wastelands</u>, p. 40.

[3] <u>Ibid</u>., p. 39.

> the public schools, but also what subjects should be taught. Under the guise of improving the methods of instruction, they have undertaken to determine its content as well.[1]

Thus, schools are being "more and more completely divorced from the basic disciplines of science and learning."[2]

Educational critic Smith accounts for the undesirable methods employed by professors of education by advancing the notion that perhaps because of the "enormous difficulties which confront educators in educating the masses, educators need to concoct radically new methods of teaching."[3] Especially important is the task of properly educating students who achieve no higher than a high school education. Smith believes that educators have not met this dilemma with any success but rather have advanced the situation toward the point of breakdown and chaos. He lays the blame at the doorstep of instrumentalism which he asserts "supposedly teaches that there are no intellectual or moral standards of knowledge, that no subject is intrinsically of any more value than any other subject; in the end it reduces education to a vast bubbling confusion."[4]

Scholars believe that the educational dilemma can partially be relieved through the implementation of stringent

---

[1] Ibid., p. 43.

[2] Ibid., p. 44.

[3] Smith, And Madly Teach, p. 23.

[4] Ibid., p. 24.

academic standards. Bestor complains of the limitations placed upon students who are prohibited from studying until they experience full command of a subject. When teachers slight academic content, he charges that "instead of opening a door for him, we may actually slam it shut."[1] Concerning the extent of investigation which students should pursue in studying the disciplines, he emphasizes, "in the early stages of learning a new discipline, the student is mainly impressed with how much there is to be known and how unfamiliar and hence difficult the processes of reasoning are. Only when he [the student] reaches the threshold does he acquire pleasure and confidence as the reward of his labors. If we cut him off before he reaches the critical point, we frustrate the process of learning."[2]

Many scholars deny the assertion that they emphasize the acquisition of "textbook facts" as the important objective of academic training. They impatiently denounce this accusation, emphasizing that a majority of individuals in any field of scholarship would agree that "character building" and learning "how to think" are of primary importance in any educational scheme and that facts which may be learned from textbooks are valuable chiefly as aids to those ends.

Even when the academic areas are recognized and treated by professional educators as an integral part of the school

---

[1] Bestor, Educational Wastelands, pp. 171-2.

[2] Ibid.

Curriculum, some critics do not feel this meets their objections. Instead, they criticize the distortion of the disciplines when professional educators re-interpret them within the goals and philosophies of their profession. They assert, "Thus rhetoric and English literature may still appear under those names on the books, but their content may become 'communcation arts,' a melange of hints on radio acting, writing advertising copy, evaluating political speeches, persuasive salesmanship etc. ."[1] As for the sciences they disclose, "Biology courses may still bear the tag of biology, but their content is often reduced to personal hygiene, what to do about forest fires, how to breed better corn and sheep, etc. . . ."[2]

Jacques Barzun, contemporary author on education in America brings the question to point, "'But why,' it may be asked, 'is it necessary to stress mind and subject matter so markedly?'"[3] He acknowledges the fact that teacher training in the psychological areas may be necessary, but the need for increased emphasis upon academic content is obvious, ". . . we must stress what has been neglected, we must call for what has been forgotten, we must supply the lack that everybody notes

---

[1] Fuller, "The Emperor's New Clothes, Or Prius Dementat," op cit., p. 24.

[2] Ibid.,

[3] Jacques Barzun, "Backgrounds for Teaching," Public Education Under Criticism, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1955, p. 184.

in the finished product."[1] Scholars further generally accept the fact that a "social awareness" must be developed within the student, but they remind educators that "those subjects which deal with the history of ideas and ideals [is] a knowledge of which is essential to all youth who would assume their place in society as thinking, feeling, human beings."[2] In regard to electives, they argue that they may serve a useful purpose as an activity, but "they are no substitute for the intellectual demands which a school should be making on your child to develop his power to think."[3]

Scholars are of the conviction that the poor performance of college students in the academic areas is a reflection of inadequate academic training in the primary and secondary schools. They insist that colleges and universities cannot fulfill their tasks when secondary schools continue to send students who are ill-equipped in the disciplinary areas. They contend, "This is true no matter how widely they have been 'orientated'. The blame for what is wrong with American intellectuality and American effectiveness and American honesty of achievement rests chiefly upon the secondary schools."[4]

Thus, the contention stated in the previous chapter that the intellectual training imparted to teachers by colleges

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Smith, And Madly Teach, p. 11.

[3] Smith, Public Schools in Crisis, p. 74.

[4] Bell, Crisis In Education, p. 46.

of education is reflective in the formulation and exercise of their individual-centered philosophies of education may be valid. Such philosophies invariably affect the development of school curricula and are responsible for the type of education their recipients receive. Hence, the academic performance of individuals, whether it be in industry or universities is somewhat reflective or indicative of their educational training. Scholars believe that because of the nature of public school curricula, the training imparted by public schools is inferior and lacks the intellectual virtues which are essential and can be transmitted only be emphasizing the academic disciplines. Professors of education denounce such viewpoints contending that empirical evidence proves the critics to be wrong. In justification of their behavior, professional educators cite many accomplishments of education which have proven to be beneficial for the masses and yet take account of the academic skills which scholars deem as important.

Some educators have attempted to clarify the conflict in the traditional and modern programs of education. There existed and exists today, the thought that the traditional ways of teaching as "represented by the older and well-established subject matter were best. They were generally for insistence upon a relatively narrow curriculum of the three R's and the accepted subjects of English, grammar, mathematics, history and science."[1] Traditionalists viewed interventions

---

[1]Freeman Butts, A History of Education in American Culture, New York: Henry Hold and Company, 1943, p. 541.

in school curriculums as "fads and frills,"[1] e.g., art, physical education, or music. The traditionalists stressed the acquisition of factual data via "memorizing, drill and skill with major emphasis upon learning from books."[2] Some professional educators believe that

> they [traditionalists] seemed to rely upon theories of learning that stemmed from the faculty psychology and the disciplinary theories of the nineteenth century. Many citizens and educators who felt loyal to the religious, disciplinary, and scholarly orientation mentioned were likely to feel drawn to such traditional views.[3]

Considering the advocates of newer methods, one professional educator explains his scorn of traditional views as being "narrow, lifeless" and that a wider range of experience should be brought into the school to enrich the curriculum by means of creative, expressive, handcraft and social activities.[4] Thus, some educators discovered educative values in activities other than the previously adhered to rigid training in the disciplinary areas. The thesis which many professional educators emphasize is the insistence that "learning [is] best when the learner [is] interested in what he [is] doing and that learning would be promoted by active experiences as well as, if not better than reading."[5] Perhaps

---

[1] Arthur Barr, Supervision: Democratic Leadership In the Improvement of Learning, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1947, p. 849.

[2] Butts, op. cit., p. 542.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid.

most outstanding of all is the argument that students who have been allowed to pursue courses of study of particular interest to them more often than not have experienced intrinsic satisfaction of individual success and have evidenced greater learning.

Since complaints discouraged the implementation of "progressive methods," what has induced educators to continue such practices? Butts accounts for this by the fact that "whenever they [professional educators] turned for evidence to the careful research of psychologists, sociologists, curriculum experts, and guidance specialists, they found that the weight of evidence favored sound methods of teaching."[1] It was discovered that "children learned more in quantity and quality with modern methods than with traditional methods."[2] Thus, experimental evidence and trial by experience favored the methodology and philosophies of the professional educators. As a result, such information was imparted to prospective teachers and has since become the universal dictum of many educators.

Many professional educators are of the conviction that the child should serve as the focal point in educational planning as it is for the child that learning experiences are provided and should be fulfilled. In regard to the objectives of the traditional school, they believe that "starting with

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid., p. 543.

the subject-matter as the traditional school did was to start with the means and confuse it with the end. We try to avoid that mistake today. . . . The curriculum is those experiences of the child which the school in any way utilizes or attempts to influence."[1] Some guiding principles which are included in the development of actual learning experiences for children are:

1. To result in socialized human beings
2. To give consideration to the emotional development of children
3. To develop democratic skills, attitudes, and procedures
4. To give consideration to the health and physical development of children
5. To make provision for the individual differences in children
6. To be suitable to the maturation level of each child
7. To meet the needs, purposes and interests of children
8. To be educative rather than mis-educative
9. To enlarge the child's understanding of important concepts
10. To aid in the development of new meanings and expand experiences through the utilization of available local resources, compensation where possible for environmental lacks, and participation in a wide variety of environmental situations
11. To utilize some important aspect of thinking
12. To make possible successful achievement by the child.[2]

Professors of education answer scholars' criticisms of the "curriculum experts" by citing results of studies of

---

[1]Murray J. Lee and Dorris M. Lee, The Child and His Curriculum, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950, p. 197.

[2]Ibid., p. 204.

different types of public school curricula. According to a recent survey by Harap and Merritt of curriculum guides produced in school systems throughout the United States for the three-year period 1951-53, evidence of personnel in curriculum construction refute the charges that the responsibility for determining curriculum content is assigned to an individual.[1] The authors report that "committee procedure in the administration of curriculum development continued to receive common acceptance. Approximately 82 percent of the curriculum guides were produced by groups consisting of teachers, administrators, college professors and, in a few instances, laymen."[2] After curricula of different forms have been tested, the authors add that continuous revision of curriculum guides is "a cooperative process involving many teachers not only because it results in the improvement of teaching but also because it is one of the most effective means of professional growth which reaches the largest number of teachers in the school organization."[3]

Because of the complications involved in revising or developing school curricula, e.g., selection of courses, data, the nature of pupils' experiences which are included, educators are consequently confronted with a complex problem. The crucial problem is the determination of what to include

---

[1]Henry Harap, "Trends in the Production of Curriculum Guides," Educational Leadership, XIII (October, 1955), pp. 35-41.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid.

or delete from existing curricula. Scholars leave no doubt that they believe that emphasis of the academic disciplines has priority over electives or activities not concerned with academic content. Most professional educators have offered their viewpoints as to what they consider important regarding both academic and individual or social requirements.

Insofar as the selection of academic content in developing the curriculum is concerned, professional educator Spalding expresses the thought that at present, subject matter is selected by

> . . . the scholar who writes texts or devises curriculums on some bases which appeals to his personal prejudices, or which fits into his system of pre-relativity logic. Further selection is done by the teacher as he determines what acts of the student he will reward and so encourage. Both procedures emphasize the primary nature of things and the secondary nature of relations or qualities. But the latter are actually primary. They exist for the student only as they are his acts. The nature of the subject matter, being secondary, is derived from them. It is the nature of the act which should determine what subject matter is to be used by the school.[1]

Thus Spaulding considers subject matter to serve as the means to the end rather than the sought-for goal. Unless subject matter can enhance the life of the individual, it is not fulfilling desired goals. Consequently, that material which bears greater significance to the individual is selected and the educational concepts of individualism permeates the

---

[1]R. Spaulding, "The Curriculum and the Domains of Knowledge," Elementary School Journal, LV (March, 1955), pp. 369-72.

curriculum once more. The diverging viewpoints of scholars and professional educators is clearly illustrated here by the emphasis of utilitarianism which identifies the professional educator and is vociferously condemned by the scholar. Spalding leaves no doubts as to the selectivity of subject matter when he concludes: "So it is with the qualities or relationships of subject matter. Unless they become the acts of students, they do not exist for them."[1]

Professional educator Seyfert comments ". . . as we expect more of our schools, compromises and adjustments have to be made, except as we learn how to get more return per manhour."[2] The problem is that compromising will not meet the wishes of either the scholars or educators entirely. Adjustments by both groups will have to be made. In the case of the educators, empirical evidence will probably serve as an influencing agent in the determination of the nature and the extent of subject matter which will be included in various curricula. In making this decision, Seyfert states,

> It is preferable to have a school program which provides learning experiences that drive toward the full range of fundamentals rather than a program which concentrates attention on a very limited array of fundamentals. One definition of "superficial" is "not profound or thorough." By this definition it is the curriculum with the narrow range that is superficial, not the curriculum which undertakes to come

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Warren Seyfert, "What Are the Fundamentals?" The Elementary School Journal, February, 1954, p. 324.

> to grips with all that is important in living and growing up.[1]

The Office of Education similarly warns against the danger of over-emphasis on specialization in today's higher education curriculum.

> Considerable attention is being given to the imbalance in curricula problems and it appears that nothing short of rather drastic curricular revision and perhaps reorganization of courses and methods of instruction will be necessary in order to create a much larger place for the social sciences and the humanities than they now occupy.[2]

Professional educators contend that the real problem in determining the extent of instruction of fundamentals must be set aside until the problem of determining what "fundamentals" are is solved. To most lay critics, the term "fundamentals" means reading, writing and arithmetic. Unless these "fundamentals" are stressed, the popular reaction is a charge of "neglect" directed at public educators. Many teachers emphasize the fact that the "fundamentals" of today extend further than the three R's. In spite of the fact that critics may be aware of the "other fundamentals," they continue to criticize because of their refusal to consider

---

[1] Ibid., p. 326.

[2] U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, The Progress of Public Education in the United States of America, Summary Report of Office of Education to Seventeenth International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, Switzerland, July 5-13, 1954. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1954, p. 20.

areas other than the 3 R's as recognized subjects. Furthermore, the education profession "is not wholly of one mind concerning what the 'additional fundamentals' are."[1] Mort and Vincent, professional educators, summarize the stand of professional educations by stating,

> But let no one be deluded that "knowledge of the fundamentals alone, however fine, is going to guarantee either individuals of competence or a people of resourcefulness to cope with the problems of tomorrow's world. Let no one suppose that the "fundamentals," as the term is generally used in education, are the only fundamentals.[2]

While many professional educators believe that the implementation of modern theories and methods have been instrumental in improving the quality of living, some warn against complacency. Trow is one who argues against such complacency. Education, he believes, needs to be analyzed in order to retain that which is most important and discard that which is irrelevant. "Each generation in each culture is called upon to select from the past and present what seems best and most important for the future, and naturally enough there is much honest disagreement as to what is best and most important."[3]

---

[1]William Gray and William Iverson, "What Should Be the Profession's Attitude Toward Lay Criticism of the Schools?" Elementary School Journal, LIII (September, 1952), p. 9.

[2]Mort and Vincent, op. cit., p. 5.

[3]Trow, op. cit., p. 150.

Similarly, in regard to methodology which is criticized by scholars as being over-emphasized, professional educators Mort and Vincent avoid complacency and acknowledge, "It is also true that these techniques in all instances are not entirely successful. There has never been, and probably never will be, any single technique for teaching, reading writing, arithmetic, or any other subject which in all instances and under all conditions is entirely successful."[1]

Professional educators believe that perhaps the crux of educational criticism regarding curriculum construction concerns (1) the failure on the part of scholars to realize that the curriculum will constantly change with time, and (2) the failure of individuals to recognize that developments do occur as a consequence of change. One professional educator aptly explains that "to be suitable for its times, the curriculum not only must be adapted to the conditions, ideals and problems of the present but must also harmonize with current trends--must look to the future than to the past."[2] Other professional educators support this supposition declaring that advocates of the modern curriculum should realize that out of the growing criticisms of education "is emerging a new and modern curriculum which differs in many fundamental respects from the placidly respected curriculum of a few years

---

[1]Mort and Vincent, op. cit., p. 22.

[2]Harl Douglass, "The Modern High School Curriculum," The School Review, LXIII (January, 1955), pp. 16-24.

ago."[1] In defense of the professional educators, Caswell concludes that such change "in the curriculum of American schools is not a fad nor is it an indication of a foot-loose, unstable educational system. Rather it is an essential feature of the social process essential to the realization of the democratic goals to which our country is committed; it is an inevitable application of our prevalent conceptions of the nature of learning; it is a result of living in a culture which does not stand still and of which change is the most assured characteristic."[2]

Scholars are extremely critical of the vocabulary employed in educational circles when explaining curriculum objectives. One critic states that professional educators have developed "a grandiose and bombastic vocabulary" which is "strange and preposterous."[3] Bestor cites an example of an over-used cliche, "We do not teach history. We teach children," and suggests that to teach it to no one "is a manifest impossibility."[4] He adds, "but it is a distinct possibility, alas, that educationists, following their own maxim, may succeed in teaching children--nothing."[5]

---

[1]Gordon Mackenzie, "Supervision Confronts A Changing Curriculum," California Journal of Elementary Education, V (February, 1937), p. 18.

[2]Hollis Caswell, Curriculum Improvements in Public School Systems, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950, p. 82.

[3]Fuller, op. cit., p. 26.

[4]Bestor, Educational Wastelands, p. 36.

[5]Ibid.

Thus, the statement "We do not teach subject matter, we teach children" requires explanation or justification for its use on the part of professional educators and teachers in general. Perhaps what they intend to convey is the concern for emphasis on how we teach history and what the individual will gain from such instruction in relation to his total development rather than merely emphasizing the subject for its own sake. That the subject matter be the means to an end, rather than the end may be the intention of educators. Obviously, the cliche is hazy and, unless clarified, can be misleading.

A few selected samples of vocabulary from schools of education which many scholars scorn are: child-centered, individual needs, interest factor, growth, group and social adjustment, and readiness. Because of the array of terms, concepts or expressions employed by educators in defining their theories, explanations of the preceding expressions will be considered in some detail.

Professional educator Spalding explains that the concept of "readiness" "is divided into specifics in many ways."[1] Using the subject of reading as an example, he accounts for a "physiological readiness" which a child must possess before he can, for example, "move his eyes along a line of print."[2] "Experiental Readiness" is that readiness which requires or

---

[1]Spalding, "Curriculum and the Domains of Knowledge," p. 370.

[2]Ibid., p. 372.

necessitates an experiencing of learned concepts which the printed word symbolizes. There is "emotional readiness" which is a prerequisite to learning reading and exists only when the child is secure, happy and content in school. Another division of readiness is determined on the basis of "subject matter." Spalding explains, "One hears of tests of reading readiness, arithmetic readiness, language readiness and the like."[1] Thus, the concept of "readiness" falls into many divisions and is a "relation or a pattern of relations which an individual exhibits as he acts."[2] He accounts for the fact that whatever an individual can do, at any time, is determined to a large extent by what "he is then, just as much as it was so determined at the start of the series."[3]

The error in the notion of requiring a given group of students to acquire a standard of subject matter is further illustrated by Trow when he remarks, "the point is, of course, that there is a wide range of ability in any one grade, whatever the promotion policy of the school--usually about a six-year range."[4] Thus the array of variables to consider in readiness, plus the multitude of abilities in a given classroom, are more readily taken account of by the application of

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., p. 373.

[4] Trow, op. cit., p. 149.

methods based on readiness concepts rather than by academic standards emphasized by scholars.

Because of the varying capabilities which exist in most classrooms, educators have devised curricula which are "child centered" to meet these "individual needs" (or differences). This goal is partially accomplished by emphasizing those classroom experiences which are of interest to students, yet keeping in mind that learning is of primary importance. It is believed, that if curricula appeal to the interests of students, learning will be enhanced.

The concept of needs can be considered vertically synonymous with individual differences, i.e., for as individuals develop needs peculiar to their personalities, methods of achieving or satisfying these desires result in behavior patterns which differentiate them from their peers, hence they become "individually different." Value orientations of individuals naturally differ, consequently so do their needs. It is virtually impossible for two individuals to assimilate identical value patterns since neither can be exposed to identical experiences in life. Thus, no two persons will ever possess identical value orientations; and while there are some needs universal to all individuals, the particular character and degree of needs will vary from person to person. If this is true, there exists in public schools a multitude of different needs. Since it has been established that the greatest amount of learning occurs when the needs and interests

of individuals can be determined and accounted for, educators are constantly seeking to exploit every intelligible means possible to achieve this end.

Scholars consider that emphasis upon the fulfillment of all needs interferes with sound educational objectives and they regard attention directed toward need fulfillment as interfering with developing sound educational goals. One critic laments the development of educational goals which emphasize the expressed needs of children. Although educators may consider needs to be important, he asserts that the "happy incidental insights" of children are unaccompanied by any "clear-cut conception of the ends of education."[1] Even if students are capable of verbalizing their immediate needs, another critic wonders, ". . . who are the people to decide upon the 'real' needs of your child, or mine?"[2] Obviously, the ability of children to determine needs and the decision as to which needs are most important presents a complex problem. One scholar criticizes such attention to fulfilling the demands of children by stating ". . . while neo-pedagogues palaver more and more about the 'real-needs' of youngsters, the pupils are learning less and less about the disciplines."[3] To the scholars, the consequences of centering education upon

---

[1]Smith, "The Failure of American Education," p. 66.

[2]Lynd, op. cit., p. 14.

[3]Ibid.

child-determined goals are fatal. Curricula which are concerned with the task of fulfilling the wishes, needs or whims of youngsters are restricting students from an essential life of compulsions. One scholar believes that life "is dominated by competition, and the adult is constantly having to submit to examinations with his fellows; but these are conditions which the thorough-going modernist will not permit in his classroom."[1] Lynd believes that a student who has been indoctrinated with this type of education "will find when he graduates into the adult world, that the idea of being 'in competition only with yourself' bears little relation to that world."[2]

Reports from the Office of Education clarify the educator's stand on the issue of developing students who can "hold their own" in the adult world. Curricula of various types are contrived with "continuing efforts made throughout the States to make the curriculum as realistic as possible."[3] Thus, "in the interest of wider understanding, experiments are at present under way to study how, in this almost unilingual Nation, children may be taught to speak and read a foreign language."[4] The experts further add that "teachers

---

[1] Smith, And Madly Teach, p. 41.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Bestor, The Restoration of Learning, p. 7.

[4] Ibid.

must develop greater insight into children's needs and the needs of the society in which the children live."[1] Thus educators have described how programs of education are focused not so much upon the consideration of needs in relation to immediate or local areas but rather to universal problems. Accounting for the criticisms of de-emphasizing subject matter under such programs, educators explain,

> Subject matter is better fitted to the child's needs and better methods are used for teaching children in small sub-class groups and individually. The increasing knowledge has changed high-school curricula by introducing courses that cut across traditional subject-matter lines.[2]

Professors of Education and education experts appear to be confident in their attempts at providing students who can both responsibly fill their social roles as adults and grasp the basic fundamentals emphasized by scholars. On the other hand, scholars are dubious of such methods, questioning the ability of students to determine their goals based on genuine needs, the qualifications of educators to distinguish between most useful needs and, finally, the danger that procedures in use might prohibit the child from experiencing actual problems which he may encounter as an adult. Unless educators can accomplish the aforementioned demands, the consequences, scholars believe, can be fatal.

---

[1] Smith, The Diminished Mind, p. 2.

[2] Ibid., p. 4.

While many professional educators believe that individual needs can be recognized by appealing to the interests of students, many scholars assert that the poorly defined goals of education are a direct result from the overemphasis on interest. They are also concerned about the danger of talents that might lay dormant or missed by chancing development to occur solely on interest. Scholars are of the conviction that professional educators assume that children will eventually cross those lines which promote the development of well-rounded individuals. Bell insists that "intelligence must be discovered and then trained; it does not mature by chance or develop as the by-product of a skill."[1] Unless the individual is challenged and made aware of such responsibilities, he may "yet remain unintelligent, incompetent to recognize comparative values, unable to make considered choices or to guide other men into choices requisite for happiness or even for human continuance."[2] The over-emphasis on a student's ability to recognize such factors they believe, will never result in the fruition of such expectations.

Bestor's views parallel those of Bell when he insists that the interest factor should not be left up to the student alone. The school, he insists, "must develop these incentives."[3] He further emphasizes his stand stating,

---

[1]Bell, op. cit., p. 60.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Bestor, Educational Wastelands, p. 48.

> The arousing and sustaining of interest, however, is only a means to an end. It is eash enough to keep children amused, if that is all one wishes. . . . The test of a school, after all, is how much students learn. Granted that they will learn little unless they are interested and happy: nevertheless the fact that they are interested and happy is no proof in itself that they are learning. Hence a pre-occupation with arousing interest may--indeed, frequently does--lead to the introduction into the classroom of projects totally without educative value. The fallacy that extra-curricular activities are as important as the curriculum itself is frequently asserted by regressive educators.[1]

Perhaps Bestor has presented a point which requires the attention of the educator. Widespread criticism of the educative value of "experience" or "do" activities with hopeful intentions of eventual or incidental learning are not uncommon to the educator. Many teachers assume that there exists equal educative value in any type of activity experience. Teachers frequently fail to direct their attention to the quality of classroom experiences. Attention should be focused on the selection of activities which offer most educative value.

There are teachers who assume that each child will salvage from class experiences learnings which will meet individual "felt needs." And, because they (educators) argue that teachers are dealing with individual differences, one cannot expect these teachers to follow a rigorously defined outline because of heterogeneous groups. Even though there is an acceptance of the notion that teachers must be concerned with individual differences, some objectives or goals should

---

[1] Ibid.

be realized by students at the conclusion of a specific course of study. Quite often educators generalize stating that a student may develop latent values from "educational experiences" which are perhaps manifested at a time when he develops an immediate need for them. It is needless to add that educators insist that a child will gain from educational experiences that which is most significant to him. Pupils should be held accountable for "significant learnings" which have been expressed as vital by pupils at the onset of a unit of study.

A typical criticism advanced against the doctrine of interest is cited by Mortimer Smith who suggests what ultimate consequences educators might expect. In regard to freeing the child from academic impositions and appealing solely to child interests, he states, "by doing so, our schools are helping as much as any institution among us to produce automatons ripe for exploitation by clever and unscrupulous men--politicians, movie magnates, labor leaders, newspaper publishers--who recognize and take advantage of the new herd instinct for uniformity."[1]

Educators have discovered that interest can be used as a stimulant in promoting learning. Interests of youngsters can be explored and recognized and there are areas which they enter into with an enthusiasm which characterizes their play. Manifest interests can be projected or related to various studies which teachers expect students to explore. The

---

[1] Smith, And Madly Teach, p. 93.

extent of directing interests of students to areas of study so that an optimum learning situation can be created is largely determined by the skill and observation of the teacher in charge. Whenever this can be accomplished, "teachers know that they have a powerful force working with them."[1] Professional educators Mort and Vincent believe that if a youngster enters into a specific study of science, for example, with the same interest and enthusiasm which characterize play, educators can be quite certain that this is indicative of the direction in which students' talents are growing. If such interest persists into "deeper concentration and ramification of the study, that fact is a pretty good gauge of the extent of his growth in this direction."[2] Hence, the implementation of student interest in devising units of study not only encourages learning, but the opportunity to recognize individual aptitude can also be discovered.

Mort and Vincent criticize scholars as "inefficient" when they concentrate solely on training the mind. In the case of teaching students of the primary grades, they believe it is far more sound to emphasize such factors as security, happiness and a sense of belonging rather than plunging "right into the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic."[3] They further assert that such learning can never be learned "so

---

[1] Mort and Vincent, op. cit., p. 63.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., p. 16.

well at any other time: how to get along together, how to take turns, how to borrow and return, how to respect property. . . ."[1] Through such behavior, teachers can determine at which point teaching basic skills will yield most efficient results.

One professional educator states that critics seem to make a virtue out of work that is especially hard and distasteful."[2] Any coercion placed upon the student "to perform inherently disagreeable tasks is supposed to train him for the rigors of life outside of school."[3] He contends that this is one area of education where scholars have failed to keep informed as to discoveries of recent years regarding the nature of learning and conditions under which learning takes place most effectively. He explains, "it is now a commonly recognized principle that learning is most effective when the task is accepted by the learner as being worthwhile and when its accomplishment is accompanied by a feeling of genuine achievement."[4] In answer to critics who believe that students not exposed to the rigors of competition do not acquire the prerequisite for adult adjustment, Alberty insists, "students

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Melby, Freedom and Public Education, p. 235.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid.

work hard at tasks which have significance in their lives. The modern school, therefore, organizes its program in terms of the problems and functions of present-day living, instead of in terms of the dead past."[1]

Regardless of the endorsements of practices which appeal to student interest, Mort and Vincent caution educators of the possible dangers which are probable when activities based on student interest "cease to have meaning and reason and purpose: only when the teacher has lost control of the tool with which he is working. . . ." does such training "lack educative value" and become reduced to a low denominator of mere misguided play.[2]

Educators are prone to interpret student achievement whether it be social, physical or academic in terms of Growth. Since it has been established that individuals learn and progress at different rates, growth naturally varies within such areas from person to person.

The educational concept of growth is perhaps most clearly explained by Millard, child growth and development specialist, who considers growth as a "phase of total development . . . when discussion is concerned with the total organism in a perspective of change [then] the word development is used."[3] Therefore, growth, in such a framework refers to

---

[1]Ibid., p. 237.

[2]Mort and Vincent, op. cit., p. 63.

[3]Cecil Millard, Child Growth and Development, Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1951, p. 10.

change "in partial aspect, although change in one part is usually accompanied by change in other parts of the total individual."[1] Total development occurs when there "is a sequential pattern of change involving a multitude of growth processes."[2] Millard points out that growth processes vary from each other--some requiring longer periods of time, whereas other processes require a lesser period insofar as the total developmental picture is concerned.[3] Many people attribute a quantitative characteristic to change. Millard points out, "we seldom refer to unseen change, though it too may be considered a growth process."[4] Growth is continuous and "all children grow in a manner determined by the relationship between their potentiality and the 'richness' of its motivating conditions."[5] Hence, not only will the various growth processes of an individual vary, but so will persons differ from each other as their growth processes develop according to individual "potentiality and richness of motivating condition."[6]

Thus growth, in different areas may be so pronounced as to be obvious whereas in other phases of development it may hardly be discernible. The most exacting method of proving

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., p. 17.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid.

[6] Ibid.

such achievement can be contrived by means of various diagnostic or achievement tests where individual performance is plotted and compared to national norms established for persons of given ages and grade levels. In spite of such evidence, Millard cautions educators who place unquestionable faith in test scores. He states,

> Continuous testing of individual children indicates that scores on tests have no meaning except in terms of each child's unique developmental pattern. Nor can one determine from a single test score whether a child's progress is good or inferior. Consequently, emphasis on standards and grade goals in evaluating the child's progress is good or inferior. Consequently, emphasis on standards and grade goals in evaluating the child's achievements is in general based on misconceptions.[1]

Educators explain that there are phases of development which cannot be measured by standardized tests, e.g., attitude, social adjustment, moral and spiritual development tests, etc. Students who may perform poorly within the academic realm are encouraged to pursue activities in areas (though they may not be academic) which offer other opportunities that may lead to individual achievement. Any development in such non-academic areas is difficult to measure but is often accounted for as probable growth, hence, the student may have advanced even though his success may be more of a general, experiential nature rather than being purely academic.

Too often any change in behavior along socially acceptable lines is described in terms of "pupil growth." The

---

[1] Ibid., p. 28.

over-use of this expression causes critics to ponder over its actual value. One scholar states

> We have been going along now for some time on the theory that education consists simply of experience and change and "growth," and this theory has not, as far as I can see, furthered the millenium to any startling degree. Perhaps we need to set up some ends for education; perhaps we need to ask, "Growth towards what?"[1]

Smith is discouraged with the vague definition of "desirable" and "satisfactory" growth. He contends that to go beyond a definition of these terms would involve dealing with absolutes which "is something the pragmatist refuses to do even though he runs into a logical absurdity; if you declare something to be desirable and satisfactory, you are implying an ought to be, you are declaring that there are some desirable ends."[2]

Millard takes account of this question by stating that growth is cyclic and the completion of cycles of various phases of growth within the individual and from other individuals is dependent on the speed of individual maturation.[3] There exist different degrees of maturity for various kinds of learnings. He further contends that the development of the individual as a whole

> is a complex process in which there are innumerable kinds of growth maturing in a coordinative relationship with each other. Each sequence follows the

---

[1] Smith, And Madly Teach, p. 105.

[2] Smith, The Diminished Mind, p. 80

[3] Millard, op. cit., p. 45.

> same general pattern with well-defined beginning and end points. Simple growth begins early and ends early; more complex growth takes a longer period of time.[1]

This point is clearly illustrated in the graph on page 83.

He concludes, stating that any teacher who attempts to "force" or impose material on children "in advance of essential general maturity is not only inefficient but is setting up an inhibitory situation which may immediately affect the child's personality in such a way as to confuse learning when the time for its natural introduction arrives."[2]

Implementing the evidence provided by Millard regarding the various processes involved in development, educators direct their attention to the development of the "Whole Child," i.e., the physical, academic, social and spiritual growth processes. Unlike the subject matter emphasis which scholars deem as the primary function in education, educators are satisfied if the individual displays within the limits of his capacities, growth in only a few of the aforementioned areas. Bestor condemns this attitude regarding it as "a sheer intellectual confusion" which is justified by "sentimental phrases" when reference is directed toward "educating the whole child."[3] He adds, "If this means anything, it means simple that different kinds of training must be co-ordinated

---

[1] Ibid., p. 18.

[2] Ibid., pp. 22-23.

[3] Ibid.

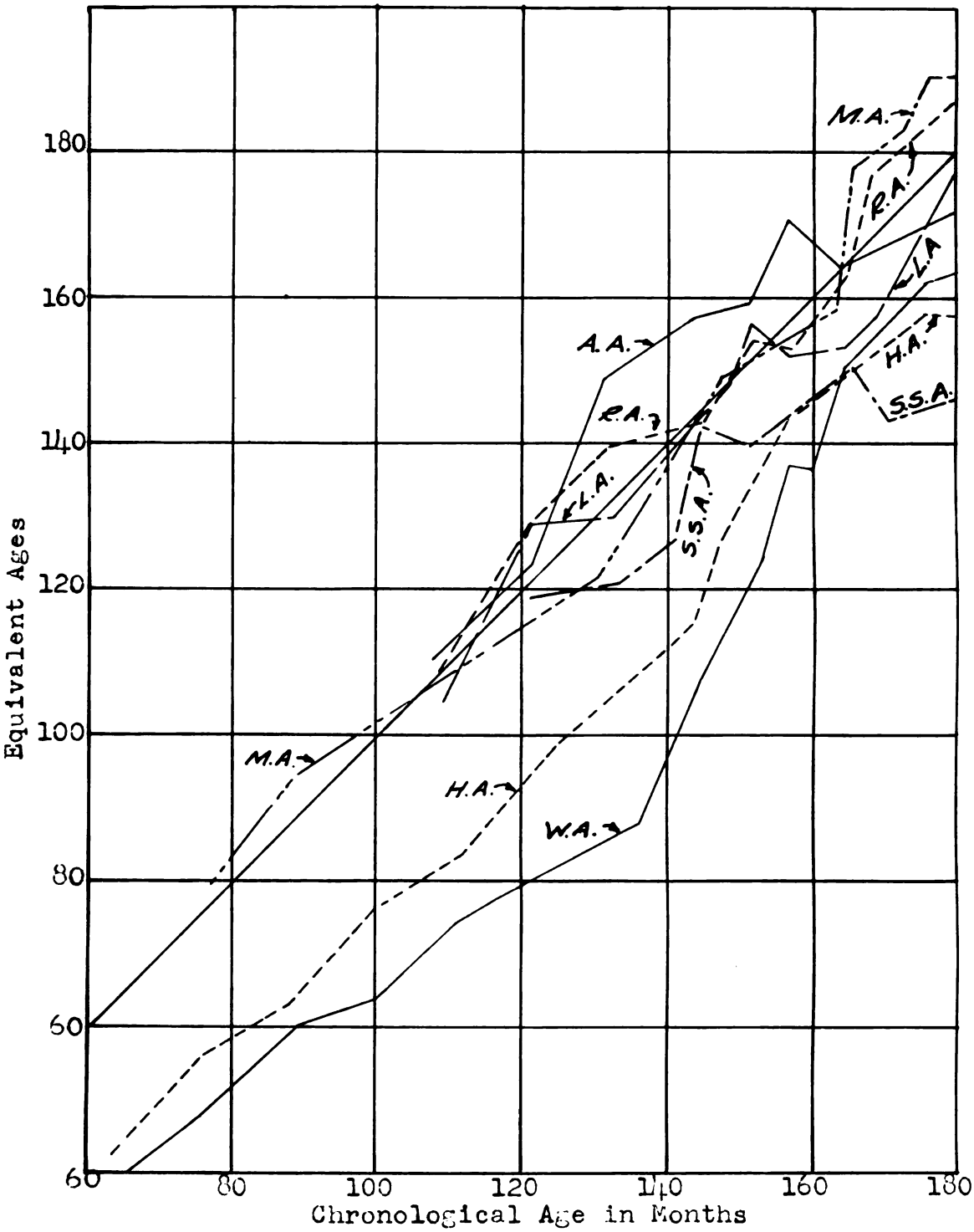

Fig. 1. Mental, physical, and learning growth patterns: Case 80F.

W.A. -- Weight Age
M.A. -- Mental Age
L.A. -- Language Arts Age
A.A. -- Arithmetic Age
H.A. -- Height Age
R.A. -- Reading Age
S.S.A. -- Social Science Age

Source: Cecil Millard, Child Growth and Development Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1951, p. 16.

so that the child's development will not be on-sided and unbalanced." He concludes, "to educate the 'whole' child does not mean that different functions and activities cannot be dealt with separately and systematically."[1]

Eklund, professional educator, agrees that each growth phase of the child is directly related to his total development and he explains that educators not only deal with each process individually, but also in reference to the total personality. He bases his convictions on the child development theory that due recognition should be given to the development of individual growth processes which constitute the "whole" when he asserts,

> While we should like to deal constantly with an integrated personality, we must realize that a child's mental, physical and emotional development do not necessarily proceed at the same pace. To meet satisfactorily the many variations, each phase of this development must be studied in its own context, though each phase is closely related to the others.[2]

Scholars contend that the philosophies of educational theorists regarding the development of individuality are contradictory to their emphasis on group adjustment. Most individuals agree that the health of a society is directly related to the increasing adjustment of individuals to each other. In cases of doubt, decisions based on the consensus of the group are advocated. Individuals who are encouraged to express

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Melby, Freedom and Public Education, p. 263.

their individualistic needs may encounter difficulty when the opinions of the group do not coincide with individualistic opinion. Sociologist David Riesman describes the dichotomy in educational philosophies contending that in one instance educators attempt to have the child express his "felt needs" but on the other hand they are of the opinion that the child is expected to behave in accordance with the norms and standards advocated by his group. Thus the question is raised, "Can educators actually meet 'felt needs'?"[1]

Riesman advances the notion that due to the emphasis on socialization, public schools have failed in emphasizing the skills of intellect because of "overplaying the skills of gregariousness and amiability--[or]--skill democracy."[2] He adds that the student is encouraged to develop "other directed"[3] attitudes so that he may assume his position in a society where the "concern of the group is less with what it produces than with its internal group relations."[4] The extent of individual assimilation of group desires and wishes

---

[1]David Riesman, The Lonely Crowd, New York: Doubleday and Co., Ind., 1953, p. 83.

[2]Ibid., p. 84.

[3]Riesman's hypothesis in The Lonely Crowd concerns the distinction between the "inner directed" individuals, i.e., persons whose actions and behavior are more individualized or self determined from those who are "other directed" or whose character is primarily influenced and thus formed by the influence of opinions of their "peers or contemporaries" more so than the "inner directed."

[4]Ibid., p. 85.

invariably leads to greater social adjustment. Riesman believes that such attitudes are paradoxical to the educative theories of individual expression of personal needs. Individuality is, under such circumstances, thwarted rather than advanced or protected.[1] As a result, students who desire to manifest behaviorisms pertinent to personal interest are constantly reminded that such behaviors need be deemed socially acceptable else they should be suppressed for the good of the individual and the group. Furthermore, it is improbable that student behavior can be based purely on personal interest. The teacher's role is often that of an opinion leader whose "emotional energies are channeled into the area of group relations."[2] Such procedures may account for a more organized and efficient social group, but discourage the idea that the educator is able to meet the varying needs of individuals in a given classroom.

Smith's concept of the lack of individuality in classroom situations parallels that of Riesman when he emphasizes that education is for the individual and this fact should be remembered before educators submerge individuality to the dictates of social groups. He emphasizes that "education is a personal, individual experience. Its purpose is the improvement of persons and only secondarily the improvement of society."[3]

---

[1] Ibid., p. 80.
[2] Ibid., p. 85.
[3] Smith, The Diminished Mind, p. 7.

Hence it seems that scholars believe that educational theory tends more and more to lean toward a mass conception which results in a type of society where deviation from established patterns from the "commonality" is frowned upon or discouraged. Such training, they believe, not only discourages the cultivation of an intellectual curiosity, but sociological theory of such nature is also apt to "produce docile individuals animated by a desire for group conformity and social solidarity."[1] Smith wonders "if the majority of American youth is dull and hence malleable, why can't doctrinaires, if they can achieve strategic positions, mold youth in any desired shape, towards any ideology?"[2] Bestor concludes posing the thought concerning educators, that not only do they [educators] "take the child, but to take him for the purpose of molding for what they think is a good society."[3]

Professors of education contend that they are cognizant of the virtuous elements requisite for the development of "good, moral and upstanding" character. Yet, they believe that no individual may alienate himself from social pressures which are responsible for the formation of many aspects of the individual personality. Educators insist that each child must build for himself the highest conception that he can. As he progresses in accomplishing such, he automatically

---

[1] Ibid., p. 54.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Bestor, Educational Wastelands, p. 55.

involves himself with other people and can determine from social reactions whether his standards meet a desirable personal-social standard. Kilpatrick maintains that individual goals should be approached and solved according to the "highest standard which will stand severe criticisms."[1] There should be a constant intention to improve such skills and with individuals working together to reach this goal, ". . . the highest and best ideals will prevail. History shows that this definition of the good life is true."[2]

Ernest Melby, former dean of education at New York University, is of the conviction that individual talents are sought out cooperatively and "an environment is established which will help develop these talents."[3] Kilpatrick follows Dewey in negating the emphasis placed upon learning specific moral principles which supposedly are responsible for the development of respectable character and goes on to supply a group norm for morality. He states,

> The old theory had the idea that there were fixed and eternal principles which man must find and obey. The new goes on the idea that we never reach perfection for fixedness except in a limited way; progress is possible, so far as we can tell, along any given line. . . . We now believe that the child thinks within his area of control from a very early age. Then that area will enlarge and increase and skill will increase. . . . We have to guide. How do we guide? . . . We must talk it over together because the group ought to do better

---

[1]Mort and Vincent, A Look At Our Schools, p. 31.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Melby, Story of the Phoney Three-R Fight, p. 24.

> thinking than the best member of the group working alone. Even the best man can profit by what the others are thinking, and if he does a good job of thinking, the group will do better.[1]

The notion advanced thus far emphasizes the extent of value from suggestions propounded by group members rather than placing sole reliance on the individual. According to educators, such thinking is consistent with both the principles of individual differences and group planning. Under such circumstances, the slower student may benefit from his advanced peers and even precocious individuals may share ideas. Such procedures should result in a greater dissemination of knowledge and result in increased social and academic learning.

Another educational point of view regards society as recognizing the need for possible allowance in establishing individual standards. But the determination of what proper boundaries exist for such implementation "must in an interdependent society be based on collective judgment."[2] For an optimum of individual adjustment, the individual must realize the extent to which he may exercise individual opinion and yet adjust to wishes of the group with which he intends to identify himself. Factors which individuals must be aware of in order to adapt socially depend on (1) the nature of

---

[1]Mort and Vincent, op. cit., p. 30.

[2]Page Smith, "The Sins of Contemporary Education," The Education Digest, XXI (March, 1955), pp. 1-4.

the problem, (2) personalities involved, and (3) social demands existing at the time.

Before scholars and educators become convinced of their assertions regarding the issue of individuality versus group conformity, Harman reminds them

> When we consider group behavior we must always remember that the phenomena we are discussing have had their origin in individuals and will have their ultimate effect upon individuals. This does not mean that interaction among individuals is unimportant or that the leader need not study group phenomena. . . . One often hears people talk about the "spirit of the group" as though it were something different from the spirit of the individuals who make up the group. Although it is true that individuals may behave quite differently under group conditions--such as those of a lynch mob--than they would singly, none-theless it is still the individual who is doing the behaving.[1]

Smith, Stanley and Shores, professional educators, advance the notion of existing individuality in a group structure. They explain that recognizing the bounds of group interests and activities, "every attempt is made to allow individual purposes and competencies their full development."[2] If an appeal is made to student interest in an activity-type curriculum, for example the individual would not be compelled to follow the wishes of the group. Instead, he could explore those areas which are of immediate interest to him. If for some reason a student were disinterested in group or individual

---

[1]Franklyn Haiman, Group Leadership and Democratic Action, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951, p. 190.

[2]Othanel Smith, William Stanley and Harlan Shores, Fundamentals of Curriculum Development, New York: World Book Co., 1950, p. 468.

activities then behavior would be diagnosed to determine reasons for disinterest or isolation.

Contrary to emphasis on individual recognition, Sociologist Hare advances a theory based upon research which involves the interaction of individuals within social groups. He verifies the theory of "de-individuation" which is described as a "state of affairs in a group where members do not pay attention to other individuals qua individuals, and, correspondingly do not feel that they are being singled out by others."[1] The theory postulated herein is the "reduction of inner restraints" in members who have the opportunity to participate in experiences from which they are usually restrained. Hare adds, "It was further hypothesized that this is a satisfying state of affairs and its occurrence would tend to increase the attractiveness of the group."[2]

Hence, professional educators direct attention toward both schools of thought, i.e., individuality and group conformity. Either philosophy is applied as it best contributes to the total development of the person. The implementation of a variety of teaching methods is important to the teacher who concerns himself with the problems of providing experiences suitable to the different personalities in a classroom.

Recent theories of education emphasize the incorporation of sociological concepts in the school curriculum.

---

[1]Paul Hare, Edgar Borgatta and Robert Bales, Small Groups, New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1955, p. 299.

[2]Ibid.

Educators hope to provide a type of education which will enable students to contribute to social stability by understanding themselves and the world around them. Since transmission of knowledge involves social interaction, students are taught to be cognizant of social demands and best ways to adapt to them. The study of students' behavior in group processes enables the teacher to help students solve or prevent social difficulties that they might experience.

Social psychologist Kluckhohn emphasizes that much evidence pertinent to individual behavior can be obtained from a study of the individual in the group. The patterns of behavior with which an individual identifies himself, pattern deviation or pattern transgression offer clues as to personality formation, and the assimilation of socially approved behavior offer vast amounts of information in the study of "differential participation" of the individual.

Still recognizing the factor of individuality in social adjustment, Kluckhohn reiterates that it is chiefly the traditional patterns which parents, educators, statesmen, etc., retain and teach by example or persuasion and "by an accepted, culturally defined system of rewards and punishments. The process of inculcating and learning these patterns, until they become "second nature," is termed "socialization."[1] Kluckhohn believes that it is processes such as these which

---

[1] Ibid., pp. 42-43.

reward the child by teaching him to do many things toward which he is groping.[1]

The proper integration and application of the aforementioned concepts (interest, growth, needs, group adjustment, individual differences and socialization) should enhance individual development if their demands are realized by the educator. Yet mere acknowledgment of such concepts will not suffice. Educators are responsible for applying them to educational experiences which will provide an optimum of educational learnings. Programs devised to account for the variable factors in individual development are labeled "Life Adjustment." Students educated under the life adjustment program are given the opportunity to study in a fashion which takes account of the proper relationship of subject matter to experiences which the students and teacher deem as important to the demands of everyday living. Such attention directed to student desires and interests invariably leads to the establishment of a "child-centered" curriculum. One popular reason forwarded by educators as responsible for the establishment of such curricula was the increased dropout of students from school. Prior to the inauguration of such programs, students "saw little or no relationship between subjects they were studying and the life problems of which they were more or less acutely aware."[2] Samples of a "child-

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Bestor, Educational Wastelands, p. 92.

centered curriculum which deal with "real life" problems, might include problems of a current, political nature, education for family living, consumer economics, job information, social problems of a communital or personal nature, or studies of the relationship of academic areas to matters determined as important by student interest.

Such procedures are naturally condemned by scholars as "non-academic" and "mediocre," and they maintain that such a program places an over-reliance on the interests of students who are not able to determine educational objectives. Perhaps most outstanding of all are criticisms concerning (1) over-emphasis on the contemporaneity of social or political issues by the implementation of procedures which neglected detailed historical study for example, hence, ignoring academic content, and (2) an over-emphasis on individual and personal problems which scholars believe do not prepare students adequately for experiences which might occur outside of their immediate or experiential realm. Bestor aptly illustrates this point, stating, "Absent is any idea that the nation is in danger and that it may require of its future citizens some very hard thinking, not about their personal problems first of all, but about the means of national survival."[1] He is especially discouraged with the development of content in such "adjustment" curricula since primary attention is based on

---

[1]Ibid., p. 99.

individual needs and interest while the development of "what" and "amount" of subject matter is never definitely ascertained."[1]

Scholars assert that educators no longer desire a curriculum of the sequential arts and sciences, of the systematic methods of thinking, or of organized bodies of factual information which have been accepted and perfected by many generations of educators. Instead, they contend that educators propose curricula based on activities of life adjustment pertinent to issues and questions which revolve around personal interest-centered activities. Wheat, a conservative educator, insists that life adjustment of real worth is "not apart from, but through traditional education," and the issue which both scholars and educators confront is not the choice between a program of life adjustment and traditional education, "but instead the issue of how to bring the two programs into proper balance."[2] Bestor is of the conviction that if these is any value in a life adjustment program, the problem lies in the overemphasis on some parts of the curriculum and a neglect of other areas. He states, "they [life adjustment programs] consist in the abnormal over-development of certain features of the school program

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Office of Education, Progress of Public Education in the United States of America, 1955-56, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1956, p. 9.

and the withering of other and more important features."[1] Solving life problems can be accomplished via the academic approach where the individual can "discover the enduring consolations of literature, and philosophy and art, a world, into which he can build an order of his own through systematic, sequential, creative thought."[2] Attempting to provide suitable experiences and thus account for a peak of adjustment, educators tend to de-emphasize subject matter and are criticized for impinging upon family responsibility when they enter into the realm of personal problems. Smith argues "Surely those who are fit to teach can look after their own mental and emotional health, and surely much that is called health instruction constitutes an impertinent invasion of the responsibilities of parents."[3]

Hence it is obvious that not only do scholars view educators as negligent in developing academic content in life adjustment curricula, but they consider them guilty of invading the realm of parental responsibility. In conclusion, Smith considers the superior student to be neglected because the life adjustment curriculum is geared toward solving problems of the commonalty which comprise the greater percentage of school enrollment. If programs are geared toward

---

[1]Bestor, The Restoration of Learning, p. 120.

[2]Ibid., p. 136.

[3]Smith, Public Schools in Crisis, p. 143.

such levels, they "invalidate most of the assumptions that have underlain American democracy, and enthrone once again the ancient doctrine that a clear majority of the people are destined from birth to be hewers of wood and drawers of water."[1]

In an attempt to explain the pedagogical position regarding the suppression of academic content in the "Life Adjustment" curriculum, professional educator Broudy readily admits that suppression of the intellectual outcomes of schooling in favor of emotional, personal and civic adjustment have been substantiated by the evidence of current educational psychology which emphasizes personality adjustment rather than the acquisition of skill and knowledge.[2] He adds, cautioning the critic against charges of instrumentalism and pragmatism that "it is to be doubted that this emphasis . . . whatever its merits . . . stems directly or solely from Instrumentalism as a theory."[3] One might suspect that Broudy himself would have strong reservations concerning such curricula.

Regarding educational concern in tackling problems of other social institutions, Mort and Vincent emphasize that growth and guidance in such areas as the home, community, farm, church and other less formal social institutions were heavily instrumental in "forging" character of the youngster.

---

[1]Smith, The Diminished Mind, pp. 24-25.

[2]Broudy, Educational Theory, IV, p. 197.

[3]Ibid.

This desirable situation has changed and growth and guidance which once occurred in these institutions no longer assume the same degree of influence that they formerly did. Such being the case, the authors wonder ". . . what agency should try to fill the breach?"[1] In justifying the behavior of public education which takes account of such shortcomings, they explain, "Wherever the public has been asked, they too think that the schools should be held responsible for displaying those desirable functions for which they are better equipped."[2]

Due consideration directed to the individual problems of the student enables the educator to handle the variety of capabilities and vocational interests of each individual. Rigid curriculum patterns do not allow for the varied potential and interests existing in classrooms. Hence, advocates of the Life Adjustment concept attempt to individualize curriculum opportunities to such demands. Some professional educators wonder how scholars handle the diversity which exists in community backgrounds which range from "the isolated and insulated mountain valley school, through multitudinous types of small and medium-sized communities, to large metropolitan centers, each different and unique in background and economic and cultural pattern."[3] Not only because of the range of

---

[1]Mort and Vincent, op. cit., pp. 68-69.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Vern Thayer, Public Education and Its Critics, New York: Macmillan Co., 1954, pp. 115-116.

communital backgrounds, but moreover, within such diverse patterns there are students who vary considerably in interests and abilities as well as emotional and social disposition. If such differences are to be ignored by withholding opportunities for students to investigate and prepare themselves best for their individual adjustment, such attitudes as well as the assumption of one pattern of education for all "may yield a high percentage of educational casualities."[1]

Thayer concludes,

> To assume that the media of education for the future artisan and mechanic, business man and scientist, or even the members of the many professions and semi-professions should be of one pattern--the pattern required for admission to the professions of yesterday--is an outmoded principle to apply to education. It is too simple, analagous, in a way, to Secretary Wilson's dictum that "What is best for General Motors is best for the country."[2]

Not disregarding the extent of academic and social content in the life adjustment curriculum, professional educator Bobbitt cites the essentials of such a curriculum,

> (1) language activities; social intercommunication; (2) health activities; (3) citizenship activities; (4) general social activities--meeting and mingling with others; (5) spare-time activities, amusements, recreations; (6) keeping oneself mentally fit--analagous to health activities of keeping oneself physically fit; (7) religious activities; (8) parental activities, the upbringing of children, the maintenance of a proper home life; (9) unspecialized or non-vocational practical activities; (10) the labors of one's calling.[3]

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid., p. 115.

[3] Ibid., p. 281.

Considering Bobbitt's essentials of a well-rounded curriculum, it is quite obvious that the modern curriculum contains provisions for the development of the social as well as academic skills which have been heretofore ignored by planners of the subject-matter centered curriculum.

The Life Adjustment movement has been aimed at developing a "modern functional program for those who will not go either (1) to college, or (2) into occupations for which they can be trained specifically in high school."[1] It is estimated that 60 percent of high school boys and girls fall into this category. Designers of this program relate that not only has the movement remedied many educational shortcomings, but there is an increasing belief by the public that the program for the "60 percent might well be an excellent program for all American youth."[2]

Countless demands placed upon schools concerning issues of a social as well as academic nature, have prompted curriculum planners to develop types of curricula which will best meet the needs of a rapidly changing society. An influx of unprecedented educational enrollments has presented a multitude of educational problems which rests in the hands of educators. The issue of additional students which is

---

[1] U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, The Progress of Public Education in the United States of America, op. cit., p. 7.

[2] Ibid.

accompanied by a complexity of problems resulting from educating the masses, challenges educators. The responsibility of adequately preparing college-bound students with a sound education as well as encouraging academically incompetent students to remain in school as long as is possible presents problems hardly ever encountered by educators of a few decades ago. The curricula of yesterday would hardly suffice to meet these challenging situations. As society changes, so do the demands of its members, hence, it is inevitable that numerable changes will be instituted in the contemporary curriculum.

CHAPTER IV

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL THEORY TO A JUNIOR HIGH CORE-TYPE CURRICULUM

In this chapter an attempt will be made to describe a course of study in the Social Studies program of a modern junior high school. A core-type curriculum will be considered and should illustrate an implementation of educational theories and methodology which professional educators utilize as a basis for constructing social studies programs. Criticisms of scholars directed specifically to educational theory and methodology will be considered as these relate to this illustrative program. The presentation of such an example should provide ample opportunity for educators and scholars to present educational views regarding the extent of educative value which might result from such a program.

A study of the various types of curricula should reveal that, contrary to the popular misconceptions of the layman, there exists no purely modern or general progressive type of curriculum. Smith, Stanley and Shores cite three main types of curricula which could be found in almost any American school. They are the Subject Curriculum, the Activity Curriculum and the Core Curriculum.[1] Any of the aforementioned types of curricula can vary considerably from

---

[1] Smith, Stanley and Shores, op. cit., p. 450.

school to school or program to program within school systems. The interpretation as to style and emphasis of the various aspects of such programs is determined to a large extent by school systems and furthermore can vary in form depending on the manner which they are implemented by individual teachers. The "Core" type curriculum will be considered. The junior high school program described and criticized here will be one variant of a core program.

The United States Office of Education cites four possible types of core programs used by 519 schools throughout the United States. The following styles of core clearly illustrate the extent or degree of interpretation which "core" may undergo.

> Type A--Each subject retains its identity in the core; that is, subjects combined in the core are correlated but not fused. For example, the teaching of American literature may be correlated with the teaching of American history.
>
> Type B--Subject lines are broken down. Subjects included in the core are fused into a unified whole around a central theme, e.g., "Our American Heritage" may be the central theme for a core unifying history and literature, and possibly art and music.
>
> Type C--Subjects are brought in only as needed. The core consists of a number of broad preplanned problems usually related to a central theme. Problems are based on predetermined areas of pupil needs, both immediate felt needs and needs as society sees them. Members of the class may or may not have a choice from among several problems; they will, however, choose activities within the problems.
>
> Type D--Subjects are brought in only as needed in "C" above. There are no predetermined problem areas

to be studied. Pupils and teacher are free to select problems upon which they wish to work.[1]

The type of program which will be considered in this project is curriculum type "C".

Smith, Stanley and Shores list two distinctive features which distinguish the core program from other forms of curriculum organization. The first distinguishing characteristic is the emphasis on a "Core of Social Values."[2] The authors explain that the "universal elements of a culture give the society its stability and unity."[3] The core of such "universals" consists of basic values or rules which people accept to govern their activities. Those values which constitute the "stable and vital" aspects of the universals comprise the heart of the core. Problems concerning the value content of social problems are recognized and a consideration is directed to the moral and cultural implications involved. The authors contend that "it is the chief characteristic of the core curriculum, as a pure type, that the democratic value-system is not only taught as the standard of judgment but also deliberately criticized and reconstructed so as to bring it into life with the social realities of today."[4] Emphasis of the core is directed to educational experiences which

---

[1]United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Core Curriculum Development Problems and Practices Bulletin, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1952, p. 8.

[2]Smith, Stanley and Shores, op. cit., p. 468.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Ibid., p. 469.

emphasize the self-realization of a healthy society fostered in a democratic manner.

The second distinctive feature of the core curriculum is that "the structure of the core curriculum is fixed by broad social problems or by themes of social living."[1] Subject matter courses are not considered as entities in themselves but exist for the purpose of extracting information in solving problems related to effective social living. A core program would differ from an activity curriculum in that guidance of the teacher would aid students in suggesting, locating and defining and selecting problems. Unlike an activity program which depends primarily upon the interests of students, the core utilizes but does not depend solely on expressed student interest. It must be understood, that students have a share in determining organization and selection of areas to be studied. Smith, Stanley and Shores believe that the involvement of pupils in teacher-pupil planning provides them with "valuable training gained through practice in the definition and structuring of problems for study."[2]

Some of the essential and intended characteristics of the core program are common learnings which should be realized and practiced by all members of society regardless of ability, social status, or vocational plans.[3] Even the

---

[1] Ibid., p. 471.

[2] Ibid., p. 473.

[3] Ibid.

atypical student who is withdrawn from the group should be provided with the opportunity to experience such learnings.

Another essential characteristic of the core curriculum is the teacher-pupil planning relationship where student and teacher receive valuable experience in planning and sharing ideas. The teacher functions as a guiding element and thus enables students to reach their planned goals successfully. "As a bearer of expert knowledge and the moral authority of the larger society, the teacher insists upon the clarification of goal seeking and value orientation by processes of critical thought and by reference to the imperatives of a democratic society."[1]

Subject matter is by no means ignored and skills are taught as they bear significance in the light of problems studied. Thus, reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography are applied to specific situations when their application bears special reference to an experience, hence displaying the relation of subject matter to real life problems.

In order for the core program to operate at peak efficiency, flexibility in curriculum organization is mandatory. Such flexibility allows for the inclusion and development of pupil interest and needs. If individual interests vary as the course of study of a project progresses, the program should be sufficiently flexible to allow for individual deviation. Under such circumstances, the student should explore

---

[1] Ibid., p. 475.

areas relevant to the program which are of primary interest to him.

Individual opinions of professional educators regarding the nature of educational objectives of a modern school curriculum may vary, but most beliefs expounded by these men are fundamentally similar. One professional educator states the functions of modern education to include

> (1) the development of the fundamental academic skills; (2) provisions for general education (which includes an understanding and appreciation of our cultural heritage); (3) providing problems which involve preparation for living in a complex social order, i.e., health education, training for home and family living, wise use of leisure time, etc.; (4) ample provisions for "exploratory experiences" which enable students to choose vocational goals; (5) recognizing precocious students; (6) provision for vocational training; and (7) adequate preparation for college preparatory students.[1]

He concludes by asserting that "good schools no longer resort to blanket prescriptions of educational programs, but attempt through guidance practices to arrange a program for each pupil which will lead to his maximum growth in areas suitable for his particular interests and abilities."[2]

Unlike a traditional classroom where seating arrangements may be determined alphabetically, the atmosphere of the core classroom displays exhibits and projects of students which have resulted from group or individual activity. Seating arrangements may be circular so that all members face each

---

[1] Robert H. Beck, The Three R's Plus, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1956, pp. 82-83.

[2] Ibid.

other or tables may be arranged in small rectangular groups. Such procedures should enhance a free flow of discussion among students. Most often, teachers have their social study core groups assigned to them for homeroom purposes which provides opportunities for students and teachers to discuss any personal or academic problems. Teachers have access to cumulative folders which contain academic social and physical growth of pupils dating back to the primary grades. They are involved with all phases of individual development and often social problems have priority over academic assignments. Scholars criticize the emphasis on teacher-pupil relationships which often involve studies of social problems. They believe that such attention to personal matters often interferes with the teacher's development of the academic program. Such matters, they assume, are the concern of parents. Educators insist, as was previously mentioned, that affairs once considered the problem of the home are not always taken care of. The teacher's understanding of personal-student relations can often bring problems to light by discussion and eventually, a solution may result. Unless such issues are given due attention, the learning of academic skills will suffer setbacks due to time spent upon problems which would otherwise be directed to the study of academic skills.

At pre-school conferences, teachers receive curriculum objectives with suggested course outlines which they are

expected to cover within the course of the academic year. The actual development of such programs involves teacher-pupil planning. A seventh grade outline might include (1) A Study of Our State, (2) Orientation to Junior High School, (3) Enjoying the Outdoors, (4) A Study of People of Other Lands, and (5) Individual Health and Social Problems. The range of projects takes into account the physical, social, academic, and moral factors which educators assume to be necessary for the development of a sound and responsible citizen.

One of the general purposes of the social studies program is to provide opportunities for students to familiarize themselves with possible "problems of living" which they may experience. The relationship of government or civics to a local community problem is one example of relating academic content to some "problems of living" which a student may encounter under a program of this nature. Within the framework of social studies, the areas of history, civics, sociology, economics and geography are found to be related to basic problems which face youth today. In order to obtain significant and desirable results, close attention must be directed to those areas from which data is extracted and applied toward the solution of such problems. Each "problem" draws freely upon history, for example, to the extent that it provides meaning to the progression and nature of the issue under discussion. Some typical understandings from the social studies

areas might appear as follows:

> History: Survey of the social, economic, and political progression of America, emphasizing the development of democracy as a desirable framework for abundant living. Attention should be given facts and details to the extent that a deeper understanding and appreciation of contemporary living will be achieved. Study of the past is useful to the extent that it enriches and clarifies the present.
>
> Geography: Basic knowledge of geographic concepts and terms necessary to an understanding of the growth of American culture. Survey of land and water areas of the world with emphasis on how problems stemming therefrom effect the world situation.
>
> Economics: Basic understanding of the term "free enterprise," and how it affects our lives. This to be interpreted in terms of the student's own experiences with handling of money; progressing gradually to concepts of family finance, and from there to the larger concepts of national economy.
>
> Sociology: Understandings necessary to achieve desirable relationships between peoples on a racial, national, and personal basis. Development of modes of behavior commensurate with the ideals of democracy.
>
> Civics: Understanding and appreciation of the responsibilities of citizenship. Function of machinery of government on local, state and national levels. Promotion of civic ideals, attitudes, and habits that will operate in the lives of the students.[1]

Framers of social studies programs believe that material from academic areas should be extracted and applied to experiences which would enable students to see a relationship of subject-learned to actual situations. They do not believe in emphasizing a specialization in each subject. The reasoning underlying this belief is founded on the notion that

---

[1]East Lansing High School, "Seventh Grade Resource Units," an unpublished article, East Lansing, Michigan, 1954., p. 4.

academic skills are not handled as separate entities by individuals when they are implemented in everyday experiences. Furthermore, the dissemination of various academic skills among individuals involves a social interaction. Hence, teachers occupy themselves with the responsibilities of demonstrating how subjects are interrelated in the educational scheme, and how best to apply knowledge to social situations. It seems that the goals of a social studies program best fulfill the task of emphasizing the interrelationships and applicability of the academic disciplines. Insofar as the deletion of any academic area is concerned, such may be the case only when its omission from context will result in a more effective unit. Prior to an analysis of the English aspect of the curriculum, attention will be directed to probable criticisms of scholars regarding the development of the social studies program thus far.

Scholars violently protest the inclusion of areas of study which deal with "School Orientation," "Individual Health Problems," or "Enjoying the Outdoors." Such areas, they insist, are secondary to the emphasis on subject matter and are matters to be handled out of the school. Such areas of emphasis, which are directed toward personal and social adjustment, are substituted for academic areas which are responsible for the cultivation of intellectualism. Scholars add that curricula of this nature are involved with "fads and frills," "watered down with mediocrity" or geared toward

the enhancement of intellectual retardation. If scholars consider a sound educational program to include the academic areas, professional educators, through the selection of academic content in developing social studies programs have met this objective. The discrepancy which exists in spite of this fact is the neglect of emphasis on subject matter content of which scholars accuse professional educators. As was expressed earlier in this thesis, the educative value derived from either the subject matter or core curriculum differs markedly in the judgment of scholar and educator. Unless either school of thought relinquishes, even to a small degree, their firm educational stands, it is almost impossible to take into account the views of both factions in developing a school program.

Scholars are not only critical of the neglect of subject matter in such curriculums, but they resent the manipulation of academic content when it is included in the course of study. The "extraction" of factual data pertinent to "problems" is abhorred by scholars since they contend that much of the "problem devising" originates from within the student. Subject matter is often slighted because of the ignorance and lack of insight into historical background on the part of the students. Scholars are also critical of the over-emphasis on the contemporaneity of problems studied, i.e., current events, or local problems in which merely the periphery of history is studied. Such methodology, they

complain, ignores the importance and implication of historical documentation.

The development of language arts in the core program involves a consideration of the English language and its constituents. The social sciences and English language are, perhaps, the two major areas of the social studies core program sometimes referred to as English-Social Studies. Educators render the assumption that communication is an integral tool of self-expression which is the primary objective of the language arts phase of social studies. In order to develop peak efficiency in communication, every available means of communication should be experienced as a medium of self-expression. As a result of experiences, problems of self-expression should become identified and realized by the student. As a student progresses in his studies he should grow in his understanding and use of communication skills. The expected result should assure the development of a "rich and abundant life."[1]

Some specific purposes which are intended as part of the core program are:

A. To develop a critical appreciation and understanding of the many and varied means of communication.
B. To develop skills of reading which are essential to successful participation in our society.
C. To promote qualitative growth in the skills of writing.
D. To perceive and develop the many techniques of speaking.

---

[1] Ibid., p. 8.

E. To improve the methods of listening as the receptive part of speaking.[1]

The scope of areas in the English phase of the core covers the gamut of language arts. Special considerations are directed to writing which involves the study of sentence structure, and its components, composition and spelling. The area of reading emphasizes the use and location of source materials, methods of improving reading through attention directed to comprehension, speed and vocabulary. Areas of speech which are emphasized to facilitate communication include training in listening, conversation, forums, panels, formalized speeches of a demonstrative, informative, persuasive and impromptu nature. Students are also provided with ample opportunity for creativity in the realm of dramatics.

Quite similar to the procedures of the social science phase of the core program is the development of language arts skills within the context of problem areas. Educators assert that the separation of learning from effective use in life-like situations is to say that learning without application is possible and desirable. Whenever appropriate, instruction in skill development is related to the unit which students are studying. Students are subjected to the array of academic skills which teachers are obligated to teach since the academic skills are a part of curriculum objectives.

---

[1] Ibid.

The development of such an English program should hardly be subjected to academic criticisms of neglect of subject matter areas. Not only are the fundamental components of the English language covered, but a realization of these skills through practical application would seem to take into account all desirable factors.

As was stated earlier, scholars are of the conviction that what educators refer to as "language arts" or "English" is actually a melange of radio acting, how to answer a telephone, lessons in manners and the like. Teachers assume that an awareness of the value of formal study occurs when the student develops a need for such learnings. Too often areas not considered as essential or pertinent to a unit of study may be ignored or even slighted. Bestor has often expressed the idea that the attempt to integrate or interrelate areas of the social sciences with English in social studies programs has resulted in a hodgepodge of knowledge. Each subject, he believes, must be treated as a separate unit and in a fashion which would allow for logical analysis. The studying of historical or fundamental processes of a discipline must occur first, before students can expect to possess the facility to relate the skill to other areas. Such methods, he assumes, are possible only for those who have studied the subject from its beginnings, a judgment in which he is joined by other scholars.

After the basic objectives for a grade level are understood by the teacher, the process of teacher-pupil planning takes place. As a member of a group, the teacher makes suggestions about projects that the class might undertake, and yet does not force her suggestions upon the group. When it is time to select a new unit, pupils look at the list of topics they might cover and may suggest additional problems which are of primary concern to them. Interest may be stimulated by suggestions advanced from the preceding units. After the list is drawn up, students may pair off into groups, and select a major topic. In some instances precocious individuals may desire to pursue more than one area of study. Such selections are based in part on individual interest and are assigned in accordance with student ability.

If interest in a selected topic wanes or another area of interest relevant to the unit under study evolves, attention is re-directed toward solving the alternate problem. It is the teacher's responsibility to point out to students the areas where they need experience and to provide situations whereby individual students can succeed according to their individual abilities. Such procedures allow for recognition of individual interests and differences.

Scholars frown upon student participation in planning with teachers. They believe that due to limited backgrounds, students are not cognizant of the actual purposes of education.

Teachers, they believe, are "missing the boat" when they assume students are capable of determining what learnings should be covered in a given assignment. If students do develop the habit of pursuing courses of study peculiar to their own interests, they invariably are due for a sad reawakening. Students, scholars assert, will be confronted by problems not of their own choice in the adult world. Such education, scholars contend, pacifies the student and does not adequately prepare him for the rigors of our competitive society.

The responsibility of the teacher for student growth in all learning phases is not lessened because the class is operating democratically. There are many areas of growth to be concerned with in addition to the skills that are stressed in a more traditional classroom. To enable students to plan and work together, to make wise decisions, and to evaluate themselves and their work, is a sizeable undertaking.

Students who have selected problems as a result of teacher-pupil planning begin to explore possible resources which might provide them with suitable information. Upon occasion, students may prepare exhibits, demonstrations or participate in group-planned skits which help to illustrate or clarify their phase of research. The sheer process of working in groups which involves group sharing and democratic procedure is an important function of group activity. In no instance is an attitude of laissez-faire permitted. Because of the activity which might result from different projects

studied, members of each group are aware of and held to their responsibilities and assignments.

The extent of educative value derived from class projects, e.g., constructing bulletin boards, preparing detailed charts, maps or graphs, or preparing skits is evaluated negatively by scholars. They wonder if the amount of time spent on individual enterprise is warranted by the amount of material learned. Educators are not especially concerned with the quantitative aspects of factual data which might be acquired. They are concerned with emphasizing social development as well as academic content. Specifically, sharing, learning to abide by group decision and leadership development are a few of the non-academic skills which educators attempt to develop in students. Scholars also warn against implementing methods which encourage over-dependency on group adjustment. Overemphasis on group adjustment results in a group dependency and an eventual loss of individuality. They believe that superior students are prone to set standards in accordance with the dictates of the commonalty and consequently are deprived of developing individual potential. Educators declare that working in group situations not only develops democratic skills, but the study of the individual in group atmospheres provides opportunity for individual observation. Individual problems of group relations or interactions are more obvious under such circumstances, hence the teacher is able to diagnose and attack problems before they assume

greater dimensions. Talents of precocious students are recognized and opportunities are provided for full development of individual potential. The general process of group activity, scholars assert, does not warrant time devoted and the development of social and democratic attitudes can be realized as well, if not better, via the study of established disciplines. The unbounded faith which scholars place in a subject-centered curriculum and its supposed effect upon developing the intellectual and social areas of the student leaves little consideration to other educational programs regardless of the contributions that they might make. In spite of periodic class and personal evaluations by teachers and pupils, scholars refuse to attribute much educative value to a core-type program.

Constant evaluation on the part of teachers and students brings to light the amount of growth in both the social and academic areas. Teachers employ procedures which help students gain skill in evaluating themselves and their work. Some typical questions that might be considered are, "How much did I learn?" "Did I cooperate with others in my group?" "Did I solve the problem I was working on?" "Did I choose a good topic?" or "Has my written report improved over earlier papers?" The teacher might reiterate some of the earlier established objectives and review them with students to determine the extent of achievement that may have occurred. A student with social problems who may not have advanced substantially within the academic realm but has learned to work in a group or has

solved his personal problems to some degree, will be encouraged for his growth along such lines. If growth in any area has occurred, then some improvement must have been experienced. Perhaps in future class projects students could capitalize on previous errors and learnings and make further strides in classwork. The competent teacher will watch for development in such varied growth processes of his students in further assignments.

Scholars are of the conviction that the expression "growth" is hazy since teachers do not establish quantitative standards for students to achieve. In doing this, they ignore the fact that individual differences make such demands impossible. Scholars wonder if anything is really being accomplished. When referring to the area of growth, they interject, "Growth towards what?" Since not all growth processes are discernible, or can be realized at the time of evaluation, even slight changes in behavior are attributed to some type of growth.

Throughout the development of the social studies core unit, the following disagreements between scholars and professional educators were recurrent. Scholars are of the conviction that true learning occurs when an appeal is made to developing intellectual capacities to an optimum. This can be achieved primarily via the academic disciplines. Scholars attest that subject matter serves as a means to developing intellectual ideals which are of primary concern.

Professional educators believe that students enjoy and want to learn. Emphasis is placed on "experiencing" or realizing the applicability of learned material to real life situations. Meanwhile, scholars criticize professional educators for preoccupying themselves with the task of emphasizing relationships of academic skills to everyday experiences. As a result, they insist that professional educators spend time on "practical or meaningful" experiences which might be better directed to the study of academic content. This, they believe is further evidenced by the over-concern of professional educators regarding individual and social adjustment of the individual with reference to the group. Scholars are of the conviction that social awareness has been emphasized to such extremes that time once spent on the study of academic skills is now replaced by studies of social problems. The study of social problems involves the emphasis upon group adjustment, which scholars believe leads to a conformity and a loss of individualism. Professional educators believe that students increase their learning when an appeal is made to individual interests. Students may cooperate with others in groups whose members maintain interests similar to theirs. Many class activities of this nature result from teacher-pupil planning which scholars criticize indicating that it is impossible for students to possess an awareness of what they are required to accomplish.

Conclusion of units of study which involve teacher-pupil evaluations are criticized by scholars who insist that educators' notions of educational accomplishments are vague and distorted because of their reliance in evaluations on undeterminable objectives such as "growth." Educators are of the opinion that modern advances in personality study recognize that individual development cannot always be measured on a quantitative continuum.

As was established in the introduction of this dissertation, the conflict in viewpoints centers on the issue of what the individual purposes of education should be. Unless an attempt to achieve a common point of view is made by both factions, a "meeting of the minds" on other issues is undoubtedly impossible.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Throughout this dissertation attention has been focused upon the divergent educational philosophies of two schools of thought: scholars and professional educators. In many situations, scholars' criticisms are genuine and sincere. At the same time, it is also obvious that there are instances when criticisms are based either on a lack of evidence or upon attempts of scholars to justify their own unexamined positions by repudiating educational theories or methods.

In many instances, scholars are inclined to advance unwarranted criticisms regarding educational neglect of various academic areas. If scholars would familiarize themselves with existing educational methods, they should discover that educational goals which they criticize as absent in educational programs are often part of the objectives which professional educators advance. Criticisms which are based on emotional appeal, often employ the technique of name calling and often prevent an intelligent evaluation of educational methods. Consequently, any progress in establishing common points of view between scholars and professional educators is hindered. Scholars' prejudices toward the field of education as a recognized science tends to becloud

due recognition of educational procedures or accomplishments which professional educators advance. Their refutation of education as an accepted field of study often affects their evaluations of the methods or contributions which professional educators make. This fact is proven by the limited insight into educational issues which is evidenced by the nature of scholars' criticisms. The assertion that members of the field of education fail to recognize other educational viewpoints in developing educational programs left scholars wide open for criticism. No research had been cited by scholars to determine whether the educative value of a liberal education was superior to the type of education promoted by the modern curriculum. Scholars believe that a liberal-type education is responsible for the cultivation of intelligence within the individual. It was also discovered that the value which scholars ascribe to a subject-centered curriculum had hardly been subjected to the empirical testing which characterizes the treatment of disciplines in the modern curriculum.

Because professional educators refuse to direct educational objectives upon purely intellectual ends, scholars are convinced that methods employed in developing the public school curriculum are anti-intellectual. They also are of the opinion that colleges of education, under the direction of professors of education who maintain views contrary to the sole emphasis of intellectualism, are by the nature of their theories and methods, anti-intellectual. Thus, it is

the conviction of scholars that courses of study based upon the emphasis of academic skills tend to impart intellectual values to their recipients. Current types of curricula, they believe, could never hope to achieve this end as long as emphasis upon socialization factors in preference to academic content continues. In essence, scholars believe that subject matter training is synonymous to the acquisition of intellectualism.

Criticisms of the curricula of teacher training institutions was, upon occasion, even supported by professional educators. In order to develop consistency within colleges of education, professional educators should evaluate methods courses periodically to determine whether or not they are accomplishing the goals for which they have been established. This may involve a more critical evaluation of departments of education, and should prevent problems of professional educators from growing to great dimensions. In order to minimize educational conflict, it would be to the profession's advantage that pedagogical deficiencies be discovered by its members and solved rather than providing opportunities for individuals seeking to exploit education by capitalizing on educational shortcomings.

Repeated comparative test results by Selective Service agencies or tests administered to students by independent colleges have revealed that education majors usually rank in the lower percentile when they are compared to college students

representing other fields of study. Because a major portion of courses in teacher preparatory curricula fall into the academic areas, education majors should be expected to perform better than they do on the comparative testing examinations. An examination of general ability and aptitude of prospective teachers upon enrollment in college and through their college career should aid professional educators in maintaining higher scholastic standings in the profession by removing incompetent students.

An example of scholars' misrepresentation of the objectives of modern educational theorists occurs when they assert that professional educators emphasize the social rather than the intellectual ends in education. Throughout their criticisms, scholars are either unaware or unwilling to accept the sociological theories expounded by psychologists and sociologists. Social theorists contend that the interchange of ideas does not occur in a social vacuum. Scholars fail to give due recognition to the fact that individuals interact when they communicate and consequently do not make any provisions in academic curricula for the development of social awareness. Professional educators attempt to provide students with lifelike situations which should enable them to develop an awareness of social demands and responsibilities. It was discovered that the ability of students to manipulate social experiences so that optimum communication could be effected is to their own and society's advantage. Scholars

place unbounded faith in the notion that disciplinary training simultaneously meets the demands of academic training and that it provides students with a suitable background in the social skills. This assertion, they explain, has proven its value through history in the subject-centered curriculum. Scholars have admitted that they are cognizant of the multitude of social problems and demands which individuals experience in everyday living. In spite of this fact, they fail to make provisions in their curriculum to meet social demands. Hence, scholars cannot hold students responsible for training which they have never received. It is unreasonable for them to assume that they could impart a social awareness to students when they make no provisions for the development of social skills.

Scholars are further aware of the fact that the public school curriculum does contain courses which include the sciences and humanities. Because of modern methods which have proven their superiority over traditional styles of teaching, professional educators refuse to handle academic content in the manner which scholars deem as most desirable. Hence, scholars refuse to acknowledge the fact that students receive adequate training in the academic areas. When they do recognize academic content in the modern curriculum they explain that what teachers teach bears little resemblance to actual courses in the subject-centered curriculum. The implementation of educational theory and concepts into the

public school curriculum by professional educators not only takes account of the variety of abilities in classrooms which occurs as a result of increased enrollments, but educational techniques when adjusted to individual differences encourage students to remain in school for longer periods of time. Special attention of professional educators is directed to pupil needs, interests, social development and growth which professional educators deem necessary for individual adjustment. Scholars believe that practices of this nature make inroads on the time which should be devoted to the study of subject matter skills. Scholars furthermore are of the conviction that students are unable to determine goals of education and that teachers should minimize student opinion in planning assignments. At this point, it is rather conclusive that criticisms of scholars can be expected to continue since professional educators continue to emphasize student participation in unit planning. Furthermore, their opinions reflect a continuing concern for developing additional means which would develop a social awareness in students to an optimum. Professional educators have discovered that lessons assume greater educative value when students are interested in, or are aware of, what they are studying, why they are studying it, and the significance of subjects studied to their own particular needs.

In spite of the fact that educational positions of both schools are rather obvious to both groups, the conflict

has not lessened. One way of helping alleviate the conflict is the development of an awareness on the part of critics that education as well as other social institutions does change. When newer methods prove their value either by time or experimentation, they will be instituted into the public school curriculum. Such reasoning can hardly be repudiated, hence it is the duty of critics to develop an awareness to such change when it does occur. In many instances scholars criticized education placing demands upon schools which professional educators were striving to fulfill. If disagreements still occur, methods of criticizing should be employed so as to be constructive and not expressed in a manner which suggests that they are based on emotional appeal or upon limited investigation of areas under criticism. Resentment which has developed because of such practices hinders progress in resolving educational conflict.

Since education is a growing field which is experiencing constant experimentation, testing and change, professional educators need to evaluate theory and methodology periodically, discarding the irrelevant and capitalizing upon the more desirable. True, the incorporation of newer methods may encourage further surges of criticism; but with the improvement of communication with scholars and society, education should, through time, establish its position as a recognized, normative science.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

Barr, A. S., and Burton, W. H. Supervision: Democratic Leadership in the Improvement of Learning. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts Inc., 1947.

Beck, Robert H. The Three R's Plus. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1956.

Bell, Iddings Bernard. Crisis in Education. New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1949.

Bestor, Arthur E. Educational Wastelands. Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1953.

Bestor, Arthur E. The Restoration of Learning. New York: Alfred A. Knopf Inc., 1955.

Bertrand, Russell. Education and the Social Order. London: Unwin Brothers Ltd., 1932.

Butts, Freeman R. A History of Education in American Culture. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1953.

Caswell, Hollis L. Curriculum Improvements in Public School Systems. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950.

Conant, James B. On Understanding Science. New York: New American Library, 1951

Conant, James B. Science and Common Sense. Hartford: Yale University Press, 1952.

Haiman, Franklyn S. Group Leadership and Democratic Action. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1951.

Hare, Paul, Borgatta. Edgar, and Bales, Robert. Small Groups. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1955.

Kluckhohn, Murray and Schneider, David. Personality: In Nature, Society and Culture. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1956.

Lee, J. Murray, and Lee, Doris May. The Child and His Curriculum. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts Inc., 1950.

Lynd, Albert. Quackery in the Public Schools. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1953.

MacConnell, Charles M., and others. New Schools for a New Culture. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953.

Melby, Ernest O. and Puner, Morton. Freedom and Public Education. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, Inc., 1953.

Melby, Ernest O. Story of the Phony Three-R Fight. Anti-Defamation League, 1951.

Millard, Cecil V. Child Growth and Development. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1951.

Mort, Paul R., and Vincent, William S. A Look at Our Schools. New York: Ronald Press, 1946.

Riesman, David. The Lonely Crowd. New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1953.

Scott, Winifred C., and Hill, Clyde M. Public Education Under Criticism. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955.

Smith, Mortimer. And Madly Teach. Chicago: Henry Regnery Co., 1949.

Smith, Mortimer. The Diminished Mind. Chicago: Henry Regnery Co., 1954.

Smith, Mortimer. Public Schools in Crisis. Chicago: Henry Regnery Co., 1956.

Smith, Othanel B., Stanley, William O,, and Shores, Harlan J. Fundamentals of Curriculum Development. New York: World Book Co., 1950.

Thayer, Vern T. Public Education and Its Critics. New York: Macmillan Co., 1954.

Publications of the Government, Learned Societies And Other Organizations

Russell, William F. How Good Are Our Schools? Twenty-First Annual John Adams Lecture at the University of California at Los Angeles, March 24, 1954. University of California Press, 1954.

United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Core Curriculum Development Problems and Practices Bulletin. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1952.

United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare. The Progress of Public Education in the United States of America, 1952-53. Summary Report of the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare to the Sixteenth International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, Switzerland, July 6-15, 1953, jointly sponsored by the International Bureau of Education and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1953.

United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare. The Progress of Public Education in the United States of America, 1953-54. Summary Report of the Office of Education. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1954.

United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare. The Progress of Public Education in the United States of America, 1953-54. Summary Report of the Office of Education, United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare to the Seventeenth International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, Switzerland, July 5-14, 1954. Jointly sponsored by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization and the International Bureau of Education. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1954.

United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Office of Education. Progress of Public Education in the United States of America, 1955-56. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1956.

Periodicals

Berry, James. "Evaluating Group Activity," Progressive Education, XXXII (July, 1955), 97-102.

Broudy, William. "Anti-Intellectualism," Educational Theory, IV (Fall, 1954), 187.

Clapp, Harold L. "The Stranglehold on Education," American Association of University Professors, XXXV (Spring, 1949), 335-348.

"The Curriculum and the Domains of Knowledge," Elementary School Journal, LV (March, 1955), 369-72.

Curti, Merle. "Intellectuals and Other People," The Education Digest, XX (March, 1955), 7-10.

Douglass, Harl. "The Modern High School Curriculum," The School Review, LXIII (January, 1955), 16-24.

Dunkel, Harold. "Quackery in Education," The Education Digest, XIX (April, 1954), 7-9.

"Education--Special Report," Newsweek, XXXXIV (December 5, 1955), 59-67.

Gray, William S., "Foundation Stones in the Road to Better Reading," Elementary School Journal, LV (April, 1951), 427-28.

Gray, William S., and Iverson, William J. "What Should Be the Profession's Attitude Toward Lay Criticism of the Schools?" Elementary School Journal, LIII (September, 1952), 1-15.

Hager, Walter. "Current Issues in Teacher Education," Educational Leadership, X (October, 1952), 338-41.

Harap, Henry. "Trends in the Production of Curriculum Guides," Educational Leadership, XIII (October, 1955), 35-41.

Henry, George and Wood, Daniel. "General Education Within Education," Educational Leadership, IX (March, 1952), 363-65.

Henry, Jean H. "The Trend in Teacher Training," Facts Forum News, (February, 1956), 32-35.

Hooper, Laura. "The Child--The Curriculum--The World of Materials," Childhood Education, XXXI (May, 1955), 443 443-45.

Kelley, Earl C. "What Are Children Learning?" Childhood Education, XXXI (September, 1954), 87.

Kennan, Richard B. "What Are They Calling You Today?" Childhood Education, XXVIII (October, 1951), 53-56.

Mackenzie, Gordon N. "Supervision Confronts a Changing Curriculum," California Journal of Elementary Education, V (February, 1937), 18-20.

MacLean, Malcolm S. "Are We Discriminating Against Intelligence?" The Education Digest, XX (January, 1955), 1-4.

Melby, Ernest O. "The Pressures on Public Schools," Childhood Education, XXIX (January, 1953), 204-208.

Pilley, John. "Evaluation in Teacher Education," Educational Theory, III (January, 1953), 32.

Reeder, Edwin H. "The Quarrel Between Professors of Academic Subjects and Professors of Education: An Analysis," American Association of University Professors Bulletin, XXXVII (Autumn, 1951), 506-22.

Seyfert, Warren. "What Are the Fundamentals?" The Elementary School Journal, LIV (February, 1954), 324-32.

Skaife, Robert. "The Conflict Continues," The Education Digest, XIX (May, 1954), 1-4.

Smith, Othanel B. "New Approaches to Pedagogical Science," Educational Theory, I (May, 1951), 79-86.

Smith, Page C. "The Sins of Contemporary Education," The Education Digest, XX (March, 1955), 1-4.

Trow, William Clark. "Professional Education and the Disciplines: An Open Letter to Professor Bestor," Scientific Monthly, LVII (March, 1953), 149-52.

"Why Johnny Can't Read," Childhood Education, XXXII (October, 1955), 87.

"Why Johnny Can't Read," Elementary School Journal, LVI (October, 1955), 91-92.

Wynne, John P. "An Opportunity for Professional Organizations to Participate in the Improvement of Accreditation and Certification," Educational Theory, V (January, 1955), 47-52.

Zafra, Carlos De. "General Education--Where It Stands Today," The Clearing House, XXVIII (March, 1954), 387-92.

Unpublished Material

East Lansing High School, "Seventh Grade Resource Units." Developed in a Staff Workshop, August, 1954. East Lansing Board of Education, East Lansing, Michigan.