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Educational Considerations, vol. 1(2) Full Issue

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From The Editor's Viewpoint

the new seriousness: to what purpose?

To the perceptive educator, and even to those not so perceptive, it is clear that the nation has begun a serious in-depth reassessment of American public education. Of course, dissatisfaction with our schools has existed for years, but it has been most pointedly expressed by special interest groups—an elite of the concerned. The breadth of the current seriousness is what is new. As long as education was the preserve of an elite it was not the concern of the many. That has changed, and now everyone, regardless of calling, appears interested in educational reform, or at least the rhetoric of reform.

The mounting acrid criticism of public education and the basic assumptions underlying its practice have been both beneficial and injurious. They have been beneficial in that the problems confronting education have been redefined, the assumptions demythologized, and the need for assessment and planning confirmed; injurious in that the clamor for reform, accountability, frugality, and efficiency often disguised a rather crude attempt to make public education into something it was not intended to be, that is, a super-efficient vehicle for vast and far-reaching social change. Educators and critics who claim that public education must be all things to all people do everyone a great disservice.

In purely quantitative terms, American public educators are attempting at the present time a vastly more ambitious and complex undertaking than ever before. The schools increasingly are being called on to assume social responsibilities that cannot, as so many would have us believe, be dealt with by other agencies in our society. An undertaking so boundless is certain to be both inefficient and lacking in human effectiveness. Pressures for consolidation of educational effort to achieve efficiency and facilitate accountability too often operate to submerge human values.

Traditionally, Americans have been apathetically or actively willing to accept a certain degree of operational inefficiency rather than completely crush out diversity—considered a major strength in American education—or end local control—viewed as a shield against ruthless centralized domination. Now, however, we see inefficiency—and human ineffectiveness—increased by polarization of educators into self-centered power groups, however justified by an exploitative society. We see continuing attempts to repress and direct students rather than to involve them in joint educational responsibilities. A case could be made that our schools are often too efficient in the control of students and not efficient enough in the use of funds and personnel. When we speak of efficiency in education we should distinguish between the two.

The current excessive reliance of many educators on methods concerned with control, power, and efficiency, methods borrowed from the world of big business for the sake of more control, are, we suggest, the very determinants of the crisis in our classrooms. Not until growing numbers of us act to develop cooperative educational directions based on such positive values as acceptance of others without fear, encouragement to develop individual talents, and humanistic utilization of those talents for complementary accomplishment will we begin to resolve that crisis.

C. E. L.

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educational considerations

Volume 1, Number 2: Fall 1973

From The Editor's Viewpoint:
 The New Seriousness: To What Purpose? Inside Front Cover

Educational Consumership and Tomorrow's Schools
 John R. Dettre 2

An Invitation To Authors 6

Upgrading The Employment Scene In Chicago
 Gerald D. Bailey and LaVisa Wilson 7

Should Compulsory Education Laws Be Modified?
 Sister Antonita Diederich 10

Vietnam And Beyond: The Challenge To Educators
 Richard A. Brosio 13

An Environmental Language Approach For Increasing
 Behavior Of Retarded Children
 Mildred Odom, Rex R. Boatman, and Dale D. Baum 15

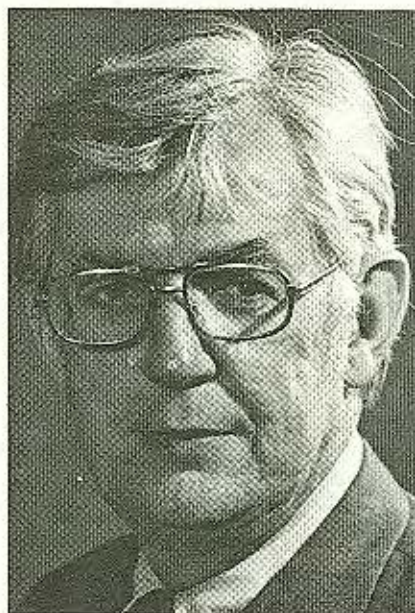
John Dewey On History In Elementary And
 Secondary Education George C. Stone 20

Donna Rudolph Joins Editorial Board Of
 Review Inside Back Cover

Unless those who hold that schools have value identify more effective ways of getting the best ideas into practice in the least wasteful time, the chances are that schools will not change at all, warns this thoughtful essayist. Every concerned educator, he suggests, must develop "the necessary skills and understandings to operate as a skilled consumer of proposed ideas for change in education." He offers practical guidelines.

educational consumership and tomorrow's schools

By John R. Dettre



Dr. Dettre is an associate professor of Educational Administration at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. He has also been a faculty member at North Texas State University, University of Kentucky, University of New Mexico and the SUNY (State University of New York) College at Buffalo, New York. Presently his work is focused on the development of practitioner-oriented programs for educators at graduate levels and the adaptation of basic constructs in Interpersonal Communications to the preparation of classroom teachers and administrators. His writings have appeared in a number of different educational journals, and he is the author of the book, *Decision Making in the Secondary School Classroom*, published by INTEXT. As both a program developer or producer from the college level and as a consumer of ideas while serving as a classroom teacher, principal, and superintendent, Dr. Dettre senses the real problems involved in translating the ideas from the one level into practical programs at the other level.

As we look ahead to developing "schools for tomorrow," we are confronted by a basic problem recently indicated by James Cass, Education Editor of the *Saturday Review/World* magazine, when he observed, "The creative involvement that goes into the development of new programs is seldom duplicated by those who would reproduce them."¹ Cass seems to suggest the existence of two different groups as well as two different tasks in the process of producing useful changes in education.

The purpose here is to identify and describe some of the activities in which those who would reproduce innovations must engage if the best innovations are to become meaningful parts of future programs. In essence, the focus of the thoughts that follow is on developing a kind of "educational consumership" in relation to proposed program innovations.

PRODUCERS AND CONSUMERS²

In order to deal with the notion of "educational consumership," one must be willing to give some credence to a number of basic propositions related to the current process of bringing about educational change:

1. The actual development of ideas for change in education usually takes place away from the location where the ideas will need to be adopted and implemented. That is, ideas are the end product of the efforts in regional labs, federally funded study commissions, college and university research, foundation-supported research, etc.
2. Those doing the initiating and structuring of proposed innovations are seldom a part of the formal system wherein the ideas must be implemented. Those engaged in development are directly associated with other agencies involved in other pursuits of an educational nature.
3. The net result is the emergence and coexistence of two distinct but different groups involved in the total process of bringing innovations into actual use in education:
 - a. A **producer** group seeking to generate ideas leading to formal proposals designed to assist those at the operational levels in education in the pursuit of their goals.
 - b. A **consumer** group in search of ideas they can adopt and implement that will improve their ability to fulfill the expectations placed upon them by the supporting society.

EDUCATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS, Vol. 1, No. 2, Fall 1973

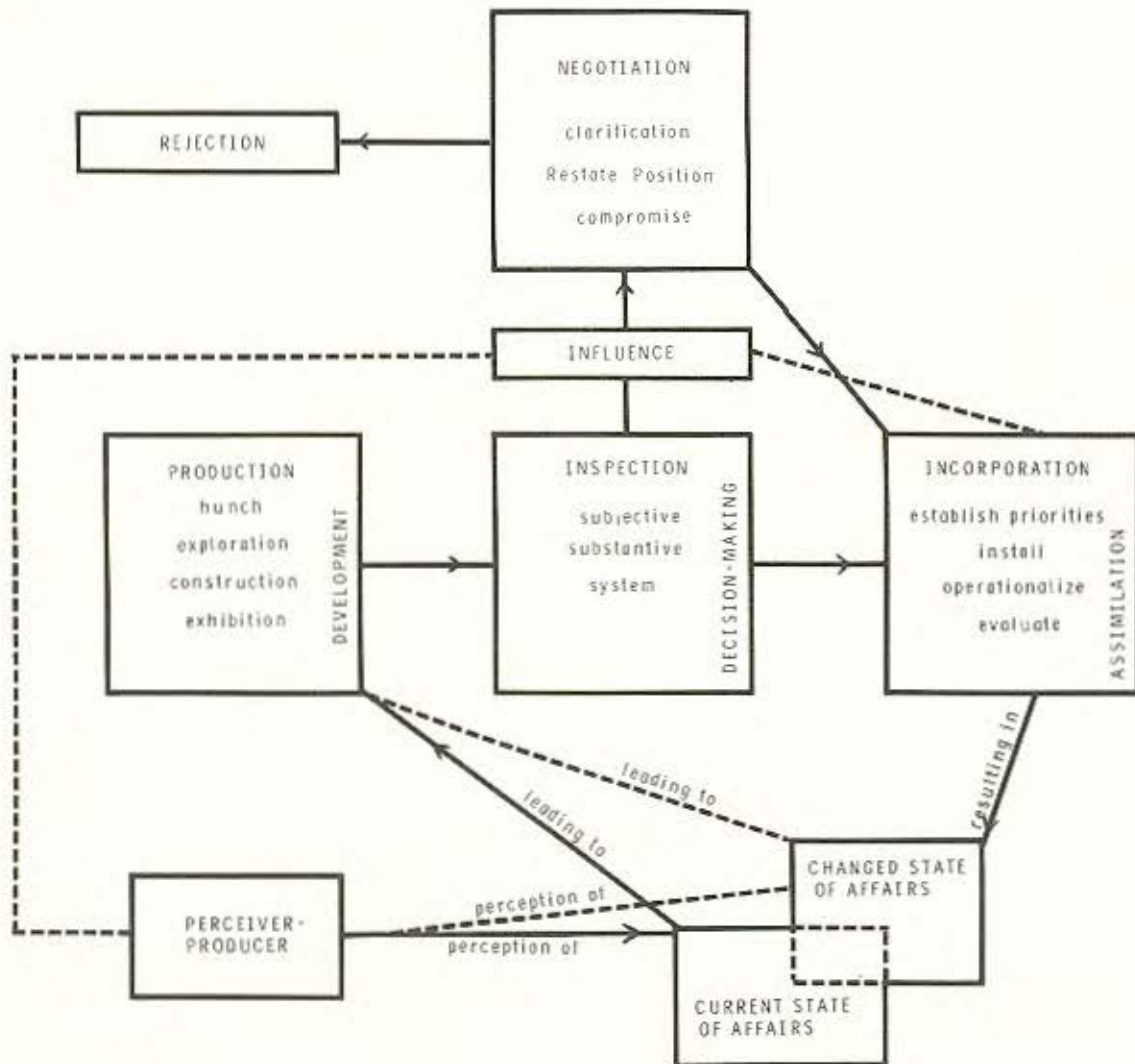
4. Given the existence of both groups within the total process of change in education and accepting their respective functions and accountability in relation to producing programmatic innovations, the responsibility and final accountability for success or failure of ideas falls squarely on the consumer group, for it is their ultimate decisions with relation to proposed innovations which will determine which innovations are selected for use in the schools.
5. Accepting the critical role and final accountability of the consumer group, it would seem to follow that more formal attention should be given to the development of skills and understanding needed by the consumers to insure that the most useful innovations are selected for inclusion in the on-going process of education at the operational level.
6. As such, the concern is with developing an improved "educational consumership" on the part of those being asked to select the "best" innovations from among numerous proposed innovations presented to them.

DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE CONSUMERSHIP

One way to locate properly the activities involved in the achievement of changes in education is to visualize a simple model based on a kind of production-consumption cycle. Such a model is shown below.

As a process, the model suggests that change involves a series of steps or stages:

1. Someone perceives a discrepancy in some educational state of affairs presently in existence. (The discrepancy is identified as such because of a real or assumed difference between what one expects to be happening and what one believes is happening.)
2. The perceiver translates the discrepancy into a basis for developing some kind of response through a production process involving exploration and construction activities.
3. Having constructed and advertised the proposed idea, those who are asked to include it in their program go through a process of inspecting the proposal (including



Model of a production-consumption cycle

possibly negotiations with the producer) which will lead to a decision to accept the original proposal, to accept a modified version of it, or to reject it.

4. Given a decision to accept the original proposal or a modified version of the original, those needing to make the proposal operational are faced with the necessity of properly incorporating the innovation into their total program so as to maximize its potential without detracting from the productivity of other parts of the program already in operation.
5. The end result is a changed state of affairs wherein the original condition or activity is altered, modified, or even deleted with an acceptable substitution made.

In moving toward improved "educational consumership," the primary focus is on understanding those steps and stages involved in thoroughly inspecting a proposed change because the quality of the decision made will be directly proportional to the quality of the inspection made. And, while improved "consumership" is dependent on a better understanding of other parts of the change process, i.e., an understanding of what the producer group does in developing innovations that will be proposed to the consumers, the attention here will be restricted solely to the efforts of the consumers in inspecting proposed innovations.

The Consumer At Work

The work of the consumer begins when a proposed change is brought to his/her attention. For example, an idea proposed in a journal, a paper read at a meeting, a speech given in a workshop, a demonstration, or the presentation of an idea through the various printed media such as pamphlets, brochures, and circulars may serve to make the consumer aware of the existence of an idea. Assuming the medium used for dissemination has done its job—people are positively attracted toward an idea—it then becomes necessary for those considering the idea to inspect it.

In inspection, a consumer should plan to engage in three distinct phases and should understand that they occur in sequence. Inspection first involves a subjective consideration of the idea. This phase is followed by a form of substantive inspection. The final phase deals with situational factors. The consumer should understand that the inspection will not occur in isolation but will take place while varying kinds and degrees of influence are exerted. Some forms of influence will emanate from the task environment while others will come from the interpersonal environment that surrounds the inspector. For example, time available to give an idea serious consideration manifests itself as a kind of pressure, hence influence, as a part of the task environment. Or, in the case of the interpersonal environment, the congruence or lack of similarity of basic values among those individuals considering the proposal will serve as positive or negative kinds of influence. The consumer should be prepared to accept the presence of varying kinds of influence but should not permit them to become disruptive. Part of the potentially disruptive aspects of influence can be controlled by the kind of procedures and policies established for conducting the inspection of a proposal.

Subjective Inspection. Each of us responds to a proposal using self as a starting point. Such responses are wholly subjective, but they do occur and they occur first before we respond either to the substance of the proposal or the situation it affects. The following represent a kind of core of subjectivity that guide the first steps taken in inspecting a proposed innovation:

1. Affectivity, or the value systems, attitudes, beliefs, and opinions held by the inspector at the time he or she first encounters the proposal.
2. The experiences each inspecting individual has had with similar innovations in the past. (Bad experiences will produce negative feelings while good experiences will produce positive feelings.)
3. The level of skill development the inspector possesses in relation to the demands perceived in the innovation. (Unfortunately, the advanced publicity for an innovation may rely too heavily on sloganeering or "catch words" which belie the level of skill really needed by a consumer.)
4. The image the consumer has of the producer of the proposal.
5. The consumer's state of being at the time he first encounters the proposal.
6. The timing involved in terms of when the consumer first comes in contact with the proposal.
7. The setting or place wherein the consumer makes the initial contact with the innovation.
8. The complexity perceived in the innovation by the consumer. (In education, it is almost an axiom that the higher the degree of perceived complexity, hence perceived demands on the consumer, the lower the rate and number of approvals.)
9. The nature and quality of the information provided for the potential consumer at the time of initial contact. (Another axiom suggests that the more voluminous and the more abstract the quantity of information presented in support of a proposed innovation the lower the rate and number of adoptions.)

The consumer should realize that an initial response that is subjective is quite normal and, if understood for what it is, may promote a more objective inspection of a proposal in the next two phases. Conversely, an unwillingness to admit that one does engage in subjective treatments of proposals first tends to result in the creation of artificial rationales for dealing with a proposal and may generate all kinds of hidden agenda that serve to keep consumers from openly assessing proposals in terms of their stated substance, form, and direction.

Substantive Inspection. In conducting the substantive inspection of a proposal, the consumer should plan to engage in two different but related activities:

1. Examination:
 - a. The consumer should examine thoroughly the language used to define, delimit, and describe the proposal.

- b. The consumer should examine the general as well as the specific objectives indicated for the proposal.
 - c. The consumer should examine the precise nature of the data used to provide the rationale for the proposal.
 - d. The consumer should analyze and understand the nature of the process and steps provided for converting from the present state of affairs to the new position.
2. Estimation:
- a. The consumer must develop an overall estimate of the accuracy of the information presented.
 - b. The consumer must determine the real level of intelligence and skill required to deal fully with the proposal.
 - c. The consumer must be able to develop a preliminary estimate of the real potential of the proposal, given his or her set of circumstances.
 - d. The consumer must determine the relative kinds of certainty-uncertainty (risks) confronting those attempting to incorporate the proposal.

A proposal must be met head-on and it is the consumer's responsibility to insure that a proposal addresses itself to a number of things: (a) objectives, (b) verifiable data, (c) understandable language, (d) descriptions of steps to be taken in converting from the existing state of affairs to the substance of the proposal, (e) the risks involved, and (f) definitive descriptions of real skills and understandings required of those who would implement the proposal. All of this clearly implies that consumers cannot possibly hope to make a substantive inspection of a proposal in one or two short meetings after school, and the foregoing should serve to suggest that without the basic knowledge and skills implied in (a) through (f) above, there will not be a meaningful inspection of a proposal.

One final note on conducting the substantive inspection. While items (a) through (f) above should be provided for by the producers of proposals, the fact remains that some producers do not regard all of these areas as their responsibility. It behooves the consumer, therefore, to establish criteria for making such a thorough substantive inspection and to insist that the producer supply the necessary information. It is of little or no consolation to consumers to blame producers for omissions after a proposal has been approved and starts malfunctioning because of the omissions. After all, the supporting society does not hold the producer accountable in any direct sense. It is the consumer who must answer the question of why the omissions were not identified and corrected before final approval was given.

Situational Inspection. It is possible that in some cases the inspection may not proceed beyond a substantive inspection. A proposal, for example, may be judged as unacceptable because the goals are unclear or the processes to be employed are not identified so those implementing the proposal know what is needed in terms of training or experience. But if a proposal passes the first two phases, there still is a need for the consumer to look at a proposal from a situational point of

view. Reference here is to such things as the proposal in relation to:

- a. the actual numbers within the program that will be affected by the change;
- b. the space available to accommodate the proposed change as compared with the space required;
- c. the amount of money involved (initial investment in a proposal as well as costs to maintain the change) when comparing the proposed change and its costs with the costs for the continued operation of the present state of affairs; and/or
- d. the needed degree of interest or readiness required to make a proposed program operational as compared with the known state of interest and readiness present in the total body of involved consumers.

Each consumer finds himself/herself in a given setting. That setting will dictate certain kinds of reality that cannot be overlooked. There is only so much money and there are only so many people with so much training and experience in a given educational setting. There is a physical plant with only so much space arranged in certain, and often inflexible, ways that cannot be changed regardless of how exciting a proposal may seem. There are established laws and policies, rules and regulations, and not even the most ardent supporter of a proposal can ignore such reality in spite of subjective and substantive support for a proposed innovation.

Negotiating Changes In An Original Proposal

Seldom are proposals adopted as originally presented. Historically, some notable exceptions have occurred, as in the case of the proposals presented by Conant in and for secondary education in the previous decade. But usually the final form of an adopted proposal will vary from the original proposal and will reflect the use of a process of negotiations between producers and consumers. The consumer should understand that he/she has the right to seek an innovation that serves his/her purposes. The process of securing what is needed guarantees the consumer the right to seek, and obtain,

1. Additional details.
2. Redesigned relationships involving either internal or external criteria as applied.
3. Redesigned components in terms of either internal or external criteria.
4. Changes in symbolization if matters of communication are involved.
5. Statistical and graphical representations of any portion of a proposal where such data will improve understanding.
6. A precise accounting of the initiation and development of the proposal, including names, dates, places, amounts of money, etc.
7. Additional justification for the adoption of the proposal.
8. Descriptions of alternatives available in moving from the point of inception through to final implementation of the

proposal, including a "scenario" by the producer if the consumer feels such an accompanying document will help.

The producer, of course, is not obligated to make a proposal available indefinitely and can withdraw a proposed innovation whenever desired. But if the goal is to produce change for the betterment of programs in education, then the chances of adopting useful ideas seem infinitely better if consumers know both that compromise is possible and how to negotiate changes.

CONCLUSION

The ideas being proposed³ and the scenarios being written for tomorrow's schools (e.g., Frymier, "Schools for Tomorrow;"⁴ Hack, et al, *Educational Futurism: 1985*⁵) all seem exciting and worthy of consideration. And, left to their own devices, producers might carry the day, as it were, if they were able to dictate the innovations needed. However, the realities of educational change and programmatic innovations clearly point to the presence of an educational market place currently controlled by the consumers. Therefore, in the last analysis, it is the skills in analysis and selection of ideas possessed by the consumers that will determine tomorrow's programs.

Given current realities of the market place for educational ideas, one can either work to improve the level of skills in "consumership" on the part of educators or seek to change the nature of the educational marketplace and its handling of innovations. Of the two, the former seems more consistent with other efforts to upgrade the overall quality of practice in education.

Of course, there is still another alternative: allow matters to continue as they are. At least such an alternative has one redeeming feature in terms of solving the problems related to tomorrow's schools: There won't be any such schools as we might wish to know them. In their place we will get whatever the outcome of the confrontations between the educational reactionaries and the reformers dictate, that is, something that results from a kind of holy war between those wanting to get back to the "good old days" of highly structured education and those who wish to eliminate schools as we have known them and turn all the youth out to some kind of free school that apparently thrives on no structure at all. The only bulwark against both is an informed body of practitioners who know how to make changes in a planned and deliberate kind of way. Implicit in this approach will be the possession of the necessary skills and understandings to operate as a skilled consumer of proposed ideas for positive change in education.

FOOTNOTES

1. James Cass, "Teachers and Change," *Saturday Review/World*, vol. 1 (November 6, 1973), p. 53.

2. Ross Mooney, in *Research for Curriculum Improvement: 1957 Yearbook*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1957. (See Chapter Seven for detailed descriptions of tasks and functions of producers and consumers.)

3. Including those inherent in such works as Lewis Mumford's *Art and Technics* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1952).

4. Jack R. Frymier, "Schools for Tomorrow." Unpublished paper. Reproduction of original draft.

5. Walter G. Hack, editor, *Educational Futurism: 1985*. Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1971.

an invitation to authors

A near-future issue of **Educational Considerations** will include articles pertinent to the theme of "How Colleges of Education and Their Alumni Can Help Each Other." Authors are invited to submit manuscripts on aspects of this topic by April 1, 1974. For length and other specifications, please refer to "Publication Information" on page one of this issue.

Appalled at the degree to which employment interviews at the annual AACTE convention too often seem cold, aloof, and negative, educators Bailey and Wilson offer suggestions to help rehumanize the process.

upgrading the employment scene in Chicago

By Gerald D. Bailey and LaVisa Wilson



Gerald D. Bailey



LaVisa Wilson

Dr. Bailey, an assistant professor of Curriculum and Instruction at Kansas State University since 1972, is particularly interested and active in competency/performance-based education, inquiry behaviors and techniques, and teacher-student interactions. He earned his bachelors, masters, and Ed.D. degrees at the University of Nebraska at Lincoln. Since 1966 he also has taught in two Lincoln secondary schools, co-directed a Nebraska TTT inservice staff development project for University of Nebraska staff members, been coordinator for a University of Nebraska-Midwestern Regional Education Laboratory inservice staff development project for Lincoln public schools, and been consultant and instructor for the Kansas State University Teacher Corps project.

Dr. Wilson, an assistant professor of Curriculum and Instruction at Kansas State University, is particularly interested in early childhood education and elementary remedial reading programs. She taught extensively in these areas, including kindergarten, first grade, and day care centers in Nebraska, Maryland, and South Dakota from 1959 to 1967, when she joined Dakota State College, Madison, South Dakota, as an instructor in elementary education. In 1971 she entered the University of Iowa, earning her Ph.D. there in 1972. She is a member of the Manhattan (Kansas) Day Care Center Board of Directors.

EDUCATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS, Vol. 1, No. 2, Fall 1973

The annual trek to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) meeting has become as ritualistic as the holy pilgrimage to Mecca for those seeking employment as well as those seeking employees in higher education. Thousands of prospective employees, recruiting officials, and placement officers throng to Chicago in order to facilitate the "matching process" of candidate with institution. Job market glut¹ and curtailed institutional operating budgets² have made employment procedures increasingly difficult for both prospective employee and employer. As a result, the degree of human anxiety and frustration have skyrocketed to almost intolerable heights during the last two years. The gravity of the situation is reflected in a lamentable comment heard from almost all graduate candidates returning from the AACTE meeting: "That damn experience was totally dehumanizing in nature."

The present complex placement process in Chicago portends no easy solutions for either the graduate candidates or hiring institutions in the future. While a majority of educators feel that the placement process at the annual AACTE meeting is crucial in making initial employer-employee contacts, they also sense an urgency to assess the existing structure to improve conditions for those who are to follow. In an attempt to enhance more efficient and less dehumanizing placement procedures at the annual meeting of AACTE in Chicago, we feel that graduate candidates, hiring institutions, and placement officers need to address themselves to at least four major items of concern:

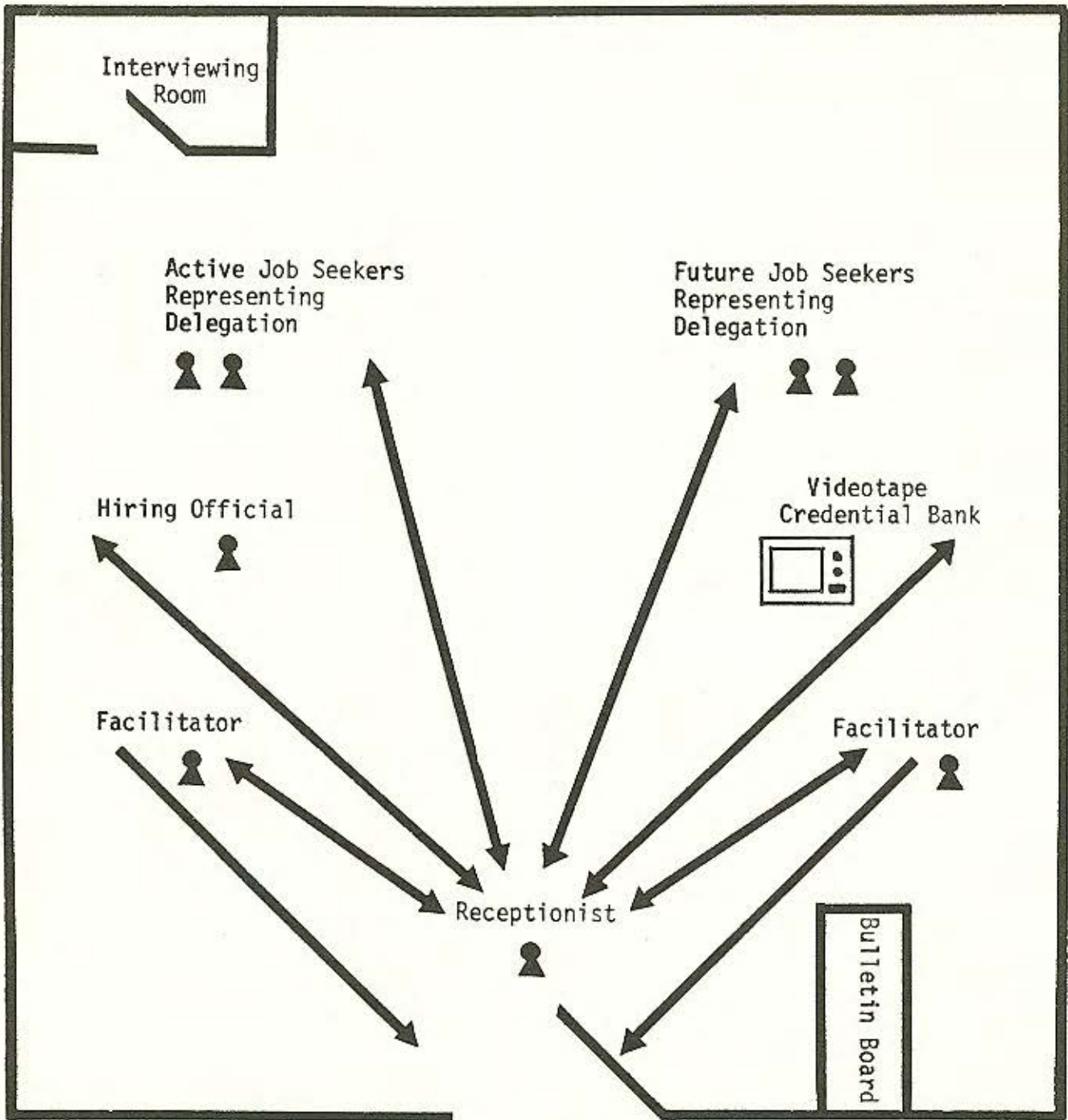
1. Delineating the goals of the local placement service.
2. Organizing local delegations into mutually helpful groups.
3. Organizing the university suite into an effective environment for employer and prospective employee (both from the university and to the university).
4. Humanizing the selection process.

Delineating the Goals of the Local Placement Service

One of the major reasons for prospective employee "cultural shock" is a wide lack of knowledge concerning the total recruiting process and placement services provided by AACTE and ASCUS (Association for School, College, and University Staffing). Information concerning placement procedures needs to be disseminated to the graduate candidates or prospective employees well in advance of the annual meeting.

An orientation session for all graduate students planning to attend the AACTE meeting would be extremely helpful. The local placement service may choose to present specially prepared slide/tape information concerning the conference and/or hold a series of discussions dealing with the upcoming event. Written or verbalized information should

include the following points: (1) How the AACTE meeting works, (2) Purpose and services of ASCUS, (3) Exemplar letters of application necessary for obtaining interviews at AACTE, (4) Procedure of operation in the local delegation's suite and possible procedures being utilized in other delegation suites, (5) Suggestions for interviewing, viewing videotaped in-



Possible suite arrangement for a Differentiated Delegation. (See page 9.)

interviews, participating in videotaped interviews, and (6) General suggestions.

It is extremely important for local placement officials to inform graduate candidates of the various hiring procedures used by participating universities. Some college deans do all the hiring out of their breast pockets, while many department heads have complete control of hiring their own personnel. Yet another mode of operation involves a few college representatives collecting vitae and conducting interviews which are then submitted to a faculty advisory selection committee.

Graduate candidates also need to be cautioned about their sense of urgency in obtaining a position at the meeting or immediately thereafter. Certain institutions and hiring officials do not share this urgency. Since the annual AACTE meeting occurs in February, there are many special conferences upcoming in the spring. Rather than commit themselves to a candidate, some hiring officials hold the position open as they await budget commitments or continue to seek the "perfect choice."

Graduate candidates need to be admonished that effective placement practices would be greatly enhanced if they apply **only** for those positions for which they are most qualified. An increasingly common practice among graduate students is to make as many applications and appointments as there are openings. This "shotgun approach" causes hiring officials to expend considerable effort and time in sorting out those candidates whose qualifications are not suited or matched to the job opening description.

Organizing Local Delegations Into Mutually Helpful Groups

Much of the awkward behavior exhibited by attending delegations is due to the limited personal relationships existing among faculty and graduate candidates. Opportunities for getting acquainted prior to the AACTE meeting would be tremendously beneficial. Faculty members attending the AACTE meeting should be well acquainted with each graduate candidate's needs and interests. Faculty familiarity with the graduate candidate's capabilities would make that person's endorsement much more genuine during the placement activities. Only when the local delegation is aware of the positions sought by its own graduate candidates and faculty openings available in their own university can there be proper functioning of the delegation at the meeting.

A number of universities sponsor a special breakfast, dinner, or conversation hour as a rallying point for candidates, faculty, and alumni. Such meetings should be held at the earliest possible date during the convention. A planned program introducing candidates with special emphasis on their qualifications should be made and a concerted effort should be made to enlist alumni with the responsibility of helping place those candidates seeking employment.

Organizing the University Suite Into an Effective Environment for Employer and Prospective Employee (Both from the University and to the University)

A fundamental suggestion for every school represented at the AACTE meeting is to organize its delegation on a Dif-

ferentiated Staff basis. Job seekers coming into the suite as well as job seekers operating out of the suite are cognizant of the organizational problems within the delegations. For purposes of examining a possible method of organizing staff responsibilities, let us identify the team members by the following titles: (1) Receptionist, (2) Facilitators, (3) Hiring Official, and (4) Videotape Credential Bank Specialist. Other possible representatives could be identified as follows: (1) Active Candidates Seeking Positions and (2) Future Candidates Attending the AACTE Meeting for Experience.

The diagram on page 8 shows how a team could be differentiated in an attempt to become more effective. The receptionist could act as a coordinator for the entire team. Basic assignments would include assisting visitors, assigning appointments, giving directions, answering procedural questions, and disseminating incoming and outgoing messages. An efficient system of message dissemination is essential if administrators' and candidates' needs are to be best served. Facilitators could greet the visitor and acquaint the individual with the operating procedures within the suite. The facilitator's duties would also include introducing other delegation representatives and the institution's hiring officials.

The videotape credential bank is a multi-purpose and **optional** feature that delegations could employ at the AACTE meeting. This service could be operated by a Specialist and utilized by job seekers to show pre-recorded interviews or selected episodes which demonstrate certain professional competencies. The makeshift viewing area could be used by both candidates seeking employment with the institution and those active job seekers operating out of the delegation suite.

An important feature of the delegation suite is the bulletin board. The bulletin board, which should have a prominent position in the room, might display a comprehensive listing of available candidates. Other individual flyers with vita information could be made available for interested persons upon request. For any of the universities not committed to secrecy, a listing of the university's job openings could also be shown on the bulletin board.

Future job seekers representing the delegation could perform a variety of tasks for the Differentiated AACTE-Delegation as well as familiarize themselves with the total placement process. One of the principal tasks of these delegation members would be actively to seek new and creative ideas from other delegates and suites. This information could then be relayed to their own institutions and to college placement officials of AACTE-ASCUS. These persons could also function quite effectively in helping those active job seekers by conveying messages concerning possible job openings and other announcements relative to placement procedures at the AACTE meeting.

Humanizing the Placement Process

No set rules presently exist which would instantaneously solve the problems with the placement procedures in Chicago. At the present time, however, far too many job seekers see the placement experience as cold, aloof, and a

(continued on page 12)

Laws requiring school attendance "should be modified to include funding and sanction for programs geared to meet individual needs and cultural differences," this teacher contends. The goal is to have students stay in school not because they have to, but because they want to.

should compulsory education laws be modified?

By Sister Antonita Diederich, O.S.F.



Sister Antonita Diederich has taught high school mathematics and chemistry for the past 28 years, mostly in Ohio and Chicago and, since 1966, in Central Catholic High School, West Point, Nebraska, where she heads the science department. She is currently co-president of the Northeast Nebraska Academy of Science, a member of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, and a Shell Merit Fellow from Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. She is a member of the Franciscan Sisters of Christian Charity (O.S.F.) at Manitowoc, Wisconsin, and holds a B.A. from Silver Lake College in that community. She also has taught summer mathematics courses at Silver Lake. Sister Antonita holds an M.A. from Catholic University of America, and has done advanced study in mathematics at Cornell and DePaul Universities, in chemistry at Illinois Institute of Technology, Chicago, and in engineering and architecture at the University of Notre Dame. At present she is also participating in a four-summer, sequential, National Science Foundation-funded mathematics program at Marquette University.

Is there really a need for compulsory school attendance in the United States? Two legal decisions over a period of 71 years demonstrate development of opinion regarding compulsory education. An Indiana Supreme Court decision of 1901 upheld the right of the government to demand that children be educated. "No parent can be said to have the right to deprive his child of the advantages... of the enlightened and comprehensive system of education enjoined by the constitution of this state."¹ But a United States Supreme Court decision in 1972 is less strong in its defense of compulsory education. "However strong the states' interest in universal compulsory education, it is by no means absolute in the exclusion or subordination of all other interests."²

Who has the right—the state, the parents, or the child himself—to decide upon the schooling of the individual? In 1972, the Amish in the state of Wisconsin refused to send their children to public schools beyond the eighth grade because of their religious beliefs. They were brought to trial, charged with violating the state's compulsory attendance law. In finally deciding the case on appeal, the U.S. Supreme Court specifically exempted the Amish from the law's requirement with regard to secondary school attendance because of the guarantees of religious freedom provided by the First Amendment to the Constitution. However, the court's decision specifically made clear that it was not abolishing compulsory education laws.³

If exemptions were made for the Amish, cannot a case be made for exemptions on other grounds? Compulsory schooling has been with us so long that there is a possibility that it has lost its "raison d'être." Perhaps it is even defeating its original purpose. Perhaps the laws should be altered to accommodate social change and growth. Compulsory education laws were adopted at a time when immigrants, coming in large groups to America, had to learn the language, the culture, and the democratic processes of the country of which they were to become citizens. It was also necessary to protect children from the evils of child labor abuses. Although the initial reason for the law has now become relatively nonexistent, our nation has fought to guarantee educational opportunity on the ground that it is essential to good citizenship and, most would agree, correctly or not, to the pursuit of a happy life. "The theory behind all of this is that more education is not only for the good of the individual but also for society. A whole host of social ills can be cured by a strong dose of education. . . . A high school education is no longer sufficient. . . . Everybody is urged to go on to college."⁴

But does this theory endure under present social conditions? Has something changed to bring about conditions under which education is no longer considered to be a privilege, such as spurred Abraham Lincoln to devote his nights to teaching himself to read so that he might assimilate the wisdom contained in books? Why is it necessary now to state that students cannot legally withdraw from school until they reach the age of 16? Why is it that teachers find it impossible to get some children to attend school? In New York alone "the daily number of absentees from academic high schools alone has increased from 44,807 in 1966 to 66,422 in 1972. This means that on an average day, 85 attendance teachers are deployed to bring over 66,000 high school kids to school."⁵ As a result, some truants go unnoticed, are ignored, or are handled superficially. In reality, one could say that in many cases the compulsory attendance law is virtually unenforced. Moreover, the disciplinary action for truancy is often suspension! As a result, many youngsters drop out of school; indeed, probably "a large proportion of the dropouts may be doing what is best for themselves under the atrocious circumstances that exist."⁶

What are these "atrocious circumstances"? They are the circumstances behind the innovations and new trends with which education is being swamped. Perhaps the most outstanding criticisms with regard to the "atrocious circumstances" are: irrelevance and the consequent lack of motivation. The most publicized irrelevance is the educational system's treatment of the educational needs of children of the urban ghetto, usually considered to be black children. Schooling which is largely the product of white middle class standards is in no way relevant to the ghetto child. In most cases, he cannot function or succeed. Often he cannot get his mind off his home conditions long enough to concentrate on the work at hand.⁷

Ivan Illich claims that we portray education as a promise of salvation for the black poor.⁸ What follows is that we either fail to educate them or we succeed; if the latter, too often they are denied jobs when they enter the working world. We break our "promise," so to speak. Who will help the ghetto children? The junkies on the street will make victims of them if a relevant school system fails to help them. A relevant school system cannot guarantee ghetto children employment, but it can help prepare them for employers' expectations. It can also help them learn to cope with life outside the ghetto.

But the black ghetto is only one area where "atrocious circumstances" exist. Many Spanish-American children with special problems will be denied entrance to the mainstream of American life if their educational needs continue to receive scant attention from a system geared to their middle class neighbors. Also, the recent Indian studies, in the opinion of Donald Warren of the University of Illinois, confirms that these "first Americans" are receiving educational experiences in reservation schools, boarding schools, or urban public schools (Chicago, for example, has a concentration of 16,000 urban Indians) which constitute a national disgrace.⁹

The charge that too much of our educational system is irrelevant for minority groups is serious enough. But a sizable

number of white American students have given up on the schools, too, and rightly or otherwise are vocal in their criticism of schooling as a process and as an institution. In a series of taped conversations with James Krohe, Jr., a graduate student at Sangamon State University, Springfield, Illinois, students of a small middle-class high school in a Midwestern town sarcastically described their school system and their instructors. "A friend of mine said that school made him feel unhuman, like he was a machine. I don't think that's right. You're not a machine; you're machine material. The school's the machine." (Robert, age 15.) "It's just a continuous program, like they planned it all out. They just harass you constantly. . ." (Susan, age 14).¹⁰ Even allowing for adolescent exaggeration, these criticisms seem to have some validity.

Perhaps these are some of the perversities in education leading to the swamping of education today with innovations, such as desegregation, decentralization, alternative schools, open classrooms, career education, schools without walls, Summerhill, Parkway, free schools, and the idea that teaching doesn't always mean that learning is taking place. A number of modern educators have written books proposing alternatives to the concept of universal compulsory education. Some of these books, such as Ivan Illich's *Deschooling Society*, Jonathan Kozol's *Free Schools*, John Bremer's *The School Without Walls*, "indicate an awareness of the perversity of the educational system."¹¹

However, there is also the opinion that compulsory education will not be abolished but that the laws with regard to it may be modified. Frances Caston quotes Luvern Cunningham, former Dean of the College of Education of The Ohio State University, who says, "I'm not sure the state should not protect kids from families where education is nonexistent and no motivation is provided."¹²

In various cities throughout the country, free schools are experimenting with non-compulsory attendance. One of these is Southeast Alternatives in Minneapolis, Minnesota. Tom O'Connell, a teacher in this educational program, says, "If compulsory education were abolished, programs would start adapting a little more. . . . Do you think the law actually keeps kids in school? I think it gets them to come to school once in a while, but doesn't guarantee them learning anything. Society has an obligation to teach them basic skills so they can cope and survive. . . . Schools have been breaking down because they haven't provided these basics to racial minorities. We should drop compulsory education; i.e., six hours a day in stone buildings. We should not drop commitments. We should appropriate funds to find new solutions."¹³

The National Education Association Task Force on Compulsory Education has suggested that compulsory education and compulsory attendance are not synonymous. It agreed that all Americans should be required to receive an education, but not necessarily during a 6-hour day and 180 days per year. It recommended a flexible school timetable and urged the adoption of amendments to laws to give schools the right to develop alternate programs.¹⁴ At present, state aid is allocated on the basis of an average daily attendance. If this were to be changed, if a school's income

were not to depend upon the physical presence of the student, educational flexibility should increase and programs relevant to the student or at least aesthetically and personally exciting could develop. As one example, a program such as this, funded by the State of Missouri to provide career, job, vocational, and training information on the streets of St. Louis to teenagers who were unable to find rewarding employment, was so successful during the summer of 1972 that its workers were employed by the school system during the regular school year to assist school counseling personnel.

The success of non-compulsory attendance alternatives such as the St. Louis experience are making an increasingly strong case that our required attendance education laws should be modified to include funding and sanction for programs geared to meet individual needs and cultural differences. If educational programs can succeed in meeting these needs and differences, many a now potential dropout probably will stay in his or her innovative school, will learn, will earn a diploma, and will become a productive member of our American society. Whether a "butcher, a baker or candle stick maker," he or she will then no longer be doomed to public welfare and to a life of alienation from the societal mainstream. His or her diploma can be a passport from an essentially non-productive to a productive community. With his or her diploma and—more importantly, with developed social and occupational skills—the student who now finds irrelevance and lack of motivation in schooling will be able to meet the set of demands for productivity that the technological system of business, industry, and bureaucratic rationality has developed. Coupling modifications of compulsory school attendance laws with innovative educational alternatives might yet help students effectively

achieve the ideal individual integration of freedom and responsibility educators have talked about for so many years. Dare we have enough faith in our older children, in ourselves, to work for the day when students will stay in school not because they have to, but because they want to?

FOOTNOTES

1. Frances Caston, "Will Compulsory Education Laws Be Abolished or Modified," *The Education Digest*, vol. XXXVIII (January 1973), p. 10. Condensed from *Scholastic Teacher*, Junior/Senior High Teacher's Edition (October 1972), pp. 20-24.
2. *Ibid.*, p. 10.
3. *State v. Yoder*, 182 N.W. 2d 539 (Wis. 1971) *aff'd* 40 U.S.L.W. 4476 (U.S. May 15, 1972).
4. Alton Harrison, "The Educational Suppression of Freedom," *Educational Forum*, vol. XXI (May 1967), p. 466.
5. Caston, *op. cit.*, p. 10.
6. Edgar Z. Friedenberg, *The Dignity of Youth and Other Atavism* (Boston: Beacon Press, 1965), p. 137.
7. Such is this educator's opinion.
8. Ivan Illich, *Deschooling Society* (New York: Harper and Row, 1970), p. 15.
9. Donald Warren's opinion is cited by James Krohe, Jr., "School Is Something You Put Up With," *Illinois Journal of Education*, vol. LXIII (September 1972), pages 29, 32.
10. James Krohe, Jr., "School Is Something You Put Up With," *Illinois Journal of Education*, vol. LXIII (September 1972), pp. 29, 32.
11. Peter H. Wagschal, "The Free Enterprise Teacher," *School and Society*, vol. XCVII (April 1969), p. 228.
12. Caston, *op. cit.*, p. 11.
13. Tom O'Connell, as quoted by Caston, *op. cit.*, p. 12.
14. Caston, *op. cit.*, p. 12.

upgrading the employment scene in Chicago

(continued from page 9)

negative approach to secure a position in higher education. In fact, some would contend that the procedures in Chicago are not too far removed from Flaubert's *Agriculture Show in Madame Bovary*, where animals are described in terms of people and people are described in terms of animals.

Much of the inhumanness may be attributed to lack of organization by the attending institutions, inappropriate expectations on the part of applicants, and, from a select few, an elitist condescendence to go through the motions of an interview. Our primary task is to recognize the complexity of the placement process in Chicago and that it revolves around human interaction. Human interaction at the AACTE meeting is a group problem that must be solved by those seeking employees and those seeking employment. Only by extending ourselves as courteous and concerned human beings can we hope to translate our truly humane character into a visible professional atmosphere.

The suggested steps of action for graduate candidates, hiring institutions, and placement officers have been engendered with the belief that the placement process can be a much more productive and satisfying experience for all people involved. In light of the pressing employment problems, however, additional cooperative efforts must be sought if we are to find viable solutions. The need for making placement procedures more systematic in order to insure well-adjusted and satisfied personnel in professorial ranks of higher education has never been greater than at the present time.

FOOTNOTES

1. Enrollment of graduate students should double by 1980. See Lewis B. Mayhew, *Graduate and Professional Education, 1980*. (New York: McGraw Hill, 1970).
2. See Earl F. Cheit, *The New Depression in Higher Education*, (New York: McGraw Hill, 1971).

"... Young people must be helped. . . systematically [to] build their own criteria of value; for otherwise we shall have a citizenry which is condemned to operate inside another's view of reality," says this concerned educator. He spells out the challenge to society and self.

Vietnam and beyond: the challenge to educators

By Richard A. Brosio



Dr. Brosio has been an assistant professor of Secondary Education at Ball State University since 1972, the year he was awarded his Ph.D. by the University of Michigan. He also holds a B.A. in History (1960) and an M.A. in Education (1962) from the University of Michigan. From 1962 to 1969 he taught in the social studies area at two San Diego, California, high schools. Dr. Brosio's responsibilities at Ball State are in participation and the social foundations, and he maintains a strong interest in the concept of—and quest for—community.

In the late nineteen fifties many Americans felt compelled to question some of their underlying assumptions because of the threat posed by the Soviet sputnik. A number of school systems became involved in frenzied activity during the aftermath of Soviet space success, ostensibly to catch up with the Russians in the fields of mathematics and science.

Since 1965 this nation has been involved in a war which has seriously undermined national unity and societal consensus. The fact that a peace treaty was signed in Paris does not affect the gist of what this writer thinks about the Indochina war and its impact on the educative process. It is curious that the Vietnam crisis has not caused a call for school reform: a call to action which is commensurate to the one which occurred in reaction to sputnik. It may well be that we have always known that it is possible to catch up in a quantifiable discipline like rocketry, but not in an area where an individual's values are in need of re-appraisal. Be that as it may, there are serious questions facing the public schools as a result of having been at war for over a decade. There is virtually no one in America who has not had to think through his/her underlying assumptions as a result of the conflict in Asia. This writer thinks that too few Americans were significantly aided by their school experience in attempting to re-evaluate underlying assumptions. One might argue that many school subjects are not intended to help students ask questions concerning values, but the social studies curriculum is ostensibly committed to such a task. Those persons who are responsible for the social studies and language arts curricula cannot act as though the war and consequential soul searching did not occur.

Seventy years ago John Dewey began teaching that we could solve problems rationally and wisely when the citizenry learned to use the experimental method within the social arena itself. According to Dewey, the absence of celestially mandated guidelines necessitated the development of a methodological, common language in order to make societal consensus possible in a democracy. It may be appropriate for educators to explore approaches which speak to Dewey's hopes. We need to develop an effective method which can be taught, and which enables us to deal with our most profound social differences. The public school is in trouble in this last third of the twentieth century, and it will continue to be in crisis until it honestly and intelligently addresses itself to the kind of questions which have been raised by the tragedy in Vietnam.

One of the most serious difficulties confronting Americans during the war years was the systematic attempt by the

executive branch of government to be the sole spokesman in defining foreign policy reality. Those who made the key war decisions took the responsibility for laying down the working models with which to interpret the events occurring in Vietnam. Dean Rusk and other men around Lyndon Johnson took great pains to explain didactically to the American people how the domino theory worked, or how China was using the North Vietnamese and Viet Cong as pawns, and how only those professionals in the State Department had the training to see these threats clearly. These working models or paradigms were predicated upon a simplistic, bi-polar, cold war assumption; still, those who did not subscribe to officially defined reality were questioned about their loyalty to America. The Nixon Administration has not differed significantly in its treatment of critics; in fact, its record is perhaps less good than Johnson's. But in order to be critical of the war it was, and is, necessary to establish one's own working model or paradigm. Once one subscribes to a particular paradigm or methodology, the person is making a value judgement in terms of what results are acceptable or desirable. War critics had to free themselves from the Eisenhower-Rusk definition of the domino theory in order to question effectively America's involvement in Indochina. The ability to posit the existence of alternative models for analytic purposes allows one to break out of the parochial bind of officially imposed paradigms. Did the public school experience of the nineteen sixties encourage students to think through alternative models?

Those who are responsible for the social studies and language arts curricula have a special responsibility for teaching the complex skills needed to analyze the assumptions of officially defined reality. Students must develop competency to subject arbitrarily imposed paradigms and official reality to critical analysis. It is beyond the scope of this statement to study the various methods which would be helpful in realizing the critical ability hoped for; clearly, though, there can be no substitute for the teacher being able to do real analysis so that students could see an adult himself being analytical and critical.

The teacher must provide a model so that students can experience a mature adult who thinks and acts through the many necessary steps involved in the solution of existential problems. One of the problems which has been exacerbated by the war is the use of governmental euphemisms for the description of events which most citizens cannot themselves witness. Those who have fashioned governmental policy in the war theater have systematically manipulated paradigms, concepts, and language usage so that official predicates have come to be the accepted definitions for certain subjects. It may well be the responsibility of teachers in the areas of social studies and the language arts to point out the subtle and multiplex nature of phenomena. In an age of constant media bombardment (often times by a government which is expert at the use of media) it is conceivable that language will become so distorted that it will be an ineffective tool in the historic search for precision, meaning, order, and truth.

There is a long tradition in the western world whose members have refused to acquiesce to a purely descriptive frame of reference, insisting that there must be normative

dimension as well. Teachers in the areas of social studies, language arts, and the humanities are surely familiar with this tradition. There has existed a great refusal to accept the purely descriptive **is** of an unjust status quo, and to refuse it in the name of what **ought** to be. Carl Becker has said of the eighteenth century French *philosophes* that they sought to establish an outside point of reference for themselves which was beyond the parameters of the contemporary status quo. When a particular episode of history is seen in broader perspective, and when one has one's own solid ground from which to evaluate specific happenings, then it is easier to realize that events could have occurred differently than the way they did emerge. Once a student or citizen realizes that history and society are constructs, created by particular men and women who wish to forward their own interests, it is less difficult to understand that not only **could** events have happened differently, but that in some cases they **should** have. The corollary learning experience of that realization may well be that an individual can become historically effective. One may even become convinced that personal and collective action can often influence the course of events.

This writer is convinced that the Vietnam tragedy poses serious challenges to our society and to the public school. The contemporary challenge will not be as easily met as the sputnik crisis of the nineteen fifties. The war experience has clearly shown the need for persons who can get out beyond the latitudes of official, governmentally defined reality so that they can question the very basis of a system with which they disagree. We live in a time when young people must be helped so that they can systematically build their own criteria of values, for otherwise we shall have a citizenry which is condemned to operate inside another's view of reality.

America's difficulty with regard to clearly articulating and facing the issues raised by the war in Indochina is indicative of our schools' failure to date, as well. It has historically been the office of the social studies and language arts to help provide just that kind of intellectual and moral ballast which allows students to think and act critically, analytically, and with the ability to have empathy for those not exactly like themselves. The Indochina War has forced many Americans to ask the tough questions of self and of society: inquiries into what one's underlying assumptions and ultimate concerns really are. It may well be time for the public schools to answer the challenge which the war has issued us, for if educators fail to deal creatively with the questions which the tragedy has raised, individuals will still have to wrestle with the difficulties on their own.

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Immediate gains in four areas of language behavior of nine moderately retarded children, achieved through a systematic summer-camp-type activity program, remained significant one year later, report these authors.

an environmental language approach for increasing behavior of retarded children

By Mildred Odom, Rex R. Boatman, and Dale D. Baum



Mildred Odom

Rex R. Boatman

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Mr. Boatman is an elementary teacher in Unified School District No. 383, Manhattan, Kansas. He has been employed in that system for sixteen years, serving six years as a teacher, eight years as an elementary principal, and two years as coordinator of an instructional materials center. He received a B.S. and an M.S. in Elementary Education from Kansas State University in 1957 and 1961, respectively.

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The ability to communicate verbally is increasingly being seen as an important goal in the education of mentally retarded children.¹ Deficient communicative skills are reflected in inappropriate social responses,² limited vocabulary, incorrect articulation, faulty grammatical structure, and other related problems.³

A number of writers (e.g., Schlanger,⁴ Wood,⁵ Dunn⁶) have noted that many programs for the mentally retarded provide too few challenges for verbalizations and require only minimal communicative skill. Guess, Rutherford, and Smith⁷ reported that an impoverished environment seriously impedes both the acquisition and maintenance of communicative skills. Schiefelbusch, et al.,⁸ stated that the retardate and his environment are not mutually self-adjustive, i.e., the retardate fails in the environment and the environment in turn fails the retardate. Spradlin⁹ observed that appropriate speech is too infrequently reinforced in typical classroom settings for the retarded.

Following an extensive review of the literature, Piens in 1962 reported innumerable suggestions for speech programs for the mentally retarded, but a paucity of studies concerned with the effectiveness of speech and language training procedures for the mentally retarded.¹⁰ A notable exception is Smith's 1962 study¹¹ in which he reported significantly improved language performance for mentally retarded children taught with a systematic language development program. His program, which was intended to be both stimulating and enriching, was directed toward developing the children's abilities to receive visual and auditory cues and then to relate to these cues through verbal or motor expressions.

It was the purpose of the present study to investigate both the immediate and long-range effects of a short-term summer environmental language development approach on the verbal behavior of moderately retarded children. It was hypothesized that the rate of verbal behavior of retardates would be increased substantially following a systematic program in which the retardates would experience an environmental event and concurrently verbalize the experience. It was reasoned that such an approach would in itself be stimulating and enriching as well as provide an abundance of opportunity for corrective language teaching and reinforcement not readily available in the typical classroom setting. It was further hypothesized that immediate gains in rate of verbal behavior would be dissipated over the course of a school year.

METHOD

Setting

This study was conducted in the environmental context of a medium-sized mid-western city under the auspices of an instructional materials center affiliated with the Kansas University Regional Special Education Instructional Materials Center. All training sessions were held out of doors for two and one-half hours daily over a six-week period during the summer months. The study staff consisted of two experienced special education teachers with the occasional assistance of various community resource persons.

Subjects

The subjects for this study consisted of nine children (six boys and three girls) selected from an intermediate level class for the educable mentally retarded. A description of the subjects is presented in Table 1. All subjects had Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) scores between 65 and 83; were between the ages of twelve and thirteen and one-half at the beginning of the study; and were free of obvious visual, auditory, or physical impairments.

TABLE 1
Description of Subjects

	Mean	Standard Deviation
C.A. (months)	154.22	4.45
I.Q. (WISC)	76.22	7.01

Instrument and Administration Procedure

In order to secure language corpi of sufficient magnitude for comparative analyses of rates of verbal behavior, a 72-item picture-stimulus instrument was developed which related directly to the content of the curriculum. The instrument was developed in response to Spradlin's observation,¹² reported in 1967, that five of the six subtests of the Parsons Language Sample (Spradlin, 1963)¹³ require only one-word responses, as do most of the nine subtests of the

Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (McCarthy and Kirk, 1963).¹⁴

The instrument was designed to sample three language processes: receptive, integrative, and expressive. The ability of the instrument to sample these three processes has not yet been validated. There is, however, an expressive component to each of these processes and it is this component on which the findings of this study are based.

The administration of the instrument was standardized for all subjects. Each item dealing with receptive language was presented with the question: "What is in this picture?" Items dealing with integrative language were presented with the question: "What is he (she) doing?" Expressive language items were presented with either "What is happening?" or "What has happened?"

The test was individually administered to all subjects by the same examiner. The subjects were permitted to discuss each stimulus-item as long as they wished. The average time for each administration was approximately 30 minutes. The responses of each subject were tape-recorded and later transcribed to facilitate the analyses.

Experimental Design

In order to ascertain the within-group changes in rate of verbal behavior, as opposed to between-group differences, the experimental subjects served as their own controls. Each subject was individually pretested, post-tested, and retested one year later during the followup phase of the study

The dependent variables which were selected for analysis included the following four sources of data concerning rate of verbal behavior: (1) total number of words, (2) total number of sentences, (3) sentence length, and (4) total number of nouns. Interrater reliability in judging the verbal behavior of the subjects in terms of the four dependent variables ranged from 94 percent to 100 percent.

Training Procedure and Curriculum

The training program was designed to provide systematically a wide array of experiences with the natural environment. With each environmental encounter each subject was encouraged to verbalize what he was doing, smelling, feeling, tasting, etc. This procedure provided in-

TABLE 2
Descriptive Data of Group Pretest, Post-test, and Followup Language Performance

Language Sample	Pretest		Post-test		Followup	
	Median	Range	Median	Range	Median	Range
Total Number of Words	360	120-605	740	390-1475	729	407-1289
Total Number of Sentences	28	1-42	56	38-115	52	39-89
Sentence Length	5.7	2.7-7.8	11.0	4.0-14.0	10.7	4.7-14.8
Total Number of Nouns	123	55-155	210	170-375	197	136-451



Verbalizing the feel of bread dough is a new and different effort for class members, who have to grope for words to describe the sensation.

numerable natural opportunities for the staff to correct or to reinforce the verbalizations of each of the subjects.

Activities available in the immediate environment and which comprised the curriculum are listed in the box at right.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The verbal response rates of the subjects to the picture-stimuli during pretesting, post-testing, and followup testing are summarized and presented as descriptive group data in Table 2, on page 16, opposite. It is interesting to note that the median rate of verbal responding doubled from pre- to post-testing for both total number of words and total number of sentences uttered. Also from pre- to post-testing, sentence length increased from a group median of 5.7 words to 11.0 words, while the number of nouns uttered increased from a median of 123 to one of 210.

From post-testing to followup testing one year later, the median rate of verbal responding showed a slight decrease for each of the four language samples. The medians and the lower limit of each of the ranges reported in Table 2 indicate that all the subjects increased in their rate of verbal responding to the picture-stimuli following the treatment period. Moreover, much of the increased rate was retained during the year following the environmental language training program.

Within the confines of the experimental design, all possible language performance changes or comparisons were tested for statistical significance by use of the nonparametric Wilcoxon matched-pairs test (Siegel, 1956).¹⁵ The results of these analyses are presented in Table 3, shown on page 19.

In the pretest-post-test analyses, the subjects' rates of verbal responding showed significant increases for each of

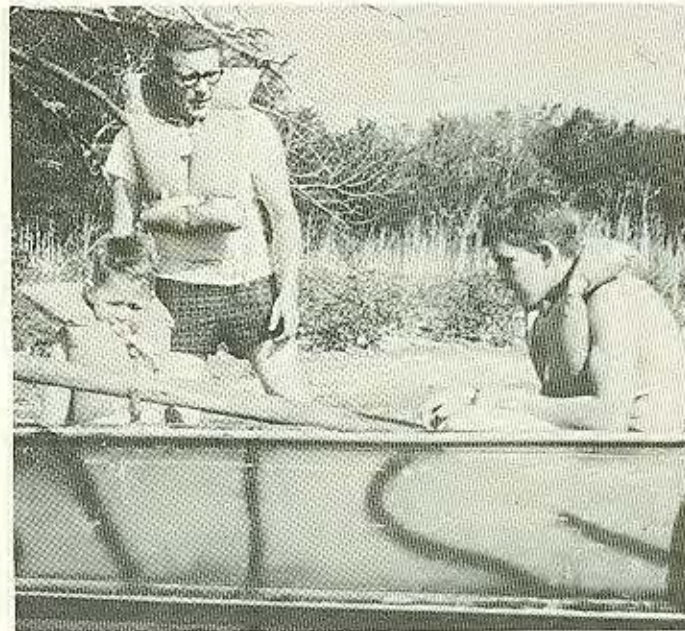
CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

- I. Water Safety
 - A. Pre-swimming and swimming
 1. Bobbing and breathing
 2. Floating
 3. Treading water
 4. Swimming
 - B. Safety Devices
 1. Lifejackets
 2. Other objects
 - C. Boating
 1. Boarding boat
 2. Rowing
 3. Leaving boat
- II. Food Production
 - A. Gardening
 1. Planting
 2. Cultivating
 3. Irrigating
 4. Fertilizing
 5. Harvesting
 - B. Orchard
 1. Picking strawberries
 2. Picking cherries
 3. Selling for profit
 - C. Harvesting and Processing Wheat
 1. Combining and storing wheat
 2. Milling wheat
 3. Baking bread
 - D. Dairy Products
 1. Milking cows
 2. Processing milk
 3. Producing butter
 4. Producing ice cream
- III. Outdoor Recreation
 - A. Fishing
 1. Practice casting
 2. Obtaining bait
 3. Fishing at lake
 4. Shore lunch (fish fry)
 - B. Camping
 1. Selecting campsite
 2. Providing for necessities
 3. Setting up tents
 4. Camping overnight
 5. Striking tents
 - C. Hiking
 1. Selecting route
 2. Providing for necessities
 3. Identifying plants and animals



ABOVE: "What does a baby gosling say? How does he feel in your hand? What will he be when he grows up?" Mildred Odom poses these questions to an enthralled young man describing his observations and feelings.

BELOW: "I sit in the stern. Chris sits in the bow. There are two oars." Rex Boatman checks out one boy on boat operation and boat safety while the other awaits his turn.



the four language samples. These data confirmed the hypothesis that the rate of verbal responding of retardates would be significantly increased through a short-term language training program in which the retardates would experience an environmental event and concurrently verbalize the experience.

In the pretest-followup analyses, the subjects' rates of verbal responding showed increases basically equivalent to those observed in the pretest-post-test analyses. Verbal responding was further scrutinized by comparing post-test results with followup test results for each of the four language samples. Although the medians of the four language samples decreased slightly from post-test to followup testing, the changes in rate of verbal responding were not statistically significant. While no additional gains in rate of verbal responding were observed during the year



ABOVE: "Take a breath. Blow bubbles. Tell me how it feels." Boy helps boy express language as he experiences the water.

BELOW, LEFT: Propagation, irrigation; new words, new concepts, new language.

BELOW, RIGHT: Members of the class cultivate their crop of corn—for popcorn—while they cultivate their language.



TABLE 3
Comparative Analyses of Language
Performance Samples

Language Sample	Pretest-Post-test		Pretest-Followup		Post-test-Followup	
	Median Diff.	T	Median Diff.	T	Median Diff.	T
Total Number of Words	+380.0	0*	+369.0	0*	-11.0	22
Total Number of Sentences	+ 28.0	0*	+ 24.0	0*	- 4.0	10
Sentence Length	+ 5.3	0*	+ 5.0	0*	- 0.3	23
Total Number of Nouns	+ 87.0	0*	+ 74.0	0*	-13.0	14

*p < .01 one tailed

following the treatment, the decrease in rate of verbal responding was negligible. These data failed to support the hypothesis that immediate gains in rate of verbal behavior would be lost over the period of a year. To the contrary, the immediate gains were much in evidence one year later. Interestingly enough, the immediate gains remained relatively stable during the year following the treatment even though the subjects were assigned to teachers who had not participated in the treatment phase of the study.

Although the present investigation was primarily concerned with selected quantitative aspects of language performance, i.e., rate of verbal responding, certain qualitative aspects of language functioning may be inferred from the findings. For example, the significant increase in the use of nouns observed from pre- to post-testing would indicate that the subjects had learned to "name" or "label" objects and events rather than simply describe them in terms of function, a behavior peculiar to children with delayed or deficient language skills (Wood¹⁶). Also, the significant increase in median sentence length observed from pre- to post-testing suggests the subjects had learned additional language skills (e.g., vocabulary, syntactical rules) which facilitated their generating longer sentences.

In conclusion, the findings of this study suggest: (1) the language performance of moderately retarded children can be significantly improved in terms of rate of verbalization through planned language training in and with the natural environment, and (2) the typical classroom environment provided for moderately retarded children appears to be stimulating and reinforcing enough to maintain language skills learned in and through the natural environment of the community.

FOOTNOTES

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Just what **did** John Dewey say about elementary education? About secondary education? About higher education? With particular regard to the study of history, philosopher Stone summarizes Dewey's positions for each area.

John Dewey on history in elementary and secondary education

By George C. Stone



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20

To John Dewey, one of the basic functions, if not the basic function, of the school is to make certain that by the time of graduation the student substantially understands his society. That is, upon graduation, students should be able to function in society, and be active, participating, contributing members in it. To be sure, this is no easy task for teachers or students. One difficulty is that at the beginning of the process the child is immature and the society he must understand is extremely complex. Dewey was keenly aware of this situation. He pointed out on a number of occasions that because children are not adults it is difficult for them to study a contemporary complex society. For instance, on one occasion he wrote,

Society, that is the social relations which the child has around him, are the child. He cannot tear them loose from himself, nor himself away from them. It requires a highly trained adult to do it with any success, it touches our feelings, interests, at every point, and to get an objective view of the thing is a matter of great difficulty.¹

Dewey is convinced that students should begin the study of society in early elementary education. He charges the school with the task of simplifying existing social life, of reducing it to an "embryonic form."²

He suggests that the most efficient method the school has of simplifying existing social life for the child is using what he called the "historical view." He explains, "The historical view . . . simplifies the social study; it reduces it to a number of simpler elements and forces; and in the second place it eliminates this element of too great personal contiguity, of too great personal attachment and interest."³ Dewey makes it clear that history, too, if it has any educational value, must be consistent with the general purpose of the "historical view." He wrote:

I believe . . . that history is of educative value in so far as it presents phases of social life and growth. When taken simply as history it is thrown into the distant past and becomes dead and inert. Taken as the record of man's social life and progress it becomes full of meaning. I believe, however, that it cannot be so taken excepting as the child is also introduced directly into social life.⁴

Dewey's statement of the educative value of history includes two significant principles which, on occasion, have been incorrectly interpreted. The first is that the educational

EDUCATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS, Vol. 1, No. 2, Fall 1973

worth of history is primarily that of having the student grasp the contribution history makes to understanding social life, that is, the socialization of the consciousness. According to Dewey, "This at once fixes the principle that history is studied not for the sake of history considered as a record of something that happened."⁵ Unfortunately, many people, especially historians, have taken Dewey to mean that history, as history, should no longer be taught at any educational level. Yet nothing could be further from the truth. His reference is to history as it relates to the education of the **child**, especially the child in elementary school. Dewey does not mean to imply that the historian should or should not write history from his view of the educational value of history; neither does he mean to imply that the **mature** student of history should or should not study history from this point of view.

The second significant principle is a reference to the method which, when applied by the teacher, will present phases of social life and growth. Dewey is referring to the genetic method or "historical view" which he later claimed "was perhaps the chief scientific achievement of the latter half of the nineteenth century."⁶ Commenting further on it, he wrote:

Its principle is that the way to get insight into any complex product is to trace the process of its making—to follow it through the successive stages of its growth. To apply this method to a story as if it meant only the truism that the present social state cannot be separated from its past, is one-sided. It means equally that past events cannot be separated from the living present and retain meaning. The true starting point of history is always some present situation with its problems.⁷

A common misinterpretation is that the history teacher should identify some contemporary problem occurring in the present and then assign students the task of tracing the origin of that problem. The key to the misunderstanding seems to be on the word "product" in the above quotation. That term has been identified as being synonymous with the term "problem." However, the two terms do not mean the same thing. Dewey did not suggest that some contemporary problem should be traced to its origin; he suggested that the way to get insight into any complex **product** is to trace the process of **its** making. Perhaps this can be made more clear by example. A logical example would be one in which Dewey employed the genetic method in an actual situation: the curriculum of the University of Chicago Laboratory School designed by Dewey.

It is important to remember that John Dewey believed the school as an institution had the responsibility of simplifying the existing social life for the child. To accomplish the goal, he decided that the genetic method or "historical view" could be employed in the school curriculum as a means to trace the process of society's making.

Children at the Dewey Laboratory School were placed in one of eleven groups, depending upon their age. The first

group, youngsters of pre-school age, were generally involved in the occupations of their contemporary world. There was a great deal of role playing and re-enacting the fundamental occupations of the home. Gradually their perspectives were broadened to include an understanding of the interaction of family and community. Such games as playing store, or playing mailman, or milkman, as well as playing house, were carried out. Wirth reports that "in these activities relevant questions would be raised which would lead to amplification and refinement in the later school years: Where does it come from? Where does it go? How does it work?"⁸

Historical study was **not** introduced until the child had progressed to Group IV, the seven-year-olds, at which time the study of history centered in the evolutionary development of civilization, beginning with an investigation of the occupational activities from their simplest origins. Dewey's position was that children working with and becoming personally involved in the present occupational and social life of their elders would naturally be interested in the historical evolution of those occupations.⁹

One important principle Dewey relied on was that the curiosity of the child would grow out of some present situation. Then the question "How did it all come about?" would lead the child back to the study of primitive man. Dewey believed it would be possible, and, for that matter, desirable to go back to primitive man because that was man's simplest stage of development. He wrote:

The value of primitive history is in simply reducing everything to its simplest elements; it gives us the problem of society in its lowest and fewest terms, and therefore in a way most easily grasped, particularly by the imagination of the child.¹⁰

An interesting and important reason for having children study the primitive stage, and, for that matter, all the stages between primitive and contemporary, is that it shows the child the situations man faced in that period are in **kind** like those he faces today. To achieve this goal, Dewey suggested that the child use his imagination to conjure up the primitive environment and attempt to solve the kinds of problems man faced at that time. Particularly he was to

realize how the fundamental problems of procuring subsistence, shelter, and protection have been met; and by seeing how those were solved in the earlier days of the human race, form some conception of the long road which has had to be traveled, and of the successive inventions by which the race has been brought forward in culture.¹¹

Arthur G. Wirth reports that Groups IV and V, for seven- and eight-year-olds, were pivotal years, and were thoroughly and systematically developed. Where Group IV concentrated on the laying of "sociohistorical" foundations, Group V moved to study a world that had been expanded by migration, exploration, and discovery. Psychologically, it was believed that this was the period "in which to shift from

direct to 'derived modes of activity.' "12 It was felt that when the child reached the age of eight he had a psychological need to acquire skills in reading, writing, and number tools in order to progress.

Group V began the study of history by concentrating on the study of the Phoenicians. Study of the Phoenicians as traders rather than farmers or hunters was emphasized because that led to the study of a new kind of man with new kinds of problems. Later in the year students began the study of great explorers. The voyages of such men as Magellan, Marco Polo, and Columbus were studied in some detail. This led to questions about oceans, meteorology, astronomy, the use of the compass, and astrology. Thus, by the end of the year the child had greatly enlarged his perspective from occupations around the house to the beginning of a civilized human experience.

Groups VI through X, for children aged nine through thirteen, turned their attention to the history of the United States. A real effort was made to introduce the child to American history through an examination of "the exploration and conquest of the continent, the establishment of the Colonies, and the founding of the republic."¹³ When colonial history was studied, children in the textile studio actually used spinning wheels and looms. Other children reconstructed typical industries of the colonial period. Children studied the home life of the colonials in some detail while one group planned, built, and furnished a colonial room. The goal was "to show how occupations and industries grew out of real needs, how individuals and communities became experts in making or growing certain things, and how trade between the colonies began."¹⁴ Gradually the study of history became more specialized; historical accounts were read and written and oral reports were presented.

Group XI, for fourteen- and fifteen-year-olds, was in operation only two years. Records are sketchy and it appears that the staff never got beyond a tentative program.

This brief example of the genetic method shows that Dewey intended it to be used only as a means of simplifying contemporary society, thereby making it possible for the child to study phases of social life and growth. The genetic method was useful for identifying the various stages of man's development but was not used to trace the origin of some contemporary problem. However, as pointed out, once the child was studying a particular stage of development, certain problems man faced in that stage were identified and solved. It is now possible to examine Dewey's writings concerning problems that confront the history teacher and some of his suggestions concerning methods that will achieve the desired goals at the elementary and secondary education levels.

At the Dewey Laboratory School, history was approached primarily in terms of its industrial, economic, and social aspects throughout the curriculum. This approach is an important concept in Dewey's writings in the teaching of history because it establishes his approach to the general goals of the history teacher in the public schools. However, the relationship between the general goals of historical in-

struction and the approach to those goals by emphasizing mainly the economic and industrial aspects of history has not been made clear. That will be done at this point.

Dewey made a most cogent statement on the relationship between the aim of historical instruction and the industrial and economic aspects of history in Monograph No. 8 of the *Elementary School Record*. He wrote:

If the aim of historical instruction is to enable the child to appreciate the values of social life, to see in imagination the forces which favor and allow men's effective co-operation with one another, to understand the sorts of character that help on and hold back, the essential thing in its presentation is to make it moving, dynamic.¹⁵

Dewey went on to say that when history is taken as dynamic, as moving, its economic and industrial aspects are emphasized. For Dewey, "economic" and "industrial" were only technical words "which express the problem with which humanity is unceasingly engaged; how to live, how to master and use nature so as to make it tributary to the enrichment of human life."¹⁶ He explained this concept well in *Democracy and Education* when he wrote,

We do not need to go into disputes regarding the economic interpretation of history to realize that the industrial history of mankind gives insight into two important phases of social life in a way which no other phase of history can possibly do. It presents us with knowledge of the successive inventions by which theoretical science has been applied to the control of nature in the interests of security and prosperity of social life. It thus reveals the successive causes of social progress. Its other service is to put before us the things that fundamentally concern all men in common—the occupations and values connected with getting a living. Economic history deals with the activities, the career, and fortunes of the common man as does no other branch of history. The one thing that every individual **must** do is to live; the one thing that society **must** do is to secure from each individual his fair contribution to the general well being and see to it that a just return is made to him.¹⁷

It is little wonder, then, that Dewey would say that the fundamental history of man is economic and industrial history. Little wonder, too, that given his general aim of historical instruction, his suggestion for achieving those aims would emphasize economic and industrial aspects of history. With this background it is now possible to examine Dewey's general pedagogical principles as they relate to history in elementary education.

Dewey pointed out that there are two major problems confronting the history teacher in the elementary school. One is centered on how to secure adequate simplification of the material and yet have it retain its salient points; the second is concerned with the proper amount of historical detail to be studied.

Dewey suggested two methods, both popular at the time he was writing, to meet the demands of the first problem. The first method is the biographical and story view, the principle of which is that history should be approached in the "form of

biographies of great historical characters and heroes and leaders, and through the medium of anecdotes and stories associated with these great characters."¹⁸ There is, however, a drawback to this method. Dewey was concerned that some teachers using the biographical method might have a tendency to reduce history to a number of interesting stories of great men, and, thereby, practically eliminate the element of growth, continuity, and development. He wrote:

These social leaders are always representative, each one representing a center, a focusing of a large number of social conditions and problems and forces; and so far as elementary education is concerned, it seems to me that the ideal should be to remain true to the historical point of view, that is, to that of growth, of development, by discussing the development quite largely as typified and summed up, as represented in individual characters.¹⁹

The second method that Dewey suggested to simplify the study of historical material is the "institutional approach." The view is that the study of history should center about institutions. "The idea is that by taking the family in various parts of the country, or some other social form, and by having the child become acquainted with it as it existed in different ages and countries, a systematic view of society as a whole can be built up."²⁰ Dewey seemed to have his doubts about the use of the institutional method at the elementary level. He stated that it was in use in a normal school in Michigan, but that it might be too analytic for use in the elementary school.²¹ Beyond that he mentioned little else about it in any of his writings.

The other major problem confronting the history teacher at the elementary level centers on the proper amount of historical detail and the relationship of historical details to one another. The teacher can create confusion on the one hand by attempting to give practically all the facts, and on the other by dwelling on too few facts. Therefore, the effective history teacher must find a medium between the two extremes.

Unfortunately, the history teacher does not receive much help from textbooks. The typical American history textbook is organized chronologically and riddled with detail. Dewey was generally critical of this approach to history. He wrote:

When it is attempted within the limits of the textbook, it is obvious that there are a great number of particular persons, battles, campaigns, etc., spoken of. The result of that multiplicity of details is that details of another sort are inevitably crowded out. That is, the circumstances and conditions which really give one of the points discussed its meaning, which drive it home to one, make it capable of translation over into living terms, are almost of necessity left out.²²

Furthermore, Dewey suggested that if the child simply memorizes facts concerning, say the Pilgrims' landing in New England, his mind is left with only a little information. But he believed that,

If a child spends two or three months even on that subject, working out the reason why those people came over, how

they lived, and in getting acquainted with the various individuals in such a way that they mean something to him, working out how the town was laid out and how the people managed their affairs, the thing at once becomes a vital whole. It is obvious that you cannot do that and attempt to cover everything from 1492 to 1899 in one year. You must pick out things which are really representative and typical and work them out with a great deal of elaboration.²³

This means that Dewey's answer to the two major problems confronting the history teacher in elementary education is one and the same, the representative topic method. Thus, it is now possible to state a basic pedagogical principle of his in the area of history: "In history the pedagogical demand is more and more for typical cases, for representative topics which will be worked out in a great deal of detail, with a great deal of accompanying circumstance."²⁴

By way of summary, Dewey would say that it is desirable for history in the elementary school to result in the power to imagine, to sense social relationships, and to have in mind some of the chief historical embodiments of the working out of these forces. He was convinced that,

The child should be left with a sense of these historical embodiments of the social forces in such a way as to feel the momentous continuity and progress, although unable philosophically in any way to define them. But if the child does not get a sense of momentum, a sense of moving on into a higher state of things at each stage, a sense of advance, he is losing one of the most important points in the study of history.²⁵

Dewey wrote little about teaching history in the secondary schools. One reason may be that he never got beyond the preliminary stages with his secondary programs at the Laboratory School. Nevertheless, the evidence indicates that he believed secondary level problems occur in connection with the ethical and practical value of history. He was interested particularly in the idea that history, in the ethical and practical sense, should be considered in relation to civics. He wrote:

If the knowledge of history does not somehow relate itself to existing problems and conditions, if the student does not get something out of it which makes him more intelligent in dealing with current problems of social life and of politics, he certainly does not get the full benefit of it, and it is the study of civil government, now generally called civics, which has been particularly urged of late as a means of enabling the student to get practical value and application out of his history.²⁶

Dewey suggested that students of secondary school age should begin the study of history with the study of social functions, or civics, rather than governmental forms. That is, students should learn first what the community must do for its various citizens. Although he did not state this absolutely, he did seem to believe that a sufficient background in civics can be acquired by the end of the first or second year of high school.

Dewey made clear that once the student has learned what the community must do for its various citizens, he is ready to

begin a more definite study of institutions. This phase begins not so much with the direct study of institutions as it does from the purposes which are meant to be realized. Also, at this point, the teacher can begin instruction in comparative and historical study. Dewey suggested students might deal with such questions as:

What was the institutional organization of Greece, Rome or feudalism? What has been the struggle of modern times to secure what kind of institutions, and why? Why do democratic institutions conserve the public welfare and also individual freedom more fully than those other institutional forms that have previously been studied?²⁷

It is clear that Dewey's plan for the study of history in secondary education included a comparative institutional study with reference to the ethical value of ends. He explained that when he used the term ethical, he meant "the enlargement of the freedoms of the individual and the sphere of common interests and mutual services."²⁸ He also acknowledged that history continually presents ethical problems as to why people did certain things, whether they should have done them, and what their motives were. In addition to the general aspects of ethical problems in history, there are the individual aspects of ethics: "the study of character, for which no rules can be laid down in advance, but to which it is desirable to have a great deal of incidental attention paid."²⁹

Dewey said little beyond these brief remarks about the teaching of history in secondary education; these writings indicate that he never got beyond the tentative planning stages with his suggestions.

Dewey suggested that in the transition from secondary school to higher education the student would naturally get a philosophical view of history.³⁰ For the most part, his writings on this subject, limited to 1898-1899, include only a brief reference to causation—hardly enough to understand fully what he means by a philosophical view of history. In fact, his remarks about causation are so general that it is difficult to know what he means by it. For instance, he stated that causation in the narrow sense can be used in the physical sciences but cannot be applied to history. However, he said, causation in a larger sense, in the sense of philosophy of growth, of movement of historical evolution, should be the culmination of a strictly historical study. It would appear that this is a different concept of causation from that found in later works, notably *Logic*. However, it is apparent that Dewey believed that if students in higher education would study history from a philosophical view, both extreme conservatism and radicalism would be impossible.³¹

Dewey made a few other general comments about history in higher education, as in his suggestion that the professional man, for instance in science or medicine, ought to know the history of his profession as it relates to the general process of civilization.

If Dewey did not fully develop his views with regard to history studies in secondary and higher education, he nevertheless had a strong sense of their place in a sequential

program. As succinct a summary of his contextual perspective as any is his declaration that

When the curriculum is organized so that the elementary period takes up its proper material and does its due work with it, giving the training of instinctive imagination and insight into the forces, and a certain amount of positive information in regard to the way these forces are crystallized, and in the secondary period gives an insight into the development of institutions in relation to the fundamental purposes of life, then the ground will be covered leaving room in the higher period for the philosophical view of history, and also for the professional view.³²

FOOTNOTES

1. John Dewey, "Lecture XXVI: History," *John Dewey: Lectures in the Philosophy of Education, 1899*, Reginald D. Archambault, editor (New York: Random House, 1966), p. 262.
2. John Dewey, "My Pedagogic Creed," *School Journal*, vol. LIV (January 1897), pp. 77-80.
3. Dewey, "Lecture XXVI: History," *op. cit.*, p. 262.
4. Dewey, "My Pedagogic Creed," *op. cit.*, p. 10.
5. Dewey, "Lecture XXVI: History," *op. cit.*, p. 261.
6. John Dewey, *Democracy and Education* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1967), p. 214.
7. *Ibid.*
8. Arthur G. Wirth, *John Dewey as Educator: His Design for Work in Education, 1894-1904* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966), p. 138.
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10. Dewey, "Lecture XXVI: History," *op. cit.*, p. 263.
11. Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, *op. cit.*, p. 215.
12. Wirth, *John Dewey as Educator*, *op. cit.*, p. 142.
13. *Ibid.*, p. 144.
14. *Ibid.*, p. 144.
15. John Dewey, "The Aim of History in Elementary Education," *Elementary School Record*, vol. 1, no. 8 (November 1900), p. 199; see also John Dewey, "History for the Educator," *Progressive Journal of Education*, vol. 1 (March 1909), p. 1; see also John Dewey, *The School and Society* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, Phoenix Edition, 1956), p. 151.
16. Dewey, *School and Society*, *op. cit.*, p. 152.
17. Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, *op. cit.*, p. 215.
18. Dewey, "Lecture XXVII, History: General Pedagogical Principles," Archambault, editor, *Lectures, 1899*, *op. cit.*, p. 265.
19. *Ibid.*, p. 266.
20. *Ibid.*, p. 265.
21. *Ibid.*, pp. 265-266.
22. *Ibid.*, p. 268.
23. *Ibid.*, pp. 268-69.
24. *Ibid.*, p. 268.
25. *Ibid.*, p. 270.
26. *Ibid.*
27. *Ibid.*
28. *Ibid.*, pp. 271-72.
29. *Ibid.*, p. 272.
30. *Ibid.*
31. *Ibid.*
32. *Ibid.*, p. 273.

Donna Rudolph joins editorial board of review

Donna M. Rudolph, who joins the Editorial Board of Review with this issue, is an associate professor at Sangamon State University, Springfield, Illinois. Early childhood education is her particular interest; she has taught nursery school and elementary pupils for 16 years, 12 of those in first grades in Minnesota, Wisconsin, and West Virginia. She holds a masters degree in reading from College of St. Thomas, St. Paul, Minnesota, and, after initial doctoral studies at the University of Minnesota, was awarded her Ed.D. degree in 1971 by Northern Illinois University. Her dissertation topic was "The Development of a Curriculum Design for Early Childhood Teacher Education." As an assistant professor, she taught for a year (1971-72) at Kansas State University. In March 1972 she joined the staff of the Illinois Superintendent of Public Instruction as Director of Early Childhood Education, adding Curriculum Development responsibilities two months later. In this position, she was much involved with state legislative hearings into the quality and possible improvement of education in Illinois and with curricular programs throughout the state. Dr. Rudolph joined Sangamon State in the fall of 1973 and notes that she is "more than ever" involved with early childhood education in school districts across the state. As serendipity, her professional responsibilities are often compatible with those



of her husband, Dr. Finian Murphy, State of Illinois Director of School Psychologists.

one view of 'reality'

"Despite the rhetoric of professionalism, the teaching force has quite rightly found itself more advantageously allied with the unionized worker. Salary, working conditions, tenure—these are the problems with which perforce they have to be concerned, because they are treated as employees with limited responsibilities and virtually no autonomy. If I seem to approve of this proletarianization of teachers, it is not with pleasure. I, too, have shared and worked for the ideal of a professional teacher for every classroom, but since this ideal is probably not realizable for more than a small fraction of the teaching force, it is better for the vast majority of our teachers to bargain collectively for whatever advantages they can, rather than sacrifice these benefits for a professional status they do not have and probably will not have in our time."

—Harry S. Broudy

The Real World of the Public Schools, p. 147
(New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1972)

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