

ABSTRACT

THE PURSUIT OF EXCELLENCE THEME IN AMERICAN EDUCATION, 1940 - 1963

by Shirley Alice Brehm

This study focuses upon an assessment and a delineation of factors contributing to the development of the Pursuit of Excellence theme in public education. Teachers, educators, the public-at-large, and academicians have evidenced an increased concern for, and an acceptance of, the heightened emphasis on elementary and secondary school subject matter based upon the structure and methods of inquiry of academic disciplines.

The method used was an historical analysis over a twenty-three year time span, from World War II to the present. The analysis consisted of investigating four themes emerging from concerns of public school teachers, educators, the public in general, and the academic community. Professional education journals, educational society yearbooks, reports of education conventions, respected lay journals, and educational publications other than those previously cited comprised the major sources used in the investigation.

The analysis of the theme, Teaching as a Profession, dealt with the strivings of the profession for increased

recognition, status, and welfare, during the period under study. The theme, Education as a Discipline, explored the efforts of professional educators to develop unique methods of inquiry and knowledge concerning education as a field of study. The theme, Manpower Concept of Education, was an investigation of the factors which were derived from the national security needs and the attendant shortages of highly trained personnel, as well as factors arising from the need for minimal education of all citizens. Many pressing problems confronting educators have had as a source the dilemma of determining the appropriate use of human resources. The analysis of the Pursuit of Excellence, as a theme, focused upon concerns of both educators and academicians for education of high quality, based on the emerging concept of developing school subject matter around the structure of any given discipline. Each of the themes seemed to be interwoven with the others. In most instances, the public school was central to each thematic development.

The major findings suggested by this study include the following:

(1) There has been no single cause for the current concern for the emphasis on quality in education as evidenced by the heightened academic standards in public education.

(2) While educators had been basically concerned with quality education, they had been essentially unable to motivate the larger community to overt action toward this end

until assisted by groups which promoted the need for education as it related to national security requirements.

(3) Educators had drifted away from the academic disciplines in search of significant knowledge pertinent to the discipline of education. Academicians had, at the same time, lost any real contact with the public schools. Since the mid-1950's both groups have attempted to make important contributions to one another's involvement in the public school function. Education as a Discipline has contributed to the understanding of the act of teaching and the act of learning through an emphasis on the process of developing learning skills, and the academic disciplines have contributed revised concepts regarding subject matter based on the structure of the disciplines.

(4) As teachers achieved higher status, they tended to become more professional in their outlook. In turn, they supported the movement toward quality education by becoming involved in subject matter developments originating in other disciplines.

(5) Excellence has been recognized to include creativity, sensitivity, moral commitment, and quality in all walks of life, as well as heightened academic accomplishments. It becomes the responsibility of education to encourage excellence in its many, varied forms.

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(6) The launching of Sputnik I in 1957 was an incidental, rather than a causal, factor in the development of heightened concern for academic subject matter and standards.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Improving the quality of public school education has become a matter of increasing interest in the United States during the past two decades. The acceptance of universal high school education had been accomplished prior to this increased concern for quality. The emphasis turned from preoccupation with providing for growing numbers to one of increased concern for quality and quantity education for all. Numerous experimental programs have developed which have involved the participation of university academic subject matter specialists as well as public school teachers and professional educators in the planning and implementation of new curricular proposals. The subject matter content of the new programs has been founded on the structure and the methods of inquiry unique to a particular discipline. This approach has been at variance with both the traditional subject matter methods and content which had tended toward a piece-meal acquisition of facts and the core and life adjustment curricula which had stressed individual needs and social processes. For a brief period the byword for the recent curricular reform movement in American education has been called the Pursuit of Excellence.

Statement of the Problem

The de facto situation in the 1963-64 year is that content is being taught that did not exist a decade ago, or even five years ago. With this change there is an emphasis on knowledge based upon the structure of content areas rather than with the exclusive concern for factual information in content areas. There also exists a newly developed communication between the academic disciplines and education as a discipline, between subject matter and the methods of teaching it most effectively. Academicians and educators are engaged in fruitful conversation with one another.

This study is focused upon the historical development of the Pursuit of Excellence theme in education and an assessment of the major factors which contributed to its development. Also examined are the factors which led to the increased concern and the corresponding acceptance by educators, teachers, academicians, and the public-at-large of the heightened emphasis on elementary and secondary school subject matter based on the structure of academic disciplines.

Historical Antecedents

While the approach to resolving the problems of education is modern, the underlying question is an old one. There is still as much validity in the query, "What knowledge is of most worth?" as there was when Spencer attempted to answer it a century ago. Each generation must come to

grips with this question anew, and in times of rapid change the resolution of the question takes on added importance.

There were, in the 1950's, anonymous claims that to strengthen subject matter meant returning to the schools of the 1890's. While the subject matter of these earlier schools was derived from academic disciplines and written for the most part by university academicians, the approaches used differed from those developed in the 1950's. Rugg and Shumaker¹ labeled the 1890 brand of subject matter a compartmentalized set of academic pigeonholes based on end products of logic with no attention to how children learned.

Furthermore, the secondary school in 1890 was primarily a college preparation institution, and according to Bardeen,² the standard of preparation must fit the demand.

. . . The Latin High School in Boston must give a fit for Harvard or Yale in every way equal to that of the two Philips Academics [sic.], because if it did not its best scholars would go to the Phillips Academies; but it would be absurd for a Michigan high school to give the same training. In that state the great majority of the college boys go to Ann Arbor, and there a Harvard fit would be a positive disadvantage, putting them so far ahead of the rest of their class on the start that they would grow careless and lose

¹Harold Rugg and Ann Shumaker, The Child-Centered School (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1928), pp. 17-18.

²C. W. Bardeen, "Effect of the College-Preparatory High School Upon the Attendance and Scholarship in the Lower Grades," National Education Association Addresses and Proceedings, St. Paul, Minnesota, 1890, Vol. XXIX (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1890), p. 626.

their habits of study. In Ohio, again, where the college standard is still lower, a Michigan fit would be out of place: while in some of the newer cities of the West, where a Baptist or a Methodist or a Presbyterian university was staked out with the first grocery store and blacksmith shop, it is some time before an Ohio fit is needed.³

Fischer,⁴ writing well after the fact in 1959, described two shortcomings of the 1890 schools. First the schools prepared only a few people for adult life roles, and second, the schools failed to offer opportunities for any but those academically inclined or talented.

The Progressive Education Era

Cremin⁵ has delineated the events that followed the 1890's in the rise and decline of progressive education. He pointed out that the World War I period was the divide between earlier progressive education movements and those of the thirties.

With the cessation of hostilities, progressive education again quickened amidst Wilsonian promises of a new and better world. But somehow the movement, like Progressivism writ large, had changed. During the twenties, as the intellectual avant garde became fascinated with the arts in general and Freud in particular, social reformism was virtually eclipsed by the rhetoric of child-centered pedagogy. During the thirties, when influential groups within the profession sought to tie progressive education more closely to

³Ibid.

⁴John H. Fischer, "The Priorities Question in Education," Teachers College Record, LXI (October, 1959), p. 3.

⁵Lawrence A. Cremin, The Transformation of the School (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1961), 387 pp.

political Progressivism, the movement was racked by a paralyzing partisanship from which it never fully recovered. After World War II the added curse of inertness cast its pall over the enterprise. By the 1950's the enthusiasm, the vitality, and the drive were gone; all that remained were the slogans.⁶

Cremin concluded that the progressive education movement collapsed because of (1) distortion and strife within the ranks of educators, (2) the negativism inherent in the movement: "the early progressives knew better what they were against rather than for,"⁷ (3) the call for an inordinate amount of teacher time and ability to make the integrated studies successful. In addition, (4) the movement was a victim of its own success in that many of the reforms pledged by the Progressives were adopted, yet the Progressives were unable to formulate the next steps, (5) a general swing toward conservatism after World War II occurred in both social and political thought, (6) the progressives "committed a supreme political blunder during the thirties when they allowed the movement itself to become professionalized"⁸ for they then lost the support of a coalition of businessmen, farmers, trade unionists, and intellectuals. Lastly, (7) progressive education failed because it did not

⁶Ibid., p. 181.

⁷Ibid., p. 348.

⁸Ibid., p. 350.

keep pace with changes occurring in American society.⁹

Factors Leading to the Pursuit of Excellence

Thus times changed and with the changes have come interdisciplinary interests in elementary and secondary school curricula. Bruner¹⁰ reported on one interdisciplinary conference at Woods Hole, Massachusetts in 1959. He related that the earlier efforts of a group of competent physicists in developing secondary school course content were prompted because of the tremendous gap which had developed "between physics as known by the physicists and physics as taught in school, a gap of particular importance because of the revolutionary advances in science and the crisis in national security."¹¹ Bruner continued,

But as the effort broadened, as scholars and scientists from other disciplines entered the field, a broader objective began to emerge. It is clear that there is in American education today a new emphasis upon the pursuit of excellence. There appear to be several things implied by the pursuit of excellence that have relevance not only to what we teach, but to how we teach and how we arouse the interest of our students.¹²

Bruner expressed the concern that pursuit of excellence must not be limited to gifted students only. A major

⁹Ibid., pp. 348-350.

¹⁰Jerome S. Bruner, The Process of Education (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1961), 92 pp.

¹¹Ibid., p. 70.

¹²Ibid.

quest remains one of devising materials

. . . to challenge the superior student while not destroying the confidence and will-to-learn of those who are less fortunate. We have no illusions about the difficulty of such a course, yet it is the only one open to us if we are to pursue excellence and at the same time honor the diversity of talents we must educate.¹³

The Woods Hole Conference report was widely read, and it stated the direction that various studies in curriculum reform were taking. Yet another event occurred at nearly the same time. The National Education Association authorized the establishment, in 1959, of the Project on the Instructional Program of the Public Schools (Project on Instruction). The Project was given a major task: to make recommendations to the education profession and the general public which would serve as guides in improving the quality of the instructional program.¹⁴ Under the aegis of the Project, a seminar on Social Forces was held in 1960, and in 1961 the significant Disciplines Seminar met at the NEA Center.¹⁵ Professional educators, teachers, and academicians met together to plan and develop the several reports

¹³ Ibid.

¹⁴ Richard I. Miller, Education in a Changing Society, A Report prepared for the Project on Instruction (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1963), p. 1.

¹⁵ National Education Association, Project on Instruction: A Preliminary Report, A Report Prepared by the Project on Instruction (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1961), p. 6.

which were the outcome of the Project's work and which will certainly serve as focal points for future discussion relative to curriculum development.

Related Studies

A review of related studies evidenced the omission of research in determining the origins of the Pursuit of Excellence theme in public education. There were, however, several studies which reviewed closely related topics.

Hennis¹⁶ critically analyzed the philosophical, psychological, and methodological foundations of the core curriculum in educational theory from 1918 to 1958. Salantino¹⁷ made an historical analysis of curriculum planning and attempted to isolate factors which tend to prevent modern curriculum planning from keeping up with needed changes. Blackington¹⁸ investigated the construct of life adjustment as it related to the life adjustment movement in American education.

¹⁶Rucker Sterling Hennis, Jr., "The Philosophical and Psychological Foundations of the Core Curriculum in Educational Theory: 1918-1958," Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. XXII, part 4 (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of North Carolina, 1961), p. 3547.

¹⁷Alphonse Philip Salantino, "An Historical Analysis of Modern Curriculum Planning," Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. XXIII, Part 1 (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, The University of Buffalo, 1962), pp. 1266-1267.

¹⁸Frank Blackington, "A Philosophical Analysis of the Construct 'Life Adjustment' and Its Implications for Education" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1960).

Rugg's¹⁹ massive treatment of the progressive education movement provided a basis for understanding the prelude to the present as did the work by Cremin²⁰ cited earlier. A series of essays edited by Smith and Ennis²¹ attempted to reassess educational concepts and beliefs. Critical examinations were made of such concepts as "learning by experience," "needs and the needs curriculum," "uses of subject matter," "a concept of teaching," and other constructs evident in educational literature. Lieberman²² used an analytical approach in an endeavor to clarify the meaning of equality of educational opportunity.

The Method of Research

The focus of this study was that of assessing, relating, and evaluating the causal factors leading to the de facto situation in secondary and elementary schools of discipline-centered course content, which emphasized quality as well as quantity. The historical method of research was

¹⁹Harold Rugg, Foundations for American Education (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1947), 826 pp.

²⁰Cremin, op. cit.

²¹B. Othanel Smith and Robert H. Ennis, Editors, Language and Concepts in Education (Chicago: Rand, McNally and Company, 1961), 216 pp.

²²Myron Lieberman, "Equality of Educational Opportunity," Harvard Educational Review, XXIX (Spring, 1959), pp. 128-136.

used. Within the broad framework of the historical method several alternatives were available. The possibility of analyzing the image of American education during a twenty year period from the reports concerning teachers and the schools in the popular press was one approach. This was not used. Nor was the approach used which would compare the development of intellectual activity within education to intellectual activity in other disciplines, namely the sciences, over a twenty year period. Instead, there developed an approach to chronicle both events and ideas relating to education in the period under examination. This involved a rather thorough immersion in the intellectual climate of the period under study as well as a greater knowledge of the societal affairs of that period. A mere listing of dates and ideas was insufficient, however, for the purposes of an historical research, particularly one which was to trace the development of a movement toward quality as well as quantity in American education. There developed an underlying theory to provide the structure for the research. The theoretical framework has consisted of four separate, but related, themes. The development of these themes comprises the bulk of the research undertaken here.

Initially, the author read widely from professional educational journals and from respected lay journals covering the twenty-year period under study. These included: Teachers College Record; School Review; School and Society;

Nation's Schools; Educational Leadership; NEA Journal; Elementary School Journal; and others from the field of professional education. Lay journals surveyed in detail included: Saturday Review; The Reporter; Harper's Magazine; Perspectives, U.S.A.; and others not specifically directed toward educational problems. From this extensive reading a feeling for the time span under study evolved. Furthermore, the reading served as the basis for the development of the theoretical framework used throughout the ensuing study. As the theory developed, other sources of information were utilized which were more specific to the formulation and development of the themes intrinsic to the theory. Some of these sources included: educational society yearbooks; recorded proceedings of educational organizations' conferences; published reports of meetings; resolutions passed by organizations; and opinions of qualified observers.

Every attempt was made to use primary sources. However, in much of the data at hand, the line between primary and secondary sources became a thin one and at times was erased completely. As a consequence, the writer has been faced continually with the need to resolve questions pertaining to the relevance of data, to the consensus or lack of consensus expressed by other writers, and to the degree of involvement permitted in ancillary issues.

The Theoretical Framework

The purpose of this study has been to retrace the history of a movement emphasizing quality as well as quantity in education and to examine pertinent causes in light of a theoretical framework in order to understand the movement more fully. The theoretical frame of reference is as follows.

During the period from 1940 to 1963, public school instructional personnel (teachers) through most of their professional organizations were concentrating major efforts on teacher welfare and security issues. Curriculum developments were clearly secondary in importance in light of the other factors of salary, prestige and so forth. While teachers were concentrating much of their non-instructional effort on changing their own status, they in a sense defaulted by not keeping up with advances in knowledge in the academic fields. The striving of the profession to gain status through increased remuneration and stronger standing comprises Theme I, Teaching as a Profession. This is explored in Chapter II.

Closely related to the Teaching as a Profession theme is a second theme called Education as a Discipline. The segment of the educational world under investigation in this theme is comprised of the professional educator at the university level as opposed to the teacher in the public

schools. To assist in the arbitrary separation of groups of people, educators have been compared to that of the scientist and the teacher to a professional. The National Manpower Council distinguished between scientists and professionals as follows:

. . . the distinguishing mark of scientific activity is the pursuit of new knowledge through research, while professional activity consists primarily in providing services made possible in the application of existing knowledge. In a formal sense, the scientist performs a research function, while the professional is a practitioner.²³

The efforts of educational researchers then, have been those of developing and utilizing the methods of inquiry unique to the study of education. The coalescing of this knowledge has led to the development of a discipline of education. The movement toward a discipline of education began early in the twentieth century. The educational researchers, or as defined here the professional educators, were involved in their own inquiries relative to learning, and to teaching, and they, as did the practicing teachers, defaulted by not attending the co-developments in knowledge in disciplines outside of education. The efforts of educators to develop methods of inquiry and a body of knowledge unique to the study of education comprises Theme II, Education as a Discipline, investigated in Chapter III.

²³National Manpower Council, "Introduction," A Policy for Scientific and Professional Manpower (New York: Columbia University Press, 1953), p. 40.

The third theme, the Manpower Concept of Education explores the contributions of the larger society to the problems of curriculum development in the years immediately after World War II. This context has been one of noticeable shortages in several technical and professional fields. A military concept, "manpower" became an important criterion for seeking educational means of training, allocating, and using human talents to the utmost due to the limited nature of high level talent and the rapidly increasing demand for such talent. In the field of education this theme was evidenced by the efforts to reduce the teacher shortage and the impact this concern for manpower had on the public understanding of education. The Manpower Concept of Education is the third theme, and it is investigated in Chapter IV.

The remaining theme, the Pursuit of Excellence, is the culminating theme derived in part from all three previous themes. In the Pursuit of Excellence emphasis has been placed on knowledge. Knowledge implies the best uses of human talent, as developed in "manpower," and also the impingement of all disciplines, academic as well as education, on the act of learning and the act of teaching. While the Pursuit of Excellence theme was a separate entity, it also has become the unifying thread leading from theme to theme.

Teachers and educators saw Pursuit of Excellence initially as democratic education for all youth. Educational

critics saw this emphasis as a tendency toward mediocrity in that insufficient educational opportunity was developed for academically apt learners. Educators tended to take one route to excellence while academicians sought another route to excellence. The most recent result has been a mutual learning on the part of individuals in both groups. As a consequence, criticism of education has shifted significantly in the 1960's. While the term "pursuit of excellence" has been used in this study because it appeared in the literature for a brief period, this does not mean that a single definition for the term exists. Nor does this study attempt to analyze all meanings of the term as used. Instead the following arbitrary definition of "pursuit of excellence" has been used: curriculum based on knowledges derived from methods of inquiry and the structure of a discipline. The development of the fourth theme, Pursuit of Excellence has been dealt with in Chapter V.

Chapter VI summarizes the factors contributing to present concerns for, and developments in school curricula predicated upon, an emphasis upon academic discipline structure. It also points to needed research and further implications or understandings for education.

It is integral to the theory that the four themes are intricately interwoven. To deal with them at all, however, the strands must be separated for closer examination. Elementary and secondary curriculum development today have

as the basis these separate but interwoven strands. The following analysis is based on the theory that the particular emphasis placed on the separate themes by different elements within the educational family and in society in general, have caused a pulling apart, as it were, of the total fabric. As a consequence, the very individuals who must make education a trustworthy, cohesive implement for social betterment have been exposed to criticism and confusion. By examining the past, it is possible to see the evolution of these themes and the probable causes of the present concern for the heightened academic standards in American public education.

Limitations

The scope of this study has been limited to the years 1940 to 1963, with the exception of the development of Education as a Discipline theme which had important historical preliminaries prior to 1940.

The study does not investigate teacher preparation. This has been an important concern, and one which has been closely related to both Theme I and Theme II. As difficult as it was to ignore teacher preparation, this was considered to be outside the scope of this study.

In a similar fashion an extended analysis of the impact of federal influences through the National Science Foundation or of national influences through privately

endowed foundations has been placed beyond the scope and intent of this study.

Also beyond the scope and intent of the study were topics relating to education of the gifted; post-high school education of college bound and non-college bound; vocational education; educational developments for veterans; and many closely related areas.

Furthermore, the study has been limited to proposals for change rather than the implementation of these proposals in real schools. The societal factors inherent in the need for changes have not been analyzed, but have been accepted as contributing factors.

The study does not examine in detail the content of the experimental curricular programs developed in the academic disciplines for elementary and secondary school students. Neither does it explore the ranges of knowledge developed in the academic disciplines at the growing edge of research.

Lastly, an attempt to answer the question, "Pursuit of excellence for what purpose?" has not been the major focus of this study. Implications have been dealt with in the concluding chapter as the interrelationships of the four major themes were interwoven into a whole. The issue itself has not been resolved in this study.

In summary, this study has been one of analyzing the factors contributing to the development of the Pursuit of Excellence theme in American elementary and secondary

education as expressed in the literature since 1940. The analysis has been of an historical nature.

Basic Assumptions

An assessment of the type undertaken in this study has been predicated upon certain basic assumptions. The first assumption has been that there was no single cause for the development of a Pursuit of Excellence emphasis in American education in the 1950s and 1960s. Therefore, it has become relevant to find and to trace the several causes leading to the pronouncements as stated in the literature. Closely related to this assumption was one which was stated by Edwards²⁴ when he said that education can never be an autonomous process separated from the society which it was to serve. A third assumption was that the ideas and opinions stated by qualified observers were pertinent to the times, and have reflected more than one individual's biases. In short, the aspects of consensus were assumed when the same themes were repeated by several individuals. Therefore, the material dealt with in this study has been material of the times.

Lastly, it has been assumed that the concerns with curricular subject matter based on the structure and methods

²⁴Newton Edwards, "Introduction," Review of Educational Research, XIX (February, 1949), p. 4.

of inquiry of a given discipline will continue to be important for the next few years in American education.

Therefore, predicated upon the above assumptions and bounded by the limitations, the study of the factors contributing to the development of the Pursuit of Excellence theme in American education has been undertaken.

CHAPTER II

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE THEME TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

An Overview

While the four major themes dealt with in this study are interwoven, the first two, Teaching as a Profession and Education as a Discipline, are even more closely intermeshed. Both are components of the instrument customarily recognized as the public school. It is also part of the overall theory that these two elements have tended to become disparate in the past, with the practicing teachers losing communication with the professional educators and the educators with teachers through social lag or even obsolescence. This has resulted in a dichotomy between the professional educators and "those who are doing the high quality job of teaching children."¹ The problems of communication between the two sets of educational personnel are well-known in the educational complex, ranging through diverse and numerous attempts

¹Morris Meister, "Statement of Dr. Morris Meister, President, Bronx Community College," Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare on S. 2826. A Bill to Improve the Quality of Elementary and Secondary Education, April 11 and 12, 1962. United States Senate, Eighty-seventh Congress, Second Session, Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., 1962, pp. 22 and 29.

to up-date curricula, to provide inservice education, and to improve pre-service education for teachers. The extensive problems of relating educational practice and educational experimentation or theory are far too involved to be fully explored in this context, but the mention of them is made to give recognition to the possible impact upon the central problem of this chapter.

One other caution is necessary at this point. To examine the two themes they must be separated. This separation is not intended to make the two themes mutually exclusive of one another. There is much overlapping between professional educators and practicing teachers in terms of goals, understandings and procedures. What is intended is only to heighten the differences for the sake of contrast so the two themes themselves attain visibility, before submerging once again into the main stream of thought.

Concerns of Practicing Classroom Teachers

Practicing classroom teachers in the 1960's have been drawn for the most part from a population born in the 1920's and 1930's. The chaotic social conditions of those two decades have been delineated elsewhere and are recognized historical facts. Those teachers still practicing in public schools who were teaching during those post-World War I and depression years have experienced many types of frustrations and were often positioned as second-class citizens within

their own communities. Low salaries, lack of tenure, poor working conditions, insufficient shielding of their private lives based on superfluous issues as whether one smoked or not or if a married woman should teach, all attributed to the teachers' concern regarding their vocational role. As the national economy became more affluent, teachers, through their professional organizations, such as the National Education Association and the state affiliates, sought to improve the working conditions and the status of their livelihood by pressing for higher wages and better instructional facilities and materials, as well as achieve a professional prestige. Broudy,² writing in 1940, discussed the teachers' concept of themselves as professionals as opposed to the general public's concept of teachers as "white-collar craftsmen." He pointed out that a discrepancy existed "between the prestige teachers would like to have and the prestige accorded them by the public."³ Broudy examined several avenues to prestige, but concluded that the best route to increased prestige was through an extended training of a more abstract nature. Heretofore preparation for teaching had generally been of low quality and accessible to nearly anyone and everyone. Brief periods of training were commonplace prior to 1940, with

²H. S. Broudy, "Academic Requirements and Professional Prestige," School and Society, LI (January 6, 1940), pp. 7-12.

³Ibid., p. 7.

minimal state certification requirements. As an example, granting the Michigan State Limited Certificate for teaching kindergarten through grade eight after two years of post-high school training had only been terminated as recently as 1956.⁴ Secondary teachers had had for a longer period higher requirements by requiring a baccalaureate degree for certification.

Teaching was viewed as a job, not as a profession. Practicing teachers were concerned with attempting to resolve the problems of: (1) prestige, which in turn involved certification; (2) the role of women in the profession, often reflected by the double pay schedule for men and women; (3) the relative importance of secondary teachers as compared to elementary teachers; (4) low salaries and unemployment during the depression years; and (5) a general attitude of vocationalism versus professionalism.

Professional Association Support and
Membership in the 1940's

The published reports of the National Education Association annual conventions provided the documentation for Theme I. As the major official voice of the teachers, this source proved to be invaluable. The NEA noted in the

⁴Clair L. Taylor, One-Hundred and Third Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for the Biennium 1954-56, State of Michigan, Department of Public Instruction (Lansing: Department of Public Instruction, 1957), p. 85.

1945-1946 Proceedings of the Convention that a steady increase in NEA membership, over 340,000 "gives added strength to the organized profession and has made possible the expansion of our services."⁵ Additional emphasis that year was centered on research, which underlay "campaigns for teacher welfare--salaries, tenure, pensions, and all the rest."⁶ Other evidences of the growth of the organization and the profession it represented was the addition of the divisions for adult education, including services to veterans; audio-visual instruction, and a travel service for teachers.

The National Emergency Conference for Recruitment

Similarly, Schlagle remarked about the teacher shortage as a national problem, and reported on an emergency conference called to "develop an action program for recruiting, preparing and retaining competent people as teachers."⁷ The National Emergency Conference was held at Chautauqua, New York, on June 27-29, 1946 at which time

400 professional and lay leaders from throughout the nation conducted an intensive study on: recruitment; guidance; selection; pre-service education; certification; placement, employment, and induction; working

⁵F. L. Schlagle, President of NEA, "Significant Achievements," National Education Association Addresses and Proceedings, Buffalo, New York, 1945-46. Vol. 83 and 84 (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association (hereafter called the NEA) 1946), p. 24.

⁶Ibid., p. 24.

⁷Ibid., p. 25.

conditions; salaries; tenure and retirement; achieving public recognition for teaching; professional standards for teacher preparing institutions; finance as related to upgrading the profession.⁸

The above listing of problems confronting the profession was one to concern the NEA as well as the profession for the next two decades.

Establishment of the TEPS Commission

At the NEA national convention in July, 1946, following the Chautauqua Emergency Conference, the Delegate Assembly abolished the Committee on Teacher Preparation and Certification and replaced it with the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. This action had been an outgrowth of the Chautauqua Conference.

The Commission is charged to become the voice of the rank and file of the organized teaching profession of our nation in matters of recruitment, selection, preparation, certification, and advancement of professional standards, including standards for institutions which prepare teachers. It aims to be a factor in developing further a vigorous, well-organized, competent profession, which now numbers over one million elementary, secondary, and higher education teachers in public and private schools.⁹

The TEPS Commission, during the 1946-1947 academic year, undertook to bring the teacher shortage to the attention of

⁸Committee on Teacher Preparation and Certification, NEA Addresses and Proceedings, Buffalo, 1945-1946, Vol. 83 and 84 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1946), pp. 441-442.

⁹National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA Addresses and Proceedings, Cincinnati, 1947, Vol. 85 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1947), p. 271.

the American public. All news media were utilized to publicize the need for teachers as well as the recommendations for achieving a solution to the problem. In addition, the Commission pressed for minimum salaries for B.A. degree certified teachers at \$2,400, and advocated a regularly incremented salary schedule. The Commission further urged that state certification requirements be raised and called for the elimination of emergency licenses. In terms of internal organization the TEPS Commission called for the establishment of parallel state commissions to work with the national Commission. Lastly, the 1946-1947 TEPS Commission made this comment.

As its efforts to publicize the teacher shortage and established professional salary standards have taken hold in the nation, the Commission has turned its emphasis upon the improvement of teaching. The Commission considers an improvement in the quality of education to be essential, not only to justify the standards of salary which are promulgated, but also as a means of making further gains in the status of teaching. This aim was emphasized in the teacher-selection campaign and was the basic theme in the National Conference for the Improvement of Teaching held at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. Organized similarly to the Chautauqua Conference, the Oxford Conference was intended to give parallel emphasis to the improvement of salaries and other conditions surrounding teaching. The Commission feels strongly that further progress will come only through balanced attention to both these elements.¹⁰

Other conferences in this series sponsored by TEPS included the Bowling Green Conference, 1948, which dealt

¹⁰Ibid., p. 273.

with pre-service education; the New Hampshire Conference, 1949, on in-service education; and the Indiana Conference in 1950-1951, at which time evaluation criteria for teacher education programs were examined. During the 1949-1950 year, the TEPS Commission inaugurated the publication of The Journal of Teacher Education.

In the 1950 report, as found in the NEA Addresses and Proceedings, the TEPS Commission stated,

A significant development during the year was the growing momentum within the profession for the formulation and application of adequate standards for institutions which are approved for the preparing of members of the teaching profession. Although the teaching profession is the last of the learned professions to come to grips with this basic problem, the positive steps taken during this past year point toward an early achievement of this necessary goal.¹¹

In addition, the TEPS Commission recommended more state and local action in TEPS; that all states establish at the earliest feasible date minimum requirements of four college years of professional preparation for initial teacher certification and the states which can do so, move to a five-year preparation requirement for the initial certificate. While the goal has not yet been achieved, substantial progress has been made in the direction of raising certification requirements. Certainly the TEPS Commission gave evidence of this far-sightedness over a decade ago.

¹¹NCTEPS "Report," NEA Addresses and Proceedings, St. Louis, 1950, Vol. 88 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1950) p. 329.

The Teaching Profession in the 1950's

As inflation affected the dollar value, the TEPS Commission 1951, revised the salary figures to \$3,000 to \$8,000, as the necessary equivalent in current dollar values of the \$2,400 to \$6,000 salary standard set in 1946.¹²

The 1951 report went on to say,

We now face a world situation and a national emergency that threaten the very foundations of professional standards in teaching. The pressures of war, inflation, and the manpower shortage can wipe out the gains of the past five years and sink the profession of teaching once more and possibly even deeper in the mire of insecurity, instability, and public indifference. Under existing pressures, the schools can soon be flooded with unqualified teachers, working conditions can quickly become intolerable, and the general quality of instruction can be diluted to the level of shodiness in a very short time. Salaries, security, prestige, morale--all these things rest upon the foundation of professional standards and they must rise or fall with those standards.¹³

In this year the TEPS Commission called for the NEA to condemn the practice of granting temporary teaching licenses to persons unable to meet regular certification requirements; to reaffirm the need for four years minimum college training for initial certification and the five-year requirement where possible; and called for the implementation of the salary schedule cited above.

¹²NCTEPS "Report," NEA Addresses and Proceedings, San Francisco, 1951, Vol. 89 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1951), p. 308.

¹³Ibid., p. 309.

Meanwhile the NEA Committee on Professional Ethics had revised the 1941 NEA Code of Ethics and presented this new code for adoption at the 1952 Representative Assembly session at the National NEA convention.¹⁴ By 1952, the TEPS Commission reported teacher preparation had improved remarkably since 1946, when only slightly more than 50 percent of all employed teachers were college graduates. It was estimated that in 1951-52, 70 percent of all employed teachers had completed baccalaureate or higher degrees, in spite of the fact the number of teachers had trebled since 1946. One of the major activities of the TEPS Commission during 1951-52 was the participation in the efforts to bring about the establishment of a national accrediting procedure for teacher education which resulted in the proposed National Council for Accreditation in Teacher Education. The NCATE resolution was adopted by the Representative Assembly July 2, 1952, and the Council was organized the following November.¹⁵

Criticisms of Existing Professional Standards and Schools in 1950's

Despite the reports of progress in raising standards along with pay, teacher preparation and education in general

¹⁴National Education Association, "Commission on Professional Ethics Report," NEA Addresses and Proceedings, Miami Beach, 1953, Vol. 91 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1953), p. 229.

¹⁵NCTEPS, "Reports," NEA Addresses and Proceedings, Detroit, 1952, Vol. 90 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1952), pp. 342-344.

received a broadside from Edgar W. Knight, professor of educational history at the University of North Carolina. In comparing Americans' faith in education to their faith in universal salvation through the Christian church, Knight stated that both movements were born in poverty and in an atmosphere of social contempt, nurtured sparingly by philanthropy, and each was, in its own way, obstructed by conflicting philosophies or partisan politics. Both slowly grew to become a powerful force in the lives of men. However, Knight went on to say, one of the important lacks in public education was that of the proper education of teachers.

There is no common agreement among the professional educationalists on how best to prepare teachers and managers of the schools, and this has become an increasingly acute issue as the public educational arrangements of this country have increased in quantity. This is today about as controversial as dogmas for platforms ever were among the ecclesiastics and politicians. In education there has been no official hierarchy or party machine to determine dogmas or platforms or to settle unseemly disputes on what should be taught in the schools or who should teach it. . . . State educational associations and even the big and powerful NEA have seemed to content themselves with passing resolutions on the need for better teachers, and of course, for more money to pay them; but the grave responsibilities of preparation of the teachers and managers of the country's largest social endeavor have been complacently left to the countless teacher-education institutions, which it has been said, sometimes appear to be in cahoots with the certification bureaus of state departments of education, some of whose specialists, it has also been said, cannot always qualify for the certificates they issue to those who go about the Middle-towns trying to teach and manage the schools. This condition is in striking contrast to those in some other professions. Physicians determine who may be

physicians; lawyers, who may be lawyers; engineers,
who may be engineers. . . .¹⁶

Knight further commented on the relatively low intellectual caliber student enrolled in teacher preparation programs, citing studies by Bagley and Learned, Learned and Wood, Educational Testing Service, and others to support his argument.

It is interesting to note the time correlation between Knight's comments and the inception of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. Organizational efforts were actually underway at the time Knight was writing. The current 1952 thought concerning improving teacher preparation was more widespread than Knight sought to acknowledge. This further reflects Broudy's concerns of 1940 in which he pointed out that teacher prestige would be improved by affording training of a more abstract nature. Steps were being taken to set into operation a means of improving selection and preparation of teachers.

The crucial years of 1951-53 were reflected by another commission report: The National Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education of the NEA. The report stated:

The academic year 1952-53 has seen some recession of the effectiveness of the attacks against the public schools throughout the country. Altho there have been very threatening situations in local areas, there have

¹⁶Edgar W. Knight, "Some Disturbing Educational Contradictions," School and Society, LXXVI (November 29, 1952), pp. 338-339.

been very few reports of school crises that have developed out of the efforts of the violent detractors of education, educators, and educational publications and materials. The failures of our enemies have been largely due to two major factors: (a) the entire personnel of the local school systems, from the president of the board of education to the custodians, have come to realize the importance of improving relationships with the public in spite of the tremendous burden of other duties that school employees are carrying today, and (b) those who have attacked the schools have been so immoderate, dishonest, and unreasonable in their charges that they have generally been rejected by the vast majority of citizens in each community when the real facts concerning the school situation have been made clear.¹⁷

The following year the Defense Commission reported:

Some of the individuals who seemed to be most active in developing, inciting, and encouraging destructive criticism of public education became less active and less effective during the 1953-54 academic year. Lucile C. Crain, who edited a leaflet of purported "reviews" of textbooks, announced that her periodical has ceased publication. Amos A. Fries, one of the first to issue bitter tirades against the leadership of the teaching profession in his bulletin, Friends of the Public Schools, has not been heard of for more than eight months. Allan Zoll has not interfered in a school trouble spot in nearly a year.¹⁸

I. L. Kandel, commenting on the crisis years of the early 1950's, singled out two motives for the criticisms besetting education at that time: "Hostility to the rising costs of education and falsely propagated fear of subversive

¹⁷National Commission for the Defense of Democracy, "Report," NEA Addresses and Proceedings, Miami Beach, 1953, Vol. 91 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1953), p. 313.

¹⁸National Commission for the Defense of Democracy, "Report," NEA Addresses and Proceedings, New York City, 1954, Vol. 92 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1954), p. 301.

activities in the schools."¹⁹ He went on to comment that the hostility to the rising costs of education were based on an ignorance of the educational needs, increasingly larger enrollments, and improved standards for teachers. Concerning the fear of subversive activities in schools, Kandel attributed this to a general hysteria which swept the nation in the post-World War II years, with charges inspired by "super-patriots" who ignored a careful examination of the facts.

Improvements in the Teaching Profession
1946-1956

The TEPS Commission, in rounding out a decade of operation, reported in 1956 the progress achieved during the preceding years. From 15 states requiring the bachelor's degree for beginning elementary teachers in 1946-47, 31 states required the degree in 1955-56. In 1946-47, only 45% of all employed teachers had a baccalaureate degree, while in 1956 this had risen to 68% of all employed teachers, and average salaries had risen from \$2,080 to \$4,000 by 1955-56. In 1946-47, 123,000 teachers or one in seven held emergency certification. By 1955-56 this number had dropped to 80,000, or about one teacher in fourteen. In 1946-47 only 41,000

¹⁹I. L. Kandel, "We Must Educate our Masters," School and Society, LXXVI (July 19, 1952), p. 44.

teachers completed undergraduate degree preparation, whereas in 1955-56 the number was 96,000.²⁰

The TEPS report for 1957 commented,

In 1955, the Commission, putting together all factors and available data, was able to predict a steady improvement in the teacher supply situation and to predict that by 1962 the situation, if standards continued to be raised, would be improved to the extent that the annual production of teachers would be sufficient to supply the two basic requirements of (a) teachers to staff new positions and (b) to replace those who leave the profession each year. Moreover, the Commission, in its report The Crucial Years, in that year predicted by 1965, assuming a continuation of the Professional Standards movement unhindered, the profession should be able to achieve a reasonable balance in teacher supply and demand for all purposes at all teaching levels and fields. By 1950, the movement was beginning to overcome conditions which hindered the profession during World War II and a reasonable balance in teacher supply and demand was in prospect when the Korean War again created a national emergency, resulting in extreme manpower shortages in all fields. Between 1950 and 1954 there was a steady decline in college enrollments and in the annual production of teachers, as well as the production of professional personnel in other fields. In 1955 this downward spiral was checked, and the production of teachers showed a slight gain. In 1956 and 1957 significant gains were made in the annual production of teachers, with gains each year in the production of high-school teachers of approximately 16% over the previous year, and the overall gain in the production of teachers of approximately 10%. The 1957 production reached a total of 116,573 teachers at all levels of preparation, with 107,452 of these being degree graduates. The elementary degree teacher production, which in 1946 was estimated to be about 10,000 and in 1948 was reported by the first annual study of teacher supply and demand to be 13,827, reached an all-time peak in 1957 with the production of about 42,796. College enrollments in 1956-57 surpassed

²⁰ NCTEPS, "Report," NEA Addresses and Proceedings, Portland, 1956, Vol. 94 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1956), pp. 329-330.

all predictions, totalling 3,230,000, about 40% of the current 18-21 age group. This is the best possible omen for improving teacher supply.²¹

In 1957, the report went on to say, the Future Teachers Association was divided into a high-school and a college group, retaining the FTA name for the high-schools, and initiating the name Student National Education Association for the college age organization.

Academic Disciplines Become Involved in
Teacher Preparation

In 1958, the TEPS report stressed the continued shortage of teachers, particularly at the elementary school level. New problems were faced in terms of the holding power of teaching. The report stated that nearly one-third of all newly prepared teachers each year did not take jobs teaching. In addition, another 90,000 left the profession each year for one reason or another. "These large attritions indicate that corrective measures are needed to permit teaching to compete with industry for the services of qualified personnel."²² Another significant problem faced by the Commission that year was the sustained attacks upon public

²¹NCTEPS, "Report," NEA Addresses and Proceedings, Philadelphia, 1957, Vol. 95 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1957), pp. 400-401.

²²NCTEPS, "Report," NEA Addresses and Proceedings, Cleveland, 1958, Vol. 96 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1958), p. 353.

school and teacher education and certification procedures, brought about in part by the Russian demonstration of science and technology, increasing costs in public education, and the population explosion,

Rather than preparing answers to these attacks, the Commission has pursued the constructive policy of attempting to stimulate improvement in teacher education and certification procedures, in line with new and increased demands upon the schools.²³

The constructive policy indicated above was implemented by six regional conferences sponsored by TEPS which dealt with "The Teacher Education Program--Basic Principles and Issues." The regional conferences were used to plan the agenda for the 1958 national TEPS conference which was to emphasize the cooperative approach to the improvement of teacher education, "with the involvement of a relatively large proportion of representatives of the academic disciplines in colleges and universities preparing teachers."²⁴

The above statement was one of the first to be made by the NEA regarding the necessity of involving the academic disciplines in teacher preparation. This was expanded upon in the 1959 Proceedings report.

The chief focus was upon efforts to bring about a partnership in the strengthening of teacher education and certification. The campaign of vilification and recrimination had gotten out of bounds and the commission in collaboration with several large and

²³Ibid., p. 353.

²⁴Ibid., p. 354 (*italics added*).

influential association representing the liberal arts fields, sought to bring the dissident elements together through the co-sponsorship of the 13th Annual National TEPS Conference, held on the campus of the Bowling Green (Ohio) State University, June 24-28, 1958. Progress was made in this conference toward establishing a sympathetic understanding of and inaugurating a concerted attack upon the problems of improving teacher education. There was apparent willingness on the part of those representing the academic disciplines to assume their share of responsibility for developing a high-quality program of teacher education. This conference, called by the New York Times an "historic conference," resulted in a popular demand for the Commission to continue this cooperative approach. The 1959 National TEPS Conference, to be held at the University of Kansas (Lawrence), June 23-26, 1959, will study the desirable content of teacher-education curricula.²⁵

This report continued to discuss the teacher shortage and holding power of teaching, especially in the fields of science and mathematics.

The Bowling Green Conference, 1958, was the first of three such cooperative conferences instituted by the TEPS Commission. It dealt with "The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives." The following two conferences, Kansas, 1959, and San Diego, 1960 were entitled respectively "The Education of Teachers: Curricular Programs" and "The Education of Teachers: Certification." These conferences resulted in a greater recognition of the need for sustained consideration and emphases of future TEPS activities as well as the

²⁵NCTEPS, "Report," NEA Addresses and Proceedings, St. Louis, 1959, Vol. 97 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1959), p. 333.

New Horizons Project, initiated by TEPS in 1959, and "designed to develop definite statements to serve as guides for national, state, and local action programs for professional organizations and individuals working toward complete professionalization."²⁶

By 1961, a fourth cooperative conference of the academic disciplines and professional educational associations had met at Pennsylvania State University at which time attention was directed to the basic requirements of action at the national, state, and local levels for the realization of the major purposes and programs set forth in the New Horizons report.

Chapter Summary and Generalizations

In the preoccupation with raising pay, improving working conditions, and attempting to raise standards for certification, it would appear that those agencies representing the practicing teachers seemed to have failed to take note of two important factors: (1) they assumed the subject matter content to be stabilized and penultimate in nature, and (2) they failed to reorient their perspective in terms of what professionalism would mean once it was achieved. Fifteen years after Broudy's comments concerning

²⁶NCTEPS, "Report," NEA Addresses and Proceedings, Los Angeles, 1960, Vol. 98 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1960), p. 361.

the need for training of an abstract nature, Burton W.

Gorman wrote in 1955,

A most disappointing experience is to talk to a teacher who seems to have no vision of the future of his profession. The fact that so many in teaching fail to see it playing a vastly larger and more significant role in the life 30, 40, or 50 years from now is the main drawback to educational progress today. The teacher must have a vision of a greater profession in order to make a positive contribution to the fruition of that vision. Organization, public relations, budgets, buildings--all are important but in no way substitute for the grasp of what is to be and what can be.

Administrators and school boards, since 1946, in their desparate efforts just to keep schools open and to provide "sitters" if not teachers for all children, have been forced to resort to personnel policies of expedience with little regard for the long-range consequences.²⁷

Some of the expediciencies to which Gorman referred were those indicated earlier, the permitting of emergency certification for teachers due to enrollment expansion and the unavailability of fully qualified teachers. Problems of certification have continued to be pressing. The professionalization of a large group, well over a million individuals, is not an easy task. Practicing teachers themselves, because the financial conditions and the working conditions count heavily in feelings toward work, have pre-empted much time and energy to the promotion of a stronger lobby in the form of the professional organizations

²⁷ Burton W. Gorman, "The Teaching Profession Tomorrow," School and Society, LXXXII (October 29, 1955), p. 130.

representing them. But such pressing problems as the content of the curricula or methodological innovations have tended to be bypassed by the practicing teachers. Yet these important areas are certainly part of a developing profession. Oddly enough, classroom teachers themselves have been slow to recognize their nearsightedness in omitting these from their areas of concern.

In retracing the evolution of the theme, Teaching as a Profession, at least two factors have been present. One has been the concern with higher pay, prestige, and working conditions as evidenced by the continued references in the NEA reports. This has been the rallying point of the practicing teachers.

The second factor has been the concern for better prepared teachers. This has been the main concern of those in professional education, but not necessarily those practicing in elementary or secondary school classrooms. Such writers as Broudy and Knight have acted as the spokesmen for this movement. There is little evidence to suggest that practicing classroom teachers gave any concern for this important factor, and in fact the lack of comment tends to suggest that classroom teachers for the most part ignored this element. In addition, the slow development of improved standards of acceptance to teacher candidacy and the continued use of the emergency certification provisions suggest a reticence on the part of classroom teachers to

accommodate this factor as a necessary part of professionalization. The evidence supporting the development of the concern for better prepared teachers has been cited in the reports stating the initiation of NCTEPS, NCATE, and lately the Fund for the Advancement of Education Conference of leading professional educators in teacher education at Palo Alto, June through August, 1960 at which time a critical reappraisal of the professional aspects of teacher education were studied.²⁸

The latter concern, improved teacher preparation, so evident today and still without solution, has been complicated by still another element. Nordberg, Bradfield, and Odell, professors of education, in 1962 wrote concerning the "menace" of the non-professional teacher. These reluctant teachers, according to these writers, reflect the movement toward trade-unionism, and these teachers look upon their positions as jobs only, "piecework tasks with established price tags."²⁹ The authors call for many reforms including: finer screening of candidates for teaching; regular restricted credentials to replace emergency certification; incentives

²⁸Elmer R. Smith, editor, Teacher Education: A Re-appraisal (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1962), p. vii.

²⁹H. O. Nordberg, J. M. Bradfield, and Wm. C. Odell, "Teachers and the Pursuit of Excellence," School and Society, XC (February 24, 1962), p. 76.

for superior teaching to be established; a re-examination of guaranteed employment; a re-evaluation of the school calendar as well as local control of education; a possible reorganization of the comprehensive secondary school; and a provision for greater technological assistance for all teachers. The immensity of the tasks outlined points to the difficulties yet to be overcome for teaching to become a profession in the true sense.

In conclusion, these two decades under study have been ones in which the teaching profession has been striving for increased prestige and status which in turn were dependent upon higher standards of professional preparation of a more abstract nature. Improved teacher welfare, including higher salaries, guaranteed employment, and improved working conditions were also a part of professional concerns. The TEPS Commission, comprised of teachers and educators, has been instrumental in developing broader public and professional understanding of these problems. The resolution of professionalism versus trade unionism still awaits action in the present era. The evolution of the teaching profession from 1940 to the 1963 standing has been the theme Teaching as a Profession.

CHAPTER III

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE THEME EDUCATION AS A DISCIPLINE

The problems encountered in attempting to delineate the foundations and the history of the discipline of education movement are many. The trend toward educators perceiving their field as a particular set of knowledges with a particular set of methods of inquiry has recently been accentuated by pervasive questions raised in the context of teacher preparation and in the philosophical bases for education. The exploration and development of the theme of education as a discipline necessitates a beginning further removed from the present than the last twenty years. Much has been written concerning the education movement of the early part of this century. Nevertheless, some reference must be made here to provide a basis for the present.

A Definition of Education as a Discipline

The theory underlying this theme is that professional educators, those individuals in colleges and universities attempting to explore problems of education at both the theoretical and the practical, implementation levels, have been and still are desirous that education be recognized as a discipline.

Haskew,¹ in a 1959 Horace Mann lecture at the University of Pittsburgh, cited the central concern of education was with school and defined this as "all organized attempts to cause people to learn what is considered valuable by dealing with them in agencies known as schools."² According to Haskew, subject matter, the teachers and the students are the hub of the wheel and all other ancillary school concerns are the spokes. Haskew differentiated between education as a social institution and education as a discipline. Inasmuch as the concern undertaken here has been Education as a Discipline, it has been pertinent to summarize Haskew's definition of education as a developing academic discipline. He stated, "This discipline is devoted to the philosophical and empirical study of what people should learn in school. It is devoted to the production, synthesis, and systemization of knowledge of how people learn in schools. It is devoted to ascertaining the most efficient procedures for conducting schools in which people do learn."³

If educators were to develop a discipline of education, the distinct and unique knowledge of education

¹Laurence D. Haskew, The Discipline of Education and America's Future (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1959), 59 pp.

²Ibid., p. 7.

³Ibid., pp. 34-35.

discipline-wise will be that of the methodology of teaching, in pursuing the content of the act of teaching and the act of learning, the selection and organization of content customarily viewed as curriculum making.

A distinction is made here between the methods of inquiry into the methodology of teaching and the methods of inquiry into the content areas of the subject matter. In all likelihood, an individual pursuing methods of inquiry into distinct subject areas as chemistry, or history, or biology, or English would tend to be a specialist in that subject or content area. The problems of delineation in this matter are not to be treated hastily. A good part of the present concern for education rests with a lack of definition or distinction between the education specialist and the subject matter specialists in terms of curriculum development. But for discrimination at this time, the educator--the bona fide researcher or theorist in education, is one who attempts to build the distinct and unique knowledge of the discipline of education on the methods of inquiry particular to that discipline, as a research chemist would build the unique approach upon the knowledges inherent in chemistry.

This attempt to delineation must be kept in mind, inasmuch as this particular theme is elusive and diffuses easily into other concerns. One other distinction should be made. This concerns other workers in the public schools.

Teachers, administrators, specialists such as curriculum directors and subject matter supervisors, are not necessarily included in this group manifesting concerns for education as a discipline. While they may contribute indirectly to the movement, it is felt that their main concerns are bound up with the more practical problems of running a school, instructing children using methods and knowledges that they themselves have not originated, but rather have adapted after a professional inculcation of pre-service or in-service training. Some of these individuals in practical situations may make contributions or innovations on forwarding the discipline of education movement. More than likely they will not.

The literature has only recently evidenced the use of the term of education as a discipline. One of the more pronounced uses of this term came about as the result of the Fund for the Advancement of Education Conference on Teacher Preparation. John Walton, Chairman of the Department of Education at Johns Hopkins University, in a discussion on the role of the school and the preparation of teachers made this observation.

If we look at the prestige of the academic disciplines --which may have little relation to the quality of the work done--we observe that a kind of law operates on the campus that the less a discipline borrows from other disciplines the "purer" it is; and the more other disciplines borrow from it, the more prestige it has. To illustrate this, let us take the continuum of mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, psychology, and

sociology. The order of scholarly prestige would appear to follow the order of the listing of the disciplines. If there were any discipline "purer" than mathematics it is logic. It is not relevant here to ask whether or not some of the disciplines low in the order of "pureness" and prestige have tried too hard to imitate the disciplines from which they borrow and have neglected their own subject matter, but such imitation may be a hazard. If we look at education we observe that it is a discipline, or field of study, from which no other disciplines borrow, and which borrows practically everything it has. Therefore, if the law that we have mentioned actually operates, we can expect less prestige for education than for any other field of study.

However, the degree of "pureness" may not be the sole criterion for the prestige of a discipline. The intellectual integrity and ability of the professors and students who engage in the study of a subject can add to its prestige as well as to its development.

. . . Since the discipline of education does not provide its own intellectual standards, the quality of the work done in it, as well as its prestige, depends on the ability and integrity of the people studying it. The disciplines of high prestige tend to attract bright students and competent scholars. These disciplines are intellectually exciting. There are indications now that there is so much general interest in education that a fair number of capable students will want to study the subject. If they are encouraged to do so, they are likely to make the study of educational phenomena more stimulating and attractive than it now is.⁴

Implicit in this statement is the motivation, if only from prestige or status, impelling education toward a discipline. Also implicit, in the last paragraph, is the host of intellectual concerns focusing upon education as a discipline which tends to elevate education academically into more prestigious circumstances.

⁴John Walton, "The Role of the School," in Smith, op.cit., pp. 35-36.

Quite in contrast with Walton's statement, a more recent comment by James B. Conant⁵ indicates that education should not be considered a discipline. Based on investigations of the requirements for teacher preparation and his own analysis of what professional information is desirable for teachers, Conant lists four "components of the intellectual equipment that would be a prerequisite to the development of teaching skill."⁶ Among these components are a democratic social understanding, ways behavior develops in children, child growth, and principles of teaching. With the identification of the four components, Conant raises the question as to whether or not there is a science of education. He points out that there is a "relation of science to certain other practical arts,"⁷ and the need exists to deal with "disciplines that yield predictive generalizations and those that are useful where value judgments enter. In practical situations, like teaching, the two are never separable."⁸ However, he points out in a summarizing statement to the rather lengthy development of his argument that,

Teachers like physicians, think in terms of predictive generalizations as well as arguments derived from

⁵James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963), pp. 112-125.

⁶Ibid., p. 113.

⁷Ibid., p. 117.

⁸Ibid., pp. 118-119.

general principles. Some people would like to combine these two modes of thought and speak of a single, all-embracing science of education. The question is whether it is useful to try to cover with the word "science" a vast field of human activity directed toward practical ends, I have come to the conclusion that it is not. Perhaps it is only a question of terminology. However, I prefer not to speak of the science of engineering but of the engineering sciences. I doubt that there is or ever will be a science of medicine, yet I am sure enormous strides forward have been made in the medical sciences. Therefore, I think it would be better to discuss the academic disciplines that have relevance for the labors of the teacher than to try to talk in terms of a developing science of education. In other words, I shall examine academic disciplines--which might be called educational sciences or educational disciplines--rather than the science or the discipline of education.⁹

Perhaps it is only a matter of terminology as Conant suggests. If so, there is an urgent need to clarify this terminology. Perhaps the problem is conceptual in terms of educators perceiving their functions in pursuing the search of truth, whether in theory or in practice. At any rate Conant's insights in 1963 may well be indicative of the state of affairs in education, the state of the discipline. Others have not viewed this status as such, and the era just ending, and for that matter, the era just beginning, needs a representation of the route traversed to permit Conant to make the observations he has made, or for that matter to allow Walton to describe education as the discipline from which none others borrow. The development of

⁹Ibid., p. 120.

the theme, Education as a Discipline, attempts to disclose the historical evolution of a distinct educational phenomena: the striving toward disciplinary status by educators.

The Beginnings of Education as a Discipline

A significant development in the history of education as a discipline was reached with the publishing in 1926 of the Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. The Society itself an outgrowth of the National Herbart Society, has reflected the outstanding trends in education. The Twenty-sixth Yearbook has been referred to numerous times in the literature in the ensuing years, and still towers above the educational landscape as a landmark of distinction. Harold Rugg, the Yearbook Chairman, wrote in the forward:

From time to time, in a dynamic society it is imperative that we stand aside from the movement of affairs to review trends, to assay products, to map new paths. The chief outcome is reorientation, a balanced perspective; especially needed in these days of vigorous experimentation. It is most important that those who are constructing our school curriculum shall maintain an overview of the total situation: lacking that, their orientation will be biased, their emphasis misplaced. There is grave danger that they will continue to commit themselves uncritically to plans and movements--to take up the current modes only to discard them as unthinkingly as they adopt them. . . . Synthesis is needed especially because of the gap between curriculum and child growth . . . no problem confronting the school is more insistent or more difficult than the rechanneling into one broad stream of these isolated currents of practical and cultural life.

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In fifty years of curriculum-making the greatest need has been a comprehensive overview of the currents

of American life and education, appraisal of all the factors in the educational situation. . . . Each of the three outstanding forces engaging in the organization of the curriculum during the past thirty-five years certainly has lacked a complete overview. Each was biased toward academic formulae, child interests, or the scientific study of society. The successive national committees, for example, have viewed the school from the starting point of fixed boundaries of subject matter and have been thoroughly committed to doctrines of scholarship and discipline. The protagonists of the philosophy of dynamic growth were also limited in their attack, although much closer to the truth than the subject matter specialists. They focused their attention so sharply upon the child that they tended to ignore the real end points of growth in our current complex order. Similarly, the newest group of curriculum reformers, students of the more scientific study of education, have been somewhat unduly immersed in their techniques. Hence, they, too have moved on a tangent, emphasizing the study of social needs and tending to minimize child growth.¹⁰

The committee for the Twenty-sixth Yearbook of NSSE was unusual in its composition and its methods of work. The members of the committee¹¹ reflected the total range of philosophical orientation from building a curriculum around child activities and interests to a curriculum which stressed preparation for adult life. The committee sought to "discover

¹⁰Harold Rugg, "Forward," Curriculum-Making: Past and Present, Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1926), pp. x-xi.

¹¹Committee members for the 26th Yearbook of the NSSE were: Wm. C. Bagley, Franklin Bobbitt, Frederick G. Bonser, George S. Counts, Stuart A. Courtis, Ernst Horn, Charles H. Judd, Frederick J. Kelly, Wm. H. Kilpatrick, Harold Rugg (Chrm.) and George A. Works.

agreements and clarify divergencies."¹² The method used was one of five roundtable discussions each lasting one or two days and meeting over a period of two and a half years. The General Statement of Curriculum-making was published as a consensus of this committee's deliberations, with individual positions on matters of emphasis divergent from the General Statement published in succeeding chapters of Part II of the Yearbook. As often is the case, the forward-looking General Statement, quite revolutionary in its day, has proven to be a rather consistent guide for much curriculum work leading to the present. Perhaps the caution Rugg¹³ expressed to his readers concerning the General Statement was not always heeded. He stressed the danger in blindly following the principles of the General Statement, rather than doing individual hard-thinking concerning these principles. The purpose of the General Statement was to serve as a basis for continued forums within many educational groups. It was not a prescription to be made mandatory in establishing curricular developments within the numerous school systems.

Paul R. Grim points out the uniqueness of this committee in that theirs was not the static orientation

¹²Harold Rugg, "Introduction," The Foundation of Curriculum-making, Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1927), p. 3.

¹³Ibid., p. 8.

found in previous curricular work.

Curriculum research prior to 1925 emphasized "economy of time," "cutting out the dead wood," "minimum essentials," and "educational shortages"--all to determine what to salvage from the traditional curriculum. Effective research techniques were used to make these studies. Few studies questioned the organization of society. Curriculum research was primarily concerned with keeping the curriculum alive to the times by having it contain material to function that day.¹⁴

Methods of Inquiry Used Prior to 1926

For a review of the science of education up to and including the 1920's, the Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education gives a full account. Briefly reviewed, some of the significant advances in techniques and sources of problems followed the lines of two inquiries: social needs and psychological findings. Rugg stated that to about 1910 college and private school administrators along with subject matter specialists controlled the curriculum which was dominated by concerns for "scholarship, mind training, and knowledge for knowledge's sake."¹⁵ This was followed by a period where quantitative approaches were used: school surveys, question blanks and so forth. A conspicuous change, particularly in committee membership, came with the National Education Association

¹⁴Paul R. Grim, "Designs for Curriculum Development," Journal of Educational Research, XLII (September, 1948), p. 20.

¹⁵Rugg, op. cit., Part I, p. 67.

Committee on the Economy of Time, which emphasized scientifically determined grade placement of socially worthwhile materials of learning.¹⁶ The focus on life needs was made apparent in the reports of this committee.¹⁷ An outgrowth of this movement was shown by the construction and use of tests in subject matter areas and in inventories of current curriculum content.

Rugg pointed out that by 1920 the scientific movement had begun to be reflected in textbooks in the skill subjects. Spelling and arithmetic books were offered for use in which the scientifically determined content reflected the skills needed in everyday use of adults and children.¹⁸

Rugg commented in the summary of the chapter on "Curriculum-making and the Study of Education" in this manner.

Social analysis merely gives us the techniques and knowledges we should have on tap. For the basic insights and attitudes we must rely, as we do for the statements of the goals of education, upon human judgment. It is imperative, however, that we make use of only the most valid judgments. The forecasting of trends of the social movement, the perception of the focal problems and issues, and the connections underlying them, demand erudition and maturity that eventuates only from prolonged and scientific study of society.¹⁹

¹⁶Ibid., p. 68.

¹⁷See the following National Society for the Study of Education Yearbooks for Reports on the Committee on Economy of Time: Fourteenth (1915), Sixteenth (1917), Seventeenth (1918), and Eighteenth (1919).

¹⁸Rugg, op. cit., Part I, p. 73.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 82.

The Twenty-sixth Yearbook emphasis was succinctly expressed in the above statement. The movement away from subject matter specialties and from knowledge for its own sake, was underway. The inclusion of society as a major focus in educational endeavor was clearly apparent. As stated earlier, there was needed a careful synthesis of society, child development, and subject matter. The techniques for researching these problems were slowly developing. Indeed, there was much of the nature of minutiae that would have to be explored and reported, but the movement of Education as a Discipline was launched.

Education as a Discipline in the 1940s

The ferment in educational thought brought about by the publishing of the Twenty-sixth Yearbook for the National Society for the Study of Education led to a sequel in the work of that Society. Rugg presented to the NSSE Board in 1933 a proposal to develop a yearbook on "The Science of Education." Rugg was to chair this committee, but due to many other commitments, the chairmanship was later turned over to Dr. Frank N. Freeman. The Yearbook outline was revised, and ultimately published in 1938.²⁰ The major

²⁰ Guy M. Whipple, editor, "Editor's Preface," The Scientific Movement in Education, Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1938), p. xi.

purposes of the Thirty-Seventh Yearbook were those of attempting to assess educational development since the previous yearbook on the subject a decade earlier (the Twenty-Sixth): to review the development of methods of inquiry in the various phases of educational research; to relate research to practice; and lastly, to raise questions concerning the role of scientific study in the field of education.

It was made apparent early in the yearbook that "science" was rather liberally interpreted to accommodate much that had been recorded in this yearbook. Freeman²¹ wrote in the introductory chapter of the Thirty-seventh Yearbook that the committee chose to use the more liberal interpretation of science of education and therefore the Yearbook stressed a,

. . . broad descriptive account of the methods and results of a systematic study of education. Some of the methods are more exact than others and some of the fields of education have been more adequately investigated than others. Much of the study would not be deemed "scientific" in the strict sense of the word. It does constitute, however, an effort to secure as exact information as possible to serve as the basis for practice.²²

²¹Frank N. Freeman, "Introduction: The Purpose and Scope of the Yearbook," The Scientific Movement in Education, Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1938), p. 3.

²²Ibid.

The fields within education under investigation included: administration; teacher education; curriculum; general methods of instruction; several special methods of instruction of handwriting, reading, spelling, English usage, mathematics, natural sciences, social studies, practical arts, music and art, and home economics. Additional investigations were made concerning classification, grading, promotion and certification of pupils' accomplishments; determining and dealing with individual differences; dealing with classroom control and discipline; guidance in education; and higher education.

Concerning the methods used, Freeman emphasized that there was no single method, rather several methods may be used to attack the problems in a given field. Furthermore, the methods used were not necessarily coordinate with the various areas of study. The diversity of problems under investigation, the lack of sophistication in the methodology of inquiry, and the difficulties of true experimentation using tight controls of variables and the capabilities of replication of these experiments, when carried on, were particularly felt as contributors to questioning these scientific investigations in a strict scientific sense. The methodology of research used up to 1937 included the historical, comparative, and documentary research method; the social survey and community studies; statistical analysis and comparison, especially since the late 1920's; the laboratory

method as a means to investigate the nature of learning in some specific areas such as music, reading, or handwriting; classroom experimentation involving rotation of teacher and students, and the equivalent group method involving statistical comparisons; the case study method for longitudinal studies of individuals; the methods pertaining to diagnosis as an approach to remedial instruction and individual instruction; and the whole broad field of testing--achievement, intelligence, aptitude, and personality. Completing the laundry-list of methods were included the ideas of techniques of observation as a means of gathering data, and the use of questionnaires and rating scales.²³

The Lag Between Research and Practice

Cushman and Fox²⁴ attempted to trace the translation of educational research into school practice. It was their opinion that the gap between research and school practice was as great as it had been in 1927. According to Cushman and Fox five major factors continued to contribute to the maintenance of this gap:

²³NSSE, The Scientific Movement in Education, Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1938), pp. 1-390.

²⁴C. L. Cushman and Guy Fox, "Research and the Public School Curriculum," The Scientific Movement in Education, Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1938), pp. 67-78.

1) the limited training of the teacher, 2) the limited amount of significant research carried on by the public schools, 3) the constant transfer of those persons most competent to lead in promoting the use of research from public-school to college and university positions, 4) the provincial attitude of many teachers and administrators, and 5) the limited significance of much that passes for research.²⁵

Concerning the gains made in the decade, Cushman and Fox found that the digesting and reporting of research had improved and that some outstanding long-range curriculum improvement plans in public schools were underway, including the Progressive Education Association's Eight-Year Study.²⁶

Covering a broader scope in educational thought, Guy Whipple,²⁷ NSSE Yearbook editor from 1916, reviewed the significant contributions of the sixty-seven volumes of the Yearbook of that Society to the scientific movement in education. There was sufficient evidence for Whipple to generalize certain trends or cycles that had occurred in the deliberations of various Yearbook committees over the years the Society had been engaged in publication. The six stages of the cycle listed by Whipple were:

²⁵Ibid., p. 78.

²⁶Ibid., pp. 74-75.

²⁷Guy M. Whipple, "The Contributions of This Society to the Scientific Movement in Education with Special Reference to the Trends in Problems and Methods of Inquiry," The Scientific Movement in Education, Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1938), pp. 257-272.

- (1) a stage characterized by a predominance of individual opinion or pooled opinion, becoming probably progressively more expert;
- (2) a stage characterized by the injection of quantification and featuring assemblages of data in historical summaries, analyses of reports, surveys of practice, outcomes of questionnaires [sic], and the like;
- (3) a stage characterized by insistence upon refinements of statistical method, upon measurements, scales, and standardization, culminating in recipes, practical rules, remedial devices, and numerous instructional and administrative recommendations;
- (4) a stage characterized by the appearance of new techniques, like the interview, visitation, the case study, less precise but in a way more comprehensive and more ambitious than the methods of the third stage;
- (5) a stage characterized by attempts to formulate objectives more recondite than factual acquisition, to analyze the learning processes for skills, attitudes, and sentiments regarded as potentially teachable, and to lay out the instruction accordingly in a given field of subject matter longitudinally throughout the grades . . . and possibly,
- (6) a stage characterized, rather curiously, by a return to a considerable extent, to the approach used in the first stage--witness, for example, the yearbooks on activism, on music, on international understanding, and perhaps the current volume on guidance. This swing back toward opinion, granted there be such a swing, might be conditioned by some intrinsic cycle of method, some necessity of intellectual progress; it seems to me more likely, however, to be conditioned by the attempt to attack new and broader problems for which at present we lack precise techniques of investigation, in which case the resort once more to the expression of opinion is just an accident.²⁸

Whether the cyclic nature of educational research was an accident because broader issues were under discussion, or whether this was a cycle of thought in a developmental intellectual process, it remains to be seen. Educational

²⁸Ibid., p. 270.

research is a youthful venture, and much remains to be discovered. While the development of research techniques will not be viewed in a comparative fashion between two eras of research, or between education and another discipline, it is obvious that the field under investigation reported here is extremely broad--so much so that one is hard-pressed to make any general statement concerning the over-all advancement of knowledge. Secondly, while individual techniques of inquiry in the various educational investigations have been refined up to the present, few new techniques have been developed. Furthermore, refinement and development have been at the technical stage for the most part; rarely have these evidenced a new underlying theory or for that matter, a different approach to testing an existing theory.

The preceding section has not been meant to be viewed as an abbreviated baedeker of educational research methods. Rather it has been included to give a brief account of the state of these research methods at the time of the publication of the yearbook in 1938.

The Problem of Specialization Within Education

As one reads the extensive listings of studies, techniques, and investigations undertaken up to 1937, with an eye to the research which has followed this period, the comment by Conant cited earlier, in which he questioned the validity of a single discipline of education, takes on

more significance. There are, in a sense, fields of study within education, that contribute to the development of education. Perhaps these are the education sciences, or the education disciplines. Certainly these fields (educational psychology, curriculum, teacher education, and special methodological areas are examples) are specific enough to permit depth specialization. It has been, to a degree, these specializations that have plagued the educator. The wholeness of education as a discipline has not yet been achieved but instead it can be viewed as separate specialties loosely knit together by virtue of dealing with immature learners in an instructional situation. The very fragmentation of the approach has caused concern because there has been no overarching theory within which to house the various specific investigations of educational research. This does not mean that there should be only one school of thought as far as a theoretical approach to education as a discipline is concerned. There may be, and probably should be, more than one. Taking other disciplines as comparisons, one usually finds at least two major theoretical positions from which ideas develop. The theoretical position provides the view of reality, and of man, and these ultimately are reflected in the constructs of the discipline and the practical implementation of the research carried on to test the several theories. This appears to be lacking in education in this century. Continuing to pursue the similarity for a moment,

using other disciplines as models, one finds that when the schools of thought grow too divergent another school develops which attempts to synthesize the approaches. Synthesis is aided not only by the growing separate sets of inquiry within the discipline, but often is aided by developments outside the discipline, which the discipline in turn "borrows" and adapts for its uses. Witness the effect of the "open energy systems approach" initiated in the field of physics and the spread to biology, geomorphology, and other branches of the natural sciences.

It would appear that up to the publication of the Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, there existed no one school of thought in educational research, let alone two or more schools of thought to stimulate one another's educational inquiry. The umbrella of a given educational theory did not exist at this time in our history. Pieces of research were evidenced in a haphazard manner, in something of an amateurish way, like Sunday picnickers picking pebbles from a beach. Perhaps the ideas and results had some inherent value in themselves for the searchers making the discoveries. However, without a general classification or framework within which to put these finds, their value to education assumes that characteristic of a pretty collection unrelated to a generic whole which would be constituted as a discipline.

Dewey, examining the relative positions of science and philosophy in education had this comment.

The trouble with education does not proceed from the introduction of scientific and vocational activities. It proceeds from the inconsistent mixture of the values inherent in these subjects with those derived from traditions and customs that originated in the prescientific and predemocratic age but that still endure in the educational system. Systematic development of the values potentially present in personal and social experience, as that moves under control by scientifically informed intelligence, provides a road out. The immediate task of a philosophy of education is to clarify the meaning of such a movement in terms of subject matter and methods from the very beginning through the university. This task is negative as far as criticism is concerned with the materials, methods, and aims that hold over from the traditions and customs of a prescientific age. It is positive in that it discloses values inherent in experience as that is transformed through the efforts of those who are actuated by practical and collective intelligence. The promises of education and of social life are identical in this respect. A philosophy of education faithful to the possibilities of experience and scientific method will not of itself accomplish the needed change. But it will contribute by making clear the road to be followed and the goal to which it leads.²⁹

Social Reconstruction and Reform

Within the context of the late twenties and the early thirties, attention had been directed more and more toward social needs and a society-centered school. In the center of this new focus of attention was the Teachers College

²⁹John Dewey, "Determination of Ultimate Values or Aims Through Antecedent or A Priori Speculation or Through Pragmatic or Empirical Inquiry," The Scientific Movement in Education, Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1938), pp. 484-485.

Discussion Group composed of Counts, Childs, Raup, Newlon, Cottrell, Rugg and others with William Kilpatrick as chairman. As an informal group of social foundations of education professors at Teachers College, the Group met regularly from 1927 to 1934, and off and on until after the war began in 1939. These distinguished educators of that era investigated social issues of education on many fronts.³⁰ Based on Veblen's theory of society, the group served as the focal point for originating two forces in American education, the founding of a journal called The Social Frontier (1934), and organizing the John Dewey Society for the Study of Education and the Culture (1935). The movement was directed at social reconstruction leadership for schools and attention to adult education. The Teachers College Group, to set the John Dewey Society in motion, enlisted the help of "Fellows" located in numerous colleges and universities. The primary function of the Society was to publish yearbooks. Both the listing of the board of directors³¹ of The Social Frontier

³⁰Harold Rugg, Foundations of American Education (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1947), pp. 577-582.

³¹Ibid., p. 579 lists the original board as including: Wm. H. Kilpatrick, Chrm., Edmund De S. Brunner, John L. Childs, Harold F. Clark, Donald P. Cottrell, George S. Counts, John Dewey, Harrison S. Elliott, Mordecai Grossman, Paul R. Hanna, Heber Harper, Sidney Hook, H. Gordon Hullfish, Alvin Johnson, F. Ernst Johnson, E. C. Lindeman, Lois H. Meek, Clyde R. Miller, Jesse H. Newlon, Harry A. Overstreet, Robert B. Raup, Rollo Reynolds, Harold Rugg, Robert K. Speer, V. T. Thayer, Goodwin Watson, and Norman Woelfel. Later members included James L. Hymes and Carleton Washburne.

and the John Dewey Society membership read like the Whos' Who in American Education, so prominent in educational leadership have these men become. When the Progressive Education Association undertook the publication of the journal the name was changed from The Social Frontier to Frontiers in Democracy, and under this name the journal survived until 1943. The journal had served as the spearhead for the social liberals in American education, and as such the journal and its contributors absorbed much criticism for voicing radical beliefs of social reform.

Individuals in the movement also wrote concerning the social reform. One of the best known was George S. Counts' Dare the Schools Build a New Social Order? published in 1932, and which added impetus to concerns arising from the economic crisis of the thirties. The swing away from the child-centered schools of the twenties toward the social-needs centered school of the thirties was well under way. Crucial questions about what to do with the jobless youth, how to prepare them for a life of work, what work experiences were most beneficial, equating the work experiences with high school credits toward graduation became the issues discussed during the 1930's. The Federal Government established the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration to absorb some of the jobless problem. Educators were troubled by other facets of preparation for work on the part of youth people and the Department for Supervision

and Curriculum Development continued to write about this as late as the 1944 Yearbook.³²

Effects of World War II on the Discipline

World War II has become one of the great demarcation lines of this century. A way of life suddenly changed: the Depression ended; farms and factories re-tooled to win a war; home life was disrupted; and schools became the focal points for all kinds of services, from issuing ration books to housing migrant farm workers during the harvest season and supplying platoons of children to assist with harvests.³³ The war emergency emphasized expediency, but it was an expediency with the real goal of victory, and it provided a sense of purpose, direction, and willingness to sacrifice what was lacking in the earlier era. From the war effort on the part of education, hot lunch programs, milk programs, the extended school day and extended school year concepts, as well as the nursery school developed at the elementary school level, while work experiences came out of this for the secondary school. The growing concern for completion of high school by more youth was also evident at this time.

³²Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, Toward a New Curriculum (Washington, D. C.: Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1944), pp. 56-75.

³³Ibid., pp. 41-55.

However, a serious mistake made by many educators, prior to any evaluation of these functions in a vastly different postwar setting, was to attempt to institutionalize these innovations under a rationalization that the expedient measures of wartime were good education, and therefore would apply as well for peacetime.

Growing out of the social setting of the thirties and the war effort of the early forties, educators, as evidenced by the Teachers College Group, focused considerable discussion on the society-centered problems of education. In a sense this became a problem-centered discussion, with the problems those of a social nature. Previously the problems had been drawn from a different source such as the psychological research relating to individual needs and differences. More problems now were from society and sociology. Inherent in this movement was the connotation of an expanded educational system to accommodate more children for longer periods of time, at least through high school. The Elmtown Youth studies are part of the concerns for educating all of the children as were the concerns expressed in Education for All American Youth.³⁴

³⁴Educational Policies Commission, NEA, Education for All American Youth (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, 1944), 421 pp.

The diffuse social problems of the thirties gave way to rather specific educational problems in the early forties. As the problematic investigations continued, there was, in a sense, a narrowing of sights during the wartime years. The war's impact on education may never be truly assessed, but it is evident that many of the national weaknesses in health and nutrition, literacy, mental health and others were assessed during the induction period for young men. These, too, became prime objectives of the schools immediately following the termination of the war.

Immediate Postwar Circumstances in Education

The postwar period reflected the movement of social needs growing out of the return of veterans and others to the classrooms. The National Society for the Study of Education Forty-fourth Yearbook stressed these problems. Tyler wrote:

The Committee has considered two types of developments; one, the new groups which the school will be called upon to serve in the year ahead; and, two, the new emphasis likely to be given to the curriculum program. Under the new groups, the Committee outlines developments for pre-school children, veterans, and returning war workers, and the expansion in programs of adult education. Its treatment of new emphases deals with mental and physical health, work experience, consumer education, instruction in the conservation of natural resources, the development of the community school, and training for citizenship, both domestic and international.³⁵

³⁵Ralph W. Tyler, "Introduction," American Education in the Postwar Era: Curriculum Reconstruction, Forty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945), p. 3.

The Forty-fourth Yearbook emphasis was clearly upon the pointing up of concerns and problems facing the schools from an operational standpoint immediately after the war. These problems again reflected social need and they tended to be expediential in nature. The goal direction was one of returning to a status-quo of sorts, a status-quo of peace time, whatever that might be. The movement entailed many short-range objectives founded upon immediate need, while at the same time it mirrored the impact of the changing times. The educators were neither leading nor lagging in their efforts, but they were hard-pressed to keep abreast of the events in a rapidly changing world.

Changes had occurred rapidly in the social sphere. Institutions of higher education bulged with men and women attempting to complete academic training. The practical side of the education proved to have enough flexibility to accommodate the influx physically. Those concerned with the theoretical side of education were involved with many of the practical concerns of this period. Consumer education and conservation education became the by-words for education in the late forties and early fifties, along with mental health. However, few individuals penetrated to the core of the then-current emphases. Why does education need to be concerned about growing mental health problems, or the conservation of natural resources? Instead, there tended to develop an almost fanatical set of loyalties around

these concerns, and reaction was more emotional than logical. Theories and more empirical investigations had not evolved to keep pace with the mania for peace-time pursuits.

Subject Matter: Pertinent Questions

At the same time, the content of the curriculum was following a prewar course. Few people in education reckoned with the curricular reforms implicit in the outgrowth of a technological postwar society, and the reform in content based on new developments in knowledge per se. Taba³⁶ was one who recognized the outdatedness of much that was taught in terms of the impending developments in science and technology. Yet even she, with almost a prophetic insight, did not come to grips with the specific problems involved in curricular change of the pervasive nature as occurred within the next decade. It seemed that the NSSE Forty-fourth Yearbook Committee was of two minds concerning the course of events in curriculum. Tyler spoke for the majority on the Yearbook Committee when he said,

The committee decided to concentrate its attention primarily on the new developments likely to follow the war and not to include phases of the curriculum likely to continue in the postwar period with only slight changes from the development that took place during the period preceding the war. Thus, nothing is said in this volume about the postwar program in

³⁶Hilda Taba, "General Techniques of Curriculum Planning," American Education in the Postwar Era: Curriculum Reconstruction, Forty-fourth Yearbook of the NSSE, Part I (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1945), pp. 80-115.

science, mathematics, reading, language, literature, or in a number of other special fields except as they are related to the particular emphases selected for treatment which seemed to the committee to be the most significant developments likely to follow the war. This failure to treat some of the phases of the school curriculum does not indicate that any less importance is attached to them. In the case of science . . . forward-looking schools made marked improvements in the science programs just prior to the war. . . . A similar condition exists in certain other fields.³⁷

However, in the same yearbook, Taba³⁸ pointed out that there would be a demand for new content, among which was included: recognizing the impact of wartime technology on science and mathematics; the growing importance of intercultural education and the "forgotten nations"; new ideas concerning consumer education; a reinterpretation of history and geography, and all this was brought about by the wartime experience.

Despite the fact some educators saw the continuation of that which already existed in subject matter and other educators saw the need for new content, they were nearly unified in their concern for the service role the schools were to play in the immediate postwar period. According to Taba, curriculum revision would need to be a continuous process, not a periodic ten-year plan. Furthermore, increasingly local adaptations in both the methods of handling unique

³⁷Tyler, op. cit., p. 3.

³⁸Taba, op. cit., p. 80.

situations and the content would be called for "if the present trend toward community orientation and individualization of programs to serve the needs of given groups of learners continued."³⁹

Taba, discussing general assumptions about curriculum and curriculum planning, reviewed the society-learner-content trilogy in evidence since the Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the NSSE. Concerning the emphasis on society, she said,

The problem is to keep this relationship (social values, social needs, social problems) valid, fresh, and up-to-date and to avoid serving needs that no longer exist or perpetuating values that have ceased to function. It is to this end that there is need for a continuous analysis of society and a continuous application of what is so learned in program-building.⁴⁰

Concerning the learner and the effect of content,

We educate people by changing them as individuals . . . involv[ing] the so-called academic learning, the socializing of these individuals, and providing for their personal growth. . . . It is, therefore, important in curriculum planning to use all available knowledge about the nature of the learners and the characteristics of the learning process.

Finally, all learning experiences take place through some content or subject matter. . . . Each area of content, whether academic or otherwise, involves certain unique concepts, certain unique intellectual processes, and certain emotional ingredients useful to stimulate mental growth. . . . To use effectively what the content can offer, it is necessary to cut through the conglomerate detail and to uncover these essential values and unique contributions.⁴¹

³⁹Ibid., p. 81.

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 83.

⁴¹Ibid.

These basic concepts and unique intellectual tools, and not the details, represent the "essentials" of any subject area, a fact not recognized by the confused debates about the essentials in curriculum planning.⁴²

Taba's comments, viewed twenty years later, have a very current sound. This is what seems to be the crux of the present movement in the academic subjects, getting at the structure of the separate disciplines through the unique intellectual skills and content offerings. It is interesting that these comments seemed to go for such a long period unheeded. On the other hand, the stress on the balance between the social emphasis, the individual emphasis, and the content emphasis was also part of Taba's concern, as well as the concern of an earlier period, and one that continues to occupy a major place in the thinking of many educators up to and including the present. Taba went on to declare that the difficulties in curriculum planning usually were derived from two sources: the inadequate use of the available research concerning society, the learner, and the content, and "either in the absence of a philosophy of education or in a divergence or inconsistency in basic philosophic concepts which lead to differences in assumptions about the nature and role of the curriculum as well as to confusion in interpreting research data."⁴³ The unwillingness or the

⁴²Ibid., pp. 89-90.

⁴³Ibid., p. 84.

inability of curriculum planners to operate from a consistent philosophical base has been a great weakness in preparing programs. The impact of emergency conditions during and following the war further handicapped the movement by furnishing a convenient rationalization to curriculum planners for not specifying goals and assumptions philosophically derived.

Additional approaches to curriculum that were developed in the early forties included emphases on psychological factors, child development, readiness studies, adolescent and youth studies, field study research, and action research as contrasted to the heavy social emphasis of the curriculum of the preceding decade.⁴⁴ Educators made various attempts to incorporate these several emphases into curriculum theories. The variety of writing and research indicated again the changing conditions surrounding Education as a Discipline.

A Change of Emphasis Regarding Curriculum and Instruction

There occurred by 1950 a significant shift in direction concerning the act of teaching or instruction. Heretofore, instruction had been considered as an assign-study-recite-examine process, almost totally teacher directed. The

⁴⁴Grim, op. cit., pp. 18-29.

Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education undertook to re-examine instruction and interpreted this act as "now concerned to be essentially one of how to guide, direct, and evaluate the learning of children and youth so that the attainment of socially approved behavior patterns is assured."⁴⁵ With regard to educational method, Anderson went on to say:

Educational method must be written and practiced in terms of the child and how he learns. That is why we have said this yearbook should symbolize a newer concept of method as the process of directing the children's learning rather than as the application of techniques designed merely to impart information.⁴⁶

Anderson reviewed the changes in method in earlier periods resulting from research in specific subject areas: arithmetic, reading, spelling, and the psychology of teaching these subjects. He pointed out that little improvement had been made, however, in the general area of method.

Notwithstanding these evidences of progress in selected areas, instruction as such, has been a neglected aspect of American education in the last quarter of a century. Except as it has been studied and improved within certain of the teaching fields, little attention has been given to its general improvement. The time of the students of educational theory has largely been occupied with the curriculum.⁴⁷

⁴⁵G. Lester Anderson, "Introduction," Learning and Instruction, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 2.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 3. (Italics added.)

⁴⁷Ibid., pp. 6-7.

Concerning the curriculum, as a means of identifying a term, Anderson cited publications by the American Youth Commission, the Progressive Education Association's Eight-year Study, reports from the Commission on Social Studies, and the Educational Policies Commission. These were concerned basically with the "who" and the "what" of education, or in other words, a content of education. While these were directed toward curriculum improvement, Anderson felt that the reported activities had significant implications for improved instructional procedures as well.

In another section of the yearbook, Anderson, Whipple, and Gilchrist attempted to separate curriculum and instruction as,

. . . the obverse and the reverse of a single educational coin--the means by which learning of pupils is brought about. It is doubtful that the two can ever be separated in function. However, there seem to have been tendencies in these last years to neglect the interactions of curriculum and instruction. But principles are now emerging which are basically the same as those for improved instruction.⁴⁸

The educational concerns which had emerged during the late 1940s and the early 1950s, and which were reflected in the Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, centered on the application of how children

⁴⁸ G. Lester Anderson, Gertrude Whipple, Robert Gilchrist, "The School as a Learning Laboratory," Learning and Instruction, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 342.

learned to the methodology of instruction by means of guiding pupil behavior as contrasted to earlier concepts of instruction as solely those of imparting knowledge. As a developing discipline, education was commencing to evidence a central position which was fundamental to that discipline: the purpose of education as a field of study was to examine in a more detailed manner factors contributing to how individuals learn in a formally contrived social situation known as the school. The newer and more revolutionary method of teaching was, therefore, based on the psychological principle of learning which stressed learning as the change in behavior caused by interaction with environment through experience. The selection and organization of content by the teacher served to stimulate and involve the learner in the content. Furthermore, the new concept stressed the process of learning as involving the attitudes and appreciations that mark the behavior of an educated person.⁴⁹ Anderson and Gates⁵⁰ commented that the process of learning itself becomes established and provides ways of attacking new problems, and this process is often more important than the particular content learned. The recognition of a more complex

⁴⁹G. Lester Anderson and Arthur I. Gates, "The General Nature of Learning," Learning and Instruction, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), pp. 26-27.

⁵⁰Ibid., p. 27.

involvement on the part of the learner cited here initiated the most recent emphasis concerning Education as a Discipline. Consequently new concepts have developed with regard to transfer of learning, in which the learner uses the learning skills developed through the process of learning to attack new problems. The inference here is that, with the explosion of knowledge characteristic of the present era, educators and teachers are forced to pay greater attention to the development of learning skills than ever before. Educated individuals no longer can maintain an encyclopedic knowledge of all subjects due to the rapidity with which new knowledge develops.

Factors Affecting Criticisms of Education
During the 1950's

Despite the clarity with which the NSSE Forty-ninth Yearbook attempted to handle the definition of curriculum as separate from, though influencing, instruction, this distinction was not made apparent to many individuals outside of education. Within the educational discipline it was assumed that those concerned differentiated between "curriculum," "instruction," and "experience." Outside of education this was a different matter. An interesting dialogue was noted in the 1954-1955 years, of which two sources are cited here. Norman Cousins, questioning the professional jargon among teachers and educators, labeled this "the disease of specialized references and apparent

obscurantism . . ." and furthermore, "the tendency has gone much too far and should be arrested."⁵¹ Leon Mones, an assistant superintendent of schools in New Jersey, defended the "esoteric jargon" of educators by claiming a specialized vocabulary was "as much needed in education as in engineering or theology."⁵²

It is further evident that many of the concerns expressed by educational critics during the early 1950s regarding the 3 R's and the general direction public education seemed to be going may have been derived, in part, from a lack of understanding of the terms used. There grew up a notion within some educational circles of equating any experience with valid educational aims controlled by the school. Some educators, as well, did not seem to clarify or distinguish those experiences in the curriculum with which they should be concerned from those which would occur anyway and which were of no direct concern to the work of the schools. While the attempt to interpret the expanded version of the school curriculum was a serious one, it was also possible to see how such attempts proved troublesome for educators. The following excerpt, despite the caution, is

⁵¹Norman Cousins, "The Great Debate in American Education," Saturday Review, XXXVII (September 11, 1954), p. 13.

⁵²Leon Mones, "The Implications of President Kirk," School and Society, LXXXI (February 5, 1955), p. 42.

one example of the invitation to criticism that was certain to follow. Anderson, Whipple, and Gilchrist commented,

The very nature of experiences in the school must be radically changed both in terms of curriculum and instruction. In no sense should intellectual problems be minimized. Pupils must continue to have experiences which bring understanding of the humanities and sciences--the intellectual achievements of man which make our culture. But problems in the home, in the community, and at school must be included in the curriculum. A party, a weekend camping trip, driving a car, learning to swim--these are illustrative of the kinds of experiences which will be recognized as important for incorporation into the school curriculum. These experiences are problem-centered.
. . .⁵³

It was statements of this type that became the red flags to the critics. If educators failed to declare a distinction between curriculum, however broad and inclusive as being valid concerns of the schools, and instruction or the act of teaching, it was no wonder that those less well informed raised issue as to the intent and direction of the educational program. Evidently, the lack of thoroughly clarified concepts and the premises upon which these were based distorted the whole perspective for some educators as well as for some critics.

When viewed in a more objective light it is easy to see how such a digression could occur. The practical problems of housing school children and staffing classrooms was overwhelming during this period. These problems were

⁵³Anderson, Whipple, and Gilchrist, op. cit., p. 343.

so pressing that it was relatively easy to ignore the more fundamental issues related to goals and functions. As Norman Cousins asked, in an editorial, "Against a background of a world that stopped crawling fifty-years ago and began to catapult, how do you define an adequate education?"⁵⁴ Cousins pointed out that this was not a simple return to the old 3 R's, because much of what was included in the present education was important. His basic concern was that there was beginning to be apparent, "the illiteracy of those who exist in the second half of the twentieth century but who do not participate in it. . . . They have been educated to make themselves aware of the differences that keep people apart but they are tragically ignorant of basic similarities that can bring people together."⁵⁵

Contributions from Psychology and
and Social Psychology

The evolutionary development of Education as a Discipline traced here did not advance uniformly throughout time. Instead, the chronology depicted tends to represent a rather arbitrary cut-off for the sake of showing what gains have been made. For example, contributions to learning theory in the form of Gestalt psychology (1912) or Lewin's

⁵⁴Norman Cousins, "The New Illiteracy," Saturday Review, XXXIV (September 8, 1951), p. 22.

⁵⁵Ibid.

field theory (1917) had their origins in the early 1900's.⁵⁶ But social lag has a way of hampering a smooth forward flow of ideas. It took a minimum of twenty or thirty years to advance the cognitive concepts inherent in these theories to the point where they were barely familiar to educators. Undoubtedly the application of these theories to problems of education or the testing of the theories by educators has not been adequately carried out even today.

Another rather significant contribution to method of teaching in the discipline of education movement came from the field of social psychology. The emphasis on group process as a method of instruction gained importance from 1948 on. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development⁵⁷ reported that at the 1948 convention in Cincinnati the group process technique was used in the discussion groups, and after a poll of the membership concerning this technique, it was generally felt that the group favored this type of meeting. In instructional activities, group process emphasized the interaction between the students in the class as well as between the teacher and the students.

⁵⁶Ernest R. Hilgard, Theories of Learning, Second Edition (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956), pp. 222 and 258.

⁵⁷National Education Association, Addresses and Proceedings, Cleveland, Ohio, 1948, Vol. 86 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1948), p. 288.

Great importance was given to the social factors in classroom learning. Thelen and Tyler called this a "comprehensive methodology of instruction"⁵⁸ which utilized both research on the processes of learning by individuals and research that dealt with processes of group interaction. The factors of interaction within a group were considered important as was the nature of problem solving. Content of instruction was determined by the group and derived from the needs of the group. The development of this approach tended to alter the traditional concept of teaching, and this was a direct contributor to the concept that teaching was the guiding of learning behavior as stated in the earlier chapters of the NSSE Forty-ninth Yearbook. The emphasis was interpreted to read that subject matter meant the content of the experience, not the content of the subject. Thelen and Tyler summarize the underlying importance of this emphasis in the following manner:

A statement of educational objectives represents an analysis of the types of learning outcomes desired. If the objectives are wisely chosen, they represent changes which the school seeks to bring about in the behavior of its students, so that they will acquire behaviors that are important to society and that contribute to their individual happiness. The purpose

⁵⁸Herbert A. Thelen and Ralph W. Tyler, "Implications for Improving Instruction in the High School," Learning and Instruction, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), pp. 304-307.

of instruction is to facilitate learning in these directions. The content of instruction is the set of problems whose processes of solution result in the desired learning. The starting point for consideration of methodology is appropriately the definition of the problems whose solution constitutes learning. Problems will be considered to be of different "sorts" to the extent that they must be dealt with by different procedures. Because problems exist at all levels of consciousness and awareness in the problem-solver, in any given situation some of the problems can be identified only through inferences from the learner's behavior. The kind of behavior from which one infers that a problem exists is primarily experimentation.⁵⁹

While Thelen and Tyler were fundamentally sound in their interpretation, this was easily misinterpreted or misdirected by those individuals not thoroughly skilled in the group process method of teaching. Furthermore, the tendency to over-react to the group process method on the part of teachers created some significant problems for educators to "explain away." As important a contribution to teaching methodology as was the adaptation of social psychology's group process, the difficulties with interpreting how groups could do thinking, when only individuals think, became a trite rejoinder directed toward education during the fifties.

The concern for methodology, regardless of the type for the moment, was becoming a central focus in education, and especially with regard to the factors contributing to Education as a Discipline movement. This has led rather

⁵⁹Ibid., pp. 310-311.

naturally into the recent investigations concerning the role of the teacher. Certainly the Forty-ninth Yearbook gave a different interpretation of the role of the teacher than had been described previously. This has been followed recently by a theoretical conception of teaching developed by Smith,⁶⁰ and the publication of the weighty Handbook of Research on Teaching.⁶¹ The dimensions of teaching regarding the act of teaching are greatly expanded in these sources. The focus on methodology of instruction appears to be an indication that Education as a Discipline is approaching some maturity, if only late adolescence.

Chapter Summary and Generalizations

To review the development of this theme, it has been pointed out that the initiation of a disciplinary movement was reviewed in the NSSE Twenty-sixth Yearbook. The guiding principles for curriculum development were important contributions in the early phases of the development of the discipline. The emphasis was still on the science of education, and this emphasis continued through the NSSE Thirty-seventh Yearbook which addressed itself to many of the same

⁶⁰B. Othanel Smith, "A Concept of Teaching," Language and Concepts in Education, B. Othanel Smith and Robert H. Ennis, editors (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1961), pp. 86-101.

⁶¹American Education Research Association, Handbook of Research on Teaching, N. L. Gage, editor (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1963), 1218 pp.

problems as the preceding yearbook on the subject. Then the current shifted, and the social concerns gained greater emphasis, in the forms of work experience, and curriculum development centered on social reform in some instances, and perpetuation of the status quo in others as educators attempted to justify the lack of vocational opportunity for youth. This was changed suddenly with the outbreak of World War II, with its attendant labor shortages on all fronts. The shift following the war centered on concerns for mental health of both students and teachers, the new emphasis on consumership, and conservation of natural resources. At about the same time, education was "borrowing" from the other disciplines of social psychology and psychology, as it had borrowed only a few years earlier from sociology. The attention was directed to group interaction, and consequently an emphasis on methods of teaching. This has led to additional theoretical development and research on the nature of the instructional act.

In all of the various concerns involved in this movement, there has been a significant lack of emphasis on the subject matter content per se, with the exception of the reference to the subject matter as it relates to group process in education. The educators, in the attempt to develop a discipline of their own, had consistently neglected the content of the subjects taught. Instead, the attention was diverted to various facets of the discipline movement which

did not include content material. In a sense, educators, as with the teachers, defaulted in this respect.

The evolution of Education as a Discipline is a complex theme. The justification for disciplinary status resides in the methodology of teaching and the act of learning. The recognition of this factor has been a major contribution made by the emerging educational discipline. The tracing of the movement leading to this recognition has comprised the theme Education as a Discipline.

CHAPTER IV

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE THEME, MANPOWER CONCEPT OF EDUCATION

Introductory Statement

The two previous themes (Teaching as a Profession and Education as a Discipline) were primarily oriented toward, and derived from, education as a social institution. Both of the ensuing themes have relevance for education and curriculum development and both spring from sources other than the schools per se.

The Manpower Concept of Education theme examines some pertinent changes in American society since World War II as these relate to the utilization of the human resources of this nation. It is necessary at the outset to determine some arbitrary limits within which this discussion will be carried on. Concerns for school "drop-outs"; vocational education as such; education of gifted children; adult education; job re-training of skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled workers; Federal aid to education, cannot be explored in detail as these are beyond the interest of this discussion. Furthermore, it is not within the scope of this project to explore all of the technological and intellectual developments which have occurred within the last twenty years. It must be sufficient to recognize these factors to exist, and assume that there is a

relationship to the present major pursuits undertaken here. Rather a survey will be taken to assess: the sources of concern for human resources; the conflict between concepts of man and concepts of manpower; and the effect the Manpower Concept has had on the educational structure. In this latter respect, the Manpower Concept relates directly to the next theme, the Pursuit of Excellence concept regarding increased academic emphasis in school subjects.

The term "survey" is used advisedly, in that it implies an analysis of currents of thought and resulting action taken by various individuals and groups whose responsibilities within this society have made them aware of the complex problems involved in dealing with change in society, available human resources, and educational needs.

The Emergence of the Concern for Manpower

As it was reviewed in the preceding chapter, a major effort in education at the secondary school was to provide jobs for young people during the 1930's. The problems of the Depression years were ones of a great imbalance of employment with respect to the numbers of individuals seeking jobs. Something like eight million adult workers were unemployed at the onset of hostilities in 1941, and nearly another eight million were working at unsatisfactory jobs because they could find no others.¹

¹National Planning Association, Manpower: The Nation's First Resource, Planning Pamphlets, No. 83 (Washington, D. C.: The National Planning Association, July, 1953), p. 39.

The joblessness of the 1930s virtually disappeared over-night as the United States became involved in World War II. Along with changing the tide of employment, World War II provided shocking information for most thinking citizens and particularly for teachers and educators. Ginzberg stated in the opening sentence of his book on human resources:

During World War II almost two million young Americans of draft age were rejected for military service because of a mental or emotional defect, and another three-quarters of a million were discharged from the Armed Forces for these same reasons while the war was still underway.²

The accent on available manpower was made during the early days of the complete mobilization for the war effort. Ginzberg went on to describe the situation concerning the apparent unlimited reserves of men for armed services, despite the high proportion classed as unsuitable.

It was not until the spring of 1943, two and a half years after the beginning of mobilization and a year and a half after our active entrance into the war, that top officials in Washington came to the startling realization that the nation did not possess unlimited manpower resources and that care would have to be taken in utilizing the available supply.³

Twenty-some years hence it seems incredible that individuals could be so hampered by preconceived ideas of unlimited human resources. While the delay in recognition of the problem

²Eli Ginzberg, Human Resources: The Wealth of a Nation (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1958), p. 9.

³Ibid., pp. 28-29.

of unlimited sources of men for armed services is a question not related to this discussion, the military origin of the term "manpower" has a distinct relationship. The military interpretation given to the allocation of human resources by means of designation seems to have been as difficult to discard by those writing in this area as was the idea of unlimited numbers of men in the early 1940's.

An extensive treatment of population trends and demographic statistics will not be incorporated in this study. However, as an interesting background factor it is necessary to note the significance of immigration policy changes during the 1920's. Until 1920, foreign immigration had added millions of individuals to U. S. census roles. After this period the quota system was established, cutting immigration, and many of the

Highly skilled artisans as well as the unskilled workers whose ability contributed substantially to industrial advance were immigrants. . . . The reservoir of ability they provided habituated Americans to thinking about manpower factors in terms which are no longer appropriate and valid.⁴

Therefore, from 1920 on population increases were based primarily on increased birth rate, which declined during the 1930's as drastically as it climbed during and following World War II. Consequently, many of the problems under the later

⁴Educational Policies Commission, Manpower and Education (Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, 1956), p. 9.

heading of "shortages" evolved from a limited source of supply originating in the 1930's. The Educational Policies Commission predicted that the existing imbalance between numbers of individuals in the United States and those of peak productive ages (20-64) would not be resolved until the 1970's. While this was an important consideration, the major concern regarding manpower was the great reserve of ability and talent not adequately trained nor fully utilized in an increasingly complicated American society which led, ultimately, to the shortages in critical areas.⁶ It has been this concern that has become the central one during the time span incorporated in this study. The major events and foci of attention related to the problem of shortages have had an impact on secondary education.

Manpower in a Democratic Society

In our democratic society, there has never existed a national manpower policy as such. The two movements in American history resembling most closely manpower policies were the encouragement of immigration prior to restrictive legislation in 1920, and the encouragement of education both by public and private groups dating from the founding of Harvard

⁵Ibid., pp. 11-12.

⁶Ibid., p. 15.

College in 1636.⁷ Other significant governmentally derived educational aspects which promoted a manpower policy of wise use of human resources included the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 and the Morrill Act of 1862.⁸ But specific manpower policy directing the use or allocation of work and talent has never been drafted nor would such a policy be consistent within the democratic ideals of a free society.

World War II and Human Resources

The national emergency of World War II created a need for some temporary measures to control human resources. The Armed Forces was then, and has since continued to be, the largest single controller of human resources. Furthermore, during the war, the War Manpower Commission was established to develop stability and controls regarding industrial workers who tended to shift from job to job.⁹ These were restrictive measures based on emergency situations. While such things as legislation concerning unemployment, Universal Military Training, Selective Service, and G. I. Bills relate to the manpower concept, for purposes of this study they are not explored here. These had their impact. It is

⁷Ginzberg, op. cit., pp. 25-26; and Eli Ginzberg and Douglas W. Bray, The Uneducated (New York: Columbia University Press, 1953), pp. 4-7.

⁸Ginzberg and Bray, op. cit., pp. 26-27.

⁹National Planning Association, op. cit., p. 39.

sufficient for the purpose of this chapter to acknowledge that impact, but not to examine it in detail.

The investigation undertaken in the theme, Manpower Concept of Education, has been one of describing the pertinent factors which led to concerns by the public-at-large, and the resultant attempts to resolve the problems, of (1) shortages of key personnel, and (2) provisions for minimal education for all citizens. It is these concerns that have had an important influence on education at the secondary school.

Among the societal changes which occurred following World War II, and which emphasized the need for more highly trained personnel, Ginzberg listed the expansion of research programs in industry; the highly technical aspects of the new military program; the development of atomic energy in 1945, and the competition with Russian nuclear weapons developments as having,

. . . alerted us that our security, in fact our survival, might depend on our ability to stay ahead in the scientific-manpower race. . . . No single factor has contributed more to awakening the public to the importance of human resources than the threat of our losing the manpower race to the Communists.¹⁰

In short, progress and survival have become extremely important considerations within the past two decades. In order to either progress or survive in the mid-twentieth century,

¹⁰Ginzberg, op. cit., p. 32.

greater demands were placed on individual ability and talent, and the fact that these would need to be used to the utmost. Consequently, attention has turned to the formal aspects of education, the school systems and the curricula within these schools. The problem has become one of vast dimensions, extremely complex and diverse.

The Conservation of Human Resources Project

World War II military leaders, conditioned by the rejection rate of inductees during the war years, remained concerned with post-war manpower problems. As an example, General Dwight D. Eisenhower, impressed with the evidence of wastage of manpower during World War II, when he became President of Columbia University, initiated the Project to carry out basic research in human resources. The research was undertaken cooperatively by the University, the business community, trade unions, foundations and the Federal Government. The staff of the project consisted of representatives from the academic fields of economics, psychiatry, labor history, manpower and personnel, psychology, economic history, statistics, and journalism.¹¹ There was no representative from education on this roster. Furthermore, it appears significant that the Conservation of Human Resources research project was established within the Graduate School of

¹¹Ibid., pp. 173-174.

Business. Philip Young, Dean of this school, served as administrative head, and Eli Ginzberg, Professor of Economics in the Graduate School of Business became Director of the Project.¹² Contributions from the Ford Foundation aided in financing the project. The project had a twofold objective: to expand existing knowledge of the fundamentals of human resources, and to use this knowledge in reducing wastage of this most valuable resource by permitting a sounder public policy to develop. The Project made studies of (1) the groups in society handicapped, educationally or otherwise, in such a way as to prevent truly effective performance by these individuals; (2) and at the other extreme, the Project was concerned with fundamental research of the talented individuals who were able to perform in a superior fashion. A third research approach was to attempt to assess fundamental changes in society since 1900 concerning the role of work, and to determine the effect of these changes on individual satisfaction, economic productivity, and welfare of the total society.¹³ One of the first completed research studies was reported by Ginzberg and Bray in a book entitled, The Uneducated.¹⁴ This dealt, for the most part, with a report of

¹² Ginzberg and Bray, op. cit., p. vii.

¹³ Ibid., pp. ix-x.

¹⁴ Ibid., 246 pp.

practices

. . . followed during World War II in screening the population for military service and, in particular, to learn more about the numbers, characteristics, and residences of the young men who were rejected from service because of an inability to pass the mental tests.¹⁵

Using military records, the researchers explored the possibility of incorporating uneducated men into service units, and what affect the Special Training Units had on developing literacy among these illiterates. While some men were able to learn to read well enough to remain in service, the military discovered that the concentration of these individuals with poorly developed literacy skills could not be too great in any one unit. If the ratio of uneducated to educated became imbalanced the military unit ceased to function smoothly.¹⁶ In the same study, industrialists were questioned concerning employment of poorly educated individuals.

Ginzberg and Bray reported:

The experience of Southern industry and, even more particularly, the experience of Northern industry pointed to the fact that there were major barriers in the way of absorbing even a small number of illiterates into an industrial organization that has adjusted itself to a literate work force. We found that even though the illiterate person could frequently learn to become a machine operator without particular difficulty, industries would hesitate to employ him because he would be unable to meet the ancillary responsibilities

¹⁵Ibid., pp. xi-xii.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 75.

of work in a large organization such as filling out blanks, reading work orders, and keeping records.¹⁷

These researchers further pointed out that the changes in agricultural operations, particularly in the South which had moved from a one-crop system to more scientific methods incorporating larger land holdings, left little room for an illiterate person to operate satisfactorily. It was concluded that all sectors of the economy once absorbing individuals lacking in education have changed sufficiently to afford little place for these workers. The limited financial support available for education in some parts of the country raised the cry for Federal aid to education. The plan proposed by Ginzberg and Bray was one of making

. . . Federal funds available whenever a state has a tax rate on behalf of education in proportion to or above the national average and when the yield from these taxes provides considerably less per pupil than the national average.¹⁸

Under such a system states in the Southeast would have received considerable aid.

Public Recognition of the Need for Education

The study of the uneducated pointed up many concerns pertinent to education. While educators have long been worried about those individuals who did not do well in verbal skills,

¹⁷Ibid., p. 229.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 237.

the larger community had tended to ignore these critical lacks. Perhaps the revelation brought about by the World War II rejection rate and the ensuing concern for uneducated people concentrated within certain geographic areas or within other economic brackets, provided a measure of public recognition of the problem faced solely by educators before this period. Hence, the need for at least a minimum of educational essentials for an individual in our society were recognized. While the solution to this problem has not yet been achieved, what is significant is that greater public recognition has been accorded this educational problem. Sectors of the American society outside of the education seemed to have been no better prepared to solve the problem than were the educators. From this one may infer that a greater respect for the role of educational efforts was accorded than had happened previously.

The National Council on Manpower

While the Conservation of Human Resources Project was originated in 1950 to carry on basic research about human resources, a second force was set in motion which was directed at policy-making. Ginzberg¹⁹ pointed out that resulting from the outbreak of the Korean War, in 1950, the Ford Foundation,

¹⁹Eli Ginzberg, Human Resources: The Wealth of a Nation (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1958), pp. 11-12.

in anticipating manpower stringencies brought about by the war, requested Columbia University to sponsor a National Council on Manpower. The Conservation Project staff was used, but the outcomes of the second approach were policy statements rather than the reporting of basic research in the behavioral sciences. The University accepted the offer and the National Manpower Council was formed in 1951 under the Chairmanship of James D. Zellerbach of San Francisco. The council was made up of distinguished citizens from different geographical areas and different sectors of national life. During the early years of operation the National Manpower Council published reports on student deferment and national manpower policy, on scientific and professional personnel, and on skilled manpower.

Ginzberg has emphasized the inter-disciplinary approach to the work of the research team, stating,

No one investigator, no matter how broadly trained, controls the range of theory and techniques required to plan and carry out large-scale investigations into economics and group behavior. The requisite knowledge and skills could be found only among a team of collaborators.²⁰

The National Manpower Council said its essential purpose and primary concern, "is the training, skills, capacities, competence, and creativeness of the American people--that is, the quality of our human resources."²¹

²⁰Ibid., p. 13.

²¹National Manpower Council, A Policy for Scientific and Professional Manpower (New York: Columbia University Press, 1953), p. 7.

The 1953 report of the National Manpower Council, A Policy for Scientific and Professional Manpower,²² explored available manpower in three groups of professions: engineers, teachers, and physicians; and within one group of scientists, the physicists. It was reported that since 1900, the rate of growth of numbers of persons in the sciences and professions was almost twice that of total population growth. Furthermore, the number of scientists engaged in fundamental research comprised one out of every 4,200 persons in the working force.²³ As the culture became more technologically oriented, need for more scientists developed accordingly.

The Korean Conflict Influences Manpower

The effect of world events on manpower shortages was felt most critically in 1950-1953, as a result of the outbreak of fighting in Korea. The partial mobilization to deter aggression created problems not encountered during the full mobilization of World War II, in that during the Korean Conflict production of civilian goods was not curtailed as it had been in World War II. The two fronts created an extremely heavy demand for scientific and professional personnel, especially since defense production for Korea came

²²Ibid., 257 pp.

²³Ibid., p. 8.

at a time of high civilian employment.²⁴ In addition to a high demand for scientists and technically trained manpower for research and developmental activities for defense, private industrial demand for chemists, physicists and other scientists had grown steadily. In a similar fashion the shortages of qualified teachers had expanded since the early 1940's.²⁵

Federal and Privately Endowed Developments

While not specifically labeled as "manpower" agencies, other significant large-scale developments were initiated in the early 1950s and were directly related to the crucial shortages in scientifically and professionally trained personnel. The first of these was the National Science Foundation, created by Congress in 1950 for the purpose of providing governmental assistance for advanced education and training in the physical, biological and medical sciences.²⁶ The second source of assistance came from the private sector of the nation, the development of the Fund for the Advancement of Education on the part of the Ford Foundation, in April, 1951.²⁷ Another agency developed during this period

²⁴Ibid., p. 11.

²⁵Ibid., pp. 12-13.

²⁶Ibid., p. 26.

²⁷The Fund for the Advancement of Education, Decade of Experiment 1951-1961 (New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1961), p. 15.

was the Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training, established in 1950 by the Conference Board of Associated Research Councils.²⁸ Significant in the work of such groups was the active participation of individuals and agencies from a wide range of backgrounds.

Using the Fund for the Advancement of Education as one example of Foundation support, this agency set about to encourage new thinking, experimentation, and development of pilot programs that might provide partial solutions to problems "plaguing American schools and colleges." A few of the departures from traditional approaches to education included television teaching, the use of nonprofessional teacher aids, "fifth-year" teacher training programs for liberal arts graduates, team teaching, and other programs worked out with specific teacher preparation institutions.²⁹ The range of investigations sponsored by the Fund has been broad. Regardless of the immediate outcome of individual research projects, the Fund for the Advancement of Education has nudged educational development and experimentation considerably. Significant as this is to the development of the Manpower Concept, the several undertakings have a great if not greater relevance for the Pursuit of Excellence theme

²⁸ National Manpower Council, op. cit., p. 21.

²⁹ Fund for the Advancement of Education, op. cit., pp. 15-16.

still to be discussed, for throughout the work done by the Fund, one finds an emphasis on quality as well as quantity.

Regardless of the diversity of work undertaken in studying and reporting on manpower early in the decade of the fifties, concerns continued to be heard about the growing shortages in many areas of the national economy. The National Planning Association reported in 1953,

Major corporations, analyzing their experience over the last half century and estimating their expansion over the next ten years, are forecasting faster rates of increase in the employment of engineers, scientists, and managerial personnel than they foresee themselves able to meet. In the spring of 1953, for the first time, firms were making financial arrangements with promising college seniors, in the face of their liability for military service, solely to be sure of having a line on them for their staffs afterwards.³⁰

This same report stressed the need for encouraging more individuals to continue with college education in the following comment:

. . . a serious loss of quality is still occurring in substantial numbers of the very able who do not get to college. . . . This country is not rich enough in high-potential people to warrant carelessness in their use.³¹

Almost simultaneously, the National Manpower Council was publishing similar statements concerning the alleviation of shortages.

³⁰National Planning Association, op. cit., pp. 9-11.

³¹Ibid., p. 12.

Scientists and professional persons cannot be stock-piled like commodities against future shortages or hastily trained in response to sudden surges in demand. The problem of preventing future shortages, therefore, raises the question of what methods are available to a democratic society to insure a reasonable balance between supply and demand.³²

Two courses of action were suggested by the National Manpower Council in this report: (1) altering the distribution of individuals among the various scientific or professional fields in which shortages are anticipated, and/or (2) expanding the size of the total college population to enable more individuals to become educated and trained for specific fields.³³ In recognizing supply and demand relationships for scientific and professional personnel, the emphasis was made again and again that these individuals were drawn from a very small group in the total population "who are intellectually and financially able to graduate from college and motivated to do so."³⁴

Many efforts have come into focus regarding the Manpower Concept of Education since the 1940's. Most of these had their origins in the 1950's. The rejection rate during World War II gave a new importance to education, in that a high percent of the total armed forces reserve was unfit

³²National Manpower Council, op. cit., p. 18.

³³Ibid., p. 18.

³⁴Ibid., p. 152.

for service due to inability to pass mental tests. This led to the establishment of agencies, both public and private, to explore the human resources question and to attempt to formulate policy statements consistent with research findings and with a democratic society. Furthermore, the federal government established a program through the National Science Foundation to stimulate research and teaching in the natural sciences, and almost simultaneously the Ford Foundation established the Fund for the Advancement of Education directed at rather specific problems of education. In other words, the problems relating to the preparation of human resources and the wise use of these resources were dramatically heightened by many non-educators pointing out the need for improvements aimed at providing means for attaining a high level of performance in jobs. Educators as such had long recognized some of the deficiencies, but had seemingly been unable to motivate the larger community. The agencies created by sources outside the school prompted an acceptable concern on the part of the larger community for dealing with these educational problems.

Complications in "Man" Versus "Manpower"

The problem was not one to be easily solved. The very military nature of the construct of "manpower" raised questions with many individuals. A concern developed that the very notion of "manpower" would cause arbitrary allocation

of individuals and talents rather than permitting individuals to elect chosen roles. With the attendant concern relative to needs for highly talented or gifted individuals in this society Getzels commented,

Exceptional children are coming to be looked upon, not as individuals of special abilities to be given freedom and opportunity for their own self-realization, but as a source of manpower--manpower that is fair game for training, stockpiling, and directing, if not conscripting into the service of efficiency and production. To be sure, this attitude is frequently expressed as the establishment of "early career lines."³⁵

In the same issue of the same journal an article appeared exemplifying the point made by Getzels. Seymour L. Wolfbien, Chief of the Division of Manpower and Employment in the United States Department of Labor, defined creative manpower as a concept in which ". . . those individuals who, through their innovations, help us advance toward a higher standard of living and a higher level of national security."³⁶ Wolfbien pointed out that the emphasis on quality had been brought about by the impact of technological change and the

. . . unprecedented period of international stress.
. . . We have to look to research and technology for the weapons that will help us achieve the final victory in this arena. . . . Put these two developments

³⁵J. W. Getzels, "Social Values and Individual Motives: The Dilemma of the Gifted," The School Review, LXV (Spring, 1957), p. 60.

³⁶Seymour L. Wolfbien, "The Creative Manpower Shortage in the United States," The School Review, LXV (Spring, 1957), p. 28.

together, and it is quite evident why, at this juncture in our history, we are emphasizing the need for quality, creativeness, and leadership that will help us move through this great period of change. And in light of these developments, it is almost gratuitous to remark that there is a particular sense of urgency for the optimum development of persons whose abilities and gifts will enable them to fill the creative needs of our society.³⁷

The concern for the concept of "manpower," versus the concept of "man" was raised early in 1953 during the Conference on the utilization of scientific and professional personnel. It grew out of the welter of attention directed toward maximum development and utilization of individual potential. Kenneth E. Boulding,³⁸ an economist, pointed out that the assumption behind the manpower concept was that society had but one single well-defined end, and that manpower, viewed in these terms, was to arrive most efficiently at this single well-defined end. Boulding maintained the concept of manpower as such was not valid because it was predicated on an erroneous assumption. Society has many ends. Therefore, it should be,

. . . not manpower, but men: men in their infinite variety and sacredness, in their complex personalities and unfolding desires. Man as manpower is all very well for a slave society. . . . But in a free society man is not manpower . . . he is a free being, the lord of society and not its slave. . . .³⁹

³⁷Ibid., pp. 29-30.

³⁸Kenneth E. Boulding, "An Economist's View of the Manpower Concept," Conference on the Utilization of Scientific and Professional Manpower, National Manpower Council (New York: Columbia University Press, 1954), pp. 11-26.

³⁹Ibid., p. 12.

While most societies fall somewhere between the "slave" and the totally "free" ends of the scale, Boulding pointed out that increasingly over the last few hundred years the movement has been away from the forced allocation of human resources typical of a feudal society and toward the "'financial' concept of the organization of human resources through the market."⁴⁰ Boulding was protesting, as he called it the "delusive simplicity"⁴¹ of the manpower concept. Furthermore, the

Manpower abstraction is appallingly crude, and that the attempt to think of the problem of allocation as if it were simply a matter of counting noses not only misses most of the realities of the case, but leads inevitably to a solution in terms of a monolithic, military, communistic type of society in which allocation is made by threat of violence imposed by superior members of a hierarchy.⁴²

Boulding was fearful that the "manpower concept" would lead to a planned economy in which national security would become the sole end.

Between the time Boulding was commenting in 1953 and Getzels was writing in 1957, the confusion over "manpower" continued. The military connotation of the term, in view of shortages in various fields, led to recruitment drives encouraging capable individuals to enter one or

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 20.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 25.

⁴²Ibid., p. 26.

another of the professional and scientific fields.⁴³ An outstanding example was the attention directed by the teaching profession, to alleviate the shortage which developed after World War II, to raise salaries in order to attract the most capable individuals possible, and to increase the intellectual caliber of this group at the same time improving the quality of education.⁴⁴

The problem of "man" versus "manpower" has not been resolved. Much of the thinking done relative to shortages and meeting urgent demands with limited human resources has been predicated upon a "manpower" concept. The question demands further exploration than has been deemed possible here. The whole value structure of a society needs to be examined in more detailed fashion, for surely the value system is felt in the choices and allocations individuals make for themselves and for others. Consequently, to fully understand what has occurred in this span of history, a thorough investigation of the Manpower Concept is needed.

⁴³Robert M. MacIver, "Conference Discussion of Professor Boulding's Paper," Conference on the Utilization of Scientific and Professional Manpower, National Manpower Council (New York: Columbia University Press, 1954), p. 31. Also "Discussions of the Working Group on Engineering Personnel," Ibid., p. 84.

⁴⁴Henry Chauncey, "Teaching Personnel," Conference on the Utilization of Scientific and Professional Manpower, National Manpower Council (New York: Columbia University Press, 1954), pp. 134-148; and "Discussions of the Working Group on Teaching Personnel," Ibid., pp. 149-163.

The present civilian borrowing of the military term would seem to have its dangers, if allowed to continue undetected, which might lead to ultimate consequences alien to a democratic society. The attempts to arrive at solutions to "manpower" have, however, affected education significantly, whether the solutions were educationally derived or arrived at by agents outside the formal school structure.

Manpower Concept and Secondary Schools

Therefore, education, as such, has been centrally involved in the manpower problem. From the retraining of manpower for war plants by vocational schools during World War II,⁴⁵ to the concerns raised by engineers about the decline of high school mathematics and science requirements in the 1950's,⁴⁶ and up to the present with the emphasis on tests as means of screening likely applicants for all forms of higher education,⁴⁷ manpower problems have been educational

⁴⁵Bess Goodykoontz, "Challenges to the Present Structure of American Education," American Education in the Post-war Period, Forty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945), pp. 1-21.

⁴⁶National Manpower Council, Conference on the Utilization of Scientific and Professional Manpower (New York: Columbia University Press, 1954), p. 77.

⁴⁷Lewis B. Mayhew, "The Testing Controversy," AHE College and University Bulletin, Association of Higher Education, National Education Association, XVI (February 15, 1964), pp. 2 and 4.

problems. Erwin D. Canham, chairman of the National Manpower Council reported,

The intimate relationship between education, broadly conceived, and manpower development and utilization is reflected in the fact that almost half of the recommendations made by the Council with an eye to enhancing the quality of the nation's manpower resources deal in one fashion or another with issues of education, training, and guidance. The connection between the two is reflected in the substantial number of staff chapters in the Council's studies devoted to educational themes, and in the consideration given to them in the national conferences held by the Council at Arden House, the Harriman Campus of Columbia University.⁴⁸

As a result of this close relationship, the greatest educational demands fell upon the high school curricula. The National Manpower Council, following the conference on scientific and professional personnel, called a conference on skilled manpower in 1955.⁴⁹ Clarence Faust, President of the Fund for the Advancement of Education, addressed the conference and called attention to the secondary schools' position in the manpower picture.⁵⁰ Faust emphasized the unparalleled expansion of secondary education in the United States, reviewed the history of its development, yet called

⁴⁸Erwin D. Canham, "Forward," Education and Manpower, National Manpower Council (New York: Columbia University Press, 1960), p. xv.

⁴⁹National Manpower Council, Improving the Work Skills of the Nation (New York: Columbia University Press, 1955), 203 pp.

⁵⁰Ibid., Clarence Faust, "Our Secondary Schools and National Manpower Needs," pp. 21-35. Also reprinted in National Manpower Council, Education and Manpower, pp. 35-52.

for a fundamental rethinking of the educational system, especially at the secondary school level. Because of the diverse roles required of the secondary school in this society, the problem Faust claimed was not an easy one to solve. Rather than continued tinkering with the secondary school program by adding more and more new courses, Faust⁵¹ called for re-examining the thinking regarding terminal education at secondary school levels; reconsidering the role of formal and informal education as going on concurrently throughout life; and a thorough-going analysis of the purpose of education.

"The task of the high school," according to Faust, is so difficult because, instead of beginning with a set of limited and clear purposes and devising an institution to carry them out, we have inherited an institution and have constantly added to its list of obligations, and the obligations successively thrust upon it too frequently confuse, or frustrate, or erode its basic purposes.⁵²

These basic purposes Faust called for are best described in his own words.

I believe that if we fastened our attention on what is essential in education we might make progress in resolving the current difficult conflicts between academic and vocational education, conflicts that are especially troublesome at the secondary school level. We should perhaps become equally impatient with merely vocational training and with merely academic training. Induction into vocations might

⁵¹Ibid., pp. 29-30.

⁵²Ibid., p. 27.

on the more mechanical side be handled through apprenticeship carried on while the school gave itself to the development of basic knowledge and the understanding of basic principles in the light of which vocational activities could be carried on with an understanding of the reason for particular operations, in short, in a truly reflective manner. So-called academic subjects would be taught not with a view to transmitting information concerning the present state of an academic discipline (the latest views of the historian, the political scientist, the specialist in languages and literature, the geologist, and so forth) but with an eye to stimulating thoughtful attention to the persistent problems of human beings on this planet and to the current questions that trouble mankind. . . . Such education would be given the highest priority in the educational program. It might be expected to produce specialists who knew the why as well as the how of what they were doing, independently thoughtful citizens, and men able to develop the range of their human capacities fully.⁵³

What Faust was calling for was significant in terms of later developments. Both the experimentation carried on within certain subject matter fields pertaining to the structure of the discipline, and the mode of attack on significant real-life problems, were developed by the academic specialists as in the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study, the Physical Science Study Committee, the School Mathematics Study Group, and so forth.

Chapter Summary and Generalizations

The impact of the Manpower Concept on education has been great. As Faust and others raised questions concerning the role of secondary education in a changing world, other

⁵³Ibid., pp. 33-34.

emphases were felt questioning the total educational structure. The critical shortages in teaching, medicine, engineering and nuclear research focused on questions of how to increase college enrollments, how to siphon individuals into professions where the greatest shortages were found, how to aid each individual to develop his talent to the maximum, whether this was professional or scientific or skilled talent. As the questions were explored, other questions arose such as preventing "drop-outs" from high school, or providing for advanced placement programs for college-bound gifted children. In short, many, if not most, of the pressing problems facing the teacher and the educator have found their source in the dilemma of the appropriate use of human resources entitled here as the Manpower Concept of Education. As has been pointed out throughout the preceeding discussion, teachers and educators have long been aware of many of the problems outsiders discovered to be exceedingly important following World War II. As the clamour grew louder, it looked for a time as if the educator had been shunning his responsibility. Instead, it was the community-at-large that had paid no heed to the educational concerns so boldly stated during the period of shortages. As a consequence, it took the formulations of agencies from the Congress of the United States on down, to make these concerns known on a wide enough scale to see beginnings of progress. The Manpower Concept of Education relates closely to the Pursuit

of Excellence theme to be discussed next, therefore further generalizations will not be drawn at this time. The "manpower" theme has been and still is a significant and deeply pervasive theme affecting the thinking of many individuals, consciously or unconsciously, as they go about the task of educating individuals in this society. While the military notion of manpower has somewhat receded in current thinking, the inference remains one of maximizing human talent wherever talent is needed. The Manpower Concept of Education is by no means a dormant issue. In all probability, educators will continue to have to deal with this factor in evolving improved curricula during the ensuing years of rapid change.

In conclusion, the Manpower Concept of Education theme has attempted to delineate forces in the society-at-large that have had a significant effect on formal education, particularly at the secondary school level. The impact of the need for increased national security upon a democratic way of life has been a significant factor. Not only have shortages of key personnel been most emphatically felt during the time span under study, but the need for minimal educational development of all individuals throughout the total fabric of society has been made increasingly evident. The development of these needs for the appropriate use of human resources and some of the attempts to meet the needs have comprised the theme, Manpower Concept of Education.

CHAPTER V

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PURSUIT OF EXCELLENCE THEME

Preliminary Considerations

An important assumption undergirds this exploration of the Pursuit of Excellence theme: Teachers and educators have long been attempting to achieve excellence in American public education. The means of achieving excellence have differed historically from the recent concerns for excellence. While the term, Pursuit of Excellence, may not have appeared in publications before the Rockefeller Brothers Fund Report in 1958,¹ the implied concern for excellence in an educational system has been a pervasive aspect of educational endeavor for many years. The goal of educators and teachers has continually been one of improving educational systems to the highest plane that could be conceived. The plane or level of achievement sought has been interpreted differently by various segments in American society. It is not the primary purpose of this portion of the research to

¹Rockefeller Brothers Fund, Inc., The Pursuit of Excellence: Education and the Future of America (Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1958), 49 pp.

analyze the various guises the mode of excellence has taken during twenty years. At the same time, the de facto definition of excellence in 1964 is one of higher academic standards in education based on a disciplinary structure of various subject matter fields.

The decade of the 1950's, perhaps, is still too close at hand to be truly assessed for its numerous effects on all educational endeavors. Since the impact of the various disciplines on secondary education has had its origin in the fifties, this decade must be explored. It was a time of intensive criticism of education. Furthermore, it was a decade of substantial change in the social aspects of living. It was a decade that witnessed the birth of the era of space exploration, and it was a decade of waiting and wondering if total annihilation were about to occur. But it was also a decade that grew out of the decade prior to it, as the 1940's had evolved from the 1930's. Therefore it is necessary to look at the preceding decades to understand the 1950's. The Pursuit of Excellence theme is clearly interwoven with the three preceding themes. In this chapter, the concern for academic disciplines as it affects the content of the curriculum will be explored.

Educational Concerns Prior to World War II

Two major concerns beset educators prior to World War II. One, fostered by the educational reconstructionists,

was that schools should initiate leadership to develop a better society.² The second concern was the need for practical preparation of youth for the world of work. In the depression years, the problems centering on lack of jobs for young people were most compelling. This situation gave way to one of shortages during World War II. Yet the attention to job preparation continued to be a major focal point in education. Coupled with the concern for work and preparation for work in the secondary school years, expanded school enrollments forced many thinking citizens, educators and teachers included, to attempt to accommodate youth with a wide range of abilities in the educational system.

Education for All Youth

The debate over the purposes of American education in the 1950's had as a pivotal point a 1944 publication from the Educational Policies Commission, Education for All American Youth.³ The EPC, in this report, attempted to sketch

²See Educational Policies Commission, Policies for Education in An American Democracy (Washington, D. C., NEA, 1946), p. 258 states: "The work of the school must be both reparative and developmental with reference to many of the objectives proposed. The more time and energy which the school must allot to repairing the damage done by other agencies, the less emphasis can be placed on positive effort to attain the accepted or desirable aims."

³Educational Policies Commission, Education for All American Youth (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, 1944), 421 pp.

in broad relief a projection for an outstanding educational program which was to be implemented following the cessation of hostilities of World War II. The publication was aimed at an attempt to incorporate educational opportunities for everyone in the secondary school age range, which included grades 13 and 14. Furthermore, the publication was predicated on the idea that unemployment would once again become a severe problem immediately following World War II, and that the social scene would resume much the character it had prior to the war. These assumptions tended to color the content of the publication to a great degree, and consequently camouflaged many of the important contributions to educational thought generated by the report, especially in the eyes of educational critics. Despite this, it remains a significant observation that educators⁴ and school administrators were attempting to plan for post-war educational needs from the outset of the United States' involvement in the war. However skillfully the EPC document was planned, the planners could not have foreseen the events that were to take place following the close of the War. In the "Forward" to the

⁴The 1944 Educational Policies Commission was composed of University presidents, college of education deans, state school superintendents and public school superintendents and included: Alexander J. Stoddard, Chrm., Francis L. Bacon, James B. Conant, Prudence Cutright, Edmund E. Day, Charles B. Glenn, Sidney B. Hall, Edwin A. Lee, Paul T. Rankin, Maycie Southall, George D. Stoddard, George D. Strayer, Pearl A. Wanamaker.

1952 revised edition of the earlier publication, the EPC stated:

During the eight years since Education for All American Youth was first published, many fundamental changes have taken place in the United States and the world. In September 1944, the end of World War II was still a year away. Postwar planning--in education, as in other broad phases of American life--was directed toward expectations of which at least two have not materialized. One was the extended interval of uninterrupted peace. The other was a period of economic adjustment attended by a business depression.

Two events, not foreseen in 1944, have prevented the fulfillment of both these expectations. The first was the release of nuclear energy with the accompanying development and use of the atomic bomb. The second was the ruthless and alarmingly successful postwar demonstration of the ambition of the Russian government to promote a policy of world domination.⁵

The EPC pointed out that the uncertainty of world conditions and internal prosperity had caused individuals to be concerned about the political aspects of international affairs. In spite of this, youth education had continued to improve within the ideals set forth in the 1944 publication.⁶

The 1944 EPC publication involved a broad range of educators. While most of the draft concerning the rural and the urban aspects of school systems was written by George L. Maxwell, then the assistant secretary to the Commission,

⁵Educational Policy Commission, Education for All American Youth--A Further Look (Washington, D. C.: National Educational Association and American Association of School Administrators, 1952), p. vii.

⁶Ibid.

the American Vocational Association, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, and the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, became involved in reviewing and contributing to the report. Thus a sizeable segment of the professional educational family permitted that report to speak for them.⁷ The task set before teachers by the report was a large one.

When we write confidently and inclusively about education for all American youth, we mean just that. We mean that all youth, with their human similarities and their equally human differences, shall have educational services and opportunities suited to their personal needs and sufficient for the successful operation of a free and democratic society.⁸

Furthermore, the report went on to point out that

Schools should be dedicated to the proposition that every youth in these United States--regardless of sex, economic status, geographic location, or race--should experience a broad and balanced education which will (1) equip him to enter an occupation suited to his abilities and offering reasonable opportunity for personal growth and social usefulness; (2) prepare him to assume the full responsibilities of American citizenship; (3) give him a fair chance to exercise his right to the pursuit of happiness; (4) stimulate intellectual curiosity, engender satisfaction in intellectual achievement, and cultivate the ability to think rationally; and (5) help him to develop an appreciation of the ethical values which should undergird all life in a democratic society. It is the duty of a democratic society to provide opportunities for such education through its schools. It is the obligation of every youth,

⁷EPC (1944 ed.), op. cit., p. vii.

⁸Ibid., p. 17.

as a citizen, to make full use of these opportunities. It is the responsibility of parents to give encouragement and support to both youth and schools.⁹

The 1938 Educational Policies Commission

These purposes, outgrowths of previously developed educational policies,¹⁰ were and still remain the fundamental platform for educational programs within the American culture. The central problem has not necessarily been the ends of education, rather it has been one of selected means for achieving these ends. Education for All American Youth stressed objectives (1) and (2), and gave importance to (3) and (5). Objective (4), the stimulation of intellectual curiosity and the engendering of satisfaction in intellectual achievement, seemed to be inherent in the other objectives. It was this objective, however, that was to become the focal point of discussion during the ensuing twenty years. The means of accomplishing objective (4) in the EPC statement have concerned many individuals who were outside the province of the school.

The 1938 EPC report on purposes of education (and the forerunner to the 1944 report), had stressed four sets

⁹Ibid., p. 21.

¹⁰The initial statement of such pervasive purposes of education in American society were published by the Educational Policies Commission in 1938 under "The Purposes of Education in American Democracy," and were reprinted in EPC, Policies for Education in American Democracy (Washington, D. C.: NEA and AASA, 1946), pp. 157-277.

of objectives: (1) the objectives of self-realization; (2) the objectives of human relationships; (3) the objectives of economic efficiency; and (4) the objectives of civic responsibility.¹¹

The means for achieving these objectives were not specified in the 1938 report. By the 1944 report, various models for achieving the several objectives had been developed. In the 1938 EPC report some stumbling blocks to educational progress were listed. Among these were: procurement of adequate numbers of competent teachers; improvement in educational administration; the need to study the effect of legislative control over curriculum; the need for professional unity; the need for additional school finances; the need for improved public relations between schools and the public; and to remake methods and materials of instruction to fit the major objectives.¹² The last point has been elaborated upon as "The center of emphasis in education is being shifted from the program of studies to the individual learner."¹³ Not only should educators be concerned with the slow learner, but with the normal and gifted as well.¹⁴ The

¹¹EPC, Policies for Education in American Democracy (Washington, D. C.: EPC, NEA and AASA, 1946) pp. 188-189.

¹²Ibid., pp. 260-270.

¹³Ibid., p. 270.

¹⁴Ibid.

1938 report went on, however, to criticize the methods and content of instruction in the schools.

English as now taught in most schools places too great emphasis on formal grammar and on the dissection of the "classics." Whatever may be the merits of such exercises as a preparation for a career as an author, the great majority of American boys and girls will profit more by a wide-ranging program of reading for enjoyment and fact-gathering. . . .

Mathematics, as now taught, is a serious obstacle to many children. The numbers studying advanced theoretical mathematics should be reduced. An appreciation of the role of mathematics in civilization, and ability to deal with general mathematics as applied to everyday problems, and the fundamental skills of arithmetic should be provided for general consumption.

Languages, ancient and modern, are now studied by thousands of children who will never acquire sufficient skill in them to be able to translate a single page or to conduct the simplest conversation. Science is too often taught as though it were a preparation for an engineering college. Much of the instruction now offered in music, art, and manual training is highly formalized. . . .

All of this illustrates the general fact that education has, on the whole, been altogether too much concerned with facts, and all too little concerned with values.¹⁵

The solution called for as a result of this statement was, "even greater need to discover new curriculum emphases, new teaching materials, and new groupings of subject matter which will contribute directly to the attainment of the purposes proposed."¹⁶

Thus it follows that the thinking which produced the 1944 Education for All American Youth was predicated upon the

¹⁵Ibid., pp. 271-272.

¹⁶Ibid.

earlier pronouncements regarding educational objectives. Education for all, stressed throughout the latter volume, was also social education. It was education that permitted a gradual involvement in work experience, both in Farmville and in American City. It was education that permitted the school to extend its operation not only to grades 13 and 14, but outward into the community through the community-school concept, and carried with it the implication that education was a non-terminating affair.

Social Emphasis in Education

Based on the concept of the "imperative educational needs of youth,"¹⁷ the Commission developed the rationale for the core courses or common learnings courses centering around societal problems such as housing or community health. Such an approach followed somewhat along the lines of the resource unit concept in elementary grades. Aimed at providing meaningful learning experiences within a social setting, the implementation of such common learnings in a classroom called for exceedingly skillful teachers and highly motivated students. The model set in American City did not account for a drastic teacher shortage nor a rapidly expanding student enrollment. In short, under the real conditions

¹⁷EPC, Education for All American Youth, op. cit., pp. 225-226.

facing teachers, the proposed program became an impossible task.

. . . The needs to be met would be clearly defined by the staff for each year of the course. There, to be sure, the planning-in-advance-for-everybody would end. Within the broad outlines of each year's work, each teacher and class would be free to plan and organize their own learning.¹⁸

As ideal as this may have been, those proposing the plan in no way were able to account for the inordinate amount of time required for even skillful teachers to plan, organize, and develop material to be used during the year. Perhaps the greatest weakness lay in developing means of implementation to the curriculum suggested. The rudiments of team-teaching and extensive use of outside resources had been suggested herein. However, there have appeared to be limited numbers of ways of scheduling large groups of students and few numbers of teachers so that these plans could be implemented.

The major problem of dealing with subject matter became evident here as well. Science was listed in the imperative educational needs of youth, and was given a special section in the overall 1944 report. The proposal called for a science course required of all tenth graders in both Farmville and American City.

A chief aim in both courses is to help students understand the social significance of science. . . . Particular stress is placed on the possibilities for

¹⁸Ibid., p. 237.

improving health, housing, transportation, and home and neighborhood life through the application of scientific knowledge to the planning and development of cities.¹⁹

It is interesting to note the entirely different emphasis placed on the subject of science twenty years later.

Significantly Education for All American Youth was a better prediction of the years following World War II than many critics were wont to recognize. Much of what was proposed was tried out with varying degrees of success in the educational enterprise: the development of the community college for grades 13 and 14; the involvement in school camping of the late 1940's and early 1950's; the work programs; the extension of vocational education; and many others. Significant, too, was this statement that has come to fit more closely the Pursuit of Excellence theme of recent years.

One principle underlined by the war experience is that education should be more concerned with the thorough learning of basic principles, processes, and information, than with the relatively superficial "covering" of large bodies of subject matter, much of which may soon be forgotten. The exacting demands of the professions and the postwar competition for admission to professional schools reenforce [sic] the need for such instruction.²⁰

Assuredly, the problem of planning for a postwar education was a challenge. Unfortunately, the stress was

¹⁹Ibid., p. 270.

²⁰Ibid., p. 299.

placed on preparation for a world that no longer existed, a world that changed radically during and following the war. It was at this juncture that educational planners took a fork in the road that led them further from persons in other disciplines. The quality of communication between educators and non-educators deteriorated, and very nearly ceased altogether. The basic concern for human beings, which characterized the Education for All American Youth era is still relevant today, although the now twenty-year-old proposals for core curriculum, life adjustment, and school camping need to be fundamentally renovated to match the requirements of a world which outdates much of its knowledge every eight to ten years.

Alternate Emphases for Education: 1940's

Social change was the major factor in the current shift in educational emphases. There are, however, pieces of evidence which support other reasons why the educational plans expressed in the 1944 EPC publication did not result in universal acceptance. One reason expressed earlier was the impossible task laid before teachers in the extension of the school's responsibility and role. Teachers, as pointed out in an earlier chapter, were in short supply, and under paid.

A second reason for the unfulfillment of the plan on a broad scale was that not everyone agreed with the methods

or even the goals of the plans. In 1940, prior to the publication of the EPC 1944 document, the North California Section of the Mathematical Association of America²¹ met in Berkeley, California. One of the items of business was a discussion of the advisability of deferring the regular ninth grade algebra course to the tenth grade. The North California Section of the Mathematical Association passed the following resolution, based on the belief that many ninth graders were capable of learning algebra and would welcome a challenging subject. The resolution read:

The North California Section of the Mathematical Association of America and those in attendance at the meeting of the Section wish to go on record as favoring that a program of mathematics be provided in the secondary schools, beginning normally with algebra in the ninth year, to be available for those who wish to elect it or who otherwise need it in preparation for college work. It is felt that a capable student should be able to secure solid geometry and trigonometry in the secondary school.²²

Similar resolutions were adopted by the Southern California Section of the same Association, the American Mathematical Society, and by the Mathematics Section of the Bay Area California Teachers Association.²³

²¹H. M. Bacon, "Shall We Defer the Teaching of Algebra to the Tenth Year?" School and Society, LII (July 20, 1940), p. 43.

²²Ibid.

²³Ibid.

At nearly the same time the Council of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, meeting in Berkeley, California in 1940 commented:

In various parts of the country there seems to be a movement to postpone and to abbreviate the courses in mathematics given in the secondary schools. This movement apparently does not recognize the fact that these courses are essential prerequisites for the future training of scientific and engineering students, and that the university has not postponed and can not postpone the mathematical or the scientific and engineering instruction in the university, if its graduates are to enter those professional fields. Moreover, at the present time, for our defense as a nation it is suicidal not to develop the most thorough kind of training for engineers.

The members of the conference on mathematics of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education wish to go on record as recommending that there be no postponement in the mathematical education in the secondary schools of those students who are to seek careers in science and engineering. . . .²⁴

The focus of both sets of resolutions originated in an American Youth Commission pamphlet, What the High Schools Ought to Teach,²⁵ in which methods of teaching the so-called conventional subjects were generally viewed as unfavorable. The Classical Association of New England was unanimously opposed in 1941 to the pamphlet and voted the following resolution--not to be outdone by the mathematicians on the West Coast.

²⁴"Events," School and Society, LII (October 5, 1940), pp. 293-294.

²⁵American Youth Commission, What the High Schools Ought to Teach (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1940).

Be It Resolved, that this Association disapproves of the omission of teaching representatives of the time-tested academic subjects from a committee appointed especially for the consideration of curricular changes in our schools, and furthermore,

Be It Resolved, that this Association strongly protests against certain of the major opinions expressed in this pamphlet as being without sufficient foundation, unsound and injudicious; for we firmly believe that by catering to the uninformed whims of youth . . . instead of providing the essential background of the course of our civilization and the knowledge of man's upward struggle, gained through the discipline of the classics and the study of the past, our young people become prey to cynicism and defeatism and are, consequently, not made wise enough to be loyal to the free institutions that protect them.²⁶

As a result, even before the publication of Education for All American Youth, the stage was set for a running battle between the "traditionalists" and the "progressives" as Bull and DeWitt²⁷ called the principal opponents. I. L. Kandel, of Teachers College, Columbia, in 1941 cautioned that while the community-centered school was a protest against the passive and static traditional school, there were prospects of a newly developed problem: "the community will have to teach the fundamentals and the schools which do not bound education will teach everything else."²⁸

²⁶"Events," School and Society, LIII (April 19, 1941), pp. 500-501.

²⁷William E. Bull and Norman J. DeWitt, "School and Reality," School and Society, LXXV (February 16, 1952), p. 97.

²⁸I. L. Kandel, "The New Deferred Values," School and Society, LIV (July 5, 1941), p. 13.

Some Weaknesses in the School Programs
of the 1940s

Tyler²⁹ pointed out the weaknesses in high school program Circa 1948. Included in these were: teachers tended to have short range plans without long range plans; many objectives had not been operationally defined; a tendency to concentrate on a few less important objectives while ignoring more important objectives; an insufficient amount of planning done by the teachers; learning experiences which fall short of carrying the student to high-level performance and permanence in learning; and a general failure to provide a sequence in learning which led to a high level of achievement. While Tyler diagnosed the problem in 1948, he seemed to have developed something of a prescription by 1952 when he spoke at the Conference on Life Adjustment Education held in Washington, D. C.³⁰ At that meeting he called for greater effort to differentiate instruction to provide equal educational opportunity for youth. At the same time Tyler emphasized the need for more carefully planned programs to aid effective transfer of learning from situations in which learning takes place to situations in which the learner uses what he has learned. With regard to selection of content

²⁹Ralph W. Tyler, "How Can We Improve High School Teaching?" The School Review, LVI (September, 1948), pp. 387-399.

³⁰Ralph W. Tyler, "Next Steps in Improving Secondary Education," The School Review, LX (December, 1952), pp. 523-531.

in learning situations, Tyler commented that it was not sufficient to select content solely from that current in daily affairs, such as election issues.

The weakness in the method of dealing with transfer of training lies in the fact that learning about objects, activities, and problems does not necessarily provide the student with the equipment needed to deal intelligently with problems that may arise in the area.³¹

Furthermore, while it is necessary to recognize the learner needs skills in problem-solving, Tyler cautioned that,

Problem-solving is frequently taught as though it were a formal method of attack regardless of the content involved. In a sense, formal discipline has been reinstated in terms of teaching the formal skills of problem-solving. It is true that problem-solving can become a skill, but it develops in connection with the student's attack upon a variety of concrete problems. Each field of subject matter has developed concepts by which to analyze problems arising in that area and to deal constructively with them. To apply the concepts of natural science, for example, to a political problem would be silly. Every field has certain concepts which must be understood in order for effective problem-solving to be carried on. Relevant concepts and methods of attacking problems need to be studied together in learning how to deal effectively with the significant problems of the day. The step taken in eliminating formal discipline should be followed by another step to improve secondary education: the planning of instruction in terms of both content and problem-solving. . . .³²

Thinking Versus Indoctrination

An off-shoot of the major debate developed when the slogan "how to think, not what to think" became popular in

³¹Ibid., p. 524.

³²Ibid., p. 525.

the early 1950's. Kandel,³³ then editor of School and Society, described the issue as a cliché removed from context, and therefore meaningless. Initially the point of issue was an attack on the practice of rote learning. Later it became popular to use the cliché to describe the contrast between democratic and totalitarian education. "In the interval there was lost any idea of what the pupils were to think about--that is, the content--through the pervasive fear that even to map out the field in which thinking was to be done would be interpreted as indoctrination."³⁴

Punke³⁵ took a stance similar to Tyler's³⁶ by emphasizing that the "technique of how to think cannot be taught in a vacuum."³⁷ Punke further pointed out that indoctrination occurs only when teachers have very limited and provincial outlooks and understandings of problems. His solution was to develop a teaching staff with a comprehensive background. But due to the then current war atmosphere, increased school enrollments, obsolescence of school plants,

³³I. L. Kandel, "How to Think or What to Think About," School and Society, LXXVI (September 20, 1952), p. 187.

³⁴Ibid.

³⁵H. H. Punke, "Teaching How to Think Without Teaching What to Think," School and Society, LXXVI (August 2, 1952), pp. 65-67.

³⁶Tyler, loc. cit., (1952).

³⁷Punke, loc cit., p. 65.

et cetera, this solution seemed only a dim possibility.³⁸

Wegner,³⁹ referring in part to the above cited controversy and in part to the theory of incidental subject matter, offered a compromise position labeled an "Organic Philosophy of Education,"⁴⁰ in which he recognized the psychological aspects of motivation and active participation on the part of the learner as well as the logical intelligibility within subject matter content. Childs⁴¹ felt that educators could only discharge their responsibility by being involved with the what as well as the how of education.

Inherent in these statements were the beginnings of a movement toward reconciling the positions of subject matter versus learner. In general they were milder comments than that of the mathematics professor at Columbia University, Howard Fehr, who claimed the major obstacle to the attainment of mathematical competence as well as other academic achievement was "systematic destruction of creative intelligence in the American school system."⁴² Fehr stressed

³⁸Ibid., p. 67.

³⁹Frank C. Wegner, "The Logic of Subject Matter," School and Society, LXXVII (May 16, 1953), pp. 305-308.

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 308.

⁴¹John R. Childs, "A Student of Public Affairs Views the Problem of Curriculum Development," Teachers College Record, L (January, 1949), pp. 232-240.

⁴²Howard F. Fehr, "The Improvement of Mathematical Attainment in Our Schools," Teachers College Record, LI (January, 1950), p. 213.

as steps toward improvement the importance of teachers having a mathematically functional knowledge of mathematics, including field of number, nature of general number or algebra, field of space, so that the teacher was sufficiently well grounded in mathematics to enable the learner to see a real and systematic development of mathematics.

Kandel⁴³ commented that the development of modern educational theory had initiated a general reaction against learning facts, or discipline, or authority. He pointed out a chief difficulty of the approach was the inability to recognize a problem without a knowledge of facts or subjects arranged in an orderly sequence. Kandel warned, that while it was necessary as a protest against traditional methods to reject discipline, authority and acquisition of facts, such a method carried to extremes would result in "an education without content or aim."⁴⁴

The Critics of the 1950's

The early 1950's were years filled with much emotion where education was concerned. The system of checks and balances characteristic of a democratic society was gradually

⁴³I. L. Kandel, "The Swing of the Educational Pendulum," School and Society, LXXVII (January 10, 1953), pp. 27-28.

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 27.

becoming limbered and set into operation. These were years of attacks on schools, teachers and educators on charges ranging from too much taxation to subversive activities in dealing with controversial social topics. Caswell's⁴⁵ analysis of the criticisms pointed to three major types: the attacks upon school standards of achievement; the attack on school methods; and area of criticism of education in relation to religion. Regarding standards of achievement, Caswell commented, "This line of criticism strikes at one of the most distinctive features of the American educational system, our concept of equality of educational opportunity."⁴⁶ Caswell pointed out that the critics who would apply the old grading standards to all children focus on the low achievers, and consequently "hold back the development of a program that would challenge our gifted children and youth."⁴⁷ Concerning the second area of criticism, school methods, Caswell cited other research which indicated that the application of educational psychology and theories of learning to the teaching situation could result in greater achievement by students of all degrees of ability.⁴⁸

⁴⁵Hollis L. Caswell, "The Great Reappraisal of Public Education," Teachers College Record, LIV (October, 1952), pp. 12-22.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 13.

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 16.

⁴⁸Ibid., p. 19.

Grayson Kirk,⁴⁹ President of Columbia University, identified two areas of criticism concerning the schools. The first had to do with the failure of schools, according to the critics, to educate youth in the fundamental disciplines. Two separate groups were primarily responsible for this complaint: the group which held that schools were failing to produce graduates properly prepared for business and professional life; and the group of critics found chiefly in higher educational institutions who claimed the high school graduate was ill-prepared for college level work. Kirk's second identified area of school criticism was that relating to citizenship education, and came primarily from "self-appointed guardians of the altars of our fathers."⁵⁰

Reconciliation is Needed

It is significant to allude to the effect of educational criticism during this period, in that it influenced heavily the total educational endeavor. Despite the cacophony of the "rancor, if not open war, in the educational world,"⁵¹ a much quieter movement was underway. As early as 1952 spokesmen, like Theodore C. Blegen, Dean of the

⁴⁹Grayson Kirk, "The New Three R's," School and Society, LXXX (November 13, 1954), p. 146.

⁵⁰Ibid., p. 147.

⁵¹Theodore C. Blegen, "Toward a Common Front," School and Society, LXXVI (September 13, 1952), p. 161.

University of Minnesota's Graduate School and Professor of History, called for a meeting of the "scholars of subject-matter specialization and those who profess professional education to find common ground and to grapple unitedly with the problems of education that are crucial to the oncoming generations of our people."⁵² Dean Blegen commented with regards to the educators:

Much of the contemporary distrust of professional educators by "subject-matter" people stems from the lack of fundamental research, or its thinness, or failure to demonstrate its applicability in the sweep of educational practice. Educational slogans and causes should have a secure foundation of research and testing.⁵³

Of the subject-matter specialists, Dean Blegen admonished that they should

. . . include efforts to remove from the general picture patent distortions of actualities; attempts to understand more fully and realistically the problem of democratic education for the millions who attend the public schools; and a willingness to look objectively at the fruits of scholarship as applied to the learning process itself.⁵⁴

Ernest O. Melby,⁵⁵ in explaining the educator's position in the attempt to deal with expanding school populations in terms of education for all reprehended the

⁵²Ibid., p. 162.

⁵³Ibid., p. 163.

⁵⁴Ibid.

⁵⁵Ernest O. Melby, "Where and What Are the Educational Wastelands?" School and Society, LXXXIII (March 3, 1956), pp. 71-75.

academic disciplinarians for having remained "safely ensconced in their professional chairs teaching their revered subjects, and all the teachers heard from most of them was a continuous complaint that high schools did not prepare students adequately for college."⁵⁶ Furthermore, Melby pointed out the need for help from the academic disciplines in solving the problems facing the schools,

if they [disciplinarians] really wanted to work. . . . But they will not be useful as oracles thundering their denunciations and ridicule at the thousands of educators of all ranks and specializations who daily do their best in the great struggle for an education that will help each individual to rise to his best attainment. . . . [We must] stop denouncing each other from a distance and get to work together with the people of our communities to make the American educational dream come true.⁵⁷

The pronouncements by educators of Melby's stature and academicians of Blegen's prestige did not automatically bring about a cooperative enterprise in tackling school curricular problems. In fact, Mortimer Smith⁵⁸ as spokesman for the Council for Basic Education as recently as 1961, while acknowledging that cooperation was necessary between academicians and educators, queried, "Are we trying to gloss over our problems by seeking to find a figure in education who

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 72.

⁵⁷Ibid., pp. 74-75.

⁵⁸Mortimer Smith, "Why We Disagree," The Saturday Review, XLIV (January 31, 1961), pp. 80-81 and 96-97.

will be all things to all men, let us say, a scholarly physical education man named Rickover?"⁵⁹ Smith attempted to point out fundamental differences between the educational purposes of the Council for Basic Education and those of professional educators. Furthermore, Smith stressed that these differences should be maintained, in line with the theory that to resolve the problems of American education the philosophical differences must be debated and discussed, not to suppress or to pretend these differences do not exist.⁶⁰ It appears that there had come about a maturity in thought and action regarding solutions to educational problems not apparent earlier. The resolution of differences may yet move from the emotional plans to an intellectual one. Such a move would be sufficient to produce more light and less heat. As further evidence of the shifting position, Newsome and Kingston⁶¹ in 1962 stressed the need for clarification of educational problems by linguistic and logical analyses which would result in "newer and more refined conceptions of theory and models for theory to replace prevailing moralistic, political and doctrinaire

⁵⁹Ibid., p. 80.

⁶⁰Ibid., p. 97.

⁶¹George L. Newsome, Jr. and Albert J. Kingston, Jr., "A Critique of Criticisms of Education," Educational Theory, XII (October, 1963), pp. 218-229.

conceptions."⁶² At the same time, the point of attack had changed from subject matter content to improvement in the training and certification of teachers, as reviewed by Newsome and Kingston,⁶³ and by Brickman.⁶⁴

Subject Matter Revisions Begin

While the verbal controversy continued, some other developments at the implementation level and proposed implementation level had emerged. Meserve⁶⁵ reported on significant developments occurring at the University of Illinois as early as 1950. A committee made up of two faculty members from each of the Colleges of Engineering and Education and two from the Department of Mathematics at the University of Illinois set about to formulate "a list of topics based primarily upon the mathematical needs in college courses."⁶⁶ Meserve continued:

All the topics on the University of Illinois list are covered in the traditional college-preparatory courses of most four-year mathematics programs.

⁶²Ibid., p. 229.

⁶³Ibid., pp. 218-229.

⁶⁴William W. Brickman, "Editorial: The Unprepared Teacher," School and Society, XC (January 27, 1961), p. 27.

⁶⁵Bruce E. Meserve, "The University of Illinois List of Mathematical Competencies," The School Review, LXI (February, 1953), pp. 85-92.

⁶⁶Ibid., p. 87.

Thus we are not asking for additional subject matter. Rather, we are trying to specify what we mean by four years of high school mathematics.⁶⁷

The results of the committee's investigations produced an experimental mathematics curriculum developed for the University High School for grades 9 through 12. Meserve hastened to delineate the function of the university in curriculum development as one of interest "in the competencies of prospective students, but the organization of the secondary school mathematics program should be a responsibility of the secondary schools."⁶⁸ Regarding the movement in mathematics curriculum development, Meserve said, "The present trend is away from the compartmentalization of mathematics to a teaching of mathematics according to the difficulty of the concepts and the needs of the pupils. . . . Fundamental principles rather than memorized procedures will be stressed."⁶⁹

Changes in subject matter emphasis were occurring on other fronts as well. In May, 1952, United States Commissioner of Education Earl J. McGrath, in an address to the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association, proposed that foreign language instruction begin as early as grades

⁶⁷Ibid., p. 88.

⁶⁸Ibid., p. 90.

⁶⁹Ibid., pp. 90-91.

four, five and six.⁷⁰ McGrath's proposal prompted the Rockefeller Brothers Foundation to "grant \$120,000 to the Modern Language Association for a three-year inquiry (which began October 1) 'into the role which foreign languages and literatures now play and should hereafter play in American Life.'"⁷¹

Resolutions by Academicians

A third event occurred in 1952 which accentuated a heightened interest in the subject matter content in secondary schools. A set of resolutions was submitted to the Council of the American Historical Association by Arthur E. Bestor, Jr., professor of history at the University of Illinois.⁷² Professor Bestor's resolutions were aimed at improving the intellectual content of history and social studies in particular, but included all high school academic subjects in general. The resolutions called for the provision of sound training in the fundamental ways of thinking represented by the disciplines evolved in the course of man's quest for knowledge, not only for future scholars and scientists, but average citizens as well. Because the content

⁷⁰Harold B. Dunkel, "Educational News and Editorial Comment: Foreign Languages on the March Again," The School Review, LXI (January, 1953), pp. 3-6.

⁷¹Ibid., p. 4.

⁷²"Resolutions Concerning Public Education," School and Society, LXXVII (January 31, 1953), pp. 68-70.

of the public-school curriculum was of such importance to the nation it should not be controlled exclusively by secondary-school administrators and professional educators according to Bestor. He called for scholars, scientists and professional men to advise on the

. . . scientific and scholarly soundness of proposed changes in the curricula of public schools. And universities and colleges must preserve and strengthen their entrance requirements in the basic fields of knowledge not merely to maintain their own standards but also to prevent, so far as possible, the deterioration of the secondary-school education which is provided for students not planning to enter college.⁷³

Bestor stressed that

Intellectual disciplines are not mere collections of facts and formulas, but ways of thinking with organized structures of their own. The learning of facts is not intellectual training, unless those facts are seen as the conclusions of systematic inquiry and as part of a larger structure of knowledge. Reorganizations of the curriculum are destructive if they cause the student to lose sight of the ordered relationships that exist, and of the methods of investigation that are employed within each of the basic fields of knowledge.⁷⁴

Bestor's resolution also enunciated the need for secondary-school teachers to be well-versed in their subject matter as opposed to "piling up additional credits in pedagogical courses."⁷⁵ Furthermore, he claimed that teachers must assume the responsibility, as well as the use of freedom, in

⁷³Ibid., p. 69.

⁷⁴Ibid.

⁷⁵Ibid.

applying the critical methods of scholarship to subjects discussed in their classrooms. The resolution called for the American Historical Association to initiate a movement among similar learned societies in all fields to join together in forming a

Permanent Scientific and Scholarly Commission on Secondary Education, to be made up exclusively of scholars and scientists in the various disciplines of learning, to be affiliated with the scholarly and scientific societies of the country (as distinguished from professional educational associations and from non-professional general organizations), to be adequately financed and provided with an efficient secretariat. . . .⁷⁶

The duties of the proposed Commission were to include: the analysis of every proposal affecting the content and organization of public high school curriculum; to scrutinize programs of subject matter; to examine certification codes for excessive pedagogical requirements at the expense of subject matter requirements; to study public (Federal, state and municipal) departments of education memberships for an adequate representation of the scientific and scholarly point of view; to investigate college admissions policies to strengthen and preserve intellectual training in secondary schools; to act as an information agency to inform individuals and societies of scholarly and scientific implications of proposed policies; and lastly, to cooperate with public educational

⁷⁶Ibid., p. 70.

administrators in devising sound programs for the public schools in the basic intellectual disciplines.⁷⁷

Bestor presented his set of resolutions to the Council of the American Historical Association on December 27, 1952, and the Council reacted by adopting its own resolution which was submitted to the Association on December 29, 1952.⁷⁸ The Council resolution is quoted in its entirety as follows:

The council has discussed sympathetically Professor Bestor's resolutions concerning public education. After careful consideration, it was the consensus in the council that the problem presented by these resolutions is a serious one, meriting close and thoughtful study before any action is taken by the association. The council felt, however, that adoption of these resolutions in their present text would be premature, since action taken by the association must take into due account certain important implications of any such action.

For the association should very carefully determine, first, precisely what the policy of the association itself ought to be, relative to this problem. Secondly, it is thought that the association should approach the other learned societies with a view of formulating some sort of common policy with them. Thirdly, it is thought that any effective implementation of the sense of the resolutions would best be forwarded by taking into consideration the mature thought of professional educators who are conscious of the problem and would wish to collaborate in the formulation of any comprehensive statement on national educational policy.

The council therefore authorizes the incoming president of the association to appoint a committee to formulate and bring to the association a statement of its policy, to approach the other learned

⁷⁷Ibid.

⁷⁸Ibid., p. 68.

societies and professional educators on the subject of a common position relative to the problem, and to discuss with them the possible setting up of the proposed interdisciplinary educational commission.⁷⁹

It is interesting to note the reaction of the American Historical Association's Council to Bestor's proposals. While the interdisciplinary commission seemed acceptable, the AHA did not see fit to exclude the professional educator as Bestor would have, had his resolutions been adopted. Perhaps the fact that the National Council for the Social Studies (NEA) had met with the American Historical Association for several years was an influence. The National Council for the Social Studies did not meet with AHA in 1952, interestingly enough, as NCSS had done in 1948,⁸⁰ 1949,⁸¹ 1950,⁸² 1951,⁸³ and again in 1953.⁸⁴

Other Contributions by the University of Illinois

The University of Illinois has produced some interesting contributions to the evolution of quality as well as

⁷⁹"Resolutions Concerning Public Education: Footnote," School and Society, LXXVII (January 31, 1953), p. 68.

⁸⁰National Education Association, Addresses and Proceedings, Cleveland, 1948, Vol. 86 (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1948). Hereafter called NEA Addresses, with city and date added.

⁸¹NEA Addresses, Boston, 1949, Vol. 87.

⁸²NEA Addresses, St. Louis, 1950, Vol. 88.

⁸³NEA Addresses, San Francisco, 1951, Vol. 89.

⁸⁴NEA Addresses, Miami Beach, 1953, Vol. 91.

quantity in public education. It could be that the particular intellectual environment found there during the 1950's proved sufficient to promote a movement toward leadership in education as that which had occurred at Teachers College or the University of Chicago before. At least the mathematics project and the pronouncements of Bestor gave the Illini some claim to educational fame. These may prove to be passing accomplishments in the years to come. However, the University of Illinois initiated one other significant act affecting secondary education. In 1956 it served notice to high schools that by 1960 incoming freshmen would no longer be offered courses in remedial English.⁸⁵ Fred M. Heckinger called attention to the fact that the ultimatum of Illinois included an offer to help high schools prepare future college students. "Proof that the University was on the right track came with a rush of requests for the pamphlets--not only from schools in Illinois but from across the nation."⁸⁶

Additional Events in the 1950's

It should be apparent that the currents of educational thought with regard to the emphasis accorded subject matter in schools had begun to turn early in the 1950's well before

⁸⁵Fred M. Heckinger, "Wanted: Quality as Well as Quantity, Education in the News 1956-1957," Saturday Review, XXXIX (September 8, 1956), pp. 19-20 and 55.

⁸⁶Ibid., p. 19.

the launching of the Russian Sputnik I in 1957. National security played an important role in this new concern, as was described in the Manpower Concept of Education theme investigated in the previous chapter. Lines of communication between the teachers and the academic disciplines were developing.

Some events concerning education were loudly heralded, as was the May 17, 1954⁸⁷ Supreme Court decision against segregation. Others, such as the termination of the Progressive Education Association which folded in July, 1955,⁸⁸ went largely unnoticed by the public in general. Almost philosophically, Heckinger, who was reporting the educational news commented on the lack of attention given the termination of the Progressive Education Association: "The audience had moved on to another show."⁸⁹

College Entrance Examination Board

The promoters of the next "show" came from fascinatingly different backgrounds. One such wellspring of ideas was the College Entrance Examination Board.⁹⁰ In 1955 the

⁸⁷Fred M. Heckinger, "Education 1954-1955: A Newscast," Saturday Review, XXXVII (September 11, 1954), p. 21.

⁸⁸Fred M. Heckinger, "Education in the News, 1955-56," Saturday Review, XXXVIII (September 10, 1955), pp. 29 and 56.

⁸⁹Ibid.

⁹⁰Edwin Moise, "The New Mathematics Programs," The School Review, LXX (Spring, 1962), pp. 82-101.

CEEB established a Commission on Mathematics to study the problem of mathematics curriculum in grades 9 through 12 and to recommend reforms. The CEEB, in writing examinations inadvertently influenced the curriculum, and as a consequence the CEEB feared that its examinations were causing the curriculum to solidify at a time when changes were needed. Therefore it sought help from the mathematicians. Significantly, the Commission had wide representation of both university mathematicians and secondary school mathematics teachers. The results of the Commission's investigations, published in 1958, provided a basic thesis that high school courses should follow more closely the methods and spirit of modern mathematics.⁹¹

The School Mathematics Study Group

To accomplish the Commission's goals, and to get a valid test of feasibility, textbooks had to be written and the content tested in regular classrooms. To facilitate this undertaking, the School Mathematics Study Group was established at Yale University in 1958.⁹² Working under a grant

⁹¹Ibid., p. 83.

⁹²National Science Foundation Staff, Division of Scientific Personnel and Education, "The Role of the National Science Foundation in Course Content Improvement in Secondary Schools," The School Review, LXX (Spring, 1962), pp. 1-15. In terms of the founding of the School Mathematics Study Group, this reference includes not only the CEEB Commission on Mathematics, but also a meeting held at Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The recommendations of both groups led to the formation of the SMSG. "The American Mathematical Society,

from the National Science Foundation, some forty high school teachers and university mathematicians began a writing project that continued over three summers and produced material for grades 9-12. Later material was written for grades 4-8 as well. Not only were student texts prepared, but extensive teachers' manuals were written as well.⁹³

Other Experimental Programs

Other significant developments in mathematics curriculum included the University of Illinois Committee on School Mathematics,⁹⁴ cited earlier, which began in 1950. The University of Maryland Mathematics Project, initiated in 1957, focused on experimental courses for grades 7 and 8.⁹⁵ The University of Illinois Arithmetic Project with David Page, initiated in 1958, investigated mathematical ideas which could be communicated to children at various levels of maturity.⁹⁶ The Stanford University studies, the

the Mathematical Association of America, and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics nominated members of a planning committee, which outlined a program, selected an advisory body, and persuaded Edward G. Begle, then at Yale University, to direct the enterprise." p. 8.

⁹³Ibid., pp. 83-89.

⁹⁴Meserve, loc. cit., pp. 85-92.

⁹⁵Dorothy M. Fraser, Current Curriculum Studies in Academic Subjects, A Report Prepared for the Project on Instruction (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1962), pp. 37-38.

⁹⁶Ibid., pp. 39-40.

first initiated in 1958, dealt with geometry for primary grades, and later in 1959, with set theory and foundations of arithmetic.⁹⁷

The programs developed in the several disciplines have been many. Therefore, only selected ones will be cited here as points of illustration. For a summarization of most of these programs, the National Education Association Project on Instruction material, Current Curriculum Studies in Academic Subjects⁹⁸ provides a brief comment for each project.

In the field of science, the Physical Science Study Committee⁹⁹ was formed in 1956, and was composed of university and secondary-school physics teachers. The PSSC developed materials for direct instructional use including a textbook, laboratory apparatus, a students laboratory guide-book, motion picture films and achievement tests. Again, as with the SMSG material, the course content was tried out in actual teaching situations and revised accordingly. The course

⁹⁷Ibid., pp. 40-41.

⁹⁸Ibid. See also: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, An Analysis of New Mathematics Programs (Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1963), 68 pp. and, Edwina Deans, Elementary School Mathematics: New Directions (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1963), 116 pp.

⁹⁹Gilbert C. Finlay, "The Physical Science Study Committee," The School Review, LXX (Spring, 1962), p. 63.

content was aimed at moving away from the technology found in traditional high school physics "toward a deeper exploration of the basic ideas of physics and the nature of inquiries that can lead to these ideas."¹⁰⁰ The underlying assumption for the approach taken was that the development of the mind is never-ending, and therefore the function of the school is to provide a start, "such that the end of formal schooling does not mark the end of learning."¹⁰¹

The general receptivity of the work done by SMSG and PSSC on the part of secondary-school teachers and university personnel alike prompted others to enter the arena of revised curricula. The Biological Sciences Curriculum Study¹⁰² was initiated in 1959. Instigated by the American Institute of Biological Sciences, an association of forty-seven professional societies, and financed by the National Science Foundation, the BSCS was made up, as were the other groups, of university specialists in biology, high school teachers, high school administrators, and textbook writers. It was the contention of this steering committee that high school biology was at least twenty years behind the advance

¹⁰⁰Ibid., p. 66.

¹⁰¹Ibid.

¹⁰²Bentley Glass, "Renascent Biology: A Report on the AIBS Biological Sciences Curriculum Study," The School Review, LXX (Spring, 1962), pp. 16-43.

of these sciences, and in some aspects as much as a century out of date.¹⁰³ There were three courses planned in the BSCS program utilizing three separate approaches: (1) Ecological and evolutionary; (2) genetics and developmental; and (3) biochemical and physiological.¹⁰⁴ In each case, regardless of the approach used, the emphasis was one of dealing with a real participation in scientific inquiry on the part of the learner. As a result of the Committee's deliberations, it was felt a need existed for programs for gifted students as well as the average ability students. Unsolved biological research problems were submitted for the program for gifted students.¹⁰⁵

Two other ventures into science curriculum improvement at the high school level were developed in the field of chemistry. The Chemical Bond Approach Project,¹⁰⁶ organized in 1959, was initiated by five college chemistry professors. Later, high school teachers were invited to participate in developing instructional materials including textbooks, laboratory guides and examinations. The goal of the Chemical Bond Approach was an

¹⁰³Ibid., p. 17.

¹⁰⁴Fraser, loc. cit., p. 11.

¹⁰⁵Glass, loc. cit., pp. 20-21.

¹⁰⁶Fraser, loc. cit., p. 12.

. . . integrated laboratory and concepts course. The integration for the course is based on logical structure and methods of the discipline. The concept of structure in particular is used as a major intellectual tool for the discussion of chemical systems.¹⁰⁷

The second chemistry curriculum development was the Chemical Educational Materials Study (CHEM Study)¹⁰⁸ set in motion the summer of 1960 at Harvey Mudd College in Claremont, California. The founders of the CHEM Study, as in the case of the Chemical Bond Approach, were distinguished chemists. Similar to the other experimental projects, high school teachers and university chemistry teachers and industrial chemists were invited to join the writing sessions for the development of teaching materials: textbooks and laboratory manuals. Once again the proposed content was tried out in actual teaching situations, and the material has, as a result, been under constant revision. The emphasis of the CHEM Study approach is one of "discovery" through laboratory work. A student normally does an experiment before he reads about it in a textbook.¹⁰⁹

The movement initiated by the University of Illinois Committee on School Mathematics in 1950, and carried on by the

¹⁰⁷Lawrence E. Strong, "Chemistry as a Science in the High School," The School Review, LXX (Spring, 1962), p. 50.

¹⁰⁸G. A. Campbell, "Chemistry--An Experimental Science," The School Review, LXX (Spring, 1962), pp. 51-62.

¹⁰⁹Ibid., pp. 52-53.

projects cited above, has spread into the social sciences, the humanities and language instruction. These have been sketched out in Fraser's¹¹⁰ report cited earlier. Clearly, the phenomena of involving academic specialists in curriculum development has become a common occurrence.

Other observations are pertinent in this respect as well. The National Science Foundation staff has phrased some of these in a succinct manner as follows:

Certain common elements in the objectives and the operation of the secondary-school study groups deserve mention. Each project has aimed at a course in which the major developments of the field are presented in logical sequence. Technological and purely descriptive aspects have been de-emphasized, and major attention has been given to basic concepts and principles. Special stress has been laid on the laboratory part of the course, the objective has been to replace routine cookbook procedures with an approach in which the student will develop a genuine feeling for the nature of scientific inquiry and discovery.¹¹¹

The NSF continued, in pointing out the innovation of teams to prepare materials, that

One important by-product of the curriculum projects has been the development of mutual understanding and cooperation between university scientists and teachers at all levels. Through active participation in a common project, many scientists have developed a strong and continuing interest in the all-important job of making available to teachers sound and teachable materials reflecting contemporary scientific knowledge. Teachers find themselves an active part of the total scientific community. They eagerly

¹¹⁰Fraser, loc. cit.

¹¹¹National Science Foundation staff, op. cit., p. 14.

accept the added responsibilities and welcome the opportunity to co-operate in this revolutionary effort to make available to all American youth the best presentations of science and mathematics that the country's top scientists and best teachers can create.¹¹²

Some of the developments, for example the PSSC's filmed physics course, came at a time when high school science teachers were in short supply due to low teaching salaries as compared to higher salaries in industries where their knowledge could be utilized.¹¹³

Interim Observations

Many developments were instigated as a result of the concerns of university scientists, mathematicians and other subject-matter specialists for the preparation of entering students. The omission of professional educators from the groups involved in the various projects appears rather significant, and should serve as a stimulus for professional educators in general and curriculum specialists in particular to review their role in shaping future events in education. The groups cited above were drawn almost exclusively from either the university level of the discipline or from its counterpart at the secondary school level. Only in one case, the BSCS, were secondary school administrators directly involved in preparing materials.

¹¹²Ibid., pp. 14-15.

¹¹³National Manpower Council, Conference on the Utilization of Scientific and Professional Manpower (New York: Columbia University Press, 1954), pp. 138-139.

It should be noted that the ground-swell of concern and its resultant action in up-dating course content had diverse origins. Bestor¹¹⁴ and Melby¹¹⁵ are representatives of opposite ends of the continuum, yet one can acknowledge the contributions of both toward developing the present co-operative undertakings. While the teachers were eager to comply with the academicians, clearly the latter group had to take the initiative to provide the content material and the methods of inquiry characteristic of the given field or discipline. Educators will not contribute to the more important aims of Pursuit of Excellence if they react in an entrenching fashion, or if they are critical of the efforts made by others while they have offered no significant contributions themselves.

It is equally unfair to cast professional educators in a johnny-come-lately role because they did not take an active part in initiating the needed revisions in academic fields for suitable secondary school subject-matter. Educators, as perhaps no other single group, have been concerned with a program of excellence for all learners. The very fact that educators have attempted to provide an education suitable for all learners has resulted in many of the problems

¹¹⁴Bestor, loc. cit.

¹¹⁵Melby, loc. cit.

inherent in developing universally strong programs. But educators, in the role of planners and curriculum developers, can move only as fast as the surrounding society permits them to move. A society that values a set of material advantages as compared to one that values less tangible evidences of success reflects its values in the school programs it is willing to support. Oddly enough, the threat to security, which carried with it a potential decline of material opulence, served to stimulate the acceptance of the importance of the intangible: developing all learners to their highest potential. The role educators must play in the shaping of future events remains a critical question. It is clear that a society cannot ignore professional educators; their discipline has contributions to make. These contributions will be made as the discipline of education develops significant theory regarding the nature of learning and the act of teaching as it relates to learning. This contribution calls for greater sophistication on the part of the educational discipline than that discipline has evidenced in the past.

A second role for the professional educators has been that of coordinator of the numerous resources at hand in curriculum development. The National Education Association's "Project on Instruction" is an example of this type of coordination on a massive scale. Once again, the emphasis is on quality education for all children adapted to

their varying needs.¹¹⁶ It no longer should be a question of who or what group is going to do the leading, but rather the question must be: What unique contributions can be made by a diversity of talent, background, and individuals in an effort to provide solutions to complex educational problems?

Problems With the Term "Excellence"

The terminology used in the Pursuit of Excellence theme has given rise to numerous questions; questions of value as well as questions of means. As a term supposedly signifying a construct of moral and intellectual standards of highest quality, the use of the word "excellence" set off a series of short bursts of query from the time it was initially used by the Rockefeller Report¹¹⁷ in 1957, until about 1961. The use of the term "pursuit of excellence" has declined in the past two or three years. Reasons for this are many, but as pointed out by Gardner¹¹⁸ and by Benezet¹¹⁹

¹¹⁶Richard I. Miller, Education in a Changing Society, A Report Prepared for the National Education Association Project on Instruction (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1963), p. 12.

¹¹⁷Rockefeller Brothers Fund, Inc., op. cit.

¹¹⁸John W. Gardner, Excellence—Can We Be Equal and Excellent Too? Harper Colophon Books, 1962 (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1961), 171 pp.

¹¹⁹Louis T. Benezet, "The Trouble with Excellence," Saturday Review, XLIV (October 21, 1961), pp. 44-45 and 63-64.

there are many kinds of excellence, and these must be reckoned with. Undoubtedly a stronger moral commitment to worthwhile and enduring aims such as "freedom" or "democracy" for a free society are required if such a society is to continue. Aims such as the inherent worth and dignity of the individual achieving at a peak of whatever talent he has are also defined as excellent.¹²⁰

Thus the definition of excellence remains clouded by the American society. Conway's¹²¹ definition of American excellence is based on an activist concept of society and the consequent triumph of fulfillment of talent. This, too, has given impetus to the search for talent discussed in the chapter, Manpower Concept of Education. Johnson, more to underline the factor of moral commitment, identified "excellence" as increased competence on the part of the individual, "a striving for the highest standards in every form of life."¹²²

Perhaps another reason for the decline in the use of the term "pursuit of excellence" lay in the fact that the

¹²⁰Rockefeller Fund, op. cit., pp. 1-2 and 16-17.

¹²¹John Conway, "Standards of Excellence," Daedalus, LXC (Fall, 1961), pp. 674-692.

¹²²T. Earle Johnson, "Excellence in Our Lives," Vital Speeches of the Day, XXVIII (January 1, 1962), pp. 183-186.

term rapidly became a catch-all phrase as Benezet¹²³ pointed out, and that it meant different things to school administrators and teachers. One cannot question a raise in tuition, for example, if the rationale is accompanied by the word "excellence."

Woodring,¹²⁴ Larsen,¹²⁵ and McClelland¹²⁶ countered "excellence" by decrying the tendency on the part of many people to equate larger assignments, high test scores, and best schools with the concept of excellence. Woodring, an educator; Larsen, a philosopher; and McClelland, a practicing psychologist; from their different vantage points were essentially in agreement with one another in citing their concerns that there develop an over-emphasis on only one form of excellence--excellence in academic achievement, at the expense of excellence in curiosity or excellence in human sensitivity.

Others raised questions concerning the role of education as a selective process as compared to education as a means to develop the individual to his fullest potential.

¹²³Benezet, loc. cit., p. 45.

¹²⁴Paul Woodring, "Editorial: The Meaning of Excellence," Saturday Review, XLIV (April 15, 1961), p. 51.

¹²⁵Robert E. Larsen, "Education and Ethics," Saturday Review, XLIV (April 15, 1961), pp. 65-67.

¹²⁶David C. McClelland, "Encouraging Excellence," Daedalus, XV (Fall, 1961), pp. 711-724.

Gardner¹²⁷ delved deeply into this concept, both from the historical tradition and within the current context of education. Otto¹²⁸ stated that if we truly accepted the idea of individual differences, we would have to accept the corollary of differentiated education. Otto gave primary importance to the idea that education ought to mean equal opportunity, not identical amounts of education.¹²⁹ This latter concern has been a most difficult one for the public, the academicians, the public school teachers, and the professional educators to handle. It is one issue that continues to call for resolution, both in terms of theory and in terms of practical application. The issue is as current as the morning headlines dealing with poverty or drop-outs, or establishing a new youth corps.

A limited definition of Pursuit of Excellence was used in this study. That definition stated that Pursuit of Excellence meant curriculum based on knowledges derived from the methods of inquiry and the structure of a given discipline. It has become pertinent to mention briefly other concepts of excellence which appeared in the literature of this period. Nevertheless, it was beyond the scope and

¹²⁷Gardner, loc. cit., pp. 11-20.

¹²⁸Henry J. Otto, "Grouping Pupils for Maximum Achievement," The School Review, LXVII (Winter, 1959), pp. 387-395.

¹²⁹Ibid., p. 389.

the intent of this study to examine excellence from a philosophical basis.

Butts¹³⁰ may have been acting as an alter ego when he commented that academicians too often assumed the same methods of intellectual and abstract thinking suitable for college students also would apply to younger learners, and that educators were too prone to push the idea that direct experiences most appropriate for elementary children were also most appropriate for all high school and college students.

The goal should be to achieve the excitement and stimulation that can come with the active interest and involvement of students in the learning process, along with the rigor of critical thinking and intellectual achievement that can come with the mastery of systematic knowledge.¹³¹

Chapter Summary and Generalizations

Briefly, the specific points which have led up to the Pursuit of Excellence theme have included the following:

- (1) The concerns of educators for work-related education at the secondary school level in the 1930's and early 1940's, which resulted in the concept of education for all youth;
- (2) The corresponding concern of academicians of the 1940's that subject matter in school programs would be postponed

¹³⁰R. Freeman Butts, "Scholarship and Education in a Free Society," Teachers College Record, LXI (March, 1960), p. 282.

¹³¹Ibid., p. 285.

for too long a time, due in part to the heavy social emphasis found in education of that period. These concerns resulted in attempts to re-emphasize subject matter per se; (3) The interruption caused by World War II, the immediate postwar years, and the Korean Conflict, which delayed the getting together of educators and academicians as they attempted to resolve the basic issue of the what of education as well as the who and the how; (4) The movement toward cooperation between educators and academicians, which was made evident in the 1950's, resulted in numerous programs for improving subject matter based on the structure of academic disciplines such as the University of Illinois Mathematics Program; and lastly, (5) The recent recognition that excellence means more than academic excellence. In fact, the development of excellence in creativity, moral commitment, human sensitivity, and others, must be recognized as part of the function of the school as well as the emphasis in academic excellence. It is probably in this latter area that educators and academicians need to concern themselves to achieve a proper balance in the school curriculum between excellence in academic accomplishments and excellence in other behavioral outcomes.

For some, the position of the educational world in 1964 may appear to be the denouement of all the events of the past twenty years. For others, the drama is only beginning. If, as a society, Americans are to achieve an increased

directional sense, and a motivation toward individual and social excellence, the function of education is indeed broader and more pervasive than it has ever been. Professional educators and practicing teachers clearly have a large task before them. But they cannot accomplish this task single-handedly.

Progressive education may have failed most assuredly by severing educators from the larger society and from the other disciplines. Both the educators and the academicians have a responsibility for public education, and from the evidence at hand, this joint responsibility should never be allowed to separate as it did from 1920 through 1940. Perhaps the recognition of this fact has been all that has been achieved by the recent trauma in the educational sphere.

Certainly there is an air of excitement and stimulation in subject matter and in curricular developments that is challenging and inclusive. Hopefully, this aura of stimulation will not wane but will continue to get the direction and support it needs.

In conclusion, the Pursuit of Excellence theme has attempted to describe two sets of concerns developing within the past twenty-three years. The first of these has been the professional educator's basic emphasis on quality education for all children and youth. This has been evidenced by the approaches to learning which involved the learner in the process of developing learning skills which would

continue to operate in the life of the individual after formal schooling had terminated. The process of learning has been a major contribution of Education as a Discipline which culminated in the attention of educators to the Pursuit of Excellence.

The second concern has been that arising within the academic disciplines, which were contributing to the explosion of knowledge characteristic of this century. Academician's contributions to the Pursuit of Excellence theme has been one of not only updating knowledge, but emphasizing the structure of the disciplines which produce new knowledge. The quality of education the academicians have stressed has been essentially a thought process based upon significant data from the disciplines. Therefore, the two concerns have at last begun to merge into a single stream, each strengthening and enhancing the other. The evolution of this latter emphasis has comprised the content of the Pursuit of Excellence theme.

CHAPTER VI

THE INTERRELATIONSHIP OF THE FOUR THEMES

Summary

It has been the purpose of this study to investigate the causes of the increased emphasis of secondary and elementary school subject matter based on academic disciplines. The emphasis on higher standards of accomplishment has been categorized under the term Pursuit of Excellence in American public schools. To facilitate the investigation undertaken in the study, four major themes were developed. These were documented throughout the past twenty-three years, the period under study.

The summary and conclusions have been based on the findings of the four themes: Teaching as a Profession, Education as a Discipline, Manpower Concept of Education, and Pursuit of Excellence. The conclusions stated at the end of each of the preceding chapters have been based on the information documented in the particular chapter. Now that all four themes have been examined, it has been possible to see the interrelationship between one theme and another, and the impingement of one theme upon the others has become evident. The present chapter examines the interrelationships between themes.

In summarizing and interrelating the four themes, a verbal time line has been used. Pertinent factors in each theme have been recorded in a time matrix to show the adjacency of events or the lag between events as the case may be. Thus to do this, the theme Education as a Discipline has been used to initiate the discussion since pertinent factors leading to this theme had beginnings in the 1920's.

The Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (1926) stressed the need for a comprehensive overview of all factors of American life in relation to education in order to achieve a balanced educational program consisting of attention to society, child needs and subject matter specialties. To promote an insightful program the Yearbook Committee developed a broad General Statement which was to be used as a format for discussion purposes within local school districts, thus enabling local systems to establish their own platforms for school programs. The General Statement was in many ways a compromise between advocates of child activities and interests and advocates of the position that schools should offer preparation for the future. School personnel were cautioned not to adopt automatically the General Statement but rather to use it as a basis for discussion. By the very fact of declaring this position the National Society for the Study of Education gave impetus to the movement to grant recognition of education as a discipline. Furthermore, proclaiming the need

for local districts to prepare their own Statements implied a growing professionalism on the part of teachers.

The Twenty-sixth Yearbook was followed by a similar one twelve years later, the Thirty-seventh Yearbook (1938) of the National Society for the Study of Education. The emphasis in this yearbook was on the scientific study of education, viewed through the assessment of educational developments over the preceding decade. Included were reviews of the developmental methods of inquiry in various phases of educational research; the relationship of research to practice; and the need for additional investigations into the role of scientific study in the field of education. It was noted in the Thirty-seventh Yearbook that the gap between research and practice was as great as it had been in 1926. Causes for this lag were attributed to: limited training of teachers; limited amounts of significant research carried on in public schools; turnover in public school research personnel; a provincialism on the part of teachers and administrators; and a general lack of sophistication in what educational research had been done.

In the same yearbook, Whipple developed a theory of the cycle of research which began with considered opinion, going to quantification with later refinements in statistical method which led to the formulation of more recondite objectives, and lastly, returning to considered opinion based on broader issues involving more factors than were evidenced

in the first stage.

The decade which produced the two significant year-books also produced an economic depression and an imbalance of the labor force. It was the decade which witnessed the development of a movement wherein educators investigated many basic social issues, as did the Teachers College group. Social reconstructionism led by educators was an important issue in school programs. Related to this position was the 1938 publication of the Educational Policies Commission, discussed in the Pursuit of Excellence theme. The Educational Policies Commission policy statement of 1938 stressed the objectives of self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility. A central concern to educators and teachers was the need to prepare youth for vocational life. In the 1930's the vocational situation was poor at best. An outgrowth in secondary school educational programs was the work experience curriculum related to other high school credits.

Further significant comments in the 1938 Educational Policies Commission statement were those that substantiated the observations made by Cushman and Fox in the Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. The Educational Policies Commission, in 1938, listed lack of procurement of competent teachers as a major factor limiting educational progress in that era. Other factors were the need for adequate school finances, improved school

administration, improved public relations between school and community, and the need to remodel methods and materials of instruction to fit the newly stated major objectives. A significant shift in educational thought occurred at this time: the change in emphasis from a program of studies to the emphasis on the individual learner. Social usefulness and citizenship education continued to remain as major focal points in proposed programs of studies.

Evidence has been cited in the Pursuit of Excellence theme which inferred the proposed postponement of selected academic subjects in secondary schools. The specific cases cited dealt with postponing ninth grade mathematics to the tenth grade, and of significantly altering the classical studies in secondary schools. The attempts by educators and teachers to prolong the child interest and activity approach through secondary school years stirred the antagonism of academic specialists in 1940. The separate resolutions passed by the Northern California Section of the Mathematics Association of America (1940), the Council of the Society for the Promotion of the Engineering Education (1940), and the Classical Association of New England (1941) were evidence of a disenchantment with the direction education was taking at the close of the 1930's. Major issues in education at this time pivoted around two positions: (1) What shall be the purpose of public education? and (2) Who shall control the direction education would take? Before either of the issues

could be resolved by open discussion and debate, the United States was drawn into the world conflict of the 1940's.

World War II brought significant changes to the foreground in education. One change was noted in the Education as a Discipline theme in which efforts to expedite the war emergency were described. The schools undertook varied responsibilities related to the war effort that tended to broaden the total school operation. The net outcome gave greater attention to social problems of work, vocations, and citizenship. A second change emerged as the result of the induction of young men into the armed services. This was delineated in the Manpower Concept of Education regarding the numbers of individuals found unsuited for military service due to illiteracy, and poor mental or physical health. Ginzberg had given an assessment of the rejection rate from 1941 on throughout the War as being close to two million persons. Even so, the apparent assumption about unlimited reserves of manpower was not recognized as faulty until the United States' involvement in the war had been underway for two and a half years. The belated recognition of a ceiling on human resources served as a basis for later work involving the nation's manpower and, ultimately, education.

Even before the war ended there developed plans for peacetime. The most significant of these plans education-wise was the publishing of the 1944 document by the Educational

Policies Commission titled Education for All American Youth. In the publication the Commission proposed models for post-war secondary education that would follow along lines established prior to the war. A basic assumption was that the era following the war would regain much of the climate prevalent immediately prior to the war. The models were definitive in terms of the earlier 1938 Educational Policies Commission policy statements.

The Forty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (1945), as discussed in the Education as a Discipline theme, stressed many of the educational problems which evolved from World War II. One of these was the new groups of individuals which the schools would need to serve in the years ahead. A second problem dealt with new emphases in the curriculum. The latter problem was socially centered in that it involved mental health problems, conservation of natural resources, citizenship training, and work experiences.

It was at this point in time that Education as a Discipline appeared to follow the direction of developing emphases on the individual as a learner within the broader social context. The subject matter content was left unexamined. Educational stress was placed on methods of working with individuals specifically, and problem-solving generally. There was little direction given to problem-solving within a given disciplinary context and the contributing disciplines

were basically ignored as far as problem-solving was concerned. Problem-solving was viewed from a social utility standpoint, with content drawn from the press of daily affairs. Tyler did not foresee any fundamental changes in the postwar school programs of the sciences, mathematics, reading, language, literature, or other subjects. Revision of course content in these fields had been done prior to the War.

Taba, on the other hand, felt that the technological advances accompanying the War would have an effect on course content in mathematics and the sciences especially, and would ultimately effect other curricular areas. Taba was one of the first of the educators to proclaim the urgency of recognizing that learning took place within a subject matter framework based on the unique concepts and intellectual processes inherent in a given discipline. It was these basic concepts and intellectual processes that became the essentials of any subject area according to Taba.

The two positions evidenced by Tyler on the one hand and Taba on the other proved to be the opening of a continuing dialogue within the ranks of educators. It was a dialogue fundamental to the developing discipline of education. However, by ignoring the potential contributions of disciplines other than education, educators were unable to resolve the issue solely within their own group. In this respect they became extremely vulnerable to outside criticism.

With the cessation of hostilities educational

facilities, particularly colleges and universities, were severely taxed to absorb the influx of returning veterans. During the wartime period public schools had been left much to their own devices, and teachers were not compensated as well financially as were other occupations closely related to war production. A general aura of low esteem was directed toward public school teachers. Prestige was generally lacking according to Broudy in 1940, as described in Teaching as a Profession. By 1946 the National Education Association had launched a campaign to improve teacher welfare including salaries, tenure and pensions. The growth of Teaching as a Profession was slowly taking place. Furthermore, certification standards were attacked by the NEA and to elevate certification requirements the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional standards was formed in 1946. This was preceded by an emergency conference, attended by lay leaders and professional educators, held at Chautauqua, New York in the summer of 1946. The total concern at this time was to raise the status of teaching and thus to attempt to attract additional competent individuals into the profession to improve the quality of education in general. The teacher shortage immediately following the war was a grave concern. As an indication of the financial aspect of teaching, the TEPS Commission, in 1946-47, pressed for a minimum beginning salary of \$2,400 for bachelor's degree holding teachers. Even adjusted to the cost of living in 1946-47, this figure

was low in comparison to other non-professional vocations. Because of the severe shortages of teachers, a high proportion of emergency certificates was granted on a yearly basis. Only fifty per cent of all teachers held baccalaureate degrees in 1946.

The efforts undertaken by the TEPS Commission in publicizing the teacher shortage proved to have an effect, and by 1948 attention was being turned toward improving the quality of teacher education. A series of conferences was established to investigate pre-service teacher education; in-service teacher education, and an examination of criteria for evaluation of teacher education programs. The inauguration of the professional journal, The Journal of Teacher Education, in 1950 was an indication of the rapidly developing professional atmosphere surrounding teaching.

Underscoring the emphasis placed by TEPS on teacher preparation, Tyler writing in 1948 (and discussed in the Pursuit of Excellence theme) pointed out the weaknesses of the high school programs of that time. Included in this criticism were: too many short range objectives at the expense of long range objectives, the lack of operationally defined objectives, a lack of order of importance in objectives, insufficient planning on the part of teachers, the failure of learning experiences to carry students on to high-level performance and permanence in learning, and a general

failure to provide sequential development in learning.

During the same year the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development began experimenting with group process techniques at its annual conference (see Education as a Discipline). This initiation of a method was one that was to permeate much of later ASCD thought and direction. A similar emphasis was found in the Forty-ninth Yearbook (1950) of the National Society for the Study of Education as described in the Education as a Discipline theme. Thelen and Tyler called the movement the "comprehensive methodology of instruction." Both the process of learning and the process of group interaction were stressed. As a result, the concept of teaching became one of guiding learning behavior rather than that of overt instruction. From these emphases, the concept was derived that content meant the content of the experience not the content of the subject-matter. During the same period, as described in Teaching as a Profession, the 1950 TEPS Commission was advocating a minimum of four years of college preparation for all teachers, with the extension to five years as the requirement for the first certificate.

In the uneasy period from 1945 to 1950 there had developed within American society a need to maintain the peacetime pursuits of supplying goods and services to an expanding population. The development of atomic energy, with its inherent destructive potential, was emerging into

public consciousness. National security took on greater significance with the outbreak of the Korean Conflict in the early 1950's. In the Manpower Concept of Education theme the development of four programs aimed at utilizing human resources was discussed. The Conservation of Human Resources project at Columbia University initiated in 1950, was established to research the problem of human resources. This was followed within the next year by the formation of the National Council on Manpower. The Council established a series of meetings whereby policy statements for manpower were developed. Proclamations from both groups served as a stimulus to the public-at-large for increasing recognition of problems which were basically educational. Manpower and the crucial shortages developed during the early 1950's in a partial war-mobilization and civilian production setting, were general concerns. The importance given to the need for education for both talented individuals and potential non-skilled workers was plainly stated. As a result, the larger community became involved in attempts to improve the educational system. There was developing a general request for additional strengthening of subject matter content in public school instruction.

The two other programs related to use and development of human resources which emerged in the early 1950's were the establishing of the National Science Foundation by an Act of Congress in 1950, and the development of the Fund



for the Advancement of Education by the Ford Foundation in 1951. Both of these efforts were directly related to the educational enterprise. The National Science Foundation, discussed in both the Manpower Concept of Education and Pursuit of Excellence themes, was instrumental in providing grants of money which served to develop experimental programs aimed at up-dating content of subject matter and methods of teaching it. An additional outcome of the NSF effort resulted in developing in-service programs for teachers centering on the revised subject matter and materials. Most of the efforts were directed toward the physical, biological and medical sciences.

The Fund for the Advancement of Education, on the other hand, aimed its program at attempting to solve a wide range of public school problems. Teacher procurement was one of these. Better utilization of teacher time through a series of experimental means, including television and teachers' aids, was another approach developed by the Fund.

Evident in 1950 and 1951 was the immense amount of effort and money expended on problems of education. The sources of both effort and financial aid were diverse. The need for programs such as those developed by the National Science Foundation and the Fund for the Advancement of Education was predicated upon the threat to national security. A second source of motivation was an increasingly complex society. Despite concerns that the Korean Conflict would

set back the development of the teaching profession once again, efforts to upgrade the teaching profession had continued to show progress. The TEPS Commission reported that by 1952 seventy percent of all employed teachers were college graduates with baccalaureate or higher degrees in spite of a threefold increase in teachers since 1946. To further improve the preparation of teachers, the TEPS Commission initiated the movement for the establishing of the National Council for Accreditation in Teacher Education, ultimately organized in November, 1952.

Along with the attempts to upgrade public education in general during the 1950's, and out of increasing concerns devoted to public education, a welter of criticism from many sources developed. Criticisms of education, as such, were not investigated in this study, other than to recognize the existence of critics and their claims. Critics were referred to in the Teaching as a Profession theme and again in the Pursuit of Excellence theme. Both I. L. Kandel and Grayson Kirk assessed the criticisms as arising from hostility to rising school costs, ignorance of educational needs, increasing enrollments, a general failure on the part of schools to educate youth in the disciplines, and fear of subversive activity within the schools. Hollis Caswell generally supported the idea that criticisms grew from failures in standards of school achievements and inadequate methods.

The period of the early 1950's was a trying one for the emerging discipline of education. As educators attempted to define the knowledges unique to their discipline and the methods of inquiry suitable to the study of this discipline, there appeared to be an important emphasis on attempting to expand the connotation of curriculum. In the ensuing efforts to involve in the concept of curriculum the total range of school responsibilities, the distinction between curriculum and instruction became blurred. As discussed in the Education as a Discipline theme, Anderson gave the major emphasis of the Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education as being one of educational method. The method Anderson described was one of a process of directing and guiding learning rather than the mere imparting of information. The foundation for Education as a Discipline in its own right was strengthened here. However, the interpretation as to the rightful responsibilities of the school, or perhaps the highest priority of school responsibilities had not been clarified at that time. Mentioned earlier in this chapter was the idea that educators were beginning to engage in fruitful debate with colleagues in other disciplines in 1940 prior to the outbreak of World War II. It would appear that a decade later the 1940 conversation was being picked up once again.

As evidence of the concerns originating outside of

the discipline of education, those events described under the Manpower Concept of Education offered a significant contribution. Another source was the interdisciplinary effort in mathematics education initiated in 1950 at the University of Illinois, and discussed in the Pursuit of Excellence theme. It became evident here that the attempts to deal with educational problems, as discussed in the Manpower Concept of Education and the Pursuit of Excellence, by representatives from academic disciplines not normally involved in educational program development were the results of these disciplines assuming a greater share of the responsibility for education and teacher preparation. The initiation of these undertakings by other disciplines has been interpreted here as a tacit acceptance of responsibility previously ignored by other disciplines. It is interesting to note, as well, the tendency on the part of academic disciplines and non-educational agencies to develop programs of a different nature than those advocated by educators, and furthermore, that this tendency had initial beginnings as early as 1940. Interruption due to World War II seemed to merely postpone the activity for a decade. The 1950 and 1951 period was one of initiation of what was to become a rather large and complex set of programs designed to restructure significantly educational undertakings.

Discussed in the Manpower Concept of Education was the problem of severe shortages of scientifically and

technologically trained personnel, during the 1950-53 years of the Korean Conflict. The need to deploy individuals into the scientific and technological sphere of society laid heavy emphasis on a thorough-going academic training in the sciences. Furthermore, the emphasis for education at that time, made by sources outside of education, were on quality, not quantity only. The motivation for a particular kind of quality, which later came to be interpreted as higher academic standards and more pervasive course content, came from the larger community as a whole with the academically oriented agencies acting as spokesmen for the movement. Both the Manpower Concept of Education and the Pursuit of Excellence themes have examined this issue.

Boulding's commentary in 1953 (Manpower Concept of Education theme) attesting to the fact that society had many ends but no single well-defined end tended to reiterate the educator's concern for education for all. Tyler's views (Pursuit of Excellence) in 1952 lent support to the economist's position when he stressed that equality of educational opportunity was demanded, and this might well lead to differentiated educational programs to provide the equality of opportunity. During the same period, representatives from both the academic disciplines and education were citing the need for the academics and education to find a meeting ground to discuss the respective contributions each could make to the general improvement of public education. In the Pursuit of

Excellence theme Tyler was quoted as declaring that selection of subject matter content solely from current daily affairs was insufficient, rather the major concepts within the various subject matter fields and methods of attacking these concepts should be studied together. Problem solving was not viewed as separate from the content which provided sources of problems. Added to Tyler's interpretation were similar ones by Wegner, Punke, and Childs, who offered proposals for incorporating the psychological aspects of motivation and active participation of learners into the logical organization of subject matter fields. The above has been interpreted as further evidence of the growing need in the 1950's for educators and academicians to support one another. Furthermore this appeared to be the first major evidence of the attempt to reconcile the subject matter versus the learner debate that had been gradually widening the gap between educators and academicians.

The Pursuit of Excellence theme traced experimental curricular developments originating within the academic disciplines including the 1950 University of Illinois mathematics program, the 1955 College Entrance Examination Board Mathematics Committee which contributed to the development of the School Mathematics Study Group in 1958, and the several other science and mathematics experimental programs developed between 1958 and 1960. For the most part neither public school teachers nor professional educators were involved in

the initiation, or for that matter in the initial development, of these programs. Educational personnel became involved only as the packages were ready for testing and re-evaluation in on-going public school programs.

There were other focal points in the 1950's that contributed to the general search for improved quality in public education. One was the attention of the U. S. Commissioner of Education to developing foreign language teaching in elementary schools. Professor Bestor's resolution before the American Historical Association calling for upgraded course content and an Interdisciplinary Council to guide and direct the course of secondary school's curriculum was another. It appears that the American Historical Association acted prudently in phrasing an alternative resolution which, if an interdisciplinary council ever did materialize, would not exclude educators as Bestor had demanded. These have been discussed in the Pursuit of Excellence theme. The announcement in 1956 by the University of Illinois regarding the elimination of remedial English courses by 1960 also portended the approach to higher standards of achievement expected of high school graduates, particularly the college-bound students.

It is noteworthy that much of the work toward improving the quality of public education was underway prior to the period of national chagrin experienced with the launching of the Soviet Sputnik I in 1957. While specific

programs, such as SMSG, and the several experimental science projects emerged after 1957, Sputnik I was not the cause for the development of the programs. If anything, Sputnik I only served to provide easier access to public recognition of a direction already taken.

The decade of the 1950's, furthermore, was the one which saw the unheralded and unmourned passing of the Progressive Education Association in 1955. Progressive education as a movement had faded prior to the formal disbanding of the association which bore its name. Cremin's analysis of the rise and decline of progressive education was reviewed in the introductory chapter of this study.

By 1958, the communication between academic disciplinarians and educational disciplinarians and educational professionals turned to the improvement in quality of teacher preparation (Teaching as a Profession). While still facing a continued shortage of teachers, the academicians joined the educators in a series of regional TEPS conferences aimed at developing cooperative approaches to teacher preparation. The TEPS Commission reported the apparent willingness on the part of the academic disciplines to accept responsibility for teacher preparation. The "historic conference" of 1958, as reported by the New York Times, was further evidence of the pressing demands facing all disciplines in meeting educational problems of the newly developing era of space exploration. Education of American children and youth was

a task which involved all segments of society and was not a problem to be relegated to any one segment of that society.

The development of the National Education Association's Project on Instruction in 1961 has fitted educators with a new role of acting as coordinators for the emerging emphasis on subject matter content based upon parent disciplines.

Conclusions

Taken separately, any of the four themes developed throughout this study provides only a portion of the causation for the present concern for excellence in education. The four must be considered together to achieve a reasonable picture of the events of the past twenty years that have led to the particular emphases evident in the current educational scene.

The professionalism movement among teachers has achieved a measure of success. As teachers became more professional in the late 1950's the greater recognition accorded them in turn spread to the teachers' own heightened concerns for the content of the subject matter they were specified to teach. Greater understanding and respect for the public school teachers' role was accorded them by the academic disciplines and teachers became more inclined to join in programs established by the disciplines to improve the teacher's own knowledge and skills.

Educational standards have continued to reflect the value structure of the larger society. During the 1950's, the efforts of agencies outside the discipline of education and the teaching profession served as spokesman for the larger community. While educators had been basically concerned with quality education, they had been essentially unable to motivate the larger community to overt action toward this end until assisted by groups which promoted the need for education as it related to national security requirements.

Furthermore, this study emphasizes the fact that education is the general concern of the total society, not a given segment. The specific concerns of an element of society such as Education as a Discipline or Teaching as a Profession must continue to maintain contact with the other elements in society. In the years from 1920 to 1940 educators lost contact with the disciplines and the two paths diverged. Attempts to pull together these two divergent courses began by 1940, but the war situation postponed any significant resolution of differences. These attempts at reconciliation, with recognition of the pertinent contributions available from either academic disciplines or the discipline of education, were not reinstated until the early 1950's. Much of the confusion resulting in the 1950's was because of the fragments of debate and thought that were emerging a piece at a time. Only in retrospect can it be

seen that this was a developing position of mutual recognition and understanding on the part of the academicians and on the part of educators.

Growing from the mutual respect developing on the part of academic disciplines and the education discipline has come the recognized need for encouraging more than a single type of excellence, academic excellence. The problems of current society demand recognition of varied types of excellence not measured solely by academic standards. Educators have made a significant contribution in this respect.

The leadership of educational movements has not necessarily resided within the discipline of education nor within the profession of teaching. The error committed in the 1930's was that educators felt that leadership could reside solely within these two segments of society without considering the impact created on education by academic and research developments outside of education. Furthermore, the ascension to leadership positions in directing and implementing any democratic social movement is achieved only through respect granted the leaders by the society at large. This respect was not accorded educators or teachers during the period under consideration partly because of the low professional standards governing admission to the teaching profession, partly because the discipline of education was such a neophyte, and partly because the society at large did not overtly support educational undertakings despite

the voluminous lip service paid to education during the past.

The emphatic recognition of the need for national security following World War II served to focus attention on the elements of excellence lacking in American society. It has been concluded that these concerns were evident several years preceding Sputnik I. The launching of the rival satellite ahead of the American attempt to do likewise served only to solidify concerns for improved quality in American education.

Lastly, while it has been expressed in the chapter on the Pursuit of Excellence that educators have been concerned with excellence in education for all, it must be pointed out that educators tended to become involved with an emphasis on social process whereas the academic disciplines tended to emphasize the intellectual process inherent in the particular discipline. Educators, by following their emphasis, in the 1940's and 1950's, permitted subject matter content to become peripheral to their concerns. The divergence was a venture that became more and more serious. At the same time, the fact that academicians had for the most part abandoned any real concern with the public school programs permitted this group to drift away from what the discipline of education was developing concerning teaching methodology and educational psychology. As a consequence neither group was apprised of the contributions available

from the other group. The mutual recognition of this position has been one of the significant gains made in the past twenty years.

Implications for Education

Arising from the whole complex of interacting forces impinging upon formal education there develops a new role for professional educators. This has been brought to the foreground by the Project on Instruction. In a sense, professional educators have become the stabilizing center between the subject matter specialists and academic disciplinarians, and the practicing teachers in public schools. As a consequence the professional educator must become more knowledgeable than ever before in given academic disciplines per se, and also in educationally related disciplines of psychology and social psychology. It is at this juncture that educators can and must evidence leadership in that no other discipline can afford to focus its major attention on schooling as can education.

To develop and use wisely human resources in a complex world requires that educators and teachers must seek means of combining the contributions made available by agents outside the discipline of education with the concept of educational opportunity for all. This broad objective continues to be of the greatest importance.

As the discipline of education develops, it is

evident that sound educational theory must develop at the same time. The continued need for a balanced program for all learners remains a major task for educators and teachers. Such a balanced program must, of necessity, be based upon a theory of instruction as it relates to the act of learning and to the particular subject matter under study.

Growing out of the development of educational theory will come sophisticated means of testing the theory. Empirical research as well will be needed.

If educators are to attempt to act as the balance wheel in the cycle of events emerging as a result of the new academic knowledge and the new psychological and sociological findings, they must become experts in communication. This is evident in that the concepts that are to be communicated originate in diverse content areas. The problem of such communication is one that must be intellectually honest for the subject matter specialty and intellectually honest for the learner. This will result in developing not one method of instruction, but many methods, each of which is dependent upon the discipline supplying the content.

Furthermore, this will lead to an increasingly important revisionary cycle for both methods and content of instruction. Developing meaningful ways of accomplishing this without undue time lapse will remain a major responsibility for educators and teachers.

The Need for Additional Studies

Further studies of an analytical nature are needed in delineating the concern for education of the gifted and the undereducated. In addition, intensive studies are needed to analyze the effects of the several foundational enterprises that have flourished in this country with respect to education. An analysis of the role of the National Education Association as its several activities affect the general welfare and direction of the formal educational structure in this country is needed.

The current state of teaching as a profession as it relates to the growth of trade unionism in teaching is an area that should be investigated.

A Final Statement

The Pursuit of Excellence theme in American education during the past twenty-three years has originated from several sources. Concerns by teachers for greater prestige and improved status were coupled with concerns by educators for the distinction of claiming a discipline of education in that these two sets of concerns tended to ignore developments in the academic disciplines regarding the discovery of new knowledge which comprised the subject matter of content fields. The emergence of increased public attention directed at the wise use of human resources in an increasingly complex society which was faced with urgent national security needs

provided an opening for academicians to give assistance in developing subject matter content based upon the structure of the academic disciplines. This was one concept of the pursuit of excellence developed in this study. At the same time, the discipline of education had made major strides in the development of the concept that the process of learning was significantly important in attempting to keep pace with rapidly increasing knowledge. Educators have recognized the factors of academic excellence, but they have also recognized that the development of excellence in creativity, moral commitment, human sensitivity, and others, are major concerns of the school. This study has, however, been limited to an examination of those particular factors which dealt with academic excellence.

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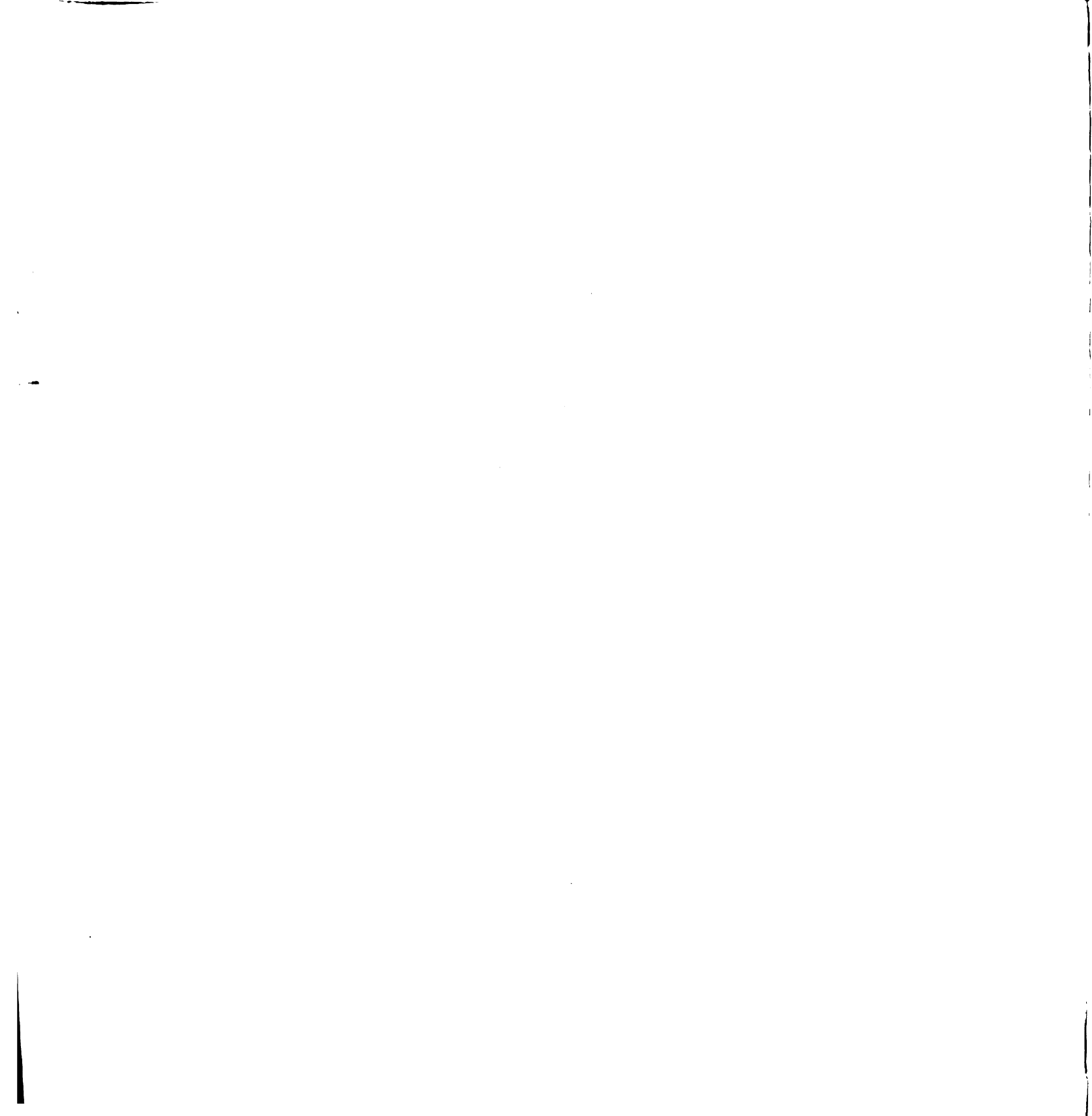
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