

A STUDY OF A WORK-GROUP-CONFERENCE METHOD  
FOR PRODUCING CURRICULUM CHANGE

A Dissertation

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BY

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## PREFACE

This study is a by-product of the sincere efforts of a group of school people to find a better way to succeed in, what they considered, an important undertaking. As three members of the staff of the Citizenship Education Study, Mrs. Florence D. Cleary, Miss Alice M. Davis, and the writer, together with Mr. Guy Durgan, principal of a junior high school participating in the Citizenship Study, attempted to improve citizenship education and appraised the results of their efforts; they were not satisfied. They came to believe that abiding improvements would be assured when teachers became convinced of the importance of citizenship education, broadly defined, and searched for ways of improving the contribution which they alone can make in face-to-face contacts with youth. Such a belief led this group of four, who, by their position in the Citizenship Study found themselves on the "cutting edge" of an action program without convincing evidence that their tools were adequate, to test various theories and ideas about curriculum change. From the failures, false starts, and blind alleys littered with discouragement, discarded assumptions and hypotheses, and highlighted by a few successes, substantial agreement about certain procedures emerged. Some of these ideas are incorporated in this study under the name work-group-conference method. This method, with variations, was applied repeatedly by the group. This investigation is a formal attempt to study this method in selected situations.

The collaboration involved in determining the method has been unparalleled in the writer's experience as a dramatic example of developing appreciation for human relationships, cooperative effort, and maintaining high morale in the face of numerous difficulties. It will be cherished. While the writer accepts full responsibility for the descriptions, data, and interpretations in this study, his colleagues deserve full credit for whatever merit it may have.

Real gratitude is also extended to the Detroit Citizenship Education Study which provided the opportunity and the setting for this investigation, and to Miss Betty Antilla and Mrs. Rosemary Radke of the staff for their contribution in cheerfully and efficiently maintaining order during four years of seemingly interminable data collecting and action planning as well as for their expertness in preparing the typescript.

This investigation is concerned with the activities of groups composed largely of teachers. While the teachers' interest in the activities was not directed toward completing this study, their enthusiasm and devotion to the improvement of education should be commended. If, in the course of the analysis of certain situations, it has been necessary to be critical, the intent has not been malicious. It may help to note that some analyses are equally critical of some actions of the writer and those of his colleagues.

For guidance and helpful criticism in the preparation of this dissertation, the writer is indebted to a committee of advisors: Dr. Charles Boye, chairman; Dr. Lloyd Allen Cook; Dr. Roland Faunce; Dr. Fritz Redl;

Dr. Wilhelm Reitz; and Dr. Ray Smittle.

To his wife and family the writer is especially grateful for their understanding and encouragement in the seemingly trying period during which this report was being prepared.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

This study will present an account of the development and application of a work-group-conference technique used in the course of the Citizenship Education Study by three groups of teachers from four Detroit public schools and several Citizenship Education Study staff members in an attempt to examine the curriculum and to plan, execute, and evaluate curriculum changes. The factors which led to the evolvement and use of the method will be explained; the principal theoretical aspects and applications of the method or technique will be described followed by case studies of three groups which used certain phases of the method. Conclusions concerning the validity of the method and other related findings will be drawn from the case study materials.

#### Need for the Study

Effort to change human behavior and situations by education is as old as man. In our time one facet of this activity which is of common concern is the effort to achieve social improvement in the face of social confusion. This represents a serious social need. Attempts to effect change do not only come about as an effort to achieve an ideal of "goodness" such as physical comfort, moral virtue, and security; but are in part the result of previous efforts to achieve such goals produced by some change agent. These change agents are varied. They may be identified as ideologies, personalities, materials, inventions, or procedures.

A classic example in the social sciences is the Industrial Revolution. More recently the social effects of technological improvement in the past three decades have been described and documented in detail. The effect of the auto, the radio, mass production, chemical discoveries, and inventions on the standard of living, urbanization, the family, crime, health, education, and upon culture generally have been traced. These changes have been labelled as miracles, or the dawn of a new era by some, and as one of the major causes for the neurotic personality of our time by others.

Although there is a wide variation in the ultimate value ascribed by certain commentators to various technological advances, they seem to be in substantial agreement that society has not been sufficiently adaptable, that is, capable of changing sufficiently and quickly enough, to cope satisfactorily with the effects of the advances which were not anticipated. Mayo suggests that society is adapting itself as it were unconsciously.<sup>1</sup> Ogburn, many years ago, gave the disparity between the rates of change in interrelated parts of our culture the name cultural lag.

Literally, hundreds of the world's most vocal and influential people and thousands of others have addressed themselves to the question: What can be done to reduce this lag, to promote a more even, harmonious advance of the entire cultural front? Numerous plans have been proposed. Some plans avowedly embrace the world. World Federation, UN, and World

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<sup>1</sup>Elton Mayo, The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization (Boston: Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1945), p. 11.

Citizenship are examples of such plans. There are numerous regional plans which, like the world schemes, pay particular attention to top level cooperation and control. Most of them might be described as a number of representatives of society at large functioning within broad organizational structures to improve social conditions.

At the extreme opposite end of what may be considered a continuum of plans in terms of the kind, number, and organization of people interacting to achieve the same goal, is what might be popularly and tersely described as the "grass roots" idea. Huszar suggests such a "grass roots" approach by "do democracy" operating in small groups working on a problem.<sup>1</sup> Others suggest that local church groups, women's clubs and service clubs address themselves to the task of understanding the state of affairs and do something about it through individual and small group effort. Others have pointed out that human relationships constitute the real problem and that these relationships must be improved by each individual. There are many professional educators who believe that education as an institution has a real responsibility in a true "grass roots" sense. They argue that, whatever other plans and strategies to give people of the world greater security and control over the newly acquired or invented features of the environment are attempted, the public school--already established by society to prepare youth for the good life of the individual and society--has an assigned task. If society has changed, the education for life in that society must change accordingly. If schools are to prepare students for an adaptive society, for a society

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<sup>1</sup>George B. de Huszar, Practical Applications of Democracy (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945), pp. 10-33.

which expects and accepts change, they must pay more attention to the social goals of education, to the needs of the individual and society, and provide educative experience accordingly.

The assumptions and the operational plan implicit in such hortatives are: Society must decide what teaching or learning is of most worth for the betterment of the individual and society. Next, the school must arrange the experiences by which this learning is to be accomplished by students in accord with what is known about how people learn, within the limits of resources which will be provided by society for the purpose. This operational plan outlines the responsibility of the entire school or school system, administrator, supervisor, attendance department, supply department, accounting department, and the teachers, students, and parents. One of the first considerations deals with determining what kind of product is wanted. The second consideration entails determining how this product can be produced. This is curriculum determination. Curriculum is here defined as consisting of the actual experiences which children undergo under the guidance of the school.<sup>1</sup>

#### Studies of Adaptability

Curriculum construction has become a recognized particular function of the school. A large body of theory concerning principles and procedures has been developed, a portion of which has been related to ways of getting the plans into actual practice and supervising the operation. As a result of the application of this theory and the sincere efforts of

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<sup>1</sup>Hollis L. Caswell as quoted by Alice Miel, Changing the Curriculum (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1946), p. 9.

supervisors and teachers, schools have changed. However, there is great concern that the rate and kinds of change have not been adequate due to "crystallization" in the schools and school systems.<sup>1</sup> The dynamics of school adaptability in curriculum matters, that is the rate, character, conditioners, change agents, and process of change, have only recently become a subject of specialized study. The findings concerning school adaptability in the past are not conducive to an optimistic prediction about a school's ability to aid materially in reducing cultural lag on the social front unless different processes from those now in use are employed to increase its rate. Mort generalizes on the findings of several adaptability studies by Farnsworth, Bateman, Cornell, and his own in the following words:

. . . the rate of spread of an adaptation in our schools is amazingly slow. The time elapsing between the insight into a need and the emergence of a satisfactory invention for meeting it is typically fifty years. After the invention has been introduced in some school system, it takes it fifteen years to spread through three per cent of the communities in an area such as a state. Thereafter, another ten years elapse before it reaches half of the communities, and an additional twenty-five years before it is universally adopted.<sup>2</sup>

The obvious question is: How can the rate of desirable change be increased? How can ideas, procedures, and materials be introduced which society generally approves; which the educational profession generally endorses; and which the individuals in a particular school accept as an improvement, or are willing to test? Recent studies of factors

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<sup>1</sup>Alice Miel, Changing the Curriculum (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1946), p. 1.

<sup>2</sup>Paul Mort, "New Developments in Educational Dynamics," Teachers College Record, Vol. 48, No. 7 (1947), 425.

influencing the dynamics of school adaptability seem to indicate that the amount of money spent and the type of community are important. This seems to be in accord generally with empirical findings. Among other reported findings about adaptability there is one concerning professional personnel which disturbs the teaching profession considerably. School boards and administrators have attempted to improve education by carefully selecting individual employees who would bring about desired changes. This being true, attempts have been made to determine what characteristics of a school staff were related to a school's adaptability. No characteristics were found which seemed to have any high correlation with the rate or kinds of changes which occur in a school system. Mort states this conclusion and indicates his concern in these words:

From the study of characteristics of individual communities and school systems related to adaptability, the exceedingly challenging discovery was made that community factors are more closely associated with the adaptability of schools than the characteristics of the staff which have influenced administrators in the forming and reforming of staffs.<sup>1</sup>

To curriculum workers and teachers, intent on improving education, this report, contrary as it is to common expectations, presents a number of possible inferences for speculation. What strategy should be followed if the rate and character of change are to be improved? Is there something in the training of school personnel or in the organizational structure of the school which causes the slow rate of adaptation? Is there a method or process which includes the mastery of certain skills which may accelerate desirable changes? How can the effectiveness and efficiency

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<sup>1</sup>Op. cit., p. 426.

of change agents be increased? These considerations indicate the broad need for study and exploration of methods to promote curriculum change.

The description of a method or process in curriculum reconstruction and an examination and study of its use in several action situations is the central problem of this project.

### Trends in Supervision

The studies of school adaptability, however, indicate only one phase of the pressure which emphasizes the need for studies of curriculum change and supervisory methods. For almost twenty years, authorities in educational supervision have criticized the so-called coercive type of supervision which was designed to improve teaching and hence learning. In this type of supervision it was assumed that those in authority clearly saw the end goals of education and had competently selected and detailed the means for their achievement. It was furthermore assumed that those contracting to teach agreed thereby to follow the correct procedures set down for them and that it was not necessary for the teacher to understand the goals and the means-ends relationships clearly.<sup>1</sup> Such coercive supervision was attacked by Alberty and Thayer twenty years ago for several reasons.

1. This concept assumes that there are known best methods of doing anything. These are in the possession of the supervisor and may be handed out to teachers. It ignores the precarious, uncertain, and experimental aspects of life and of education.

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<sup>1</sup>It is also true that at the time the coercive method of supervision was accepted widely the professional training of teachers was meager. This condition is held responsible for the drastic measures which were used in an attempt to improve education in some measure since increased training of teachers seemed either impossible or a remote remedy to an immediate, acute problem.

2. This concept is destructive of personality values, particularly of initiative and originality. Repressions, inhibitions, and even complexes may result.

3. The concept sets up a highly improper relationship between supervisors and teachers. Fear and distrust enter. Insincerity and dishonesty result.<sup>1</sup>

Supervision was next considered as a training and guidance function-- a process of stimulating and increasing the professional growth of teachers, often along predetermined lines. Barr, Burton, and Brueckner identify a new trend or development in these words: "The more recently developed type of cooperative and participatory supervision is increasing but not yet dominant."<sup>2</sup> This type of supervision seems to indicate that curriculum improvement or improvement in teaching is "not so much a supervisory function in which teachers participate as it is a teacher function in which supervisors cooperate."<sup>3</sup> The question which arises immediately under a cooperative participatory conception of supervision and to some extent under the training and guidance conception of supervision is: How can this be done?

This question arose in the course of the activities of the Detroit Citizenship Education Study, launched in 1945, to investigate practices designed to improve citizenship education. It was anticipated that the undertaking would be a cooperative study venture between a central independent agency or staff, with staff members acting as consultants,

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<sup>1</sup>H. B. Albery and V. T. Thayer, Supervision in the Secondary School (Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1931), pp. 20-29.

<sup>2</sup>A. S. Barr, William H. Burton, and Leo J. Brueckner, Supervision (2nd Edit.; New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1947), p. 7.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 10.

supervisors or expeditors, and several typical public schools. This would be accomplished by exploring present practices; educational planning; and changing the curriculum, which includes the teachers' beliefs and practices used in providing the learning experiences; and through this change achieve an improvement in citizenship. A study of how this might be done involved not only attempting to determine what curriculum experiences would produce improved student behavior but attempting to determine how these curriculum experiences might be introduced to teachers and incorporated in the school's program. This is precisely the problem of supervision in its attempt to improve any area of the curriculum.

What techniques, approaches, and methods can supervisors and teachers use to bring about desirable changes in the curriculum if it is to be accomplished under the most common forms of general supervisory policy which may be designated either as guidance and training or as cooperative and participatory?

This study will examine the validity of one such technique or method which was one of several employed by the Citizenship Education Study. The method was evolved by several staff members of the Citizenship Study and the administrator of one of the schools which participated in the Study. The procedure was used experimentally in several situations, three of which will be described in Chapters IV, V, and VI, and used as case studies to test the hypothesis proposed.

#### Statement of the Problem

#### The Hypothesis to be Tested

The hypothesis to be tested in this study is: A group of teachers and Citizenship Education Study staff members, voluntarily working

together using the work-group-conference method, will succeed in promoting the examination of certain areas of the present curriculum, the planning, execution, and evaluation of specific experimental curriculum changes and, in the process, change their perceptions or values as a group.

Incident to the testing of this hypothesis, some data bearing on answers to the following questions were sought and examined.

1. What are the more important or salient aspects of the method or the application of the method?
2. What are the pitfalls which must be avoided in the use of this method in curriculum reconstruction?
3. What are the apparent limitations of the method?

#### Considerations Determining Methodology

The field work nature of the activities under study in this project and the relationships between those persons participating in them militated against a study design which included the assumption of control of any but the most general conditions. In the perception of both teachers and staff members the activities under study were first and foremost an effort to improve a school situation. The study of the application of a set of ideas about approaches to school problems was definitely of secondary concern as the activities began. Gradually, however, the perception of and concern for the methods used by the school and by the staff members in approaching curriculum problems assumed greater importance among staff members and several administrators and teachers. Consequently, various aspects of the work-group-conference method were evolved or perceived by staff members after the initial activity in the projects was completed. Hence, it cannot be assumed that all activities

were conducted in accord with the ideas included in the description of the method.

In the three cases reported in succeeding chapters, the work-group-conference method was not applied uniformly. In one case certain aspects were not only disregarded, but were violated. This was not done deliberately, but a state of affairs developed in the course of attempting to change a school situation in which it did not seem wise, appropriate, or possible to apply certain aspects of the general method which might have been used if another set of conditions had prevailed. The three cases studied do, however, represent an attempt to apply and study a general method or set of ideas or principles although the application differed at certain points.

The extent to which the principles, values, and procedures of the method were or were not applied in the cases reviewed, or were applied with innovations, will be determined by the combined judgment of the three staff members. This is necessary in addition to the description of the method given in Chapter III since it was not uniformly used in the cases presented.

Various techniques were used to gather the data used in this study. They include: observation; formal interview; informal interview; questionnaire; examination and analysis of formulations, statements and products; examination and analysis of records of meetings; and the examination and analysis of anecdotes.

The data were gathered and interpreted largely by the three Citizenship Education staff members including the author of this study. The staff members had trained themselves through a discussion of the task at

hand and through frequent conferences which were concerned with the pertinence of data collected. The procedures used and results obtained were subjected continually to critical review by the group. In their judgments and interpretations the staff members attempted to maintain objectivity and to correct their reporting and their judgments. They continually recalled the need to recognize and control or compensate for the natural inclination of enthusiastic, interested, participant-observers to over-estimate successes and to gloss over irregularities; or to avoid or neglect troublesome, negative, or confused data. The school administrators' reports and judgments concerning changed behavior of teachers who were members of the various groups studied were also used and accepted in almost all cases at face value. In a few instances the observations and judgments of one participant about another (judgments of peers) were also used.

In order to record over a period of time the activities of various groups together with staff members' perceptions of the situation, a marginal punch card reporting form was developed for the use of staff members. This form, called the School-Staff Interaction Record or SSIR, is included in Appendix A. These records, supplemented by dictated reports, became in effect a log of various activities and a record of the interpretations by staff members of various activities and situations.

#### Data Used

If it is assumed that changes in the practices of teachers is equivalent to a change in the curriculum, and if such changes are a result of re-education of values or a changed perception of relationships, certain types of information would be more pertinent than others. Those selected

as of prime importance are listed below without any effort to weigh or indicate their relative importance.

1. The statements of pertinent fact, opinion, and feelings of those participating in the activity which were assumed to be related to indications of changes in beliefs or values about curriculum matters and the relationships which are important in a broad consideration of such matters. The pertinent relationships in general were assumed to be those between teacher and child, teacher and teacher, teacher and administrator, teacher and school, school and community, and administrator and top administration.

2. The presence or absence of admissions or expressions of ignorance, failure, or guilt concerning what to do or how to react in a situation relevant to the area of group study because conventional patterns of reaction were followed rather than those presently held by the group as more correct or desirable. These reactions were assumed to indicate a lack of loyalty to old patterns, values, or relationships and a reduced or entire lack of hostility or fear of the new. It was further assumed that these reactions were preliminary to or an expression of serious consideration of or acceptance of new curriculum values or a new perception of relationships.

3. The presence or absence of efforts to identify blocks which prevented operation according to new values or to the accomplishment of relationships newly perceived. These data also included the efforts to identify self-blocks or conditions within the individual or the group which prevented acceptance of new values and relationships. There was an attempt to distinguish the blocks identified as a rationalization for

not changing from those which were real.

4. The outright expression of hostility to new ideas, values, and relationships embraced by substantially the entire group or a sub-group when these values and relationships were at variance with an existing convention.

5. Evidences that the group used data, or collected data or accepted expert opinion presumably to correct their perception and confirm or redirect their values and their actions.

6. The favorable, noncommittal, or unfavorable reception of major ideas, prepared formulations, or products introduced by individuals or sub-groups, particularly staff members, and the ultimate disposition of these items by the group.

7. The presence or absence of expressions of pride in the accomplishment of the group and especially such expressions directed toward the spread of such achievements so that they might be used, enjoyed, or experienced by others.

8. The assumption of a greater variety of constructive group-relevant roles or patterns of behavior in the group in relation to group procedures, human relationships and leadership. The actual practice of different procedures in the classroom by group members and professional activity in other study groups where the values or relationships underlying the classroom practices might be shared with others.

9. Expressions concerning the efficacy of the group's activity in promoting curriculum change in comparison with experiences in which other methods had been used. These opinions were assumed to be relevant should an attempt be made to assess the relative effectiveness, efficiency, and

economy of the method as well as to give some indication of the satisfactions derived from the work-group-conference type of experience.

10. Evidences of new relationships within the group between teachers, principals, and staff members which tended to represent a conception that all were peers in curriculum exploration or, that status lines must be maintained.

11. Decisions made by the group which were considered by the group to be sufficiently unique, different, or progressive that they might not be readily accepted by the school faculty.

12. Indications of the effectiveness and efficiency of the group's effort to enlist the entire school or a large segment of a faculty in the group's execution or detailing of plans. These data were assumed relevant to one phase of the study, although it was not central. One drawback in the use of the method was recognized early; namely, that if the small group had planned curriculum change, there would still be the necessity in some cases of securing faculty cooperation. Consequently, evidence bearing on this problem was collected.

#### Development of the Study

Chapter II will include background material describing the Detroit Citizenship Education Study to which reference is continually made in succeeding chapters. It will also indicate that the remainder of the study is narrowed to include largely the activities of three staff members who served during the entire life of the Study and almost entirely in four schools, and indicate the staff and school activities which led to the formulation of the method described.

Chapter III will describe the work-group-conference method which was

used with varying degrees of completeness in certain types of curriculum planning problems. The circumstances and conditions in the schools and some of the many sources from which ideas were drawn which determined the form and principles of the method are given followed by a description of the important aspects of the method under examination in this study.

Chapters IV, V, and VI each contain a case history of a group's attempt to attack a curriculum problem in one of the following three areas: 1) teaching to improve the understanding of democracy; 2) improving the student council; and 3) improving education in the primary grades. Each case history will include an account of the state of affairs in regard to the problem at the beginning of the study, the staff's perception of what might be done, and an account of group activities over several years. At the end of each of these three chapters, some conclusions and comments will be made which are peculiarly applicable to the particular case studied in reference to the validity of the method.

Chapter VIII will present conclusions drawn from all three cases which bear on the hypothesis. Some judgments concerning the strengths, weaknesses, and limitations of certain aspects of the method will also be given. Some implications of the findings for curriculum workers, teacher education institutions, and school boards interested in the professional improvement of the teaching staff and curriculum improvement will conclude the chapter and this study.

## CHAPTER II

### SETTING FOR THE STUDY: THE CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION STUDY

Late in 1943 the William Volker Charities Fund, Inc., of Kansas City announced an interest in stimulating exploration and research in the field of citizenship education in the public schools of the country. Tentative plans for a citizenship education study were solicited from several school systems in large, urban, industrialized localities. This led, in the spring of 1944, to a conference of Detroit Public School and Wayne University officials which considered the possibility of preparing a proposal for a citizenship education study project in the Detroit Public Schools. A committee<sup>1</sup> was drafted to prepare such a proposal and to submit it to the William Volker Charities Fund. The negotiations were completed during the fall of 1944. In November, 1944, the Detroit Board of Education accepted a grant of \$85,000 a year for a five-year period from the Volker Fund. They, in turn, authorized that the Citizenship Education Study be conducted in the Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University according to the terms agreed upon and stated in the Proposal for a Citizenship Project in Wayne University and the Detroit Public Schools with modifications agreed upon in subsequent correspondence.

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<sup>1</sup>The committee included: Waldo Lessenger, Dean of the College of Education, Wayne University, chairman; the late C. C. Barnes, then Director of Social Studies in the Detroit Public Schools; Stanley E. Dimond, then Supervisor of Social Studies in the Detroit Public Schools; Manley E. Irwin, Supervising Director of Instruction in the Detroit Public Schools; and Earl Kelley, Professor of Secondary Education, Wayne University.

This document will be referred to hereafter as the Basic Agreement.

The Basic Agreement in pointing the need for improvement in citizenship education used such phrases as:

Democratic government requires alert, informed, interested, honest citizens. These citizens must care sufficiently about our American way of life to spend time and energy in making the democratic process effective. Unfortunately, neither in this country nor in any other country, has such an informed participating citizenry ever been adequately developed.

There is a great need for raising the level of civic life in America.

In view of these shortcomings [non-voting, civic lethargy, non-informed voters] it is evident that citizenship training in this country has fallen short of the ideal. . . . It is evident that there is need for intensive experimentation, research, and demonstration of results looking toward the improvement of citizenship education.<sup>1</sup>

The agreement stipulated that a board of trustees (two appointed by the donor, two by the Superintendent of the Detroit Public Schools and one, the chairman, appointed by the four) should select the director of the project and annually review the budget and the progress of the Study. The Director, an employee of the Detroit Board of Education, was selected in December, 1944. During the next nine months he selected a professional staff of eight members. Five staff members were transferred to the Study from various teaching and supervisory positions in the Detroit school system. Three were recruited from universities or other school systems.

During the first months of the Study, arrangements were made to select the schools which were to participate in the venture. Two senior high schools, two junior high schools, and four elementary schools were

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<sup>1</sup>Proposal for a Citizenship Project in Wayne University and the Detroit Public Schools (Detroit: Citizenship Education Study, Wayne University, 1945), p. 1. Copy of the original proposal sent to the William Volker Charities Fund, Inc.

to be selected from a list of volunteering schools. Consequently, notices were distributed to all schools indicating that the school might be eligible for consideration by writing a letter indicating a desire to cooperate in the Study. This notice was supplemented by an explanation made by the Director before a meeting of all Detroit school principals. A few schools or faculties requested more detailed information before making a decision. Complete, detailed information was not available, however, since the definition of citizenship and the framework or outline of the Study had not been completed. Schools were told that a central staff of seven or eight would cooperate with the schools in an effort to improve citizenship in the schools; that various types of resources such as consultant services, teaching materials, and money to secure released time for teachers would be available; and that an effort would be made periodically to collect data which would be used to identify and describe the changes which had occurred in the schools. From the school requests received, which totalled several times the number that could be honored, a group of school officials made the final selection. The criteria for selection used by the officials included the following considerations:

1. The participating schools should represent a general cross section of Detroit.
2. At least one group of pupils should be in participating schools throughout the five-year period of the Study.
3. The principal and the majority of the faculty should be willing to participate.
4. The participating schools should have fairly typical and complete equipment.
5. The schools, for the most part, should have a relatively stable population.
6. The schools should reflect some of the inter-group aspects

of the general Detroit population.<sup>1</sup>

The discussions in Chapters III, IV, V, and VI are concerned largely with activities in the two junior high schools or intermediate schools (grades 7-9) and two of the four elementary schools.

During the first months of the Study, the staff reviewed the accounts of current activities to improve citizenship and citizenship education and recent educational studies. Tentative plans to cope with several urgent problems were also formulated with the aid of consultants who sat with the staff in its deliberations. There were several related, yet distinguishable, tasks to be done, namely:

1. The Basic Agreement suggested an initial inventory or survey which would establish certain aspects of the state of affairs which would serve as baseline data pertaining to citizenship in the schools. Since there was some urgency that this be completed before the closing of schools in mid-June if it was to be done before activities began in September, a great deal of decision making and planning was necessary.

2. According to the terms of the Basic Agreement a detailed outline or framework for the Study was to be prepared and submitted to the Board of Trustees. One aspect of this, although not mentioned specifically, was to define citizenship. Another aspect was to outline the evaluation phases of the project.

3. Some plans concerning the ways in which the staff would approach and work cooperatively with the schools were necessary.

The staff activities related to each of these three problems will

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<sup>1</sup>The Citizenship Education Study (Detroit: Citizenship Education Study, Wayne University, 1945), p. 16.

be recounted in some detail since they reveal assumptions, perceptions, and points of view which are significant and necessary to an understanding of the content areas and the procedures discussed in the following chapters.

Since the staff was agreed that it would be desirable to secure data before the close of school in June, 1945, which would serve as baseline data—as a point of reference—in attempting to describe change which might occur, a data collecting schedule was completed. The schedule included the testing of all June graduates in the eight schools in reading, work-study skills, personal problems, social studies abilities, and attitude toward the school. Questionnaire forms were prepared for teachers in all eight schools designed to gather information about homeroom practices, out-of-class activities, failures, and teachers' perceptions of promising points of attack to improve citizenship. A questionnaire schedule to be completed by the principal in each school was prepared. This form contained questions about the number and type of current school activities—clubs, honor societies, service organizations; faculty committees, time allotment for subjects; schedules; types of community contact; and other factual information. A list of variables or indices which were assumed pertinent to citizenship were also identified and the sources from which data might be obtained were identified. It included such sources and items as:

1. The custodial department of the schools to determine the number of broken window panes.
2. The City Election Commission to ascertain the voting record of adults in the participating school neighborhood.

3. The Street Lighting Commission to determine the number of broken lights in areas adjacent to the participating schools.

4. The Police Department to determine the number of complaints registered against juveniles from each school neighborhood.

The Study assumed at this stage that one phase of the evaluation program would consist of an attempt to evaluate a school's progress by the use of a set of indices which would indicate changes in the behavior of children and adults in the participating school communities resulting from the changes made in the school's program and procedures.

The principals of the participating schools were invited to a meeting in the Study offices in May, 1945, during which the necessity for gathering certain information before activities began was explained and discussed. A tentative schedule for testing the June graduates in the terminal grades of each school was proposed by the Study; and the questionnaires prepared for pupils, teachers, and principals were also explained. By the end of June, the gathering of this school information and the testing had been completed.

The second major task of the staff concerned the presentation of a "framework for the conduct of the project" which the Director of the Study was to submit to the Trustees according to the terms of the Basic Agreement.<sup>1</sup> The writing of this framework continued through the summer months of 1945.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Op. cit., p. 5.

<sup>2</sup>The Citizenship Education Study of the Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University supported by the William Volker Charities Fund, Inc. (Detroit: Citizenship Education Study, Wayne University, 1945). A statement on the general framework of the Study prepared by the staff.

One section of the pamphlet, The Citizenship Education Study of the Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University, hereafter called, The Framework, was devoted to a definition and clarification of citizenship. It should be noted that the broad definitions of citizenship and curriculum embraced by the staff of the Study encompassed in some measure almost all of the activities of the school. The staff was aware that most curriculum problems in a school would thus become potential problems for the Study. The following definition of citizenship written by the staff and included in The Framework was approved by the Trustees:

Careful planning is required to carry out the purpose of this Study. Before such plans can be made, it seems imperative to have a common understanding of the meaning of citizenship. Citizenship as it relates to school activities has a two-fold meaning. In a narrow sense citizenship includes only legal status in a country and the activities closely related to the political functions--voting, governmental organization, holding of public office, and legal rights and responsibilities.

Citizenship, in addition, has also acquired a broad meaning almost synonymous with those desirable personal qualities which are displayed in human associations. The citizen lives within the framework of a highly complex maze of interests, activities, and associations. Any attempt to enable him to live successfully in democratic society as it really exists, must give due attention to a whole gamut of relations--political and other--for these relations and associations are the essence of citizenship. They are the relationships which become the warp and woof of democratic living in the community.

For this Study, then, citizenship means the relations of the individual to his government and, in addition, his relations to other members and groups in a democratic society. It is recognized that the governmental phases of citizenship are of vital importance, yet the broader definition must provide the basis for the Study. This conclusion is reached because today our present knowledge of the growth and development of human beings has demonstrated that it is unwise to dissociate any aspect of growth of the individual, such as the political, from the growth of the individual as a whole. Moreover, there has been during this century a trend toward expanding the scope of government until today there is no longer a clear demarcation between the governmental and non-governmental activities of the citizen. It is also significant that this Study is to include children at all age levels, and in the elementary schools particularly many of the political implications of citizenship are

beyond the maturity levels of the pupils.

In a further effort to define citizenship, certain important qualities of the good citizen were detailed.

Qualities of the Good Citizen In a Democracy

Since citizenship is to be defined broadly, what are the essential qualities of the good citizen? Any description of these qualities must be consistent with the democratic way of life to which Americans give allegiance. The Study proposes, therefore, to describe five essential qualities of the good citizen and to discuss each in such a manner that the concept of the good citizen will be clear.

THE GOOD CITIZEN CHERISHES DEMOCRATIC VALUES AND BASES HIS ACTIONS ON THEM.

The good citizen gives allegiance to the ideals of democracy. He cherishes values which are consistent with the democratic way of life and bases his actions upon these values. He has respect for the dignity and worth of human personality. He has faith in man's ability to solve common problems through the process of thinking. He is concerned with the general welfare of all people; he believes that human culture belongs to all men. He is loyal to the principle of equality of opportunity for all people. All other qualities of the good citizen stem from and are a part of this primary quality.

THE GOOD CITIZEN RECOGNIZES THE SOCIAL PROBLEMS OF THE TIMES AND HAS THE WILL AND THE ABILITY TO WORK TOWARD THEIR SOLUTION.

The good citizen recognizes and endeavors to help in the solution of social problems: problems of race, religion, economics, and politics—problems of the role of government in relation to the people; problems of the place of the United States in world affairs; problems of the equitable use of resources; problems of family, school, community, and neighborhood living.

THE GOOD CITIZEN IS AWARE OF AND TAKES RESPONSIBILITY FOR MEETING BASIC HUMAN NEEDS.

The good citizen is aware of the importance of meeting basic human needs and is concerned with the extension of the essentials of life to more individuals. All people have certain basic human needs: the need to be free from aggression, domination, or exploitation; the need for love and affection; the need to take responsibility in cooperation with others; the need for a level of living which provides for adequate health, housing and recreation; the need to have high standards of spiritual, ethical, and moral values. The failure to meet these basic human needs may result in the development of maladjustments which increase the intensity of social problems.

THE GOOD CITIZEN PRACTICES DEMOCRATIC HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS IN THE

FAMILY, SCHOOL, COMMUNITY AND IN THE LARGER SCENE.

The good citizen recognizes the interdependence of all people in family, school, community, national, and world relationships. He practices the kinds of human relationships that are consistent with a democratic society. He personalizes what happens to others, thereby earning respect and confidence. He develops his own ability to cooperate with others. He sincerely desires to help other persons. Through these practices, he builds good will as a resource for the future.

THE GOOD CITIZEN POSSESSES AND USES KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS, AND ABILITIES NECESSARY IN A DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY.

The good citizen possesses and uses knowledge, skills, and abilities to facilitate the process of democratic living. He needs skills and abilities in reading, listening, discussing, and observing. He uses these skills and abilities in order to gain understanding of the present structure and functioning of society; the working principles of representative government; the impact of pressure groups; the operation of the economic system; the social stratification of the population; and the relationship of all these to the complex social heritage. With knowledge, skills, and abilities as a basis, the good citizen needs to become more proficient in civic action.

In summary, the ends of good citizenship are concerned with democratic values, with the solving of social problems, with meeting basic human needs, with the quality of human relationships, and with the knowledge, skills, and abilities necessary in a democratic society. All of these qualities of the good citizen should be given adequate attention in a program of citizenship education.<sup>1</sup>

Certain phases of the evaluation plans for the Study had already been detailed prior to the gathering of information in June, 1945. There were, however, other details which needed further examination. The Basic Agreement included many items specifically related to evaluation which the staff members considered in attempting to draw up an overall evaluation framework. The following sections indicate the suggested scope of research, study, and evaluation activities:

It is evident that there is need for intensive experimentation,

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<sup>1</sup>Op. cit., pp. 3-8.

research, and demonstration of results looking toward the improvement of citizenship education.

The proposal accordingly contemplates a many-sided approach, but one which can be measured in terms of changes in personal behavior and in community conditions.

The purpose of this project would be to study ways of increasing the interest, competence, and participation of boys and girls in the activities of good citizens and to develop them eventually into good adult citizens.

#### The Evaluation Procedure

The procedure of the study would consist in general of demonstration and experimentation with new instructional methods and materials and with those methods and materials which in recent years have given most promise of increasing the interest, competence, integrity, and participation of boys and girls in the activities of the good citizen.

In the conduct of the experiment among the methods and materials which would be tried out are:

- a. A more democratic environment and atmosphere within the school;
- b. A more intensive study of the community in which the pupils live;
- c. A study of the vocational opportunities within a community;
- d. Study and practice of voting within the school;
- e. The use of teaching methods emphasizing the emotional and inspirational appeal, as well as the intellectual one;
- f. The development with pupils of improved techniques of discussion based on the objectives of being scientific in one's thinking;
- g. The open and frank discussion of any or all important contemporary social problems;
- h. The use in the school of such material in the form of newspapers and pamphlets as adults are called upon to evaluate;
- i. The identification of the values of specific types of assembly programs;
- j. The use of a specially emphasized club program;
- k. The cumulative use of available sound movies and radio transcriptions;
- l. The use of planned ritual and dramatic ceremonies designed to give the students the thrill of being members of a democracy.

The first phase of the study would consist of a careful inventory of the present interest, attitudes, concern, and participation of boys and girls in citizenship activities. Evaluation instruments would be prepared or selected to measure all matters which are deemed pertinent to the study.

In this original inventory, the cooperation of students, faculties, parents, and community leaders from all walks of life would be enlisted. The intent would be to get as complete a picture of the schools and communities as is possible in order to understand thoroughly the environment in which the pupils live and against

which changes will be measured later.

To increase the validity of the experiment, this inventory would be taken in the experimental schools and in other comparable schools which would serve as 'controls.'

Periodically thereafter, as well as at the end of the experiment, careful expanded inventory appraisals would be made as a basis for continuing the study. Comparing the periodic results with the results of the initial appraisal should show the advances made by the experiment.

For a five- to ten-year period following the formal completion of this study, the Department of Social Studies and participating schools would conduct a 'follow-up' study of students from the experimental and control schools in order to determine the permanency of any changes.

The following matters would receive major attention in the instructional phase of the study, and their values in a program of civic education would be carefully measured:

- A. The development of greater interest in citizenship activities.
- B. The promotion of effective student participation in civic affairs.
- C. The improvement of techniques of efficient living in a democracy.<sup>1</sup>

In addition to the ideas and suggestions for research, experimentation, evaluation, and appraisal included in the Basic Agreement, the Framework, written by the staff, added others, some of which were:

Two major methods of attack on the problem of developing better citizens are implicit in the planning of this Study. First, it is proposed to make a general, coordinated, total approach to the problems of citizenship education in eight participating schools and to evaluate the effectiveness of this total school approach in terms of changes in personal, group, and community behavior. Second, it is proposed to select, organize, develop, and evaluate specific practices and methods which give the most promise of more adequately discharging the school's obligation to develop effective citizens for our democracy.

. . . the staff may select some of the most significant practices and attempt to evaluate them within the limits of available resources.

The evaluation program will take its direction from the description of citizenship. This means that data will be secured on democratic

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<sup>1</sup>Op. cit., pp. 1-4, 7-8.

values, on sensitivity to and ability to work toward the solution of social problems, on the extent to which democratic human relationships are practiced, and on the degree to which young people are becoming competent and informed in democratic living.

The evaluation activities, it is hoped, will grow out of a process of planning and sharing. While certain 'before and after' data are being collected, there will be much emphasis on continuous self evaluation on the part of students, teachers, administrators, and the staff.<sup>1</sup>

The group assigned the task of completing an overall framework had great difficulty in formulating a scheme into which these various commitments and possibilities might be fitted. A hectographed document known to the staff as the Evaluation Framework was submitted for consideration early in 1946. It was supplemented later in the year by a marginal punch card (The School-Staff Interaction Record) for keeping a log and a record of staff members' observations and interpretations. It was further supplemented by The Classroom Observation Form.

The staff recognized the impossibility of completing all of the tasks suggested in the Basic Agreement even if the schools were merely considered as laboratories where staff projects could be carried through without question. There was reluctance to commit the Study to any specific projects which could be called research efforts in any except the most general manner. This does not, however, include the annual testing of terminal grades in each school and the collection of data from non-school sources such as voting and police records. Even here, however, there was some reluctance to impose a project which was not approved by the school. The reservations were based on the fear that such procedures

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<sup>1</sup>Op. cit., pp. 11, 13-14.

would jeopardize the success of the approach the coordinators proposed using in entering the schools and working cooperatively with them. This does not mean that the staff did not envisage certain specific research projects developing in the schools. Such projects were carried on ultimately, but they were not pre-planned and forced on the schools.

The task of clarifying staff approaches to the schools and developing "ways of working" was assigned to the four staff members called coordinators. This designation was given to the staff members specifically assigned to work in certain schools in a contact or liaison capacity. The term coordinator was considered more appropriate than the term supervisor as the staff members attempted to define their role in the Study. This was done even though the Basic Agreement had tentatively suggested the term "assistant principal" or "supervisor."

One staff member would be assigned to each participating school, with status comparable to that of an assistant principal or supervisor. A director and an evaluation expert would be housed at a central office and would have direct administrative and supervisory responsibility for the study.<sup>1</sup>

The entire staff was in rather complete agreement that a principle of voluntary cooperation should be adopted with no coercion by means of conventional status position methods.

The ideas of the group of four staff members assigned to develop ways of working were included in a bulletin called "Ways of Working" which was distributed widely in all schools. The thinking of the group may be summarized by quoting from the First Annual Report of the Study.

Previous studies have shown that in attempts to improve the

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<sup>1</sup>Op. cit., p. 4.

program of a school, three factors are essential: 1) starting with problems that are real to teachers, 2) working cooperatively on these problems, and 3) locating leadership in the school. The staff of the Study in establishing a working relationship with the schools has tried to operate in accordance with these principles. In this process, the staff has felt responsible for having ideas and for making suggestions which would be helpful to the schools. Accordingly, as cooperative work began, a written statement, 'Ways of Working,' was developed. This statement has served as a guide for the directions in which schools might modify current practice. In this document appropriate citizenship activities were grouped under four major categories: 1) Direct Experience, 2) Guidance, 3) Appeals of Democracy, and 4) Research and Evaluation. As a result of the first months of work with the participating schools this document is being rewritten to bring the theoretical views into closer harmony with procedures which have demonstrated effectiveness.<sup>1</sup>

Another excerpt from a Study report issued near the end of the third year of the Study clarifies the role of the coordinators and other staff members as it was developed in practice.

The second major procedure of the Study was the cooperative method by which staff members and faculties of the schools worked together. It was decided very early in the Study that the staff would not attempt to make a blueprint or a program of citizenship education and then ask the schools to put this plan into practice. Rather, the approach to the schools was that the staff tried to work cooperatively with principals, teachers, students and community leaders on the problems of citizenship which existed in the schools. As a result, school groups have been helped to identify their citizenship problems, and to work cooperatively on the solutions of these problems. This procedure, in its results, is an important feature of the Study.<sup>2</sup>

In August, 1945, a one-week citizenship workshop for teachers in the eight participating schools was arranged. Approximately one hundred,

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<sup>1</sup>First Annual Report, The Citizenship Education Study of The Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University (Detroit: Citizenship Education Study, Wayne University, 1945), p. 6.

<sup>2</sup>Progress Report, The Citizenship Education Study of The Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University Supported by the William Volker Charities Fund, Inc. (Detroit: Citizenship Education Study, Wayne University, November, 1947), p. 8.

or one-fourth of all the teachers in the eight schools, attended most of the sessions. After the opening of school (September, 1945) faculty meetings, group conferences, and interviews with teachers were held frequently. Some meetings were held during the school day. In these cases substitute teachers were provided by the Study. Consultants were supplied in many cases. Visits to other schools by administrators and teachers were arranged and paid for by the Study. A professional library was developed and placed in each school. A resource kit containing books and other teaching materials related to the emotional appeals of democracy was made available to schools.

Each school developed its own unique organizational pattern, in most cases consisting of a central or steering committee and other specialized groups such as the following:

- Building Committee
- Classroom Techniques Committee
- Community Relations Committee
- Dramatic, Emotional, and Intellectual Appeals to Democracy Committee
- Homeroom Guidance Committee
- Pupil Participation in Classroom Activities Committee
- Recreation Committee
- Resources Committee

In all schools staff members have spent much time working with individual teachers.<sup>1</sup>

The account of activities of the first year in the First Annual Report lists twenty-eight different projects or activities.<sup>2</sup>

The activities of the Study continued along the same pattern through

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<sup>1</sup>First Annual Report, The Citizenship Education Study of The Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University (Detroit: Citizenship Education Study, Wayne University, 1945), p. 7.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 7-9.

the second and third years. A summarization of activities was issued near the end of the third year of the Study, after two full years' work with the schools, at the invitation of the Detroit Board of Education. This report explains the activities in relation to the staff's ways of working as follows:

One effect of this concentration on a school's citizenship problems is that the eight schools are not developing citizenship programs that are alike. Each one is developing a program that is important for the children attending that particular school. Another effect of this cooperative attack on school problems has been that teachers have needed more time in which they could analyze problems, plan better methods of attack, and prepare materials and procedures that would assist in developing the school's citizenship program. The Study, therefore, supplies substitutes to free some teachers a day or two at a time to work on significant problems. workshops are held at which teacher groups meet together. Meetings of many types are held afternoons and evenings. Faculty groups sometimes meet on Saturday mornings. One of the important facts, apparent in the Study to date, is that teachers are willing to devote endless hours of time in the attempt to solve a problem which they think is important.

Encouraging school faculties to help in the solution of their problems has meant that the Study has undertaken a great variety of activities during the first two years. It was believed that this Study should be creative; that it should not confine itself within narrow channels; that it should represent a fundamental attack on the problems of citizenship education. It is probably true that there are scarcely any problems in the whole range of educational procedure that have not come up for review at least in one or more of the schools of the Study. Faculties have been confronted with a variety of problems from relatively simple matters of gum chewing and tardiness to serious problems of gang warfare in the neighborhood of a school.<sup>1</sup>

Near the beginning of the fourth year of the Study, the staff again considered the desirability and the possibility of designing an overall pattern of viewing the activities of the Study. This seemed desirable from the standpoint of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data and

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<sup>1</sup>Progress Report (1947). p. 9.

impressions so that the final reports would be somewhat uniform. The staff considered various points of view:

1. The schools were different in the character of the membership, staff, organization, and in their approaches to specific problems and, therefore, since the various situations were different, there could be no overall pattern, except in the broadest sense.

2. There was not one study, but eight studies.

3. Granting the schools and their attack on problems were different, they were also alike in that they were public schools in the same centralized system. They were all working toward the same or closely related end goals and many approaches were similar.

4. The whole array of activities might be fitted together into a mosaic.

This led to the designation of two teams of three staff members each. One team worked rather closely with two elementary schools and one high school, the other team worked with two elementary and two junior high schools. One coordinator restricted his activities largely to one high school. This organization of the staff continued to the end of the Study.

The projects detailed in Chapters III, IV, V, and VI will be restricted almost entirely to the activities of the team of which the writer was a member and will be principally concerned with activities during the last three years of the Study.

## CHAPTER III

### EVOLVEMENT AND DESCRIPTION OF THE WORK-GROUP-CONFERENCE METHOD

#### Conditions Determining Choice of Method

#### Assumptions and Viewpoints on Evolving a Method for Effecting Curriculum Change

When a method to achieve certain end results is deliberately chosen, the choice is usually influenced by a great many assumptions, some obvious and some obscure. Beside the assumptions and perceptions implicit in the discussion of conditions which led to the formulation of what will be called the work-group-conference method of promoting curriculum change, there are three which should be stated immediately. They are:

1. The community looks to the schools for educational leadership. Schools are expected to initiate suggestions for change. Education has become a complex undertaking, the details of which should be largely entrusted to the profession, with final policy control residing in the people.

2. The idea that the schools should initiate and suggest changes does not deny the belief that the community must be involved. There is, however, wisdom in attempting to stimulate interaction among professional educators before intense community interaction is invited in curriculum affairs.

The method or process to promote change described in the last section of this chapter did not originate full-blown from armchair speculation. It evolved from what William James more than a half-century ago

called "knowledge-of-acquaintance." This the staff members gained as they worked in schools engaging in many varieties of individual and group conferences, formal and informal meetings, academic and social activities. They also observed and taught school classes. In addition to this intimate "knowledge-of-acquaintance," staff members attempted to apply any pertinent systematic knowledge of things which had been gleaned from various disciplines. All of this led to evolving an effective way of thinking about activities anticipated in the future. The staff members eventually operated on the belief that "there is nothing so practical as a usable theory."

Lawrence Henderson indicates that this procedure or method of Hippocrates is effective in medicine and that it is equally applicable in the business of living. He describes the procedure as, first, the persistent, intelligent labor and observation in the situation--gaining knowledge of the details. Secondly, there must be the careful selection and classification of recurrent phenomena and their methodological exploitation. Lastly, the insights thus gained should be used in:

The judicious construction of a theory--not a philosophical theory, nor a grand effort of the imagination, nor a quasi-religious dogma, but a modest pedestrian affair . . . a useful walking stick to help on the way. . . . All this may be summed up in a word: The practitioner must have, first, intimate, habitual, intuitive familiarity with things; secondly, systematic knowledge of things; and thirdly, an effective way of thinking about things.<sup>1</sup>

The direct effect of the staff members and administrators involved in this project upon children was of necessity very slight. The total

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<sup>1</sup>Lawrence J. Henderson, Fatigue of Workers, Report of National Research Council (New York: Reinhold Publishing Corporation, 1941), p. 13.

membership of the four schools involved was approximately 6,000 students and 200 teachers. If changes were to be effected in students by the Citizenship Study, they must be made almost entirely by teachers through the curriculum.

This posed the questions: What curriculum pattern should be used? How should this pattern be communicated to teachers? The differences between the socio-economic, cultural, and community aspects of the schools and the resulting divergent problems discouraged any attempt to plan a rather rigid uniform curriculum.

#### Teachers Tailor the Curriculum

Staff members rejected the general idea that a curriculum is a collection of courses of study. They believed that the divergent problems of the various schools and groups within each school should lead to prescribing activities and organizing learning tailored to specific situations. This indicated a flexible curriculum. It meant that the teacher must make many diagnoses and decisions and, hence, the ingredient of individual teacher judgment became much more important than under more conventional patterns of centralized curriculum making reported a decade or more ago.<sup>1</sup> The idea may be summarized in the following proposition: If the teacher is to effect changes in children's behavior which are an improvement over their present behavior, it must come partly as the result of improved teacher judgment in tailoring experiences to the needs of children as diagnosed and interpreted by the teacher. It was assumed

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<sup>1</sup>C. C. Trillingham, Organization and Administration of Curriculum Programs (Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1934).

that good classroom adaptation and inventiveness would come through the continued professionalization and education of the school staff.

This assumption was held despite the fact that some teachers circumscribed the area of professional decision making very tightly. They expected to be told rather specifically what they should do and were willing to be judged--not by results, but by their performance in carrying out rather rigid instructions. A great many comments of this group of teachers could be listed under a category titled: "Tell us just what to do and we'll do it."

To counterbalance the influence of this group, there were many teachers who were eager to spend endless time outside of their regular workday schedule to improve conditions. They had already sensed that the problems were complex, that many important questions in education were not conclusively answered, and that it would take concerted professional effort to improve. The staff members came to a decision that in initial phases of activity the method of attempting change should be geared to those willing to accept a share in the process. It was based on the belief that such action was likely to produce deep-seated change which would stimulate continued change.

#### The School is Like an Organism--an Organic Unit

In their efforts to stimulate experimentation with promising practices and the regularization of desirable procedures, staff members dealt in many cases with individual teachers. The results were mildly encouraging. The satisfactions and expectations resulting from some successes in this type of endeavor, however, were dulled through the realization that such efforts could only operate within limits prescribed by many

factors. Each teacher was a part of a school and often of a subject-matter department. The school and often the department had schedules and conventions which facilitated orderly execution of activities. When, therefore, an individual teacher made decisions about new or different procedures, he was circumscribed by decisions already made in the form of schedules, conventions, or directives. Whether the decisions were made by someone else or cooperatively made by a group was beside the point. The changes considered by an individual could not interfere with routine and other limitations already established. This limited the scope of change.

The assumption that within the mechanical limitations described, however, the teacher could determine the method he would use in his classroom was also open to question. When, for example, a teacher used a method which allowed the student a fair amount of freedom of movement and a share in determining activities within his own classroom and within time limits and resources prescribed, he could not assume that it was "nobody else's business" and no one else would be concerned. This was not usually true. The students compared such classroom procedures with those experienced in other classrooms and often made comparisons which were odious to either the experimenting teacher or other teachers who were using other methods. The school is like an organism in that changes in any part have their effects on the entire body.

Even the lack of enthusiasm and understanding by the school appeared to thwart individuals who were enthusiastic about a particular projected change in program. This difficulty was noted by others as early as 1942. Hulse and Hurlbut describe the results of individuals attempting to

introduce new practices after a workshop session as follows:

At best teachers take back with them an improved course of study, new enthusiasms, greater understanding of the child, and a desire to share with their fellow workers some of the new insights gained. Frequently, once back in school, the lack of interest of other teachers in his field or of his supervisory and administrative officers raise serious doubts as to the value of his summer work.<sup>1</sup>

#### Cooperation is of Many Kinds

The perception of the school as an organism, as an organic unit, indicated that the establishment of freedom and understanding necessary to make many types of even minor changes would require considerable communication and cooperation.

The desirability of having many teachers from a school work on the problems of that school was evident. The cooperation entailed could, however, be variously defined and there were some varieties which were far more desirable than others. The following listing which is patterned rather closely after Curtis'<sup>2</sup> analysis will indicate what is meant when reference is made to the desirability of stimulating a faculty or group to use the higher levels of cooperation:

1. Of all the types of cooperation, the least desirable might be termed compulsion or compulsory cooperation. This condition might exist when one group by its superior power, position, status, or wits compels another group to do its will.

2. When two more equally powerful groups attempt to work together,

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<sup>1</sup>M. L. Hulse and A. S. Hurlbut, "A School Faculty at a Summer Workshop," Curriculum Journal, XIII (1942).

<sup>2</sup>S. A. Curtis, Democratization, A Teacher's Manual of Suggestions (Mimeographed booklet compiled for the Detroit Regional Conference of the Michigan Education Association, November, 1945), p. 78.

opposing points of view may make complete agreement impossible. In this case, each may relinquish one point to gain another and cooperation by compromise is possible.

3. Another level of cooperation might be described as the cooperation of common action. This occurs when individuals have individual benefits to be gained by acting with others. Each achieves his own purpose, although the purposes may differ.

4. When two or more groups consider working together, they may find that each has something that the other wants or needs. Mutual exchange may be entirely satisfactory and cooperation by barter is effected.

5. When two or more groups considering working together are disposed to be friendly and of good will, they may agree to lend a helping hand to a group in need of assistance. This is the cooperation of assistance.

6. When individuals and groups become intent upon considering the good of each individual and balancing this with the welfare of all groups concerned, and when these values are uppermost in working out individual and group action in an endeavor, the result is democratic cooperation.

#### The Faculty Group Code

Another school phenomenon noted, which was related to the factors which retard, prevent, or confuse the changes initiated by individuals, dealt with the disposition of a school faculty to view a teacher's classroom methods as a form of social behavior. Beside the institutional approval necessary to make change, the teacher must consider the natural code of the faculty group which operated informally but often very

incisively. These codes seemed to operate in schools in very much the same fashion as those used by groups of workers described in reports of the Hawthorne Plant experiments.<sup>1</sup> Some faculty groups had acceptable norms bearing on the rigidity of discipline; acceptable teacher patterns of rewards and punishments; "apple polishing" with reference to parents, supervisors, or other administrators; duties outside of regular school hours; attitudes toward achievement standards of pupils or faculty members; or the acceptable attitudes of a department head. Although the code was unwritten and unstated and often unrecognized by the people who observed it, a new teacher in a school could often identify its content and the nature of the sanctions employed to enforce it in a short time. An individual might deviate from the norms established by the "natural faculty or group code" and operate within the limits of the official administrative code, but not without suffering some loss of social status.

The natural code of the school established norms of acceptable teacher behavior, so did the system of regulations necessary for the orderly operation of the school. These factors operated much the same on teachers as the mores and folklore affect society. The concept was in many ways similar to that of culture as used by anthropologists in studying and reporting the activities of various social groups and societies. Stuart Chase's popular definition of culture "as the cement which binds the group into a living organism"<sup>2</sup> also describes the nature of

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<sup>1</sup>F. J. Roethlisberger, Management and Morale (Cambridge: Harvard Press, 1941), p. 22.

<sup>2</sup>Stuart Chase, The Proper Study of Mankind (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948), p. 61.

the effects of the "culture" in the school. The institutional code and the natural group professional code of the faculty determined in large measure the way of life which a faculty group would follow.

#### Curriculum Change--A Change in School Culture

In attempting to devise a method which treated the school as an organism in which there must be cooperation in action and in which the action is determined to an extent by the institutional and natural group code, it seemed necessary to consider ways of changing the "culture" of the school. For this reason a major change in the school curriculum was considered similar to a change in the "culture" within the restrictions suggested previously. Since it was assumed that individuals or groups would act according to value systems, the change that appeared necessary was a change or re-education of those values which were relevant to situations encountered in curriculum change.

#### Administrative Structure--Clearance

This perception of curriculum change as a change in the school culture was a viewpoint which was not as common as one which considered it a matter of administrative decision and organizational structure and function. This frame of reference was also necessary and very real. Since public education is the business of the state, administrative law and the theory of public administration early imposed an institutional, organizational structure and a means of control. This resulted in the conventional hierarchical system common to most public and many private institutions. "A system of consciously coordinated personal activities

or forces"<sup>1</sup> was necessary to carry on a long-term cooperative function.

From observing the entanglements of certain individuals who attempted to make changes in classroom methods and procedures, or in school schedules, it soon became evident to the staff that "clearance" was extremely important, and that certain "ritual," seemingly superficial and unnecessary, was often a serious block. Changes which were not thoroughly understood by the immediate administrator soon wilted or died. If they lived they were often sources of tension and irritation to the experimenters and the administrator. The experimenters often felt dependent upon the administrator for security which might be personal approval, professional approval, praise, protection, or favorable disposition to promotion possibilities. On the other hand, the administrator hesitated to sanction experimentation or change without complete knowledge since technically, the administrator was responsible within certain limits for the educational program of the school. In some cases it seemed that the administrator was concerned for his security with reference to the next higher eschelon in the administrative hierarchy in exactly the same way as the teacher. Without following the inference made to its logical conclusion, it seemed advisable and possible to have at least two levels, and more if possible, of the school organization--the administrator and the teachers--jointly plan the change or at least understand and be relatively comfortable psychologically with the changes which were to be attempted. That the security of the teacher would be increased,

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<sup>1</sup>Chester Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938), p. 72.

but that the security of the principal might decrease in certain respects under such an arrangement was recognized.

The Process of Change Should be "Democratic"

Another matter which arose from the staff members' experiences in promoting change centered in what is known generally as "democratic participation in policy determination" or as "democratic administration" in **current** educational books and periodicals. Quite aside from the general approval which democratic practices in educational administration receive, it was particularly necessary in the Citizenship Education Study to attempt to promote changes in ways which were consistent with Study ends which included: a better understanding and commitment to democracy. When changes were attempted by means which were not consistent with this goal, guilt feelings among those initiating change were common. When the teachers' perception of procedures indicated that procedures were not broadly democratic, and that circumstances made it necessary to compromise with democratic ideals, they were not critical. When it appeared, however, that very little effort was made to allow complete freedom in the discussion of projected plans, many teachers objected violently, even though they were not immediately vocal in objecting. On the whole it was agreed that a school operated within the framework of many value systems, some of which might be ambivalent, but if social progress was to be made in a democracy, it seemed desirable to be consistent—to try to make the changes by means which would be considered democratic.

The vague and nebulous meaning of democracy was frankly recognized. Those meanings which were identified as most crucial in this matter were related to: the personal worth of each individual; his sharing in the

determination of matters vitally affecting him; the use of intelligence in arriving at decisions; and understanding what intelligence lay behind decisions.

Time, Effectiveness, and Efficiency

From the specifications of the job to be done, experiences with one- and two-hour meetings spaced at intervals of one week to two months seemed relatively inefficient and ineffective. This perception led to considerations of urgency, effectiveness, efficiency, and economy. A frank appraisal of the staff members' twenty years of professional experience with professional committee meetings and faculty meetings led to the utilization of Barnard's distinction between the terms effectiveness and efficiency.<sup>1</sup> An action or a plan was considered effective if it achieved its immediate goal or objective. The efficiency of the action or plan was concerned with the concomitant resulting effects which were not considered a part of the immediate goal or end result.

The distinction may be clarified by an example. In a school the teachers became interested—with the principal's blessing—in securing a more complete insight into the total school day activities of the children under their particular care. The teachers had been using the periods between classes to gather such information and consequently could not give their undivided attention to the transfer of classes and behavior in the corridor. The noise and unnecessary disorder increased. The principal, noting the confusion and fearing a possible accident or uncomplimentary parent comment, circulated a memorandum describing his

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 19.

concern. He included a suggestion that teachers might control the situation from their classroom door. As a result of this memorandum, conditions returned to normal with respect to hall passing. The principal's action was effective. To judge its efficiency, however, other concomitant results must be considered. The teachers could no longer interact with teachers during the periods between classes and hence this opportunity of gaining insight into pupils' activities in other rooms was eliminated. Furthermore, the teachers perceived the note as a mild rebuke for unprofessional behavior and retaliated by refusing to talk about the progress of their charges at lunch time, which they had been doing. The achievement of another goal which the principal held highly—to have teachers know and understand the total daily educational experience of children—was hampered considerably. In this sense, the undesirable concomitant effect of sending the note to improve hall order was decidedly inefficient.

Staff members tentatively entertained the idea that the sporadic one- or two-hour committee or faculty meetings to consider curriculum change were not only inefficient but also ineffective. This did not mean that such meetings were not proper and useful for certain situations. However, for the initial exploration of curriculum change and the shifts in values and perceptions that were needed to accomplish or to try out suggested curriculum changes, longer blocks of time were considered desirable if not necessary.

The evidence for judging the series of one- or two-hour meetings as inefficient lay in their effect on what is loosely called teacher morale. Informal chat interviews revealed that large numbers of teachers were

thoroughly skeptical of the possible achievement of short session committee work. Many teachers avoided such assignments if possible. They explained the committee's raison d'etat as "someone will tell us what it is all about and we won't really have a chance to participate anyway." Another reaction encountered was: "When you get near the end of the time, you have to come to some decision, so you make one although you're not ready, and then you're stuck with it." Some meetings were considered: "Democratic procedure window dressing with no real participation or thinking welcomed," or a device "to break the news of decisions already made in a gentle way." Another common criticism was: "By the time the second meeting is held, I've completely forgotten what we did at the first one and why we did it."

There seemed to be ample evidence that prescribing the job to be done in terms of the time available was to give time a value. The staff members involved believed time per se had no value; it assumed value only as the activities to which time was devoted were important relative to other alternative activities which might be carried on. If a method other than the short committee meeting were more effective and efficient in achieving a goal which had high priority in importance, it might turn out to be more economical even though it took four or ten times as long as other methods.

### Summary

To summarize, in the perception of staff members the method to be used should be one which:

1. Seemed capable of initiating and promoting curriculum exploration and change.

2. Was geared to a task in which the teacher was considered as a central factor in the determination and implementation of a flexible curriculum.

3. Would consider curriculum change as affecting the school as an organism, as an organic unit, rather than a change which emphasized heavily the effect on individual teachers.

4. Would attempt to emphasize cooperative action at its higher levels emphasizing voluntarism, enthusiasm, and participation.

5. Would include the consideration of faculty or particular professional group codes as closely related to curriculum change in many instances.

6. Regarded the task of extensive curriculum change tantamount to a change in the "culture" of a school.

7. Considered administrative clearance and approval of more than one administrative level necessary.

8. Attempted to operate within a democratic value system in its choice of specific procedures.

9. Provided sufficient time to overcome the possible ineffectiveness and inefficiency of one- or two-hour meetings spread over a school term or year.

#### General Milieu From Which Ideas Were Drawn

During the time that the staff members were trying various means of curriculum examination and change and identifying some of the apparent blocks to progress, there was a wealth of suggestions forthcoming from many quarters. The suggestions, procedures, and theories from these many sources were freely used in the evolvement of the work-group-conference

method to be described. It is impossible to identify all of them, but the general scope and content of some of the materials and ideas used will be described briefly.

### Education Workshops

The education workshop as used by Tyler and others in the Progressive Education Association Eight-Year Study and adapted by others was undoubtedly the source of many of the ideas. To say, however, that the work-group-conference method was similar to the workshop method would not be helpful because of the confusion which still exists concerning the definition of the term. The four general characteristics of the workshop identified by Diedrich and Van Til were, however, accepted. They are:

1. The Activity of a Workshop is based upon the problems, needs, and interests of the participants.
2. Each participant is expected to do something about his problem or his group project.
3. A Workshop must exemplify the principles of democracy.
4. In general, a Workshop does not evaluate its members. The members evaluate the Workshop.<sup>1</sup>

### Group Work

Some of these principles are identical with those which have formed the basis for much of the development of "group work as a social technology fitted to man's inescapable and impelling interdependence."<sup>2</sup>

Group work rests specifically on two positive and related convictions:

1. . . . an emphasis on creative experience as preferable to formalized, imitative or passive programs.
2. . . . emphasis on participation and the experience of

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<sup>1</sup>Paul B. Diedrich and William Van Til, The Workshop (New York: Hinds, Hayden and Eldredge, Inc., 1945), pp. 4, 7, 9, 10.

<sup>2</sup>Charles Hendry, ed., Decade of Group Work (New York: Association Press, 1948), p. vii.

democratic control. A vivid conviction about democracy leads to the constant attempt to get people interested and able to decide questions that affect them.<sup>1</sup>

### Professional Curriculum and Supervision Bodies

In the curriculum field, professional associations and state departments were giving attention to group planning in education. Dewey's explanation, "Intelligence converts desires into plans,"<sup>2</sup> was the subject of detailed exposition in professional meetings and journals. Lane, in the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development's 1945 Yearbook, explains the basis for revived interest in this field as follows:

The basic method of democracy (cooperation) is the operation of group intelligence. . . . It is the ability and disposition of a social group to come to agreement on common goals and to direct concerted, effective action to their attainment.<sup>3</sup>

The Michigan Department of Public Instruction in 1945 issued a bulletin<sup>4</sup> which frankly asserted that the responsibility of curriculum development should be a joint responsibility of the local community and the Department of Public Instruction. The last paragraph of the last chapter, called A Final Word, summarizes the main theme:

It is clear that no curriculum guide, however, can alone bring about desired changes. Such a result can only be attained by the

<sup>1</sup>Grace L. Coyle, Group Experience and Democratic Values (New York: The Woman's Press, 1947), pp. 65-66.

<sup>2</sup>John Dewey, Human Nature and Conduct (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1922), p. 254.

<sup>3</sup>Howard Lane, Group Planning in Education, 1945 Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1945), p. 3.

<sup>4</sup>Planning and Working Together, A Guide to Curriculum Development in Michigan Secondary Schools, Bulletin No. 337 (Lansing: Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1945).

cooperative planning and action of the teachers, administrators, parents, and students of Michigan's high schools. To the degree that these makers of curriculum believe in the soundness of the program herein presented and strive together toward its achievement, we shall witness the emergence of a secondary school program which will meet the needs of all our youth in the constantly changing social order of our state; but we must keep on--'planning and working together.'<sup>1</sup>

In 1948 the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development issued a bulletin<sup>2</sup> explaining a process to be used in cooperative curriculum development, giving numerous illustrations of its use in various settings. This bulletin, however, was not forthcoming until activities included in the cases reported later were well under way.

#### The Research Center for Group Dynamics

In 1946, the Connecticut Interracial Commission in cooperation with the Connecticut Department of Education and the Research Center for Group Dynamics of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology conducted a workshop at New Britain, Connecticut.<sup>3</sup> At this workshop the experimental application of a small group procedure, novel in its design, was evaluated. The use of observations about the dynamics of group processes to correct perceptions and to give group members insight into some of these processes was stressed. One of the members of the staff participated in this workshop and maintained some contact with subsequent developments.

#### Action Research

During the middle forties there were a number of influences which

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 159.

<sup>2</sup>Group Processes in Supervision (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1948).

<sup>3</sup>The staff members included Kenneth Benne, Leland Bradford, Kurt Lewin, and Ronald Lippitt.

combined to give impetus to a vaguely specialized activity called "action research." Various organizations concerned with morale and unity during the war; or with the improvement of interracial, intercultural, or intergroup relationships per se, or in relation to American unity; were striving to bring more science into their operations. They were critical of many previous efforts in this area as well as pressed by time to find more efficient methods. There was also a spreading acceptance of the assumption that participation in fact-finding by individuals considering a problem resulted in an "ego investment"<sup>1</sup> in the stake of those who wanted favorable action to result. Attempts to apply conventional research methodology to social problems resulted in differences of opinion concerning the validity and objectivity of certain data<sup>2</sup> and the possibility of doing respectable social research using "macroscopic" as well as "microscopic" units of time and space.<sup>3</sup> To indicate the various activities found necessary to apply scientific procedures to various social situations, the term "action research" was coined.

It has been explained by several practitioners in the following way:

It [action research] is a field which developed to satisfy the needs of the socio-political individual who recognizes that, in science, he can find the most reliable guide to effective action, and the needs of the scientist who wants his labors to be of maximal social utility as well as of theoretical significance.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ronald Lippitt. Used in an oral report of group progress, New Britain, Connecticut, June, 1946.

<sup>2</sup>Kurt Lewin, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics, Part II, Channels of Group Life; Social Planning and Action Research," Human Relations, I, No. 2 (1947), 152.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 152.

<sup>4</sup>Isador Chein, Stuart W. Cook, and John Harding, "The Field of

### Group Discussion Techniques

During this same period numerous books, pamphlets, and brochures were published dealing with various kinds of discussion groups.<sup>1,2,3,4</sup> Most of the materials went beyond merely explaining the role or function of the leader. The suggestions and discussion indicate that the entire discussion group procedure is complex and that the participants play a very important role in its ultimate success as a social or professional technique. The emphasis on mechanics had been replaced by an emphasis on participation and interaction.

### Administration, Organization, Personnel Work

In the field of administration, organization, and management, increased attention has been given to the morale factor. The writings of Mary Follett are being re-read with particular reference to her objection of two decades ago that authority resides at particular loci in an organization. In 1927, she said:

Businessmen are quietly, without much talk of theory, working out a system of organization which is not democratic in our old understanding of the word, but something better than that. It is a system based neither on equality nor on arbitrary authority,

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Action Research," The American Psychologist, III, No. 2 (1948), 44.

<sup>1</sup>Spencer W. Myers, Making the Discussion Group an Effective Democratic Instrument (Mimeographed bulletin, Gary, Indiana Public Schools, 1948).

<sup>2</sup>George B. deHuszar, Practical Applications of Democracy (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945).

<sup>3</sup>It Pays to Talk it Over (Washington, D. C.: National Institute of Social Relations, 1947).

<sup>4</sup>Frank Walser, The Art of Conference (Rev. Edit.; New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948).

but on functional unity.<sup>1</sup>

In 1938, Barnard called attention to a theory of authority which was at variance with prevalent line and staff ideas. He pointed out that orders or directives had authority only as the individual receiving the directive chose to give it authority. Many of his ideas seemed to receive some corroboration from the Hawthorne Study findings concerning motivations and social group codes in industry. The descriptions of the Hawthorne Study and similar subsequent studies and discussions of the findings by Mayo,<sup>2</sup> Roethlisberger,<sup>3</sup> and others were followed by a revision in employer-employee relationships in many organizations. The War Training Program of the War Manpower Commission utilized ideas related to these findings in the Training Within Industry Program.

Evidence of the attempt to apply more social insight into the problems of administration, especially in social service organizations, is evident in the work of Tead<sup>4</sup> and Trecker.<sup>5</sup> Misner, Koopman, and Miel<sup>6</sup> made some applications to school administration, not only in theory but

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<sup>1</sup>Mary Parker Follett, quoted in Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work, Buffalo (New York: Columbia University Press, 1946), p. 260.

<sup>2</sup>Elton Mayo, The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization (Boston: Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1945).

<sup>3</sup>F. J. Roethlisberger, Management and Morale (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1941).

<sup>4</sup>Ordway Tead, Democratic Administration (New York: Association Press, 1945).

<sup>5</sup>Harleigh B. Trecker, Group Process in Administration (New York: The Woman's Press, 1946).

<sup>6</sup>Robert Koopman, Alice Miel, and Paul J. Misner, Democracy in School Administration (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1943).

also in practice. The concern of writers in the field of personnel administration and organization with morale, social groups, human relationships, social perception, and social motivation was sufficient to cause staff members to feel that it was not impossible to find and use a cooperative group method of exploring and making change which, although different from conventional techniques, was not incompatible with administrative structures and procedures.

#### Mental Hygiene Trends

The effect of individual differences in group members as it affected group or individual productivity was being considered by those concerned with "mental hygiene." Social psychologists had also become increasingly concerned with psychological aspects of interaction in groups. The practical application of some of the findings and theory by Wittenberg<sup>1</sup> and Chase<sup>2</sup> are only two examples of this trend.

#### Curriculum Studies

In 1946, the staff of the Southern Association Study in Secondary Schools and Colleges reported on their activities.<sup>3</sup> The report indicates that the cooperative arrangements which were made at the beginning of the study were revised in practice. One of the staff's decisions which was "of far-reaching import in the Study" concerned their reluctance

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<sup>1</sup>Rudolph M. Wittenberg, So You Want to Help People, A Mental Hygiene Primer for Group Leaders (New York: Association Press, 1947).

<sup>2</sup>Stuart Chase, The Proper Study of Mankind (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948).

<sup>3</sup>Frank C. Jenkins, Druzilla C. Kent, Verner M. Sims, and Eugene A. Waters, "Cooperative Study for the Improvement of Education," Southern Association Quarterly, X (February and August, 1946).

to accept many of the assumptions made in the Eight Year Study of the Progressive Education Association about best methods of bringing changes in schools. Consequently, the staff decided ". . . to subject to careful and systematic study the question of effective means of getting improvement in the schools participating in the study . . . ."1 The method finally chosen as most appropriate may be generally defined as ". . . helping participants learn cooperative use of the scientific method. . . ."2

During 1946 and 1947, the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation was also working with several schools and school systems attempting to identify patterns by which curriculum improvements and changes might be accomplished through cooperative arrangements between an outside agency and a school or school system.<sup>3</sup>

Through informal communication channels, information concerning methods used in this and similar studies<sup>4</sup> was forthcoming which was discussed and considered as the staff members went about their work.

This recitation of activities in fields related to change which seemed applicable to the problem of the staff describes the general milieu from which ideas were drawn and in which the staff worked. Many of the ideas are clearly identifiable in the method which appears to have elements in common with what has been loosely termed "group process."

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 32.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 232.

<sup>3</sup>James Alonzo Hall, "A Discipline for Research in Education" (Unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Denver, 1948).

<sup>4</sup>J. Cecil Parker, Wilmer Menge, and Theodore D. Rice, The First Five Years of the Michigan Study of the Secondary Curriculum (Lansing: State Board of Education, 1942), pp. 14-15.

Lloyd Allen Cook has pointed to a definite deficiency in most attempts to describe currently used so-called group process methods.

Group process education is very old, very poorly done, very promising. It is poorly done because few of us can or do make it the object of systematic study. Group work seems, to most educators, a simple thing of 'breaking a big group up into little groups, each with its own problem.' Although this is good, it is not good enough. It gives one very little to write about, to communicate to the profession. Articles take the tone of: Look! I have done it too! It works! It is wonderful!

All of this has no real meaning unless it can be viewed in light of the problems we face in modernizing education. If there ever was a time when we should cure ourselves, if that is possible, of every form of blindness that prevents us from acting with others in a common cause, that time is now. The need is great, changes are in process, and the lag is not in fine ideals but in effective methods. We do not yet know how to work with people.<sup>1</sup>

The remainder of this chapter is an attempt to identify the factors considered important in the use of the work-group-conference method as the staff members and teachers from various schools worked on several curriculum problems.

#### Aspects of the Work-Group-Conference Method

No satisfactory, strictly logical way of classifying the aspects of the work-group-conference method was ever formulated. Its parts are interrelated and comprise a totality which does not permit an easy dismemberment. For discussion and study purposes, however, the following aspects were identified:

1. Mechanics of the Method. This includes size of group, time, and equipment.
2. Establishing Common Expectations Regarding Method. This includes

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<sup>1</sup>Lloyd Allen Cook, "Group Guidance Techniques in the College Study," Social Education, XII, No. 5 (1948), 212.

the ideas about the procedure which were imparted to the group by those who had used the method previously--an orientation to the method.

3. Procedural Schemes Used by the Group. This includes the schemes or plans which were used to foster skill, increase group productivity, deepen insight in group procedures, and indicate the discipline which certain schemes impose.

4. The Concept of Role in Improving Work Group Skills. This includes a discussion of the importance of certain group member roles which promote or hinder the success of a work group.

5. Tone, Atmosphere, Human Relations. This includes the effects of the inter-personal feelings of group members and the roles assumed by various individuals. It deals primarily with the social aspects of the situation.

6. Authority, Administration, Status, Leadership. This includes those elements of group relationships related to power factors and decisions which affected the group but were outside its immediate influence.

#### Mechanics of the Method

In arranging conferences for groups, efforts were made to restrict the size of the group so that it did not exceed fifteen. The group members were usually selected by a school because of their interest in a general theme or problem. Obviously the time necessary to complete work on certain problems or to explore certain areas varied. Nevertheless, provision was made to schedule meetings for not less than one full day and not more than two consecutive days. Some groups met four or five times over a two-year period. The group had lunch together and recessed at least once during the day for ten or fifteen minutes. The meetings

were held in rooms which were equipped with movable furniture, including tables, blackboards, and large bulletin boards covered with scratch paper for recording purposes. Care was taken to avoid a room which was too large to be rather completely occupied by the group. Certain persons were chosen each half day to serve as leader, content recorder, and process recorder, although these tasks were sometimes shifted oftener. A summary report of the one- and two-day sessions was distributed to each group member during the week following the session. There were never less than two staff members in the group and usually there were three.

#### Establishing Common Expectations Regarding Method--Orientation

Since group members brought to any meeting a vast experience in dealing with methods of group study, planning, and decision making, it was considered necessary to attempt to offset, retard, or prevent the adoption of conventional patterns of committee procedure. This was done partially by verbalization, but probably more effectively by the actions and operations of the staff members as the group began to work. The staff members consciously accepted the role of change agents. They indicated that the meeting might be different from committee meetings which were concerned with fact giving. Staff members rationalized this suggested departure from convention on the basis of some teachers' growing skepticism concerning the effectiveness and efficiency of commonly used committee and conference procedures. It was indicated that this skepticism did not apply to all situations where the use of a committee or conference was indicated, but that it did seem to have some validity when a group was dealing with broad school purposes and problems which involved many factors of considerable importance in the lives of teachers, pupils,

and administrators. The intent of these explanations was to create some anticipation that procedures might be different, novel, or new. The staff members' objective was to keep the situation fluid so that innovations in procedure could be used with some anticipation by group members that the meeting pattern used, although different, would be effective.

Some of the particular ideas used in the process of what might be considered as a reorientation to group procedure are identified below:

1. No specific agenda or outcomes for the meeting were predetermined; consequently, the meeting would develop according to the wishes and intelligence of the group. The intent of so structuring the situation was based on the assumption that changes in values and learning would take place. It was further assumed that the probability of success in making such changes would be greater if the group could become "ego-involved" immediately rather than "task-involved"<sup>1</sup> with some activity which was not clearly determined by the group. This structure, or more correctly—lack of structure, forced an examination, consideration, clarification, or statement of expectations, aspirations, and goals. It was often entangled with statements of dissatisfactions, "gripes," about certain factors or elements in the present state of affairs. This was considered normal and, within reasonable limits, as a sign of healthy psychological involvement.

The aspirations and expectations expressed by group members were usually listed. This helped individuals interpret the roles and

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<sup>1</sup>Gordon Allport, "The Psychology of Participation," Psychological Review, LIII (1945).

intentions of other individuals. It also served to indicate alternative levels of aspirations and expectations from which the group might finally select those which were most consistent with the entire group's idea of reality. This was not a separate enterprise. It occurred as the group reviewed the state of affairs, examined its purposes and engaged in goal setting.

2. Preliminary planning and pre-planning was not conclusive but was to be superseded by group planning. In the process of pre-planning a group meeting, some decision making related to goals or purposes was necessary. This was usually done by Study staff members through conferences with teachers. The interests or needs of individuals were considered by the Study staff members assuming the responsibility for arranging the first meeting. This identification of an area, a problem, or a center of interest was considered informal goal setting and was never done in detail. It was done on the assumption that action must be initiated at some point to bring the group to life and that the preliminary planning would be superseded by the formal goal setting of the group after its inception. In some cases the goal setting was done by agents such as a school faculty, in which case certain teachers accepted assignments.

Efforts were made to state goals and purposes tentatively. This enabled the group to change its goals or its purposes as it examined the relation of its activities to the goals and purposes already set. It also allowed for a certain amount of the "excess and varied behavior" which occurs in most learning. It assumed that the goal might be changed by the group at any time a change seemed desirable.

3. The group would rely usually on the leadership of the ideas as

they were presented by each and every participant. This added two more details to the structure. First, it was made evident that all group members were expected to contribute their ideas, suggestions, questions, and comments. Secondly, it suggested that activities were to be guided by the intrinsic value of the ideas presented as evaluated by the group. This was often explained by contrasting the leadership of ideas with status leadership in the following way. "When an idea is presented by individual X, he is, as he communicates his idea, in effect the real leader of group thought at the moment. Often when a status leader makes a suggestion, it is the power of status which determines whether the idea is accepted or used, not its inherent value to group thought."

4. Attempts at individual and group objectivity would foster the progress of worthwhile ideas during the early stages of the group's life span. It would be desirable if individuals would divest themselves of personal involvement with, or possessive ownership of the ideas which had been contributed. This idea called attention to the fact that the group would arrive at some conclusion of its own and that this was not a spot where salesmen of preconceived plans would find a concentrated customer area to be exploited. The introduction of this concept pointed to an examination of all persuasion tactics--pressure, propaganda, and semantics--and their effects on cooperation.

5. Understanding was necessary; hence, questions must be asked. The attention of all members to each contribution was important. This idea again underscored the importance of each member in the enterprise and provided ample permissiveness as well as encouragement to ask questions of understanding. It placed responsibility on the group "to bring

individuals along" in understanding if not in acceptance of the ideas.

6. Divisive techniques and premature decision making in important matters were avoided. This idea enabled a group to show its intention of arriving at the ultimate best solution for everyone concerned if possible. It forced the group to weigh the consequences of sharpening issues and promoting cleavages in the interests of time or before other alternatives were explored. The introduction of this idea was often accomplished by asking whether the group felt that agreement had been reached, whether a certain point could be recorded as a decision or merely as a possible good idea, or by informally polling the group to determine the extent of agreement or disagreement. The advisability and possibility of treating differences of opinion as hypotheses which should probably be tested was indicated as one way to proceed in the face of group cleavage in regard to some issue. Care was taken so that this procedure was not used to cover up basic differences in values.

7. Individuals were not expected to acquiesce when deep-seated values were being violated just to preserve unity. Periodically during the course of activities the point was made that people are the result of their experience, and their professional decisions are based on their best interpretations of this experience. The idea of "attack" was played down on the assumption that, "It is an axiom that people cannot be taught who feel that they are at the same time being attacked."<sup>1</sup> Only the individual can give values real ego status, and he does this voluntarily.

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<sup>1</sup>Gordon Allport, quoted by Kurt Lewin and Paul Grabbe, Resolving Social Conflicts (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948), p. 67.

This idea carried with it the tacit acknowledgement that no one would be bound by any group decisions unless this was done voluntarily. Staff members attempted to state their real reasons for agreement and disagreement as completely as they could and still be psychologically comfortable. This was intended as an explicit demonstration of frankness in explaining values.

8. The principal functions of the leader were outlined as: assuming initiative in opening and closing the meeting and in aiding timid or polite participants to secure a fair opportunity in the face of enthusiastic participation. The listing of official functions thus described called attention to the intent to place all real responsibility for progress on all group members. Further inferences drawn from this attempt to structure the situation included the intent to make it impossible for participants to wait and follow the leader or to engage in a "guessing game"--that is, attempting to guess what the leader wanted and proceed in that direction. Since this idea was closely related to a consideration of status leadership, it was usually explained in terms of a group leader who had no administrative authority or responsibility. The power of the status leader was handled separately.

9. The responsibility of the status leader was described as a delegated responsibility which the administrator could not and should not abdicate, but one which he might share widely. The distinction between suggesting or formulating a satisfactory problem solution or policy, and administering or executing it was made. The desirability of using the best intelligence of the group for the benefit of all was identified as the immediate goal. The distinction between this procedure

and waiting for the administrative pronouncement of a problem solution or a policy was also clarified. The problems of administration were carefully considered as the activities proceeded. For the benefit particularly of the group members who were school principals it was pointed out that approval of a practice often depended upon the administrator's complete knowledge of the background discussions and procedures by which a conclusion had been reached, as well as the intent and beliefs of the individuals making a proposal. The idea that sharing delegated responsibility might be dependent upon the disposition and security of the administrator, the competence and understanding of those who might share the responsibility, and conventions imposed upon the teachers and administrative leaders, was also stressed.

10. Some techniques or schemes were available to foster group progress. The entire orientation up to this point consisted of substituting or suggesting procedures and perceptions which were somewhat unconventional. This might indicate that the procedure would be loose or helter-skelter. This was decidedly not the intent of the structure. To offset such sarcastic overgeneralizations as: "Group meetings are occasions on which people sit around and pool their ignorance," certain procedural schemes such as problem solving were described briefly. This indicated that there were methods available to aid in the intelligent pursuit of goals tentatively identified.

#### Procedural Schemes Used

To avoid the error of assuming that there is no theoretical discipline in group work, it was necessary to know that there are logical formulations, tested empirically, which aid in giving direction and in

disciplining group action. Generally, the procedures followed were dictated by phases of what is variously known as the "method of intelligence," "problem solving," "thinking," or "the scientific method" as included in Dewey's formulation of forty years ago. The crucial points, abstracted from a more complete treatment are given in what appears to be a sequential order, although it was often not desirable to follow the steps exactly as listed.

I. Defining the Problem.

- A. Encountering the problem.
- B. Selecting the problem.
- C. Wording the problem.
- D. Setting up tentative solutions.

II. Working on the Problem.

- A. Recalling known information.
- B. Determining need for more information.
- C. Locating sources of information.
- D. Selecting and organizing information.
- E. Analyzing and interpreting information.

III. Drawing a Conclusion.

- A. Stating possible conclusions.
- B. Determining the most reasonable and logical conclusions.
- C. Reaching a conclusion.

IV. Carrying Out the Conclusion.

- A. Acting on the conclusion.
- B. Reconsidering the conclusion.<sup>1</sup>

Beside the attention paid to sequential steps in the process of problem solving, another scheme of examining and planning action decisions was used. The scheme suggested by Kurt Lewin as an "action spiral" is conceived as a continuing rhythm or cycle of action to be taken in

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<sup>1</sup>Problem Solving (Detroit: Citizenship Education Study, 1948).

achieving an objective. It is similar to some phases of problem solving, but emphasizes the action strategy aspects. The sequence may be described by the following specific points.

1. Specific Objective. Know the present situation. Determine the kind and degree of change desired. Determine time limits.

2. Basic Idea of the Plan. What aspects of the situation would be the foremost line of action? What pattern will it follow?

3. Explore the Means. What is the focal point of attack? What are our channels of communication? What resources are available in relation to the objectives?

4. Reconsider and Re-state. Revise the specific objectives in relation to the means considered.

5. Elaborate the Plan. Where? When? What? Who will do? Each step outlined as completely as possible.

6. Specific Difficulties. Blockage which must be overcome.

7. Alternatives. Procedures to be followed in case of unforeseen difficulties.

8. Counter-Measures Expected.

9. Do. Carry out the plan.

10. Determine Effects. Reconnaissance. Feed-back of information.

11. Revise the Plan. Retrace the same steps in the light of new information.

Since individuals or groups promoting innovations in educational practice ultimately face the responsibility of evaluating the effects of such innovations, generalized evaluation procedures also served as a discipline which controlled in a measure some of the group's activities.

Very briefly, one formulation of such a procedure consists in determining the following points?

1. What is the general situation--the area to be studied or improved?
2. What specific aspects of the situation are to be investigated and studied (the big problem divided for purposes of discussion and study)?
3. What action program is contemplated to produce results? What are the tentative action conclusions?
4. What criteria or viewpoints shall be used to make judgments?
5. What data are pertinent to the aspects selected for study? Which observations will be used to make judgments?
6. What plans are to be made for gathering data to be used as evidence?

As the ideas, suggestions, alternatives, and objections of the group members were voiced, they were very briefly noted on the blackboard or large paper. This provided a running account of the content of the group's deliberations and furnished the substance of the recorder's or secretary's account of the meeting. It also provided a visualization of the relationship between present and past activity and in some instances gave graphic evidence of the group's progress or lack of progress. It did not and was not designed to replace summarizations, although it did change their scope and emphasis. As a result of the continuous blackboard recording, there was less need for a summarization of the more obvious points. Instead, the summaries could concentrate on the progress or direction of activities. Summaries were usually requested when the goal-relatedness of activities was confused or misunderstood. In this way summarization stimulated the group to be conscious of content in

relation to the way in which the group at any time was attempting to achieve its goal or was going astray. This consideration of procedure, however, was principally the function of the process recorder or observer.

One person was officially designated to assume this role of process observer. The designation of an individual to serve in this capacity was often discontinued after the group had worked together for several sessions. It was pointed out that the sensitivity to group processes and procedures was strictly each individual's responsibility in the same way that sensitivity to an understanding of the stream of content was each individual's responsibility. Instead of designating a person to assume the process observer role and to report at intervals, usually before lunch and at the end of the day, only the period of time for evaluation of process was retained. During this "evaluation session" all participants could express their feelings about how the group had proceeded.

This was frankly labelled as a self-teaching device—a device designed to call attention to the importance of the group's procedure in relation to production, effectiveness, and efficiency. It gave all participants an opportunity to share other's insights into group processes, to correct conditions which might be blocking progress by a "feed-back" of information;<sup>1</sup> and to call attention to skill in group work.

#### The Concept of Role in Improving Group Work Skill

An important aspect of achieving greater effectiveness, efficiency, and economy in group work concerned the skill with which group members

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<sup>1</sup>Kurt Lewin, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics," Human Relations, I, No. 2 (1947), p. 148.

perceived what needed to be done at any moment, and the skill with which they performed. These two functions, role sensitivity and role performance, were a central consideration in the evaluation session of the group.

The psychiatric uses of role-playing and role-taking are not to be confused with the present consideration of roles as behavior patterns and skills displayed by normal individuals as they work in a group. This does not deny the interdependence of certain roles which individuals assume in their private personal lives and those which they assume in group work. The basic personality is probably related to roles played in any area of life's activities, but those which were related to group tasks, group building, group maintenance, group productivity, and group creativity either positively or negatively were scrutinized in the evaluation sessions.

The stress on the importance of roles seemed logical because of several important assumptions. First, it was assumed that the productivity and efficiency of a group would be increased if the group members could assume the various roles necessary to group success. Secondly, it was generally believed that expanding the number of roles which an individual could assume was possible since role assumption was a skill which could be learned. Thirdly, it was assumed that the examination and evaluation of the group's progress was a potential learning activity to increase skill in role sensitivity and role performance.

No generally acceptable classification of roles has yet appeared, although various descriptive classifications have been attempted especially of the leadership role. The list given below includes a few illustrative examples taken from a more complete list consisting of

sixty items.<sup>1</sup> The list, which includes items presented by Benne and Sheats<sup>2</sup> and by Steinzor,<sup>3</sup> is given under four overlapping categories which indicate the effect of roles on group processes:

1. The roles related principally to the birth of a group or the functions necessary to cause a first and subsequent meeting.

2. The roles related principally to the facilitation and coordination of group problem solving activities.

3. The roles related principally to group morale, human relations, and group maintenance.

4. The roles which usually have a negative effect on the group and, hence, are psychologically group goal related.

1. Roles Related to the Birth of a Group

a. The Activator who decides to form a group.

b. The Advance Agent who clears with the proper individual and fixes a time and place.

c. The Janitorial Assistant who arranges details, such as seating and materials.

2. Roles Which Facilitate and Coordinate the Problem Solving Activities of a Group

a. The Initiator who proposes an idea, a problem, or a new goal.

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<sup>1</sup>Arnold R. Meier, Florence Cleary, and Alice Davis, Some Roles Assumed in Workshops (Detroit: Citizenship Education Study, Wayne University, 1946). A hectographed bulletin used in workshops.

<sup>2</sup>Kenneth D. Benne and Paul Sheats, "Functional Roles of Group Members," The Journal of Social Issues, IV, No. 2 (1948), 42-45.

<sup>3</sup>Bernard Steinzor, "The Intent Behind Behavior: A Study in Group Dynamics," Educational Leadership, V, No. 5 (1948), 302.

- b. The Definer uses language to state the problem succinctly.
- c. The Procedural Technician proposes possible ways of proceeding to accomplish the immediate goal.
- d. The Value Diagnostician makes inferences from proposed actions or facts in terms of a scheme of values or criteria.
- e. The Consequencer indicates possible end results or unsought concomitant results.
- f. The Detailer helps identify sequences, division of labor, or necessary materials in an action plan.

Other roles which are largely self-explanatory are: the Cause-Effect Explorer, the Clarifier, the Coordinator, the Reconsiderer, the Supporter, the Information Seeker, the Information Giver.

### 3. Roles Which Help Maintain Satisfactory Human Relationships and Group Morale

- a. The Understander attempts individually to grasp the viewpoint of others and the meaning of facts and opinions with a minimum of bias. An effort is made without debating to ask questions which clarify the contributor's reasoning and personal experiences that have led him to the position he now holds.
- b. The Harmonizer points to and stresses the likenesses between ideas. He stresses the unity rather than the apparent differences.
- c. The Smoother indicates a belief that the differences which exist are not of sufficient magnitude to prevent the group from proceeding, although they must be continually taken into account.
- d. The Praiser helps build the group's ego by pointing to significant ideas or group progress.

e. The Integrator tries to get as many of the ideas as possible incorporated into the group product.

Other roles in this category with titles which are largely self-explanatory are: the Compromiser, the Agreer, the Summarizer, the Process Observer.

#### 4. Roles Which Often Have a Negative Effect on a Group

a. The Griper bemoans some aspects of the present state of affairs with considerable emotion, often attributing blame to individuals.

b. The Sphinx contributes nothing, reveals no values, indicates neither approval nor disapproval—a sphinx.

c. The Know-It-Aller has the complete answer to the problem. He does not understand the belaboring which a certain problem is receiving when the solution is, in his opinion, already known.

d. The Always-Have-Done-Iter objects to considering action which he maintains is already in operation.

e. The Reservationist is not quite sure that the procedures will succeed or that the analysis is correct although he proposes no alternative suggestions for the group's consideration. He does not seem to realize that most members have reservations which they hold so that they may change their mind when the evidence is in. The "damp blanket."

f. The Tangential Excursionist begins with a matter under discussion and by association carries it to remote areas which he describes or embellishes elaborately.

g. The One Tracker believes there is only one means to achieve the desired end and that considerations of other means or a combination of means is vexing, beside the point, or complicated.

Other roles which have a negative effect on the progress of the group when played with undue emphasis are: the Jester, the Salesman-Public Relations Agent, the Simple Direct Answer Demander, the Wholeness Pleader, the Status Follower, the Personal Loyalties Follower, the Awards Seeker, the Confirmed Cynic.

During the evaluation sessions the effectiveness of certain roles in specific situations was discussed. At first the positive features were stressed. As the group became accustomed to discussing roles, the deficiencies in group performance were also considered. Group members did not try to point out negative roles actually played, unless they discussed their own actions. These analyses and discussions of roles actually assumed by group members and the variety and proportion of roles necessary and desirable for group productivity were the principal means used to increase group sensitivity to the importance of process and procedure in relation to productivity. This activity had direct effects on that elusive quality of group interaction commonly designated by such terms as tone, atmosphere, or climate.

#### Tone, Atmosphere, Human Relations

A deliberate attempt was made by staff members to establish a friendly, social group atmosphere, or tone. This was done by good natured "joshing" and the recital of anecdotes about one staff member by another. During the recesses invitations were extended to "have a cup of coffee" or "a coke." Members were urged to join in these activities during which, as often as not, the group continued with a discussion of some matter related to the group's work. In two-day meetings informal arrangements were made to have coffee together prior to the morning

sessions. The staff members used "first names" in referring to each other, and with some other group members. However, no point or ceremony was made of using first names. The introductions were always made by using the full first and last names. When personal relationships were such that participants were comfortable using first names, they were used; otherwise not. During group meetings staff members occasionally stood for short periods, changed seats, urged various individuals to make written additions to the blackboard listing of activities, thus accenting the informality of the situation.

Attention was called to the effects of admitting ignorance in certain cases. The stereotype of the teacher who is always asking questions to which he is supposed to know the answer was described. The effects of this stereotype in making teachers reluctant to admit ignorance in professional problems was indicated. The belief that intelligent people can learn from others' mistakes, as well as their own, was stated.

The effect of various ways of asking questions or differing from another person in discussing certain experiences was the basis of individual staff member's comments during the evaluation period. Rather stereotyped speeches concerning the difficulty in understanding how two people could sometimes have two different perceptions of the same situation were made. This was sometimes followed by the statement that "to blame a person for what he believes when his experience has led him to that position is not very helpful." Questions of "how can we get others to see our point of view without rupturing friendly relations and without attacking" were raised without any attempt to give an answer.

In the process evaluation sessions the introductory phrases of

statements were often mentioned to show the difference between approaches in group discussion and their effects on human relations. This included the examination of paired statements such as:

I don't think that will work. We should \_\_\_\_\_.  
Do you think we might be more successful if we did \_\_\_\_\_.

I don't follow you at all.  
Is this what you mean?

I am all confused.  
Let me explain what I think you mean and then you straighten me out.

I don't see that this has anything to do with what we are trying to do.

Maybe I haven't followed the discussion correctly; will someone help me see the relationships here?

Just look at what that means-----.  
Let's try to carry this forward another step or two and see what consequences we might uncover.

The importance of friendly relationships in the group was mentioned by referring to theories about the cause of dissatisfaction, rebellion against authority, complaints, griping, and scapegoating. The following statement by Allport concerning what might be done to prevent or reduce these feelings was used as an example of such theories.

We are learning some of the conditions in which reactivity (rebellion, complaints, griping, scapegoating, rumor, dissatisfaction) does decline. Friendly, unaffected social relations are the most indispensable condition.<sup>1</sup>

#### Authority, Administration, Status Leadership

The entire approach outlined thus far raised questions concerning the concept of leadership in the group as well as in the school as a

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<sup>1</sup>Gordon W. Allport, "The Psychology of Participation," Human Factors in Management, chap. iii, ed. by Schuyler Dean Hoslett (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946), p. 259.

unit of the school system. Explanations were given to forestall the formation of perceptions that the method rejected all concepts of leadership except the leadership of ideas or the assumption of leadership responsibility as one aspect of good group membership--a function which is shared by all. These concepts had been stressed in the orientation aspects. Explanations also indicated that the procedures followed were not in contradiction to administrative organization. They were not in conflict with the legal procedures by which society had established the schools and controlled them through status leaders. The explanations were necessary to indicate that the staff's leadership concepts did not insist that everyone make all decisions directly.

This defensiveness indicated that the term leadership was susceptible of many definitions, and that often it was used to represent a compound or complex of ideas individualistically formulated. Some of the more commonly found concepts were briefly discussed either in considering recommended action procedures which required administrative clearance or in the process evaluation sessions. These were:

1. The idea that leadership is a rather all embracing personal quality. It was indicated that this conception tended to suggest that people in a problem situation should look to a certain individual for a solution and follow him. The question whether such a practice was in keeping with what is known about individual differences in the possession of the various learnings and skills desirable in varied situations was raised. It was pointed out that in certain restricted areas competencies often constitute a type of leadership, but that this competency in an individual seldom extended to all areas of activity.

2. The official status person selected to assume certain responsibilities for school operation and given certain powers deemed necessary to discharge these responsibilities is the leader, and should be followed. It was pointed out that one common method of describing such status leaders (principals, supervisors, superintendents, directors) by establishing them on a continuum between "autocratic" and "democratic" to indicate leadership characteristics on the basis of the administrative organization and operational plan was not adequate. The inadequacy arises from the fact that the status leader has a wide latitude within which he may operate. He cannot completely divest himself of the responsibilities which he has agreed to assume so that society may have some control over an agency (the school) which it has created. In charging an individual with responsibility, society gives certain powers which identify an individual as a leader—the holder of power. At the same time, however, society usually sets certain minimum requirements of democratic procedure, to guarantee the individuals and groups within the scope of power some measure of participation in decision making in matters which are to affect them. These minimum emergency provisions, however, do not negate the status leader's general obligation to consider each individual not as a means only, but also as an end. This leeway of action allows for two extreme kinds of operation. Mort describes the possibilities in these words:

Clearly, we might conceivably have very democratic administration under a democratically inclined autocrat; conversely, we could have, and often do have, rather autocratic administration in a political democracy which follows to the letter, as a matter of general procedure, the emergency powers written into the law.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Paul Mort, Principles of School Administration (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946), p. 101.

It was explained that the type of leadership exercised by the official status person was dependent, first of all, upon his disposition to share his planning and decision making functions widely or meagerly. His decision to share widely or not might be influenced by his colleagues or the faculty's disposition to accept the responsibilities which such sharing entailed. Unsatisfactory consequences in certain cases were enumerated where the status leader's attempt to solicit genuine cooperation had been interpreted by individuals as an invitation to operate without the full participation of the official status leader. It was pointed out that the official status leader is entitled to all the consideration which other individuals desire and may expect. Cases were also cited from which it might be inferred that the administrator had been influenced in his decision to invite general participation in overall planning and decision making by his perception of the interpretation and acceptability of such procedures by his superiors.

In its ideal form official status leadership was depicted as developing "power with" rather than "power over"--developing creativeness and permissiveness to assume responsibility rather than the issuing of pronouncements and directives. Although the staff members were not as sweeping in their generalizations, nor so dogmatic in their statements of the matter, they were inclined to accept most of Hendry's statement of leadership, namely:

If there is one point that is crystal clear, it is that leadership must not be confused with power or prestige or position or persuasion. Leadership must be seen not as an individual phenomenon. If we are to develop an effective work group, we must develop an effective group work.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Charles E. Hendry, "The Dynamics of Leadership," Proceedings of the

Kurt Lewin makes a similar point in discussing skill in the use of action research by the common man. He indicates that the function of the leader is to improve the leadership skills of the group.

The survival and development of democracy depends not so much on the development of democratic ideals which are widespread and strong. Today, more than ever before, democracy depends upon the development of efficient forms of democratic social management and upon the spreading of the skill in such management to the common man.<sup>1</sup>

The description of aspects of the work-group-conference method indicates the staff members' perception of the skills and insights needed by the entire school staff if they were to make an effective, efficient attack on curriculum problems.

#### Summary of the Chapter

The three staff members and one of the principals of a participating school in attempting to effect curriculum changes became increasingly aware of the many existing conditions which indicated deficiencies in conventional procedures and used these observations in selecting and adapting from a broad range of theory and practice those ideas which appeared promising. These ideas and practices were synthesized into a procedure called the work-group-conference method. It emphasized certain features of the mechanical arrangements of group interaction in a minor way and focused more intently on changing the expectations and perceptions of the group in regard to the possibility of achieving success by other than conventional procedures. In so doing, certain limitations and

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National Conference of Social Work, (1946), 264.

<sup>1</sup>Kurt Lewin, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics," Human Relations, I, No. 2 (1947), 153.

deficiencies of conventional methods were considered and an understanding of various roles was suggested. It was suggested that insight into and skill in assuming a variety of group relevant roles would improve productivity when human relations were duly considered. The discipline of certain procedural schemes such as problem solving and action research was included.

## CHAPTER IV

### CASE I: TEACHING TO IMPROVE THE UNDERSTANDING OF DEMOCRACY

"The good citizen cherishes democratic values and bases his actions on them." In theory this statement embodies the essence of all attempts made in the Citizenship Study to improve education. It is easily the most important of all of the five qualities identified by the staff of the Study as a general philosophical goal. All other qualities are a part of it. The statement that citizens should cherish democratic values receives approval by the public schools of the nation since it is in effect a statement of one of the schools' major reasons for being and, hence, an identification of one of the schools' major responsibilities. For more than a century schools have been striving to discharge this responsibility and to perform their unique function of developing adequate citizens in American democracy. With the rise of ideologies in conflict with democracy in the 1930's and earlier, there was an increase in the urgency with which educators and others exhorted schools to greater vigor in improving and increasing their efforts to improve the citizenship training of youth. The war lent genuine gravity to the appeals.

In this setting and with the additional impetus furnished by their entry into the Citizenship Education Study, four schools began to consider ways of increasing the understanding of democracy.

To gain some insight into pupils' awareness of the meaning of democracy, eighth and ninth graders in the schools were invited to write

briefly on the question: What are the important ideas about democracy? The following replies represent the range of pupil reactions and present typical examples, except for corrections in spelling, of fourteen- and fifteen-year-old students' responses.

Democracy means to me a better world to live in. Better homes, better schools, more recreation centers, less wars, more citizens, a better city, lower prices, higher wages, more hospitals, better police force, less criminals. That's what democracy means to me.

Nothing.

Well, in democracy we can do more things than any other nation can. In democracy we have freedom of the press, freedom of speech and freedom of religion. So I think we have a good democracy in the United States. Democracy to me is great. We have good government. We, the people, work together. When one person needs help, we the people help them.

Democracy means freedom of speech, worship, fear. Democracy means you can do things the way you want to do them and not having to be told what to do. Democracy means that you can take part in voting for whom you want in office and whom you do not want in office. Just think if somebody would make the laws by himself, it would not be fair. That is why we have a democracy instead of a dictatorship like other countries have. Democracy means that you can walk in the streets without being told to get off by a dictator. It means that you can worship any way you want to. Democracy does not mean that it is for one type of person--it is for all races, color and creed. Democracy means freedom for all.

A government of the people, by the people, and for the people.

Democracy is a part of government (don't know what democracy is!).

Democracy means living in a free country. It means the way you live, the things that you do. Living in a democratic country means everyone is equal no matter what color or religion you are.

Democracy to me means freedom for everyone. No slaves, no communism. Let the people work when they can and when they want. Don't force them to work. Don't kill another person because of his or her religion. Democracy is the best form of government to me.

The four freedoms--freedom of speech, freedom of worship.

Democracy to me means a good home, good clothes, food, bath,

religion, freedom of speech. In a democracy we are all able to worship as we please, eat what we please, and say what we please. We are more fortunate than people of other countries. We have no dictators. We organize a group of men called Congress and work out laws for the good of everyone. Because one person is white, he should not have any more privileges than a Negro. We are all equal and should not argue amongst ourselves. We should remember we are all American citizens and should be proud.

To help people that can't help their self.

Democracy is to be free to do what you want to do, to work where you want, live the way you want, and to say what you want to.

Democracy government is a form of government that President Roosevelt carried through to his end.

I think democracy means free government and the important thing about it is it will help people who are unable to help themselves.

It means that you can do what you want to do.

I don't know what it means.

An investigation of hundreds of responses indicated that many included Lincoln's famous "of, by, and for" definition and the "four freedoms." A great deal of emphasis was placed on privileges in a democracy with little mention of the responsibilities. The emphasis in the responses examined was heavy on the governmental aspects of democracy. The findings of this study were substantially the same as those of a similar study made just prior to World War II which is reported in Learning the Ways of Democracy.<sup>1</sup>

The Schools' Program to Improve the Understanding of Democracy (1945)

Already the schools could boast of a program carefully designed to

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<sup>1</sup>Educational Policies Commission, Learning the Ways of Democracy (Washington: National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1940), p. 47.

include information about our country and the world. The experiences in the lower grades were related to community services and interaction. In the middle grades pupils were taught about people in foreign lands. Teaching centered on the world's past and the great heritage which had been created and passed on. In the upper grades assignments and teaching materials were related to learning which was more detailed and complex. Forms of government were studied and the development of our country and its institutions was considered daily. By the time pupils entered the tenth grade, they had completed two cycles of experience designed to explain their living in a world which stretched from near to far, from past to present. The teaching materials dealt with people, places, activities, technological and social progress, institutions and customs. Roughly, one-fifth of the school time was devoted to this program.

The school was also concerned with the periodic discussion of current, social, and political happenings of interest. It was continuously aware of personal interaction and student behavior which schools traditionally label "citizenship." It sponsored certain out-of-class activities, such as Student Councils, Safety Patrols, and the like. It spent considerable time and effort to stress the biography of national heroes, to teach the traditional patriotic songs, prose, and poetry. It engaged in patriotic drives and campaigns of local, national, and world significance. It provided both active and passive experiences in pageants, plays, concerts and demonstrations, art displays, and oratorical and essay contests, the content of which could be described as patriotism, loyalty, and devotion to America. In formal auditorium programs and the more informal classroom programs, the presentation of the flag and the "Pledge

of Allegiance to the Flag" were frequently included. National and state holidays, such as the birthdays of Washington, Lincoln, and Jefferson, Memorial Day, and Will Carleton Day, were always observed. In some cases the observation of patriotic holidays followed tentative suggestions furnished regularly by the supervisory department.

In addition to the regular patriotic, civic, citizenship, and social studies activities just described, there were several projects found in the four participating schools which were unique. Special emphasis was given in various ways to intercultural education which was being stimulated by the Superintendent's Administrative Committee. Units of work, art and music projects, and programs were based on the contributions of various individuals of varied descent to American life. The effects of housing projects and recreation programs on tensions produced by urban life were studied. Intercultural Committees in each school were fostering such activities with the encouragement of the Superintendent of Schools, the Mayor's Interracial Committee, and civic organizations.

All of these things the schools did and yet there was a feeling that there was not sufficient understanding of and commitment to the democratic values.

#### The Teachers' Perception of Their Work

Teachers quickly agree with any general statements about the obligation of the school to improve citizenship and increase the students' understanding of democracy. Some teachers pointed out that the schools' increasing concern for citizenship (the phrase democratic citizenship was rarely, if ever, used) was indicated by the historical trend to include items on report cards in addition to academic achievement. They suggested

that thirty years ago most report cards gave marks or grades in the various subjects, such as reading, writing, and arithmetic, and gave only one rating in Department, Behavior, or Effort; while those now in use usually include a listing of specific aspects of deportment or general behavior, such as: Self-Control, Responsibility, Reliability, Courtesy, Cooperation, and Punctuality.

There were some teachers who were not satisfied with this so-called trait quality method of reporting citizenship. They held that the teachers, students, and parents had contradictory or vague ideas concerning the definitions of the terms used. Others held that this trait analysis was not closely related to the human relationships or skills so important in living democratically. They urged a category of statements which was descriptive of ways of acting, such as: He brings his materials every day. He cooperates to make the complex cafeteria schedule operate successfully. He thinks of others' welfare before acting. Still others wished to specify such ideas as: The handling of data, clearness of thinking, and social sensitivity.

Some teachers seemed to relegate the understanding of democracy into the sphere of government. They considered it almost entirely a matter of knowing about laws, governmental structure, and procedure. They expected the social studies teachers to be defensive when someone suggested that students did not understand what democracy meant.

Among the teachers who agreed that democracy implied more than knowing certain facts, who believed that it was a way of living together, there were differences as to how this should be taught. One group believed that the way to teach people was to tell them what to do and see

that they did it. Another group believed that the learning was determined by the child. This group suggested that the teachers' role was to provide a situation where such learning might occur, to help students by pointing their observations as they made generalizations, and by aiding in the application of those ideas to new situations. These teachers believed that all teachers should be teachers of democracy. Some very seldom used the word democracy, and others used it often, referring to it as a supreme virtue similar to goodness or honesty. Some made an effort to help the student explore the various ramifications of beliefs about democracy and encouraged the student to organize these into consistent patterns.

In the junior high school grades, certain teachers felt that the scheme of organizing individual classes with a student chairman and secretary was an experience in democratic procedures. In such cases the class elected its own officers and the officers presided during the opening minutes of the class period. This practice, according to teachers' reports, was losing its popularity. The teachers who no longer encouraged its use were of the opinion that it was a stereotyped procedure or ritual which had become quite meaningless. A few teachers even suggested that it was detrimental to give the impression that this was democracy in action, when it was merely the appendage of a device to promote "socialized recitation."

Divergent as the teachers' opinions about what to teach and how to teach were, the following listing of reasons for not succeeding more fully received general approval by a substantial number of teachers.

1. The family culture pattern of many students is definitely authoritarian and when the school or an individual teacher attempts to

supplant this with more democratic patterns which includes a share in decision making, the student is confused and may rebel in certain family situations. The home must be changed along with the teaching in school. The school can move no faster than the community will allow.

2. In general, the school as an institution is dominated by an authoritarian ideal. To effectively teach an understanding of democracy, some aspects of the school culture, especially the administrator-teacher and teacher-teacher relationships, must in many cases be changed to prevent contradictions which detract from the impact of the teaching on individuals or groups.

3. The current use of courses of study hamper the teacher in providing experiences which might be more real and meaningful than those suggested. The courses of study are primarily concerned with the logical sequential presentation of ideas and facts which race experience has found true and useful. The emphasis is on the learning of facts without sufficient concern for the examination of values and the acquisition of skills in successful living with others. Such items as living democratically are included in the objectives listed in the course of study, but specific suggestions concerning their attainment are vague or lacking. They are considered "overtones" of good teaching or as the valuable incidental products of study.

4. The material provided in social studies textbooks is not conducive to the best that is known about teaching democracy. The right kind of current material is difficult to find or impossible to secure.

5. The general belief that the knowledge of historical facts and trends, that the understanding of governmental organization and function

is the understanding of democracy creates misunderstandings. This adult expectation of what citizenship teaching is and should be, is informally transmitted to students. When, therefore, a school or a teacher attempts to combine old practices with ideas currently advocated and consequently departs from traditional textbook teaching procedure, parents and students alike are insecure concerning the results.

6. Large departmentalized schools make complex organization imperative. This complex organization makes it extremely difficult for teachers to carry teaching with some groups to a satisfactory conclusion. The teacher cannot know enough about the individual and his understanding of democracy to be completely helpful in the short time he is in contact with the student.

7. Large classes make routine procedure and mass-education methods imperative. These mass methods are not conducive to the best kind of teaching in certain areas of understanding democracy.

8. Many teachers do not know just what they should teach about democracy other than the relationship of the individual to his government. Voting, making of laws, and other formal functions are stressed exclusively.

9. A school must have a common understanding of what it expects to do about teaching democracy and this must be accepted by all teachers if the total impact on the child over a long period of time is to give him an adequate perception of democratic citizenship. Add to this the fact that society cannot agree on what democracy really means and the result is an almost impossible situation for the school which really proposes to do an adequate job.

### The First Two Years of Activity

Early in the Study, staff members encouraged and stimulated all activities aimed at increasing the understanding of democracy. There was increased use of what came to be known as the "American Heritage" approach. This consisted in using books, principally biographies of famous Americans for free-reading activity. Pupils reported to groups; some wrote short summaries which were duplicated for the use of other students. Some teachers used readers which contained many selections related to the rise and growth of democracy in their reading classes.

Some social studies classes studied the most important events and personalities in democracy's evolution in the United States. One teacher developed a similar pattern in the teaching of World History.

Another teacher began a semester's work with the objective: "To create a knowledge of and appreciation for the cultural things which the minority groups have contributed to the United States." The activities in this group were decidedly inter-group or intercultural in nature. The teaching emphasized the values and positive influences of all groups in our culture. Some of the experiences of this group included trips to the International Institute, a Negro housing project, the Institute of Arts, and the Children's Museum.

Other teachers were attempting to identify and expand certain experiences in human relationships which they believed contributed to an understanding of democracy without labelling it in this way. This was called "the indirect approach." In some "indirect approach" projects, magazine and newspaper stories were used; in others, the personal experiences of students were analyzed. In one junior high school a series of

panel discussions including almost half the student body was organized to discuss students' expectations concerning school life, the quality of living in the school, and how it might be improved.

A Spring Festival was presented in one school using as its theme, "The American Heritage." The art department in one school spent considerable time on poster work depicting the American Heritage.

Many of these projects, activities, and courses were exploratory in nature. Teachers were attempting a different approach to a problem, revising any old one, looking for new material, and revising their plans of classroom management.

During the second year of the Study, these activities continued and developed a more concise form. One outline titled, "A Suggested Approach to the Teaching of American History," was duplicated and distributed to teachers. It listed various purposes relating to understanding democracy followed by the procedures which might achieve these purposes together with a listing of the skills and techniques necessary for its achievement.

A unit for seventh and eighth grade students, Minority Groups, was duplicated for examination by other teachers.

One class spent considerable time in studying the United States Constitution and writing a constitution for the class. This project was initiated by the class. At the outset, the teacher was concerned lest this be a fleeting interest and did not stimulate it. The interest was sustained, however, and the teacher and class spent several weeks on the project.

One teacher developed several units related to the meaning of democracy and its historical development to be used as the basis of one

semester's work in an eighth grade social studies class.

In one school several social studies teachers and one English teacher attempted to organize the learning experiences of eighth graders around the general theme, "Living in the Community." The emphasis in these activities was the near-at-hand relationships and associations with an emphasis on human relationships.

#### The Staff Members' Perception of the Situation

The staff members working in the schools observed all of these activities and became personally involved in promoting many of them by securing material, giving encouragement and praise, and some suggestions. As observations and interpretations concerning the activities were examined by the three staff members directly involved, certain convictions, general conclusions, and areas of uncertainty became apparent.

1. As many teachers and staff members structured teaching situations for increasing the understanding of democracy, the purposes of certain activities remained vague and nebulous. They were couched in such phrases as:

Appreciation of the American Heritage.  
Concern for the individual personality of all men.  
Improve thinking.

No criticism of the activities themselves was implied, and there was certainly tremendous expenditure of energy in the way the activities were executed. However, there was concern regarding the inability to identify certain activities with specific anticipated results. The lack of specificity of objectives made satisfactory evaluation of activities difficult. What appeared to be lacking was an adequate definition of democracy. The lack of an adequate detailed definition of democracy was considered

largely as a philosophical or theoretical block until it became apparent that it thwarted attempts to evaluate certain patterns of procedure and hindered any serious attempt to encompass and describe the scope of the school's activities in a more concise way.

2. The mechanics of the democratic governmental processes were taught in various ways and with considerable thoroughness from a fact-learning viewpoint and in many instances, but to a lesser extent, in experiential situations. Great stress was placed on remembering facts in what Walter Lippman refers to as the "nose counting" aspect of democracy. Voting, recall, initiative, referendum, the printing of laws were presented with clarity and in logical sequence. If pupils did not learn these concepts and facts, it was not because of the lack of conscious effort given or a lack of time spent to teach them. Apparently there were other factors in the learning process which were not adequate. There were spotty opportunities for students to learn about these things through direct or first-hand experiences. In such activities, however, there was insufficient teaching emphasis on the examination of the generalizations which students drew from them.

3. There were few attempts to teach the use of the method of intelligence in solving social problems of the group or of the individual. There were some attempts to point class activities toward the consideration of large social goals and the understanding and solution of social problems in such areas as living in the family, in the classroom, in the school, and in the community.

4. Few teachers were explicit about the way they expected to get desirable democratic social attitudes accepted by the group. Teachers

spoke of understanding democracy as being "responsibility widely shared." Their goal was to get students to accept more responsibility for their individual acts. In describing the methods or procedures which might best achieve this objective, there were glaring inconsistencies. Some teachers held that somehow the student should have already learned the acceptance of this responsibility--that someone else should have instilled this in the student. Some teachers seemed to hold the opinion that responsibility was an inborn trait. The belief was common that rules consistently enforced and punishment fairly meted out were the obvious desirable methods. Other teachers believed that responsibility should be taught by giving opportunities for accepting responsibility, that learning by doing was the best method. Enticing an acceptance of democracy by emotional approaches was also listed as a method.

5. Within the time allowed during the day for the social studies a variety of materials and methods were used to describe current world events or to aid in an understanding of the social milieu. In all too many instances, however, the students' reactions to these events were not adequately examined.

6. There was, on the whole, considerable reluctance to adopt experimental procedures or to experiment in areas which diverged considerably from the prescribed course of study. At no time were there deviations in teaching which could be called radical in the sense that procedures deviated markedly from those already tried in some schools in the country.

7. Teachers generally accepted the responsibility of solving group problems in the school with very limited opportunity for student participation.

8. The school was not as systematic in organizing ideas about democracy outside the governmental aspects as it was in organizing health, mathematics, history, or English. At no point in the first nine years of school was there any place specifically designated as the point for a summarization and clarification of all the ideas about democracy with a sizable block of time allotted for this activity.

9. The schools used slogans, formulas, and symbolism widely in their efforts to increase the understanding of democracy. In some cases the use of these slogans, mottoes, formulas, and symbols appeared to amount to using the motto as a guide rather than a help. The staff members were of the opinion that slogans and mottoes were good servants but bad masters; that mottoes, symbols, and slogans were not an adequate substitute for a comprehensive definition of democracy. Their opinion is aptly expressed by Russell and Briggs in the following words:

There is no shortcut to understanding democracy. . . . Everyone who would learn what it is and what it requires must devote himself to continued intellectual effort. Education without understanding of democracy that leads to faith and works is incomplete and ineffective.<sup>1</sup>

10. The question of how far obedience, quietness, action, participation, and living could be pursued profitably without thinking, testing, and generalizing had not been clarified by the schools. There was concern that in the objectives listed for practically any school activity there might be an objective related to the "improvement of democratic citizenship" of youth without any attempt to particularize the assumptions as to

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<sup>1</sup>William F. Russell and Thomas H. Briggs, The Meaning of Democracy (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941), p. vi.

how this would be done. It appeared that with the enormous outlay of funds provided to perpetuate the democratic ideal and the thousands of words proclaiming the intent of the school to shoulder the responsibility, there was still the feeling of inadequacy aptly expressed by the Educational Policies Commission in the following statement:

That the protection and improvement of the American democracy depends on education is a well worn maxim which may conceal an extremely vital issue. Education may be called 'training for citizenship' and yet fall far short of that purpose. The label on the package does not guarantee the quality of the substance therein. To identify democratic citizenship casually with obedience to the teacher, with orderliness in the school auditorium, with good manner at the senior 'Prom,' with memorized words and phrases about American history and institutions, with industry and scholarship, with activity in student affairs, desirable as these things all may be, probably does more harm than good. Democratic citizenship requires certain qualities of mind and spirit, qualities that may be effectively taught only by those who possess them, understand them, and cherish them.

Education which produces an active and intelligent loyalty to democracy must be built upon hard, clear thinking about democratic ideals and upon resolute, devoted application of those ideals to the common, garden-variety problems of life in school, community, state, and nation.<sup>1</sup>

11. As the staff members reviewed their teaching experiences and contemplated their generalizations about the schools' activities, the apparent lack of ability to state objectives in relation to certain class activities led to the following assumption. Teachers generally have not had occasion to examine critically the relationship between certain activities and the result of these activities as they are or are not crystallized into values which are considered a part of democracy. The vague, nebulous relationships are in the teachers' consciousness, but the

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<sup>1</sup>Educational Policies Commission, Learning the Ways of Democracy (Washington: National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1940), p. 460.

specific generalizations which teachers are attempting to transfer to other situations are not clear. In order to probe this assumed difficulty and at the same time provide some help by showing such specific relationships, three staff members began examining the more specific definitions of democracy which could be found in current books and periodicals.

The work of the staff in this project will be presented later as it became related to the work of about twenty teachers from the four schools.

#### The Chronological Account of Work-Group-Conference Activities

In April, 1947, an invitation was extended to twelve teachers and the principals from four schools to attend a two-day work-conference on the general subject: Units on Democracy. Most of the participants invited had shown a very real interest in improving their teaching so that democratic ideals, according to their individual perception, might be promoted. Some were invited because they were social studies or English teachers who might be interested in the activities of those teachers who had tried innovations in methods of teaching or resources not commonly used.

The meeting was opened with a frank explanation that the group was expected to determine its own purposes and procedures. The summary of the group's initial suggestions and ideas contained the following items.

1. To share with each other what has already been done.
2. To share experiences with someone who has already had a semester's experience.
3. To explore what might be done.
4. To discuss materials--what is there? Where is it? Who is using it?
5. What is missing? What should we be doing that we are not now doing?
6. What techniques can we use--are they different in different classes?

7. Do we teach democracy as a way of living, a form of government, the story of great Americans, documents, etc.? What is the purpose?

8. How do we know what results come from our action?

9. Who is supposed to teach democracy--in a particular spot or all over the building?

10. What shall we do to improve the situation when democracy is not practiced to some extent throughout the building?

11. What does democratic classroom practice mean? Do children like it? Two aspects pointed out are:

a) Understanding or knowledge about democracy.

b) Democratic classroom practice.

12. What is the relationship of this to the rest of the curriculum?

13. What are the blocks--must it be done all over to do it properly anywhere?

14. Just what do we mean by democracy?<sup>1</sup>

These questions and statements were reorganized and listed as:

1. 'Know-How'--skills--experiences--materials--resources.
2. Definition of:
  - a) Democracy.
  - b) Democratic practice.
3. Relationship to the curriculum.
4. Controversy--overall or in a particular spot?
5. Do kids like the material?
6. What is our ignorance--what do we still need?
7. Evaluation.<sup>2</sup>

The group decided to have each individual describe briefly the kind of activity in which he had been engaged. This procedure was suggested by a staff member on the assumption that it was desirable to give all group members some information about each person and to spread information about possible teaching approaches.

Nine of the teachers described the nature of the specialized activities in which they were currently engaged to increase the understanding

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<sup>1</sup>Notes on Two-Day Work-Conference, Units on Democracy, April 16, 1947. Duplicated report circulated to participants after the meeting, Citizenship Education Study, p. 1.

<sup>2</sup>Op. cit., p. 2.

of democracy. Four described units of work. Two reported on a bibliographical study, and three described unusual or different kinds of material which had been used in various ways. (Some of these activities have been described briefly earlier in this chapter.)

As the teachers described these procedures there was considerable discussion. This interaction was summarized at the end of the first day in the following generalizations:

1. Both the teacher and pupils plan jointly.
2. Teacher must do pre-planning (experiences, resources, etc.).
3. The units must be flexible, depending in part on maturity, interests, abilities, past experiences, available resources, needs of the individual and of the community.
4. The teaching is difficult if the group is too large--if there is insufficient material.
5. Units provide a more complete experience.
6. Approaches to this unit differ with the teacher and the school.<sup>1</sup>

The second day's session began with a determination of procedure. Various alternatives were proposed such as: a discussion of the more specific meanings of democracy; the construction of a unit on democracy; the relationship of a unit to the curriculum; the necessity for teacher-pupil planning in units on democracy.

It was agreed to first set up an outline for a unit. This led to a definition of unit and then to a listing of certain experiences which might be used in a unit. The group summarized important considerations in pre-planning a unit on democracy and agreed to spend some time in exploring the kinds of skills which teachers needed to carry on successful discussion and group work. A consideration of other skills such as pupil-

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 4.

teacher planning and problem solving was postponed for future consideration.

The group was acutely aware of the limitations of time and, hence, suggested another conference. There were several voluntary commitments made by participants to explore a particular problem and be prepared to report at the next meeting. Two teachers announced they would continue to work on the units they had already started. One volunteered to explore various techniques of group work and several volunteered to collect stories and incidents which might be helpful in the area of good human relationships in family living. Such matters as the formulation of a more detailed definition of democracy, establishing "permissiveness" in a group discussion, dealing with isolates and disinterested people, and evaluation of school activities in teaching democracy were also mentioned as possibilities for further exploration. After the conference, staff members agreed to collect teaching material which might be helpful and present it at a second session. They also agreed to arrange for the examination of the results from an experimental administration of a "democratic attitudes" study form or test which had been used in studying one class.

Another one-day workshop session with substantially the same participants was held six weeks later. Brief reports were given of the apparent successes and failures of the past six weeks. Some time was spent in expanding a list of possible approaches which might be used in a school to increase the understanding of democracy.

There had been some concern expressed in the previous workshop regarding the difficulty of evaluating some of these activities with data

which described the whole class group. The matter was again considered and it was readily agreed that anecdotal material was available and valid. However, there was also complete agreement that the anecdotal method was laborious, cumbersome, and almost impossible if the teacher became interested in several classes totalling more than one hundred students and proposed to do a systematic job of listing both positive and negative data. At this point the attitude testing instrument which had been described at the previous workshop was presented to the group for examination. A rough draft of this situation type attitude test had been constructed and revised by staff members and tried by one teacher. The form called Do You Agree or Disagree? had also been used previously by the staff in a pilot study with an experimental and a control group. The results from the pilot study,<sup>1</sup> although the class groups used were not carefully equated, indicated that it might be possible to get some rough indication of a group's general ability to distinguish certain situations considered "democratic" as more desirable than others which were considered "undemocratic."

As the group examined the specific items included in the Do You Agree or Disagree? (Form A), it became apparent that there were criteria about democratic values implicit in the statements or situations described. These criteria had not been listed in a presentable systematic way. The staff members in the group agreed to spend some time during the summer organizing these democratic values or beliefs about democracy.

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<sup>1</sup>The experimental group in the pilot study which had a significantly higher average score than the two control groups had just completed several units on Understanding Democracy over an eight-week period. The two control groups had pursued the regular schedule of work.

Staff members considered carefully the implications of stating the criteria about democratic values which had been used as the basis for the test instrument, Do You Agree or Disagree? (DYAOD). They were aware that any attempt to be comprehensive would result in a kind of definition of democracy. If the criteria were specific in nature, they would in effect also result in a more specific statement of desirable objectives for the teaching of democracy. This, of course, was one of the difficulties encountered in analyzing and describing the various activities in the schools which were generally designed to increase or improve patriotism, loyalty, and the understanding of democracy.

The staff members were also fully aware of the fallacy of attempting to state the definition of democracy for a school with any finality. The points of controversy were many, and the desirability of stating objectives for the school was questioned. The attempt was made, however, for three reasons:

1. To raise the issue of the possibility of each school defining democracy more clearly for the sake of greater unity and understanding of school faculties.
2. To show the comprehensive nature of the specific objectives inherent in a broad definition of democracy (which the schools already embraced) and their implications for the total school.
3. To clarify the ideas which had been used to formulate the situations in the DYAOD instruments, and to identify the criteria which would be used to score the responses.

Despite all that has been said about the difficulty encountered in defining democracy, a great many helpful formulations and guideposts had

been constructed by educators. Staff members used the books by the Educational Policies Commission freely. They also examined the amount of agreement which existed in various segments of the population about specific values and processes which were called "democratic" by some citizens. The two hundred seventy-six statements and the summary and analysis of responses reported by Beery<sup>1</sup> were very helpful.

Many other helpful sources were consulted which reinforced the ideas already agreed upon by the staff members; namely, that there are three essentials in education for democracy. They are:

1. There must be a rather complete understanding of the meaning of democracy.
2. There must be some commitment to the values involved, a belief which is more than intellectual understanding.
3. There must be opportunities to practice the techniques and values involved.

None of these essentials can have much impact on society without the others, but for the teacher especially, a clarification of the meaning of democracy is basic.

The staff members classified various statements concerning democracy under four headings:

1. Dignity and Worth of the Individual.
2. Man Can and Should Govern Himself.
3. Democracy's Privileges and Attendant Responsibilities.

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<sup>1</sup>John R. Beery, Current Conceptions of Democracy, Contributions to Education, No. 888 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943).

#### 4. The Use of Intelligence in Solving Problems.

The headings were rather arbitrarily chosen since they appeared to represent broad concepts and activities already used in schools. Under these headings other ideas were listed and summarized so that eventually there appeared under each of the four major headings a list of sub-heads called Aspects, each followed by value statements called Criteria. An attempt was next made to interpret these ideas in examples or descriptions of pupil behavior and school practice called Manifestations.

The definition thus developed was not intended to be complete or correct for any particular school. It was an example of how a definition and its relationship to teaching could be made explicit. As the definition in outline form was used, it became known as the Understanding Democracy Framework since it served as a frame of reference in describing certain points of emphasis in the various classroom activities and in considering possible ways of evaluating the various school programs designed to increase the understanding of democracy. The Understanding Democracy Framework is included in Appendix C.

Near the beginning of the third year of the Study (November, 1947) another two-day work-conference on Understanding Democracy was arranged. The participants included most of the teachers and administrators who had attended the Democracy conferences held previously. The group quickly identified several possible jobs to be undertaken in the two days. They were:

1. To hear brief progress reports including new ideas and any particular blocks that had been encountered.
2. To analyze carefully each section of the so-called Understanding

Democracy Framework. (The framework was then in tentative duplicated form.)

3. To set up an approach to units on home and community living which incorporated a more complete and concrete understanding of democratic values.

4. To examine a Problem Solving outline which had just been published. This item was included as a staff suggestion.

5. To discuss other materials.

Progress reports were given by participants using the Understanding Democracy Framework to identify some of the particular values and beliefs which participants had emphasized in their teaching. Next the group tested the Understanding Democracy Framework by examining various other approaches. In this procedure the possibilities of describing the objectives of activities using the various criteria from the Framework was attempted. The interrelatedness of the criteria was immediately apparent, but there was general agreement that the framework was useful to determine gaps in an activity and to suggest new possibilities. On the whole, however, the participants from the schools did not see all of the potential possibilities of the framework which the staff members felt it contained.

The entire group, after discussing the teachers' responsibility in determining large areas which delimited the experiences and factual material to be considered in a specific course, began to outline possible experiences under the general heading "Living in the Community." This discussion led to an agreement by several teachers in one school to devote one semester in the eighth grade to this area.

The use of a problem solving procedure as it related to the use of intelligence in a democracy was discussed and demonstrated. Toward the end of the workshop the groups from each school planned specific activities for particular schools.

In the next two months, these plans had materialized to the point where it was agreed to use the DYAO instrument as a pre and end test in several experimental situations to determine whether any outcomes would be reflected in the central tendencies of test scores. Briefly, the procedures being studied in the various groups were as follows.

Group A. In a junior high school using classes of eighth and ninth graders, a series of eight sound films<sup>1</sup> were shown in six sessions at one-week intervals. By a quirk of fate due to the late arrival of films, the procedure was changed so that there was no time for the teacher to introduce the film or to discuss the film with the class. Since this pattern had been used with the first film, it was agreed that all of the films should be shown during a six-week period (one film a week) without an introduction or a follow-up discussion.

Group B. A ninth grade class in a combined social studies and English class used the following four units over a four-month period:

Unit I - The Meaning of Democracy and Its Ideals.

Unit II - Democracy in Action.

Unit III - The History of Democracy.

Unit IV - Opportunities in a Democracy.

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<sup>1</sup>The films used were: Sons of Liberty; The United States; The House I Live In; American Portrait; Servant of the People; Democracy - Autocracy; The Flag Speaks; Give Me Liberty.

The teacher promoted the organization of work groups and encouraged a problem solving procedure when its use seemed desirable. This group had access to a number of recent books about democracy which were not standard equipment in regular classes. The teacher in this case had organized the units herself and had used them with other groups. She had also examined and aided in the preliminary revisions of some of the instruments used as pre and end tests.

Group C. Four seventh grade social studies classes used the four units listed above under Group B for a period of four weeks. In order to present the material in this period of time, twenty class periods, the class situation was, according to the teacher, largely teacher dominated.

Group D. An eighth grade social studies class which met for two thirty-minute periods each week used portions of the units described above under Group B together with selected slides and film strips for the greater part of one semester.

Group E. A tenth grade class in literature used biographical material and a literature book devoted to selections about the American Heritage. The greater part of one semester was spent in this enterprise.

Group F. Four eighth grade groups taught by three social studies teachers for one semester used an outline centering their activities on home, family, and community living. The three teachers had jointly prepared the outline with the help of the English teacher who taught the four groups. In English classes, some of the activities were correlated with the work that was being done in social studies.

The results of these activities as reflected in test scores on the DYAOB forms are given in Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4 which follow. In general,

it may be said that the increase in ability to distinguish a democratic situation from an undemocratic one was not as large as the teachers had hoped—with but one exception—Group B. Although the differences between pre and end test scores were positive in most cases, most of them are not highly significant statistically.

Near the beginning of the fourth year of the Study, the teachers who had worked with the groups tested were invited to a two-day workshop on Understanding Democracy.

Before distributing a summary of the data which had been collected, it was suggested that the participants might give their subjective opinions about the real effectiveness of the procedures they had used with the various groups.

The teacher of Group A felt that there might have been some value in the films if there had been some opportunity for discussion which would give the teacher an opportunity to point to some generalizations about democratic values. The films, some of which were abridged versions of Hollywood productions, interested the group and provided considerable enjoyment. On the whole, the teacher did not anticipate any sizable gain in the students' ability to discriminate between a democratic and an undemocratic situation.

The teacher of Group B expressed a growing conviction that the classroom methods and procedures she had used were of greater importance than she had originally suspected. The method not only dealt with appropriate content that increased the students' understanding of democracy, but also with the way in which the students lived and worked as they dealt with the content.

TABLE 1

MEDIAN PRE AND END TEST SCORES OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL GROUPS  
 FROM THREE SCHOOLS ON FORM A "DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE?"  
 FEBRUARY--MAY, 1948

Group	Activity	Number Of Pupils	School	Pre Test Median Score	End Test Median Score	End Score minus Pre Score
A	Eight Films One Showing No Discussion	81	X	81.42	82.00	.58
B	Democracy Units 2 Hrs. per Day for 70 Days	29	X	83.75	92.25	8.50
C	Democracy Units 1 Hr. per Day for 20 Days	115	Y	78.92	79.53	.61
D	Democracy Units 20 Hours during One Semester	31	Z	82.25	85.00	2.75
E	American Heritage Literature		Y	(Incomplete Data)		
F	Community Living Units Coordinated with Literature	83	Y	76.20	80.75	4.55

TABLE 2

MEDIAN PRE AND END TEST SCORES OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL GROUPS  
 FROM THREE SCHOOLS ON FORM B "DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE?"  
 FEBRUARY--MAY, 1948

Group	Activity	Number of Pupils	School	Pre Test Median Score	End Test Median Score	End Score minus Pre Score
A	Eight Films One Showing No Discussion		X	(Form B not used.)		
B	Democracy Units 2 Hrs. per Day for 70 Days	30	X	82.75	97.90	15.15
C	Democracy Units 1 Hr. per Day for 20 Days	110	Y	79.07	79.64	.57
D	Democracy Units 20 Hours during One Semester	33	Z	88.00	91.43	3.43
E	American Heritage Literature	37	Y	81.57	84.06	2.49
F	Community Living Units Coordinated with Literature	88	Y	76.75	78.70	1.95

TABLE 3

MEDIAN PRE AND END TEST SCORES OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL GROUPS  
FROM THREE SCHOOLS ON FORM G "DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE?"  
FEBRUARY--MAY, 1948

Group	Activity	Number of Pupils	School	Pre Test Median Score	End Test Median Score	End Score minus Pre Score
A	Eight Films One Showing No Discussion	91	X	77.59	77.36	- .23
B	Democracy Units 2 Hrs. per Day for 70 Days	31	X	77.05	90.25	13.20
C	Democracy Units 1 Hr. per Day for 20 Days	106	Y	73.79	73.44	- .35
D	Democracy Units 20 Hours during One Semester	33	Z	79.00	81.00	2.00
E	American Heritage Literature	39	Y	76.75	75.00	- 1.75
F	Community Living Units Coordinated with Literature	76	Y	74.70	74.96	.26

TABLE 4

MEDIAN PRE AND END TEST SCORES OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL GROUPS  
FROM THREE SCHOOLS ON FORM S "DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE?"  
FEBRUARY--MAY, 1948

Group	Activity	Number of Pupils	School	Pre Test Median Score	End Test Median Score	End Score minus Pre Score
A	Eight Films One Showing No Discussion		X	(Form S not used.)		
B	Democracy Units 2 Hrs. per Day for 70 Days	31	X	37.75	43.00	5.25
C	Democracy Units 1 Hr. per Day for 20 Days	103	Y	36.83	36.93	.10
D	Democracy Units 20 Hours during One Semester	32	Z	38.50	38.50	---
E	American Heritage Literature	36	Y	35.25	36.50	1.25
F	Community Living Units Coordinated with Literature	82	Y	36.70	36.06	- .64

The teacher involved with the four groups in Group C frankly stated that since four weeks' time was too limited to cover the material, he read and lectured a good deal of the time. He had little expectation that much had been accomplished. He expressed the opinion that in his situation, visual materials and easier reading materials were needed and that these should be used with a variety of class procedures. Some of the language used in describing the test situations seemed to be difficult for this group to understand.

The teacher of Group D was also dubious about results closely related to the work done with the units, but felt that some activities such as writing a constitution and drawing cartoons to illustrate a film strip would have some positive results.

Group E had enjoyed the biographies and the selections on the American Heritage.

After examining the data, the workshop group was not very enthusiastic about the results of their efforts. There was little evidence of defensiveness; there was complete agreement that the job of increasing the understanding of democracy could and must be done, although there was some discouragement that the task seemed so difficult.

The group again examined the DYAOB test forms with much greater concern than they had previously. They were very penetrating in their efforts to determine the relationship between each situation and the criteria listed in the Understanding Democracy Framework. Ambiguous statements and difficult words were identified. There was agreement that, although the instruments used had been rough, they were useful and should be valid in determining in a gross way students' growth in understanding

democracy.

It was generally agreed that considerable time was necessary to cover all of the Aspects and Criteria listed in the Understanding Democracy Framework and that this might account among other things for part of the significant gains made by Group B which had worked for two hours a day for sixteen weeks on the material.

The necessity for teacher understanding of the short-term teaching objectives in relation to the larger criteria or values was emphasized. As teachers attempted to identify the relationships between what they had done and the criteria listed in the Framework, they clarified what needed to be done to bring about a clearer understanding of democratic values. This consideration of next steps raised the problem of collecting or securing the kinds of resources needed, especially books and pamphlets of varying degrees of difficulty, films, recordings, and current periodicals. After this discussion of teaching materials, the group agreed that content or subject matter alone, however, would not be effective in promoting any widespread commitment to democratic values. The methods and class organization fostered by the teacher must be consistent with the ideas inherent in the content.

The consideration of these ideas appeared to foster a contagion of enthusiasm and determination to attempt teaching approaches which would be more successful than those recently evaluated. The participants were eager to arrange for the initial and final tests in their second attempt, whereas some had been extremely skeptical, although cooperative, about the use of pencil and paper instruments previously. The group suggested a critical examination of the instruments so that a consolidated revision

of the original four forms of Do You Agree or Disagree? would be available.

The suggested revisions of the four instruments were reported to the group at a subsequent one-day meeting. The outcome of this work session, which included a second perusal of all of the Criteria listed in the Understanding Democracy Framework, resulted in a single form of the attitude test instrument which was tried out, analyzed, and again revised. The group agreed to use the final revision of this test, Do You Agree or Disagree? Experimental Form 30, included in Appendix D, as an aid in evaluating the procedures which would be used during the spring semester of 1949. The details of these procedures will be described later.

The staff members' perception of the results of these two work sessions was fourfold:

1. The sessions seemed to result in a clearer insight concerning the necessity for specific teaching objectives consistent and compatible with a clear understanding of democratic values.

2. The staff members' analysis of the difficulty in improving an understanding of democratic values was validated, at least in part. It was assumed that the teaching was not as effective as teachers had hoped because there was no adequate definition of democracy with sufficient detail to make it meaningful and effective as a teaching objective.

3. Any definition of democracy or set of objectives given to the teachers would not become effective in changing teaching goals and procedures until these objectives were understood and accepted. This could be developed by evaluation procedures in which the teachers had a full share of responsibility.

4. Teachers must be included in those phases of planning where values and specific end goals were arrived at. Although a smaller group may be able to formulate values and objectives more economically than the large group, this procedure may not be as efficient in the end. The teachers are the individuals who must apply the means to reach the objectives and, hence, the teachers must be familiar with the values and goals and construct the relationships between means and ends. This conclusion seemed to explain partially the outstanding success of Group B. The teacher of Group B who had participated most in the formulation of Aspects and Criteria was the teacher of the group which showed the greatest gain in test scores (significant beyond the one per cent level). The questionnaire "Can You Tell Us?"<sup>1</sup> also indicated considerable change in the group both in attitude and in knowledge. The "Can You Tell Us?" form is included in Appendix E.

The final two-day meeting of the group was held in June, 1949, seven months after the meeting just reported. During this seven month interval the teachers had completed their newly formulated teaching approaches with various classes. Agreement was reached to complete five assignments:

1. Review in detail the approaches, methods, materials, and patterns of class organization used by various groups during the spring semester of 1949.

2. Complete individual interviews with all the teachers involved

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<sup>1</sup>The study form called, "Can You Tell Us?", constructed by staff members contained a variety of questions, some factual and some opinion, designed to obtain pertinent data which could not be collected by using the attitude type situation used in "Do You Agree or Disagree?"

concerning their evaluation of the sequence of workshops on Understanding Democracy and other relevant matters.

3. Examine the pre and end test data of those groups for which data were available.

4. Attempt to draw some conclusions from the formal data (tests) and the rather informal evaluations of teachers based on observation.

5. Consider possible generalizations which might result from the conclusions drawn.

The description of the seven different teaching approaches by teachers are given below by groups. The designations of classes or groups used identify the teachers of the groups so that comparisons between Table 5, given on the next page, and Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4 can be made relative to a particular teacher's group.

TABLE 5

MEDIAN PRE AND END TEST SCORES OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL GROUPS  
FROM THREE SCHOOLS ON EXPERIMENTAL FORM 30 "DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE?"  
FEBRUARY--MAY, 1949

Group	Activity*	Number of Pupils	School	Pre Test Median Score	End Test Median Score	End Score minus Pre Score
A	Eight Films Shown Twice Discussion	130	X	119.3	127.0	7.7
B	Democracy Units 2 Hrs. per Day for 70 Days	30	X	117.5	128.5	11.0
C	Film Strips Democracy Unit Discussion 1 Hr. per Day for 50 Days	57	Y	109.7	113.1	3.4
D	Democracy Readings Film Strips Democracy Unit One Semester	32	Z	115.6	119.0	3.4
G	Homeroom Discussion Oral Review of Films	58	X	114.8	119.2	4.4
H	Problem Solving Procedures Eight Films	31	X	112.4	121.2	8.8

\* A complete description of the activities of each group is given on the following pages.

Group A consisted of two eighth, and two ninth grade groups which met for two hours each week in the auditorium under the direction of the auditorium teacher. During the previous year this teacher had used eight sound films without apparent success. The teacher reported that she had used the same eight films which had been used in her first attempt but that the films had been used differently than in the previous attempt. The Group A teacher together with the Group G teacher previewed the film and carefully noted the sequences, identifying those portions which were rather closely related to the Aspects, Criteria, and Manifestations presented in the Understanding Democracy Framework. The Group A teacher then introduced the film to the four groups of eighth and ninth graders by indicating significant sequences and points to be discussed by the group. The film was then shown followed by a group discussion led by a student. Posters listing various democratic beliefs were displayed on a side wall in the auditorium and were used to point the discussion. After group discussion, the film was shown a second time.

The teacher, even before examining the pre and end test results on DYAO (Experimental Form 30), was sure that the results were much more satisfactory than they had been in the previous experiment when the film was shown only once without an overview or class discussion. The test scores given under Group A in Table 5 indicated an increase in the group's median scores. Of the four class groups used, one class showed an extremely large gain in median score. The teacher had predicted that this class would show the largest increase. Subsequent exploration of this class's other school activities revealed that the homeroom teacher had organized the homeroom period so that the group planned its own programs,

teas for parents, discussion topics, bulletin board displays, etc. The homeroom teacher had encouraged their initiative and praised their efforts. She was also impressed by the gain in skill which the group displayed in the conduct of their affairs. Another of the four classes was one which is reported later as Group H. Briefly, this group had during their common learning class period (two hours per day) been engaged in raising problems related to daily living. The class had approached the problems from a problem solving point of view. This class also showed a great gain in median score.

The auditorium teacher's principal conclusions and generalizations concerning the activities of Group A were:

1. The mere showing of the films without introduction and discussion was entertaining, but largely a waste of time and energy if the objective was to secure a more adequate understanding of democracy.
2. The careful previewing of the films by the teacher, the introduction of the film by the teacher which emphasized certain sequences or ideas, the discussion after a first showing followed by a second showing did achieve results.
3. The very alert and able students were, in general, somewhat bored by the second showing. The average children seemed to enjoy the procedure most. The dull children were not interested in the introduction and the discussion.

Group B consisted of one ninth grade class composed entirely of girls. The procedure used with this group was almost identical with that used by the teacher with a different group in a previous attempt already described. Briefly, the group during the common learnings class,

which met for two hours, four days a week, covered four units of work. The units, The Meaning of Democracy and Its Ideals, Democracy in Action, The History of Democracy, and Opportunities in a Democracy, had been prepared by the teacher. The class procedure included the formation of smaller working groups which used a problem solving procedure whenever it was appropriate. Various methods of reporting, including graphic presentations, were stressed.

The teacher of Group B who had used similar procedures for four semesters with different groups was sure that there had been a definite growth in understanding democracy since it had been displayed in the classroom. The test scores (Table 5) substantiated the teacher's appraisal as they had a year previously. The class gain was significant. The teacher was of the opinion that two circumstances prevented greater success. There had been some difficulty in securing space for small group work. Previously, several rooms had been used which were no longer available. Secondly, the total time spent on the specific units had been reduced because one period per week had been set aside for formal grammar and the group had volunteered for service activities in the cafeteria.

The teacher's conclusions indicated:

1. It is not only the content of the unit which is important. It is also the class procedure and group work carried on in a favorable climate which is important. "Both are important," was the summarization used by the teacher.

2. A wide variety of teaching materials is necessary to carry on such a procedure successfully.

Group C was composed of four seventh grade classes, each of which

met one period each day. The teacher of this group, who had in 1948 used the four units listed under Group B, did not use the units during the 1949 semester. He attempted to indicate the important aspects of democracy in conjunction with a seventh grade class in American History. During the term film strips were used which were again reviewed toward the close of the semester. The test scores indicated a gain for this group although it was slight.

Group D consisted of an eighth grade class of forty students which met regularly for three forty-minute periods each week for a social studies class. The girls in the group were excused during one of these periods to practice with the Girls' Glee Club. The teacher used three of the units listed under Group B. Reports were made on various topics followed by extended class discussion. The discussions were occasionally related to selections about democracy from readers used in an English class. Film strips on democracy were also used and discussed by this group.

The teacher of Group D felt that there had been some growth in intellectually understanding ideas about democracy, but that there had been little, if any, change in students' basic beliefs and values about certain items related to race and religion. He also was of the opinion that some of the expectations of educators that eighth graders could comprehend meaningfully some phases of democracy were unrealistic. He was of the opinion that they exceeded the maturity level of the students; concepts, ideas, and situations were posed which could not be made real to many of the members of Group D. The test scores indicated a small gain for the group.

The teacher of Group E did not continue to use the tests in February, 1949, and did not attend the meeting.

Group F consisted of three ninth grade classes, which had been used as experimental groups over a period of three semesters; and one ninth grade class composed of new students. The teacher used what she described as an "indirect method" in which the words democracy or democratic were sparingly used. Specific definitions or formulations of democracy, such as the Criteria in the Understanding Democracy Framework, were not emphasized. All four groups met as social studies classes four days per week.

The teacher of Group F was of the opinion that, in general, there had been growth in the students' understanding of democracy which the test scores would not reflect. She pointed out that a few of the "difficult" students had grown worse and were in difficulty with the police as well as school authorities, whereas a year previously their behavior was largely a school concern and not considered serious. Of the three groups originally totalling about one hundred who had been in experimental classes for three semesters, only forty remained whose original test score could be compared with a final score on the original Forms A and G of the test. The median score for these three groups, as well as for the fourth group of new students, indicated a slight gain, but not a gain which could be considered highly significant statistically. The test forms A and G used with this group explain the omission of test data for this group in Table 5.

Group G consisted of an eighth and a ninth grade class. Each class was approached differently by the teacher. The eighth grade group,

during a fifteen-minute homeroom period, was given an oral presentation of the eight films used with Group A. The teacher previewed the films with the Group A teacher and collaborated in determining which sequences were particularly pertinent to certain Criteria or Manifestations in the Understanding Democracy Framework. These ideas were presented orally by the teacher and were discussed by the group. This was supplemented by frequent discussions of personal and group problems. During these discussions the teacher attempted to establish a very favorable climate for the rather full and free expression of all viewpoints.

The teacher was of the opinion that the group had not only increased in the intellectual understanding of democratic beliefs, but was often acting in accord with them. The median scores of this class indicate a definite increase after the experience.

The ninth grade mathematics class which comprised the other half of Group G met for four periods each week. The teacher did not discuss the films as she did with the eighth grade class. The normal or a slightly increased emphasis by the teacher on attitudes and consideration of the worth of individuals was assumed to be the principal factor which might have contributed to an increased understanding of democracy. In the teacher's opinion this group had not grown as much as the eighth grade group. The median test scores of the two groups seemed to reinforce the teacher's conclusions, although both groups showed a significant gain.

Group H consisted of one ninth grade class. This class was one of the classes included in the film discussion experiment (Group A) and was also exposed to a unique program in their general education class which met daily for a double period. The teacher of the general education

class stressed communication, both oral and written, about social affairs and problems--many of which dealt with the school and family life of adolescents. A problem solving method was used extensively. This consisted of encouraging students to suggest a problem which they had encountered in their reading or in their lives. Attention was focused on appropriate phases of working through a problem as suggested in the pamphlet "Problem Solving,"<sup>1</sup> which is included in this volume as Appendix B.

The teacher was of the opinion that the group had grown considerably in communication, problem solving, and human relations skills and that they had grown as a group in their understanding of democracy as it applied to the peer group life in and out of school as well as in family life.

In regard to testing, this group was unique. The identical test was given twice, once by the Group A (films) teacher and once by the Group H teacher after a four-day interval. The same test form was also given twice after a three-month teaching interval by both teachers. The median scores for the group in both sets of scores indicated a highly significant gain although it was greater according to the Group H scores than according to the Group A scores. The reliability of the boys' scores in both sets of scores was fairly high, whereas the girls' scores appeared more unreliable.

After considerable discussion of teachers' opinions and the test data, the group formulated the following conclusions and comments.

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<sup>1</sup>Citizenship Education Study, Problem Solving (Detroit: Citizenship Education Study, Wayne University, 1948).

1. Different kinds of verbalization about democracy and democratic values may be expected from students (7th - 9th grades) depending upon their maturity, their culture, and their skill in verbalization.

2. The conventional teaching of civics from a fact-giving and reciting viewpoint is not as likely to result in an increased understanding of democracy as teaching which stresses a broad experience-giving approach. The logical presentation of teaching material about democracy is important, but of greater importance in teaching is the psychological presentation which includes the examination of relationships between ideas about democracy and actual experiences, the interest of the learner, the opportunity for discussion and clarification of ideas and interpretations.

3. The single showing of such films as those used, without introduction or discussion, does not result in an increased ability to distinguish democratic situations from undemocratic ones, whereas a teaching sequence consisting of introduction; a first showing; class discussion led by the teacher, who relates specific items in the film to criteria or values inherent in democracy; and a second showing results in an increase in this ability.

4. When two types of activity consisting of first, the joint planning, executing, evaluating type of experience in the classroom, and second, the conceptualizing or generalizing type are used by a group of students, they reinforce each other and result in an increased ability to discriminate with intensity of feeling between a democratic situation and an undemocratic one.

5. Adequate teaching in attempting to increase students understanding of democracy requires a rather high level of professionalization which is here defined as: having proficiency in using such classroom management and teaching techniques as pupil-teacher planning, small group work, discussion, problem solving, and group evaluation of results.

6. Increased success in teaching an understanding of democracy may be attributed to greater teacher professionalization, and also to an increase in the teachers' personal clarification of understanding about democracy and the specificity of teaching objectives which result.

7. The teacher must have a fairly adequate conceptual framework of democracy to be effective in increasing students' understanding in this area.

8. The test instruments devised were imperfect and test scores should be supplemented by other evaluative data.

9. In adolescent groups, the peer culture of subgroups or experiences of conflict with society outside of school life may negate the school's efforts in attempting to teach an understanding of democracy.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Report of Understanding Democracy Work-Conference, June 14-15, 1949.

## Analysis and Conclusions

The case history of this group indicates that there were several cycles of activity which might be described as: examining teaching procedures and experiences provided to increase the understanding of democracy, planning, executing, and evaluating actions designed to bring improvement. The group first explored the changes which group members were attempting and made a rather informal evaluation. More elaborate detailed plans were then made to carry on several different approaches. These were then evaluated and procedures were changed on the basis of the information obtained and the insights which had been gained. This ended with a final evaluation. The cycles of action research coincided roughly with a gradual three-step shift in values or beliefs about the entire subject. The values and beliefs shifted from considering the teaching of democracy as a body of factual content to one on emphasis upon living it (living in general accord with democratic principles), to emphasizing living democratically and at the same time being able to conceptualize the underlying ideas or governing principles and using the related facts and skills.

In detail, the shifts might be described as follows: When the group first met to examine old and new teaching methods in this area, there was present the conventional idea of teaching democracy through history and civics, the study of constitutions and government. The first action attempted hinged upon the element of better human relationships--living more considerately and tolerantly without relation to overarching general principles. Next, those teachers who had stressed content began to see the importance of classroom procedures which were consistent with the

content. Those who stressed only or principally the living of democracy began to see the desirability of relating the living to certain content and principles. In the end, there was general agreement that the concepts and the content, as well as the living of democracy, were important. The procedures followed and values expressed together with a clarification of the perceived relationships between the two was considered necessary.

Considering that the problem selected by this group was vague and broad in scope, the group had relatively little difficulty in attacking it. There were several attempts to have the entire group center on one approach; namely, the construction of one or several units which would be used by all members of the group. Several units were constructed and used, but other approaches were finally considered with equal interest and approval and without any apparent indications that the group was merely a collection of fragments. The Understanding Democracy Framework, while it was not uniformly understood or used by group members, did serve as a common point of reference for all the varied projects.

Most of the group members were social studies teachers. Since the entire problem of exploring better ways of teaching an understanding of democracy was given explicit approval by the Director of Social Studies in the school system with freedom to vary from conventional procedure, there was very little anxiety due to fear of administrative disapproval. The English teachers in the group were somewhat more conscious of the limitations imposed by conventional procedures and courses of study. They did, however, have the definite approval of their principals.

The group was process conscious. The members became very sensitive to explorations or discussions which were not group-goal related and

which did not appear to hold promise of furthering the group's progress. The group engaged in tangential excursions, but they did so consciously. Most group members recognized the procedures followed in the day-long sessions as a method. Observation of the members' activities in other group situations in their school revealed, in general, that they participated more freely and with greater security than they had previous to the group experience described.

The group did not accept readily or enthusiastically the lengthy, rather complete formulations of group members. The units presented for perusal were examined and the authors were always complimented for their ingenuity and industry, but these materials rarely became the center of enthusiasm or psychological involvement. A notable example of this was the variation in acceptance and use of the Criteria in the Understanding Democracy Framework as the following account will illustrate. The actual meanings which the group members proposed to teach students were in the beginning very vague. There was, as it were, an unstated acceptance of the idea that each teacher had an adequate acceptable conception of plan of what was to be taught. Some teachers were interested when attempts were made to be specific about these things, but none were persistent in the efforts to be specific. Consequently, the staff did most of the work in organizing the material in the framework. Having had other unsatisfactory experiences with presenting a theoretical framework which made some pretense at completeness and adequacy, the staff members did not exert undue pressure when the framework was first presented. They deliberately waited for appropriate occasions to call attention to the existence of the theoretical framework and to examine particular items

in its content which were particularly relevant at any point. The general attitude of the group on such occasions was one of placid acceptance. For this reason staff members made another attempt to have the group examine the framework when the attitude test Do You Agree or Disagree? was considered. The staff members suggested and the group agreed that the instrument should be built around the Criteria suggested in the framework. Fully an hour was spent in examining individual test items in relation to Criteria.

When the results of the first attempt to use the attitude test and teachers' informal observation to evaluate a particular approach were made, the group was not elated. Rather reluctantly some group members stated and accepted the general conclusion that to succeed in such an enterprise, the teacher must have more specific short-term goals and a variety of clearly understood minor aims which make up a larger theoretical entity called "Understanding Democracy." This focussed attention on the framework again.

There was yet another occasion on which the framework was examined by the group. The group was critical of the wording of some of the items in the DYAO test and, consequently, the tests were revised. This included among other activities a group attempt to determine whether at least one or two of the items finally selected were related to each of the Criteria in the framework. This resulted in a perusal of the Criteria and Aspects, and some of the Manifestations in the Understanding Democracy Framework.

In summary then, the group had consciously focussed their attention on the framework three times for extended periods. The group had been

given a hectographed copy for their use and had participated in making a group decision that teachers need to have a systematic adequate notion of the scope of ideas which comprise an understanding of democracy.

In the interviews following the last meeting of the group, a scheduled question was used bearing on the usefulness of the framework. The reactions varied greatly. Two teachers indicated that they had no recollection of the existence of the Understanding Democracy Framework, indicating that it would certainly "have been helpful if we had such a thing." One teacher had from the very beginning based her units of teaching on the framework and had helped build test instruments from it. Another teacher after having agreed that the teacher must point his teaching at specific items had prepared posters using the Aspects and Criteria for use in class and in collaboration with another teacher had previewed films using the framework to identify points to be examined, expanded, or clarified in discussion. Other teachers' acceptance and use of the framework appeared to fall between the extremes just described. Several teachers made such comments as the following: "It [the framework] is essential for teachers." "Criteria are especially helpful to teachers." "The outline is especially helpful; the Manifestations are useful even with pupils." "We should have had such a framework." "I think it would have been useful." "It was rather theoretical."

The acceptance, use of, and knowledge about the framework which, in a sense, was of central importance varied greatly within the group. Sensing its importance seemed to occur in individuals at various times during the group's two years of activity.

The group, as a whole, not only took pride in their achievements in

individually carrying on projects which they considered valuable, but also in their progress as a group. From individual interview material collected after the conclusion of the last work-conference, it is evident that almost all group members attribute their individual success to their interaction with the group. The comments of several were extreme, similar to the reaction of one participant who said:

If I hadn't been a member of the group, I wouldn't have done any of the things I did. It isn't that I didn't have good intentions or that I didn't believe it was important, but you know how it is. And what's more, I don't believe the rest of them [group members] would have either.<sup>1</sup>

During the final individual interviews with group members, the cost of such a venture was indicated and an attempt was made to get a general appraisal of the worth of such group meetings which represented a total expenditure of at least 480 man hours of work. There was complete agreement that they were well worth the time and effort. Comments on the idea of value included expressions of the obvious block to a general improvement of teaching for an understanding of democracy. "How can other teachers have such an experience so that they see the many improvements which can be made?" The most commonly mentioned approach to a solution of this problem was to have groups formed in various schools to work on the matter in somewhat the same way as the group described in this chapter, although some members considered the time element as a block and suggested faculty meetings.

In this group there were few evidences of the formation of subgroups. The staff members formed one only to the extent that they were for a time

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<sup>1</sup>Verbatim from the interview record.

more convinced of the help which the Understanding Democracy Framework might offer than was the remainder of the group. In the first sessions, there was also some evidence of cleavage with regard to the importance of content and method. This apparent cleavage disappeared with the total group agreeing that both were important. Another initial cleavage centered upon the advisability of using a direct or an indirect approach. Agreement that generalizations derived from teaching were necessary and important seemed to achieve functional unity in this case. The illustrations just given also indicate some of the shifts in values which occurred in the group.

CHAPTER V  
THE STUDENT COUNCIL

Introduction

Since the turn of the century and particularly since World War I, there has been a rather steady, persistent effort to establish and maintain some form of student participation in school government or organized out-of-class school affairs. In some places this is called Student Government, The School Council, or The Student Council. The early efforts of Richard Welling, Bernard Cronson, and the later activities of such individuals and groups as Kelley, McKown, Ringdahl, Jones, Faunce, Johnson, National Self Government Inc., and The Secondary School Principals' Association have borne fruit, but even yet Student Councils are not found in nearly all secondary schools<sup>1</sup> and the proper educational use of the Student Council is still of major concern in educational circles. During 1942 alone, there were at least thirty-two articles or book reviews in educational journals dealing with Student Councils.<sup>2</sup>

By almost any conception of the educational function of the Student Council, it would fall within the investigatory sphere of a study of

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<sup>1</sup>E. C. Kelley, Student Cooperation--A Report of Student Government in the High Schools (New York: National Self Government, Inc., 1941).

E. B. Brogue and P. B. Jacobson, Student Council Handbook (Washington: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1940), p. 16.

<sup>2</sup>Harry C. McKown, The Student Council (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1944), p. 9.

citizenship education. For this reason, Student Council activities were naturally one concern of schools participating in the Citizenship Education Study

#### Student Council Practices in 1945

In one school "the existing Student Council organization was complicated, unwieldy, and ineffective."<sup>1</sup> In this school each of the thirty odd homerooms appointed representatives to each of the twenty school clubs and organizations, each of which in turn appointed or elected a representative to the Council. One teacher's perception, and this was shared by a number of teachers, indicates: "The least popular pupils were usually chosen by their classmates, and so I often appointed a person whom I believed was qualified." The representatives met monthly with the assistant principal, who was the Council sponsor, and the principal to discuss school affairs. No special responsibility or facilities to communicate with the various school groups were evident. This function was carried out by a smaller group consisting of the officers of the Council and a representative from each homeroom. This group met two or three times each semester to get information which was to be relayed to the entire student body.

In the opinion of both teachers and students, the two organizations were not very effective and commanded very little prestige in the school.

In another school the Student Council had been a part of the school's extracurricular program for more than twenty years. It was composed of representatives from each of the forty homerooms in the school and a

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<sup>1</sup>Statement of a group of teachers from the school.

committee of six teachers selected by the principal. For the most part, the Council concerned itself, according to the sponsor, with "the planning of school parties and with promotional work connected with paper drives and Red Cross or 'used clothing' campaigns." Occasionally lunch-room conduct, conflicts involving hall guards, safety patrols, and classroom courtesy were discussed. The students and teachers considered membership in the Student Council an honor, although the effects of Student Council activities on school life were not very noticeable.

In a third school (an elementary school) a Student Council had been operating for ten years or more. Patterns of operation were fairly well crystallized. The Council was composed of two or more representatives from each grade except the kindergarten and from each of the clubs and out-of-class organizations. The sponsor reported that homeroom teachers selected representatives from the standpoint of their work, their conduct, their leadership, and their ability to discuss problems with their group. Reporters contacted teachers each week for problems to be considered in Student Council meetings. The chairman and reporters also brought in problems. The Council was responsible for tidy halls, washrooms, lavatories, school grounds, for promoting school drives, and the circulation of leaflets distributed through the Detroit Board of Education.<sup>1</sup>

The order of business in the weekly or bi-weekly meetings was:

1. Pledge of Allegiance to the Flag.
2. Minutes of the previous meeting.
3. Reporters present teachers' problems.

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<sup>1</sup>Statement of the sponsor.

4. Chairmen of groups (clubs and service groups) and reporters present problems.

5. Summary of topics discussed by the sponsor.

The summarization of each meeting was reported to each group represented. There was a heavy emphasis on discussing what pupils should do to keep the school and grounds tidy and to exhort proper individual and group behavior.

In the fourth school there was no Student Council of any kind in operation.

Teachers' Perception of Student Council Activities  
and Initial Efforts Designed to Improve Them

As the Study began, the faculties involved perceived the Student Council as an accepted organization of the school, not extremely effective, not obnoxious, not aggressive, not offensive--an instrument which served the school's interests well in certain limited areas and in limited ways. Student representatives in two of the schools were accorded a small amount of prestige by both teachers and students. In one school, the prestige which was accorded Student Council representatives was extremely low. It appeared that one item of the informally accepted group code of the students defined Student Council representatives and "stooges" (pawns of the teachers) as synonymous. Very little stress was given the potential educational possibilities of Student Council activities claimed by educators who are enthusiastic supporters of the activity.

As Citizenship Study activities were initiated in September, 1945, one school administrator organized student assemblies which considered two questions: 1) "What can the school do for me?" 2) "What can I do for the school?" The problems raised in these assemblies which were of

school-wide concern and interest were referred to the Student Council for consideration. The changes in Student Council activities noted, which were attributed to this procedure, were that the tempo of activity in the Council was accelerated; more time was given for Council activities; and sponsors began to introduce the teaching of discussion, reporting, and problem solving skills in the Student Council meetings. The prestige of the Student Council in the estimation of students increased tremendously. There was an increase in informal student conversation about Student Council affairs, and an increase in nominations for Student Council positions. The apprehension of the faculty concerning Student Council activities, however, increased. Faculty members were largely dependent upon student representatives' reports for communication about proposed action which was increasing in scope and amount.

In the school which had no Student Council in 1945, several teachers began exploring the possibilities of introducing one in the school. A committee of teachers from the school interviewed Council sponsors from other schools and observed several Student Councils in action in nearby schools. With administration and faculty approval, a Student Council was formed near the beginning of the second year of the Study.

A third school, during the first year of the Study, which recognized that the organization of its Student Council was cumbersome and ineffective, explored ways of revitalizing and overhauling the structure of its Council. This was done by a small group of teachers, the sponsor, the coordinator, and the principal who had informally volunteered to serve as a committee. This group decided to discontinue the old organization entirely and to inaugurate a plan designed to bring pupil

opinion to bear on the problems of the school more directly. The new organization included such procedures as:

1. Direct election of representatives by each homeroom group.
2. Two-way reporting of opinions, suggestions, decisions, and plans.
3. Reporting to homerooms immediately following the Student Council meeting.
4. The selection of three sponsors, one by the faculty, one by the students, and one by the principal.

This flurry of activity in two schools and the establishment of a Student Council in another school is described because it occurred prior to the first definite large-scale attempt by the Citizenship Education Study to stimulate an examination of Student Council activities generally in all of the eight schools. The initial step in this direction was taken by inviting school principals and Student Council sponsors and other interested teachers to a one-day workshop in January, 1947.

Before continuing with a chronological account of events, however, it seems advisable to detail the staff members' perception of the situation and the possibilities of improvement after three semesters of contact with the schools.

#### The Staff Members' Perception of the Situation

The staff members after reviewing the state of affairs in the four schools specifically and in schools generally were of the opinion that the Student Council and its related activities were not accorded sufficient priority in a consideration of all the experiences which a school offers to improve citizenship. It was still considered extracurricular and regarded outside the sphere of bona fide school experiences in which

content subjects were given top priorities. Believing as the staff members did, in a broad definition of curriculum, it appeared that the Student Council, which affects and involves all individuals in the school, had not made the transition from extracurricular to curricular status. Other out-of-class activities had succeeded in this transition to curricular status because the shift did not affect the total school and could, therefore, be achieved by individual teachers or faculty subgroups.

To successfully accomplish the inclusion of Student Council affairs in the regular curriculum would require the re-examination of its purposes and its procedures by the entire school. This was clearly recognized as a difficult operation. However, there was reason to believe that the potential value of the Student Council was so great that the effort necessary would be rewarded. This belief was bolstered by the two following important considerations:

1. The Student Council as a teaching device, as a learning situation, allows the school to utilize what is known about how people learn most efficiently. The Student Council provides a means of instruction in which the activities performed and the learning that accrues are closely related to a real situation in which the learning is to be applied. There is no need to have the transfer of training long delayed or used in a situation which is only remotely meaningful. The Student Council deals with many problems which are currently vital and interesting to the people involved. Hence, the learning will be effective since it is accompanied by interest. These advantages seem to be in accord with educational research findings about transfer of training, realism, interest, and readiness.

2. The Student Council is a means to achieve the major purpose of public schools—the improvement of the insights and skills of citizens so that they may direct the destiny of a nation in the accepted democratic pattern. Schools have accepted the responsibility of developing effective citizens. The inclusion of such subject-matter areas as social studies, history, geography, current events, community civics, economics, American problems, and government indicate some of the efforts the schools have made to discharge this responsibility. There are, however, also methods and procedures such as cooperative group work, determining group purposes, projecting possible consequences of actions, planning, problem solving, and evaluation which are closely related to citizenship training. These procedures are frequently used in out-of-class organizations. Of these organizations there is probably none which includes more succinctly than does the Student Council those attitudes, values, knowledges, and skills which coincide with what is generally accepted as the nucleus or complex of factors important in discharging citizenship responsibilities.

The staff was also of the opinion that increasing the prestige of the Student Council would serve to illuminate the many possibilities of developing democratic citizenship throughout the school.

Studies of Student Council objectives indicate that in the past ten years there has been a decided trend toward the inclusion of statements of which the following is typical: to provide citizenship training. The frequency with which such statements were mentioned in a statement of Student Council aims almost doubled in the Student Councils studied by one investigator during a six-year period. Even then such objectives

were not specifically stated by more than half of the schools studied.<sup>1</sup> The staff members did not consider this as serious as it appeared on the surface. More important than the question of whether the Student Council charter or constitution included such an objective was the question: Does the school believe that the major reason for organizing or maintaining a Student Council is the teaching of citizenship? More definitely stated the question might be: Do teachers believe that boys and girls need to have opportunities in Student Council activities to test democratic values in action; to understand the meaning of representative government by participation at their level; to experience the privileges and responsibilities of democratic citizenship; to practice skills by participating in the solution of common problems; to gain skills in techniques of cooperative action; and to experience the kind of group living and human relationships which result?

If the school believed in such goals, the staff members believed that there were at least three important approaches which would be made ultimately. They were:

1. If the Student Council as a teaching device, as a means for providing valuable learning experience, is to be really successful in promoting citizenship, it must be so conceived that it gives these experiences to all of the students--not merely those few who are formally selected to serve.

2. If all students are to be included in the learning situation,

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<sup>1</sup>National Association of Student Councils, Student Councils at Work (Washington: National Education Association, 1945), p. 7.

the faculty as a whole, and not merely the sponsor or the committee specifically assigned this task, has a job to do. The school must be much more specific in identifying those values and skills which are to be considered and taught. This means, among other things, the beginnings of a definition of democracy for a particular school in a meaningful, realistic, and detailed way.

3. If a concerted effort is made to make the Student Council more effective, it will require considerable total school interaction, communication, and cooperative effort. This, in itself, will represent a major undertaking in the use of the democratic process by the faculty.

Such was the staff's perception of the state of affairs and possible approaches to improve the situation.

#### Chronological Account of Work-Group-Conference Activities

As indicated previously the Citizenship Education Study arranged a one-day workshop in January, 1947. The principals and Student Council sponsors or those interested in becoming sponsors were invited and attended. About thirty persons attended, including two consultants. Both of the consultants made an informal presentation to the total group. This was followed by completely informal discussion in smaller groups.

Excerpts from the record of the meeting indicate some of the ideas presented by the consultants and participants from eight schools.

The Student Council should be so organized that it affects the life of every child who comes to school, every time he comes to the school.

Pupils should have the opportunity to do something for the school so that it runs better.

Students should have the opportunity to think through their criteria for the selection of representatives. The elements of leadership can only be determined by those who are being led.

We do not have real respect in young people when requirements for election to office make it possible for only the 'nicest people' to become representatives. The Student Council then becomes another exclusive honor society.

There should be few, if any, restrictions on qualifications for candidacy to the Student Council other than that of being a citizen of the school.

There is need for understanding and involvement of the faculty in the affairs of the Student Council. They must set the tone so that the entire school moves from the competitive and coercive to the cooperative.

Teachers should not expect too much of the Council. There are many things that adults cannot do without making mistakes.

Teachers must have faith in the rightness of young people; faith that they can participate and contribute in the operation of a good school.

The Council should be able to bring up, define, and try to solve the real problems of the school. If they are not given a chance to go through this procedure, the last part of the activity—carrying out the action—will have little significance for them.

Every school citizen should have an opportunity to bring up problems for the consideration of the Council. He must be aware that he can do this even though he may never use the prerogative.

The Student Council needs to work in some areas in which their decisions are final; in areas where their decisions can count.<sup>1</sup>

During the next few months following the workshop, the three newly elected Student Council sponsors of one school met almost weekly to discuss and clarify Student Council affairs in the school. In another school the sponsors seemed to evidence an increased interest in the Student Council. This interest was followed and nourished by the coordinators who supplied simple books on parliamentary procedure and some simple schemes for problem solving including a set of ten slides.

During their work with Student Council sponsors, staff members had noted that certain problems seemed to recur and were common to all schools. In dealing with these recurring problems, certain criteria were applied and counsel was given in the light of these criteria, value

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<sup>1</sup>Excerpts from an account of the meeting, which was distributed to all participants.

judgments, or guiding principles. There was also present among staff members some concern that the evaluation of Student Council practices was not as systematic or complete as it might be. Consequently, staff members spent some time conjecturing about how the Student Council activities might be evaluated using data from several sources. These two considerations induced staff members to initiate invitations to a two-day work-conference shortly after the opening of school in September, 1947, at the beginning of the third year of the Study.

The principals and Student Council sponsors from three of the four schools attended. During the morning of the first day, various procedures, practices, and difficulties in each school were described and listed. As the listing grew and discussion developed, certain agreements about important procedures were also listed, such as the agreement that there should be few, if any, teacher limitations on who might be eligible for nomination as a Student Council representative, and that the best way to handle cases in which the Council exceeded its proper sphere of authority was to make a forthright explanation to this effect giving complete explanations and reasons.

Most of the items considered during the first morning session were categorized under the following headings:

1. Elections
2. Communication
3. Skills
4. Authority - School Problems
5. Attitudes of Students
6. Attitudes of Teachers

The value judgments about desirable practices in each of these categories were labelled Criteria to denote that they might be used to evaluate Student Council practices.

There was a threefold mixture of procedures during the greater portion of the first day:

1. A description of the state of affairs in each school with emphasis on Student Council procedures and blocks to successful operation.

2. A problem solving approach to problems raised with most solutions coming in the form of practices which had been tried in other schools.

3. An attempt to fit these matters into a scheme which would indicate what might be done to evaluate the school's practices in terms of the criteria and purposes identified by the schools. This consisted in listing various interesting or important aspects of the Student Council and identifying the purposes, the benchmarks (criteria, or value statements) used to judge it. These items and statements the staff members volunteered to duplicate in a report for the review of the group at a later date. It was also suggested that study forms might be developed on the basis of this report.

Such minor problems as how to get rather uniform communication to all students were solved by agreement to try the practice of providing all representatives with notebooks or forms on which notes were to be kept and by having the secretary and the sponsor summarize the important points just prior to the Council's adjournment.

The most important block or problem which seemed to hamper the sponsors in improving the Student Council as an effective service arm

of the school and also as an educational device or method was identified by the group as: lack of knowledge, understanding, and involvement of the entire faculty. This included the general lack of understanding of the real purposes of the Student Council. It was readily apparent that the perceptions of the sponsors and the interested teachers indicated a belief that the Student Council activities should be related to many parts of the total school program and, hence, would require the cooperation of the total school--both teachers and students, and often parents. They also believed that the Council as an educational device might be used to provide valuable, satisfying experience for other than "model students." Furthermore, they were convinced that such a perception included each teacher accepting some responsibility for implementing and promoting particular educational goals.

Most of the second day of the workshop was spent in exploring various means of gaining more complete faculty understanding of and commitment to support Student Council activities. The final listing indicates most of the means explored:

1. A recording might be made of a Student Council meeting which then could be played back in faculty meeting or in individual classrooms.
2. A teacher and her class might be invited to visit a Student Council meeting.
3. Individual teachers could be invited to come into the meetings upon occasion.
4. Small groups of children might visit the sessions.
5. The president of the Student Council might tell the faculty of activities.
6. A faculty meeting in which Student Council problems are discussed or presented in which slides or posters or sociodrama might be used.
7. Small discussion groups of the faculty on Student Council.
8. Reports to all teachers regarding Student Council activities.
9. Use of a speaker to emphasize the importance of a Student Council in a citizenship program.

10. Encouraging teachers with problems to make use of the Student Council in the solution of such school problems.

11. Selection of a Student Council sponsor after there has been agreement as to the method and procedure for such selection.<sup>1</sup>

Other suggestions and recommendations for teaching certain skills important in Student Council work as well as in other areas of life activity were also listed. They included:

1. Discussion of qualifications, the carrying on of election and the like in homeroom groups or other groups to be represented in the Student Council.
2. Instruction on election procedures in social studies.
3. Provision for time and place for the bringing up of problems and the discussion of problems. . .in homerooms or other groups represented.
4. Preparation of forms or other ways of reporting to individuals and groups in the school.
5. The acquainting of the faculty with procedures regarding skills in problem solving, discussion, parliamentary procedure, etc.
6. Provision of a suitable place for the Council's meeting so that blackboards and other teaching aids can be utilized to teach skills.<sup>2</sup>

Because of the many specific action suggestions made, the staff members were directed to list those which might be particularly helpful in bringing about a better understanding of what individual teachers as well as the entire school might do to increase the effectiveness of the Student Council.

This resulted in the section of the report given in detail under "Suggestions for Action" in Appendix F. Study forms consisting largely of questionnaires were added later by staff members for use by the schools.

The resulting Student Council Framework used in faculty meetings,

<sup>1</sup>Report of the meeting.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the meeting.

by sponsors, and in later workshops as a frame of reference consisted of five important areas:

- A. Selection of Representatives.
- B. Involvement in the Real Problems of the School.
- C. Communication of Ideas.
- D. Skills.
- E. Attitudes and Behavior.

The first column under each of the five areas listed Aspects to be studied or evaluated. The second column gave the value statements, guiding principles, or Criteria. The third column indicated Suggestions for Action. The fourth column indicated Pertinent Data to be gathered which seemed helpful in evaluating the practices proposed according to the purposes which are implicit in the Criteria. (See Appendix F.)

Following this two-day work-conference, various kinds of action programs were carried on in two schools at the instigation of teachers who had attended the workshop. In general, central planning committees examined proposed suggestions and planned faculty and small group meetings which they hoped would serve to increase teacher interest and understanding. Excerpts from the records give a description of two faculty meetings.

Two structured sociodramas or role playing situations were designed to identify specific aspects of the problems and difficulties which occur in a Student Council. The first sociodrama depicted a Student Council meeting. A group of teachers took roles of Student Council representatives and played incidents which had occurred in the school's Student Council. The Council had discussed the possibility of asking for a

"skip-day" (a day when students do not report to school, although they have not been excused). This had been reported and discussed in all homerooms and the Student Council had decided not to request a "skip-day." Some pupils in the school, however, had not accepted the decision and had remained away from school for the day. A teacher, playing the role of the sponsor in the sociodrama, asked why the decision of the Council had not been accepted. Teachers were assigned the roles of Student Council representatives to bring out the following points:

Role 1 - The Student Council representative who had not reported back to his homeroom regarding the decision because no time was set aside for such reporting.

Role 2 - The representative who did not know how to involve and get the opinions of his homeroom group.

Role 3 - The representative who did not believe the information important and so failed to report it to his group.

Role 4 - The representative who reported to his group and was told by the homeroom teacher that any decision regarding a "skip-day" was beyond the authority of pupils and that they were not to talk about it.

Role 5 - The representative who was not at the Council meeting when the problem of "skip-day" was discussed. He was unable to get an excuse from a scheduled class.

Role 6 - The representative who had been elected as a joke. When he tried to report, the group paid no attention to him.<sup>1</sup>

A second sociodrama used in the faculty meeting presented a committee of teachers who had been selected by the principal to work on the Student Council in the school. Roles were assigned to bring out conflicting values of teachers.

Role 1 - The teacher who believed that the exclusive business of the school was to teach subject matter and that other activities were interruptions.

Role 2 - The teacher who firmly believed that the Student Council should be a laboratory for democratic living.

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<sup>1</sup>From the Suggestions made by the committee to faculty members who volunteered to take a part in the program for the faculty.

Role 3 - The teacher who believed that children should have no voice in school affairs.

Role 4 - The teacher who wanted all decisions made by the principal.

Role 5 - The teacher who saw only the weaknesses in the existing Student Council such as, lack of skills, poor communication, lack of understanding on the part of pupils concerning the limits of authority.

Role 6 - The teacher who realistically examined the weaknesses, but believed that the Council offered unique opportunity for giving pupils useful learning experiences.

Role 7 - The sponsor who recognized the need for teacher involvement and understanding and believed that the Student Council was the responsibility of the total faculty.<sup>1</sup>

The role playing realistically brought out the difficulties which are encountered when conflicting values and beliefs are held by teachers. It mirrored rather clearly for some teachers the roles which they consistently had taken in regard to the Student Council. Many individuals participated freely in the discussion. Teachers began to propose procedures for bringing improvement in the Student Council and to display a readiness for assuming individual responsibility for its effectiveness.

Following this faculty meeting small group meetings were held. Teachers examined and discussed the Framework. Agreements were reached regarding the criteria for the Student Council. Several weeks later, one of the Student Council sponsors, in commenting on the faculty meetings, said:

That did it. Teachers know now what the Student Council is all about. We have had 100 per cent attendance at Student Council meetings ever since. Before that we often had as many as eight representatives absent because they did not dare to miss class.<sup>2</sup>

In one school a second faculty meeting was devoted to focusing

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<sup>1</sup>From the Suggestions made by the committee.

<sup>2</sup>Comment made in a work-group-conference session.

faculty attention on the purposes of the Student Council. This resulted because of plans made in the two-day conference. To focus attention on purposes, the Student Council held a regular meeting with the entire faculty in attendance. Following this, a second group of pupils--a homeroom group--assembled. Their representative reported on the Student Council meeting which had just been held. Discussion took place as pupils asked questions and made recommendations to the representative. Following the session with the pupils, teachers attempted to evaluate what they had seen.

The following questions were raised:

Is the Student Council a learning experience of such importance that children should receive help in making up work missed in the classroom?

Assuming that the sponsor has responsibility for giving pupils skills in discussion, in problem solving, in parliamentary procedure, and in group work; should not extra time be provided for this in the sponsor's teaching schedule?

Should all teachers assume responsibility for helping pupils to gain skills in problem solving?

When Student Council representatives are dealing with problems of vital concern to the entire school, should decision and action be delayed to give the representative time to take the problem back for the consideration of the group which he represents?

Should not Student Council representatives, in reporting to their homerooms, give reasons for decisions made in the Student Council rather than to ask the student body to accept these decisions without question?

Would it be desirable for homeroom groups to screen proposed problems for Student Council consideration to determine whether they are school-wide in scope or of interest only to the group? If the problem is of concern to one group, might it not be better for the problem to be handled by the group?

Should the homeroom teacher assume responsibility for helping representatives to report effectively to their groups?

Would human relationships be improved if pupils understood that the rights of the minority should be respected?<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Coordinator's Log.

In some schools there was little follow-up activity resulting from the inter-school work-conference sessions. The process of total school planning was not carried on. There was no organization for such planning. Time was not made available in faculty meetings. Other concerns were felt to hold higher priority. Regardless of the interest, ability, and understanding of sponsors in working with the Student Council directly, the effectiveness of the Student Council as a school organization was appreciably limited.

In all of the three schools from which teachers and administrators had come to attend the two-day session, questionnaires had been used to collect some of the items listed as pertinent data in the framework. In some instances data had been collected several times. In an effort to provide time to examine and interpret the data as well as to determine possible further action, another one-day work-conference was held a year later, in October, 1948.

The first hour of the meeting was devoted to a review of previous activities since several of the thirteen people in attendance had assumed Student Council sponsorships in two schools recently and had not attended previous meetings. The purposes of the meeting as perceived by the participants were then discussed and listed. They were:

1. To go over the data which have already been gathered at each school on the Student Council.
2. To decide whether interpretations in the reports were fair, accurate, complete, etc.
3. To attempt to describe what the Student Council was like before data were gathered. Before the Citizenship Study was launched.
4. To attempt to indicate changes which have taken place, with some hunches as to reasons for changes. What procedures have been useful in bringing about change?
5. To try, after examining data, to determine 'high' points

and possible 'low' points where further action might be desirable.  
6. To plan possible next steps.<sup>1</sup>

The data collected by means of questionnaire forms (see Appendix F, Student Council Study Forms) was presented in summarized form for each school separately. For some schools this report included thirty or more tables and ten or more pages of interpretations and conclusions. The following tables and conclusions are taken from the report of one school and are included here to illustrate the content and form of the reports given for each school.

TABLE II<sup>2</sup>

Responses of 29 \_\_\_\_\_ Student Council Members to the Question:  
Who suggested the names of people you could vote for?

Responses	No.	%
Boys and girls suggested names	19	66
Teacher suggested names	7	24
In another way	3	10
Total	29	100

Summary - As in the previous table these data indicate that in a high percentage of cases (66%) boys and girls nominate the possible candidates for election to the student council. Teachers, however, still suggest the names in about one-fourth of the cases represented.

<sup>1</sup>Coordinator's Log.

<sup>2</sup>"The Student Council at \_\_\_\_\_ School." A Student Council report distributed to teachers in a school which used the Student Council questionnaires and study forms.

TABLE IX<sup>1</sup>

Responses of 24 \_\_\_\_\_ Teachers to Item 9: Do you believe the time spent by Student Council members in attending student council meetings is as important to citizenship development as a like amount of time spent in English or arithmetic?

Responses	No.	%
Yes	18	75
No	3	13
Undecided	1	4
No Response	2	8
Total	24	100

Summary - Three-fourths of the teachers believe that time spent by student council members in attending student council meetings is as important to citizenship development as a like amount of time spent in English or arithmetic. Seventeen per cent of the teachers, however, do not agree or are undecided.

In an attempt to summarize the data and to stimulate interpretation, each of the Criteria in the Student Council Framework was treated in the following way in the report to the schools:

Criterion - E.1. Faculty commitment

The faculty should exhibit intense interest in the welfare of the student council.

Data

See teacher responses, Appendix, Page O, Table IX, Page P, Table XI, Page Q, Tables XIII and XIV.

Conclusion

There is little agreement among teachers about other teachers' interest in the student council. The responses range all the way from 'less than 10%' to from '80-100%' with no concentration of opinion. One-third of the teachers frankly admitted that there was not sufficient teacher interest to guarantee the effectiveness of the student council. Only half of the teachers believe that the student council is a real benefit to the school. Thirteen per cent feel that too much time is spent on student council activities, and yet two-thirds of the teachers believe that time spent in student council meetings is as important to citizenship development as a like amount of time spent in English or arithmetic. In other words, the responses in this area are not consistent.

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<sup>1</sup>"The Student Council at \_\_\_\_\_ School."

If the student council is a school-wide activity affecting both students and teachers, it might be assumed that it needs the active interest of all teachers to insure its success.<sup>1</sup>

Revisions and additional interpretations were made in these reports by members of the group. This led to listing tentative suggestions concerning ways of relaying the information to the rest of the faculty. Efforts were then made to identify changes which had been made or noted in Student Council work during the past three years. The following paragraphs summarize the changes identified by the group.

In the selection of representatives, both schools indicated changes in the importance placed upon orientation to the Student Council; that is, more information was given students and discussion regarding the functions, duties, and needed qualifications of Council members was encouraged and more time was devoted to this activity.

The system of representation had been changed in both schools. In one, an unwieldy system of representation had been replaced by a more direct one. In the other school, a Junior Student Council had been formed to deal more directly with problems involving young pupils although the system originally employed provided adequate representation. In both schools previous limitations or qualifications imposed by teachers in the way of citizenship and scholastic records were decidedly decreased if not entirely eliminated.

Nominations of more than one candidate for each position became more widespread and nominations were made almost entirely by students. The written ballot was used more frequently than it had been and, in

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<sup>1</sup>"The Student Council at \_\_\_\_\_ School."

general, a more elaborate plan of voting was used than formerly. The scope of problems dealt with in the Student Council broadened. Students raised and discussed problems which would have been ruled out of order previously. This does not mean that all such problems were eventually solved by or handled by the Student Council, but they were raised and discussed. For example, in one school as possible revisions in lunch-room procedure were being considered, the matter of teachers "cutting into line" (entering a cafeteria line at the point where food is served without waiting at the end of the line) was mentioned as one of the reasons for confusion at times. The Council tabled the matter until the next meeting. Some faculty members were indignant that this prerogative should be questioned by the Student Council. The sponsors allowed the representatives to explore the matter. It was found that teachers had only twenty minutes for lunch and that after class, individual conferences often reduced this twenty minutes by two or three minutes. It was further revealed that the teacher was expected to be ready to receive a class at the bell which meant a further curtailment of one or two minutes. The consensus of the Council that it was necessary and desirable for teachers to "cut into" the lunch lines, which was relayed to all students in representatives' reports, helped to reduce tensions regarding this problem.

In another school the Council considered building a small equipment shack on the athletic field so that it would not be necessary to spend the time and effort required to take equipment to and from the building for each class. After considerable discussion, the matter of building and financing such a building, its placement and appearance

were explained. The necessity of referring the matter to the planning and architectural department of the Board of Education was also explained.

There was general agreement by the sponsors that the proportion of faculty and administration problems had decreased in proportion to the number of student problems considered. In the perception of students not in the Student Council, there was greater permissiveness to bring up any problem of interest than there had been before though it was high originally.

The communication aspect of Student Council work was radically revised in one school. A resumé of Council activities is posted on the teachers' bulletin and representatives report the day after the Council meeting directly to the group which they represent. In the second school the communication had always been adequate and so remained virtually unchanged, except that the communication from the group to the Council through the representative was encouraged directly by the school and indirectly by the discussions of reports provided in each homeroom.

In regard to the improvement of student skill in discussion, problem solving, reporting, and parliamentary procedure, the evaluation of change was not so definitely favorable. The reporting and parliamentary procedures were improving, but the discussion and problem solving skills were not so discernibly improved. The data on which these judgments were made were fragmentary and probably inadequate.

The prestige of the Student Council in the estimate of sponsors, teachers, Student Council members and non-members had increased in two schools although it had been rather high in one school originally. The morale of representatives seemed better, and there was greater opportunity

for students to examine democratic values more freely than formerly, although this judgment was made largely by inference from the fact that the range of problems raised for Council consideration had increased. No concerted attempt had been made to use Student Council activities to teach an understanding of democracy consistently and directly.

The results of an attempt to assess teachers' opinion of the Student Council revealed that the average teacher was providing more time in homeroom for discussion of Student Council activities than formerly. Still the students' estimate of the value and worthwhileness of the Student Council was much more favorable than the average teachers' estimate. Teachers were also of the opinion that there was insufficient interest and involvement of the faculty to guarantee the general success of the Student Council, although the sponsors and teachers were agreed that faculty interest was greater than it had been formerly. Teacher opinion indicated that Student Council activities made representatives more responsible generally and improved their leadership ability.

The areas where further improvement seemed desirable were:

1. Greater involvement of the faculty.
2. The widespread teaching of discussion and problem solving skills.
3. The use of the Student Council to provide teaching opportunities in the realm of understanding democracy.

The fact that still greater involvement of the faculty was desired does not mean that some of the procedures were not considered successful. Teachers in the school which had devoted two faculty meetings to Student Council affairs made such comments as the following:

Faculty meetings have changed teachers' attitudes.

Teachers should not abdicate during discussion of Student Council affairs. The whole success of the Council rests upon the interest and involvement of teachers.

You must involve all teachers, or you get nowhere.

You must develop democratic viewpoints on the part of the administration and the faculty.

The sociodrama brought about 100 per cent commitment at \_\_\_\_\_ School.

It is much easier in a school where teachers have been informed-- when there have been faculty meetings on the Student Council.<sup>1</sup>

There was general admission of ignorance concerning ways to continue improvement with faculty understanding. Specific questions were also presented, such as:

When twenty or more problems have been raised in the Council, there just isn't time to work on but a few. What should you do then?

When one or two teachers object to the consideration of a particular problem, what should the sponsor say in response to a personal appeal from these teachers?<sup>2</sup>

In this meeting, agreements were also reached concerning the use of certain questionnaire forms during the spring of 1949.

Teacher perception of the value of the work-conferences was rather uniform. The sessions had been helpful and successful. There was a general feeling of achievement that the group had been successful in improving Student Councils and in increasing the interest and insight of teachers in the potential possibilities of Student Councils generally. The group members seemed to feel that there was nothing highly unusual

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<sup>1</sup>Comments recorded verbatim during discussion.

<sup>2</sup>Taken from the record of the meeting.

about the entire undertaking—they had learned from each other and morally supported each other.

### Analysis and Conclusions

There is ample evidence that the Student Council group (Case II) in the course of four days of intensive work as a group and their week-by-week contact with Student Councils over a period of three years examined, planned, executed, and evaluated the Student Council experiences in several schools. There is also some evidence that as a group there were changes in values concerning Student Council purposes, practices, and ways of improving the learning experiences which it provided.

The summary of changes listed by the group in their final meeting, based in part on questionnaires and interviews and in part on direct observations of the sponsors and other interested teachers, indicates the results of examination, plans, and action by the group in cooperation with others. Indications of changes in values centered around several points stated in the Student Council framework. One was:

There should be extremely few, if any, restrictions on qualifications for candidacy to the Student Council other than that of being a citizen of the school.<sup>1</sup>

The group examined and discussed this matter at length before suggesting its inclusion in the Student Council framework. This idea was new. It had not been urged by the individuals previously. Other changes in values are contained in the following statements:

A representative to the Student Council should be elected by the group of which he is a member.

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<sup>1</sup>Listed under "Criteria" in the Student Council Framework.

In the Council meetings, there should be an atmosphere of permissiveness in the discussion of school problems.

The Student Council should deliberate on those problems which are of interest or concern to groups in the school.

Teachers and sponsors should deliberately provide guidance in problem solving skills.

The faculty should exhibit intense interest in the welfare of the Student Council.<sup>1</sup>

The group had approved these criteria after considerable discussion and the effort spent in planning the presentation of these ideas to the faculty through role playing indicates that the group perceived differences between the school faculty and the group. The roles suggested in the role playing sequences indicate some of the points of view which the group hoped to change. The resistance of some faculty members in one school to the Council's discussion of teachers entering the cafeteria line is evidence that the group had correctly judged other teachers' values as differing from the Student Council group's values.

The greatest shift in values, or the increase in importance of a value, occurred in the groups' ideas about the potential of the Student Council as a learning activity. A major portion of the group's campaign to enthuse the faculty hinged on efforts to explain and demonstrate the many possibilities of the Student Council and to solicit more time for and emphasis on these learning activities. Group members were frank in their admission of ignorance as to how this might be done with any degree of certainty. The procedures suggested with the greatest frequency could be summarized in the following sentence: "Have the faculty

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<sup>1</sup>Criteria listed in the Student Council Framework.

discuss the situation at some length."

There were other interesting features of the group's work which cast some light on the important and salient features of the group's progress and the limitations of the method. Five are listed with some of the conclusions which might be drawn.

The first is that the group had little difficulty in defining the various aspects of the problem on which it later centered its attention. In its activities there was very little uncertainty and very little so-called "excess activity" or floundering around. In an attempt to identify factors which might be related to this observation, staff members singled out several. They are described in the following paragraphs.

The group's general problem was rather definitely delimited and agreed upon even prior to the first general meeting. The very subject itself was rather definitely delimited in scope and hence any preliminary searching for limits and ramifications was not necessary. The group never contemplated such far-reaching changes as having the Student Council assume responsibility for all out-of-class activities, etc.

The group in its first small group meeting identified common blocks and difficulties; hence, there was no need to neglect very many of the suggestions contributed.

Most members of the group had a definite responsibility to deal with an immediate problem, since they were sponsors and administrators.

The long period of individual exploration and activity prior to the first small group meeting had provided all of the background experience necessary to provide some security in working with the problems that arose.

The group was dealing with matters considered to be an individual school problem. There were no clearly recognized system-wide regulations, and hence no crystallized set of expectations or regulations to be met or violated. Those imposed were established by the individual school administrators and the faculty, and in most cases the school principal or assistant principal was directly interested in Student Council affairs in the schools affected.

From these observations and interpretations it might be concluded that:

1. The narrower the scope of the problem attacked using the work-group-conference method, the more quickly will the group single out those aspects to be studied and attacked.
2. When there is early agreement on crucial blocks to success perceived by group members, the initial stages of exploration are relatively short.
3. When there is a school responsibility delegated to one or a few persons, there is greater concern to arrive at satisfactory action proposals, depending upon the importance of power restrictions.
4. When group members have first-hand knowledge of the state of affairs, action proposals and value statements are agreed upon rather quickly.
5. When there are no detailed system-wide regulations to be considered, schools deal with problems quickly, especially if the administrators directly in charge approve of the study of existing conditions, invite, and discuss suggestions.

The second interesting feature of the group's work was that group

members showed an intense personal interest in the personal well-being of group members from other schools and in their Student Council activities. Individuals in the group repeatedly asked staff members for information about other group members.

The third point of interest was that this group probably more than any other single group with whom the staff members worked were successful in at least partially involving the total school faculties and in securing their cooperation and support. Nevertheless, this continued to remain the biggest problem for group action. How to get the faculty to see further educational ramifications of Student Council activities was the immediate problem.

The activities of this group illustrate an assumption which had already been made; namely, that when an individual or a group begins to examine the broad purposes of one aspect of the curriculum, it commonly results in justified attempts to involve the whole school.

The fourth interesting observation was that there were few attempts after the first general one-day workshop to solicit outside information either from consultants or books concerning Council activities as such. There were repeated attempts made, however, to get help in "educating the faculty." Sociodramas, demonstrations, panels, discussion groups, and personal invitations to visit the Council in action were all studied and some were tried. Questions concerning how much authority the Student Council should have and to what extent democratic practices should include the teachers were not considered seriously. Therefore, they did not become "blocks" or problems. The group felt that unless the faculty understood the present intent and purposes of the Student Council and the

sponsors, nothing would be gained by raising such problems, and when the faculty became interested and regarded Council activities as educationally important, further problems would arise naturally and be considered more intelligently by the entire group. Hence, the very broad implications of seriously teaching the many ramifications of democracy through the Student Council were never thoroughly explored, although the intent to teach democracy was generally accepted as a part of the framework.

The following conclusion may be drawn from this observation: When a group becomes psychologically involved and has sufficient time to plan, it will seek help from outside resources on those aspects of its problem which the group considers crucial.

The fifth and last observation was that the group seemed to anticipate quite accurately the results which would be obtained from the study forms used. They seemed fairly sure that their informal observations were accurate and sufficient to guide them in determining next steps. By the time the data collected from students were ready for analysis, the group was more interested in studying the effects of their action programs to involve the faculty--"bring the faculty along."

Several tentative conclusions might be drawn from this analysis. A group is most interested in the data or fact-finding most closely related to what it considers its most pressing problem and will not be interested vitally in elaborate fact-finding schemes to produce information which the group believes it can get by informal observation. A group respects highly the conclusions it reaches by the consensus of group members' observations and perceptions.

## CHAPTER VI

### CASE STUDY III: IMPROVING EDUCATION AT THE LOWER ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LEVEL

The maturity level of pupils in the lower grades places a special limitation on efforts to improve citizenship education at this level in comparison with efforts in grade levels 5 through 12. In the education of six, seven, and eight-year-olds, the more formalized civic behaviors such as passing laws, interpreting the Constitution, electing officials, discussing current controversial issues and theories of government are too complex for direct teaching. This limitation probably serves a good purpose in that it brings a consideration of specific measures to improve citizenship close to a general fundamental consideration of child growth and development theories in relation to the goals of society represented by a "good" child.

Fundamental ideas about the effect of various procedures on the early emotional development of children and its permanent subsequent effects must be reviewed. Consideration of the effects of home treatment, the general acculturation produced by the community, and the more formalized school group methods to change children raises practically all of the controversial problems in education.

Most of these considerations were frankly recognized by the Citizenship Education Study when it canvassed the responsibility it had assumed in working with the lower elementary grades.

#### The State of Affairs in 1945

In most Detroit schools, children entered grade one from Kindergarten

at approximately six years of age and were promoted or retained in the previous grade (failed) at the end of each semester. In most schools the classes became part of the platoon system. This meant that they spent one-half day with the so-called homeroom teacher who taught reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic with each subject scheduled at a certain time. This same teacher was in charge of another class in the afternoon and taught the same subjects. During the half day not spent in the homeroom, the group attended four or five special classes for thirty-three to forty-minute intervals--art, music, gym, science, and auditorium, each class taught by a special teacher.

In some schools where the number of students and teachers or the facilities were not conducive to the efficient use of the platoon system, the lower classes were often taught in "out-of-platoon" or self-contained rooms. This meant that the teacher spent the entire day or almost the full day with the same group and taught all subjects, although in some cases the art, music, or gym was taught by a special teacher.

In one of the schools there were five first grade groups which were "out of platoon." The teachers taught the same group all day for one semester. Since this reduced the total number of children contacted by the teacher in one day to about thirty-five or forty (average thirty-eight) and gave the teacher an opportunity to revise her daily schedule without conflicting with the total school organization, it was decided by the staff coordinator to attempt to work with this group of five teachers in an attempt to improve citizenship education in these groups or grades.

### The Teachers' Perception of the Situation

The teachers' general perception of their situation as it appeared to staff members indicated that they considered themselves as conscientious teachers. They knew what their job was and they had been working at it valiantly. They knew exactly what the course of study requirements for each grade were and prided themselves that they usually exceeded these requirements. The four reading tests given at regular intervals each semester indicated that the great majority of their pupils exceeded the city-wide norms established for each grade. They knew which pupils in a group were slow in learning how to read and used a great deal of energy trying to help them. The teachers failed about 9 per cent of the students at the end of the 1B grade and about 3 per cent at the end of the 1A. These children (12 per cent) then repeated a semester's work. The teachers knew that this was lower than the average for the city. The failures were determined largely by reading disability. Since reading was the foremost learning activity in the first grade, it was crucial. The teachers felt that it was important that each child recognize (be able to read) a minimum number of words before proceeding to the next grade, since the reading method was highly systematized and the lack of ability in the 1B grade would make progress in the 1A more difficult for the pupil and incidently require more teacher attention. The teachers recognized differences in the reading ability of pupils toward the end of the first semester by dividing the class into three reading ability groupings—fast, average, and slow for certain activities.

The teachers recognized the lack of music experiences and commented critically on the lack of a piano, a record player, and sufficient

art supplies. They also wanted more books, a sand table, and a sound projector.

In response to various items on a questionnaire form distributed to all teachers in June, 1945, teachers indicated their perception of citizenship problems in the following ways:

In response to the question, "As you see your homeroom group, what is it from the standpoint of citizenship education that you think they need?" the following comments were received.

Teacher A. "Greater respect for authority among children. Definite approved methods of punishment." The problems in citizenship seem to be more common among boys than girls.

Teachers B and E both listed the need for approved methods of punishment and respect for authority.

Teacher C. ". . . more home training in good manners."

There were uniformly no replies to the questions which asked how these problems might be attacked or what help the school might need.

#### The Staff Members' Perceptions of the Situation

The staff members' perception of the situation was quite different from the teachers' perception. Differences centering principally on the following general ideas:

1. Reading is not necessarily the most important single goal of first grade learning experiences for every student.
2. The experiences provided in the first grade are generally more effective when they are not sharply separated into timed periods labelled reading, number work, art work, etc. The learning experiences will be

more normal if they are interrelated and seen as rather synonymous with normal living.

3. The differences in growth patterns, differences in readiness are important facts to consider in providing learning experiences for primary grade children.

4. Great pressure to achieve goals that are extremely difficult for children by means of competitive devices and the ultimate threat of failure increase tensions among children and cause an early dislike for school. This is undesirable.

5. In the primary grades considerable attention should be given to growth in social areas, working with others, planning, projecting consequences, and living happily together without undue fear in an atmosphere of acceptance and friendliness.

The staff members were of the opinion that although the learning situation in these first grades was not bad, it would be improved if less stress were placed on formal reading lessons. There appeared to be an unduly great pressure on achievement in this area and too little in other areas of interests such as music, rhythms, natural science, and play activities. These did not appear to be taken into account in the following rather typical schedule posted in one room:

Morning	
Opening Exercise.....	5 Minutes
Hygiene.....	10 "
Reading.....	45 "
Recess.....	10 "
Reading.....	20 "
Safety.....	15 "
Spelling.....	20 "
Literature.....	30 "
Washing Hands.....	10 "

## Afternoon

Opening Exercises.....	3	Minutes
Reading, Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday; Gym on Monday; Art on Wednesday.....	30	"
Recess.....	10	"
Science.....	20	"
Reading.....	25	"
Library (Monday); Gym (other days).....	25	"

The experience reading procedures came to mind as a possible method which would show a disposition to consider reading important, as the teacher did, and yet permit a more flexible means of including a variety of life activities as the content for the reading lessons.

Another possible improvement might be achieved by encouraging the teachers to study the growth patterns and backgrounds of their pupils. It was assumed on the evidence presented by the Teacher Education Study that this would be one means of shifting what appeared to be an emphasis on subject matter to one which would be more child centered and eventually possibly more community or life centered.

## Chronological Account of Work-Group-Conference Activities

In June, 1945, the first contact was made with the five teachers who will hereafter be designated as teachers A, B, C, D, and E. These contacts were continued over a period of four years, although most of the activity described here occurred during the first three years. The initial meeting was largely social and, like the next few meetings, was considered by the staff member involved as largely one of becoming acquainted. It was not until September that the staff member discovered that in the selection of the school as a participant in the Study, external pressures were thought by the faculty to be operating to force the school to request inclusion in the Study. There appeared to be a

general feeling, later borne out by the testimony of some of the faculty members, that the faculty would wait and see what developed.

By October, 1946, the coordinator had conferred informally with all of the teachers. These conversations provided opportunities to ask questions concerning the present program and to suggest that there might be some conditions which the teachers wished to change which the Citizenship Study might facilitate either with money, time, or other resources. All of the teachers were cordial and genuinely friendly, but generally indefinite or cautious about what might be done. Teacher A appeared to be the spokesman for the entire group and assumed the role with reason. She had been selected by the principal, because of length of service and teaching proficiency, to take charge of certain administrative details. As the coordinator suggested experience reading as a possible innovation, Teacher A explained the method currently used in great detail, expressed complete satisfaction with its results, and indicated surprise that the coordinator should not be equally certain of its undisputed merit. The conversation served also to reinforce the staff's perception that there was no discernible dissatisfaction with current methods used to teach reading. No reading readiness program was as yet in operation in the school, and Teacher A suggested a special 1C grade for those who might be screened out of a kindergarten class as immature. The disposition to have all children complete the same work in a given amount of time and meet certain standards through teacher-planned and teacher-centered procedures was to be used as a pattern for the reading readiness program as it was in other aspects of class procedure. In the course of these rather informal conversations the coordinator outlined again some of the

broad goals which the Study staff held to be desirable for good citizenship education.

In January, 1946, the coordinator brought her lunch and ate with the five teachers. Several agreements and decisions resulted from this meeting. Some professional books dealing with elementary education were given the school. Arrangements were made for the teachers to visit a teacher in another system. From previous observation, the coordinator knew that the teacher to be visited used a rather flexible program, that she was very natural and understanding with children, that she used experience reading methods with considerable success, and that she was able to verbalize well concerning her purposes and methods.

Early in March, after a one-day visit with this teacher in her classroom, Teacher C during informal conversation revealed that having had some experience with the method, she would like to try more experience reading; but she felt she must not depart far from the accepted practices of the other four teachers which clearly indicated that a specified number of lessons must be covered in a given time. She further suggested that she probably was using too much pressure in her efforts to cover the material, since several parents had intimated that their children were anxious and fearful lest they fail in reading. Teacher E commented rather unfavorably on the visit, "I guess there are some people who would let children read just whatever they wished to read." On the use of finger painting which she had seen, she commented, "I hate paints."

At the suggestion of the coordinator, a one-day meeting was arranged for the five teachers and several other early elementary grade teachers during which an eminent authority on child growth and development and

elementary education from a mid-western university would be present. This was the first meeting of the five teachers and the staff members which was attended by the principal.

The consultant, from his years of experience in an experimental school staffed with research specialists, talked rather simply and informally about the various philosophical considerations and research findings which served as the basis for exploration in the schooling of primary grade children. He gave many case studies to bolster the general idea that children have varied growth patterns, and do not, therefore, react alike to attempts to treat them as similar. He cited findings to indicate that providing more time for certain content matter does not seem related to the growth which results.

There was a great deal of discussion of various plans, room arrangements, and teaching patterns which were currently in use to provide more opportunities for growth in many areas of child life. The consultant stressed interest as an important index of readiness to learn and grow.

The principal reported that the five teachers had commented on the consultant as "not . . . very practical." During the next two weeks, however, the five teachers through informal communication channels had made some decisions. This became evident when the coordinator in June, 1946, asked whether any plans should be made for the coming year. Teachers came prepared to state what they would be interested in doing in the fall. They would:

1. Allow more time for free discussion with children regarding their interests.
2. Explore the possibility of using reading readiness tests.
3. Provide for increased use of supplementary books by children.
4. Attempt to use more music and rhythms in the program (one

teacher has had some help in a college course on the development of rhythm bands).

5. Increase the number and variety of activities for the first graders.

Teachers agreed that they would like to set up an activity room in the basement of the school. They suggested that a library corner might be set up in one section of the room. They also planned to use this room for art activities, sand table projects, and for rhythms.

They requested materials for this project which included unpainted book shelves, a rug, and supplementary books for the library corner. They also requested four easels, a piano if possible, clay, paper, crayons, and a sand table.<sup>1</sup>

The staff's conclusions concerning the first year of activity with this group indicate that only in the final meeting did there seem to be any indication of involvement or commitment. While the commitments still seemed to be hedged about by many mental reservations, there was some indication that the extreme feelings of hostility to or fear of new ideas and procedures had been reduced somewhat. The coordinator was of the opinion that the suggestions had a great deal of merit from several points of view. The suggestion that a basement room which was adequately lighted and ventilated be converted into an activity room for the use of the five groups would involve the teachers in cooperative planning and action. The activities carried on could provide in the words of the coordinator:

. . . more opportunities for children to plan, to make choices, to participate in a variety of experiences, more opportunities to discuss and help to solve their own problems. There could be more provision for individual differences and more opportunities for satisfaction and achievement, particularly for pupils who did not achieve satisfaction through academic achievement.<sup>2</sup>

A summary of the coordinator's activities during the first year

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<sup>1</sup>Coordinator's log.

<sup>2</sup>Coordinator's log.

includes the following contacts:

1. Eight contacts with the teachers as a group, three of which included eating lunch with the group. This does not include several occasions during which these teachers met with staff members as a part of the total faculty group.
2. Arranged for the group's visit with a teacher outside the Detroit system.
3. Attended a one-day workshop with the five teachers and the principal during which a consultant worked with the group.
4. Several informal chats with the individual teachers.

#### The Second Year

During September of the second year (1946) some supplementary reading books and art materials were delivered to the teachers and a one-hour meeting of the five teachers, the principal, and the coordinator was held. At this meeting the coordinator suggested that a committee might be appointed to consider possible next steps in planning for the activity room. This was deliberately done to broaden participation. Equipment was examined and the purchase of new equipment was considered, as well as the scheduling of the use of the room. Teacher comments made during the meeting indicate the amount of reluctance and insecurity which still existed.

It sounds like it might be all right.

Of course, if we do have activity we won't want to take any of the reading time.

We have done some things before.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Coordinator's log.

One of the teachers later revealed that the group generally had been reluctant to meet and plan because they "just didn't know what to do or what to say."

Some equipment was subsequently purchased and again a meeting was suggested. One teacher thought it might be all right if the Citizenship Study thought it desirable. While eating lunch with another teacher, the coordinator was informed rather confidentially that the teachers were reluctant to meet for a whole day because they just did not have ideas. "How could we talk for a whole day when we do not have any plans or very clear ideas about what to do?" During October and November, various types of supplies for the activity room were received, some from the Board of Education and others secured with Study funds. A month later the coordinator was invited to stop in. The coordinator encouraged the teacher who was starting a rhythm band, and other teachers who were working on new bulletin boards and displays. She also examined the various games which had been collected for use in the activity room with the cooperation of parents and praised the effort.

In view of the reluctance of the group to meet alone for an entire day, a one-day meeting was planned to which several primary grade teachers from a different school and the five teachers were invited. (Substitutes were provided whenever teachers absented themselves from school to attend such a meeting or visited another school.) The five teachers agreed to come. The purpose of the meeting was given as, "To explore the kinds of experiences needed by younger children--as related to citizenship." To offset the reluctance of the five teachers to talk about what had been done, the staff members, on the pretext of demonstrating

the sociodrama, took roles of teachers from each school and reported what had been done at each school and attempted to reflect the teachers' thinking. Since the teachers from the second school invited were more disposed to deviate from their regular schedule and to experiment with new procedures, a second sociodrama was presented to present different points of view about subject-matter emphasis, free activity, and the needs of children and society. The staff members took most of the roles aided by two teachers and the teacher from outside the system who had been visited by the five teachers. It was felt that the teachers might discuss roles more freely than they would discuss divergent points of view propounded by certain teachers. The contributions of the five teachers were limited when compared with the other group of three teachers. Some slides made particularly for the early grades were shown and discussed. The many suggestions which were made were all listed for possible further consideration. The staff report of the meeting indicates that the sociodrama was thought to have had distinct advantages over direct discussion of bona fide situations in this case, and allowed more critical comment than might otherwise have been forthcoming.

As previously indicated, the participation of the five teachers was limited with three commenting or questioning only once or twice. After the meeting or near the end, one of the five teachers said, "Let's give it a whirl." Another said as she left, "I'll try a little of this, but I don't feel any more comfortable inside." A week later the principal reported that the five teachers had been very disturbed over the meeting.

Items discussed during the day might be summarized by the following listing:

1. Relationship of subject-matter areas to citizenship.
2. Flexibility of schedules in the lower grades.
3. Courses of study—standards.
4. Promotions and failures.
5. Security and change.

Just before the Christmas holidays the coordinator was invited to visit the lower grade rooms. There was a flurry of activity; Christmas tree decorations, stockings, suet trees for birds, table decorations were in various stages of construction. Teacher A said, "We wanted you to stop in this afternoon because we thought you would like what we were doing. It really is hard work to have all these activities, and we are not sure we can live through until Christmas." When asked whether there was any opposition to another meeting, Teacher B said that she thought everyone would be happy to come. The atmosphere in the classrooms seemed to be freer than it had been during any other visit. The children conversed as they helped each other, and the teachers seemed to know more clearly what would and would not receive the approval of the coordinator.

As the result of a school-wide effort to have some report of what various people were doing related to the Citizenship Study in the school, a general questionnaire was sent to each faculty member. The responses of three of the five teachers (two did not respond) indicate their concern with activity, sharing, and helpful, friendly treatment of others. Their responses to one of the items on the questionnaire show this quite clearly. It asked, "Have you done anything else in your class, perhaps not an entire unit, which you think should be mentioned as a part of this report? (State briefly.)"

Teacher A responded:

1. We make and send or deliver 'Get Well' cards to children who are sick. We take books home to them.
2. We have discussed ways we can make new people feel welcome and happy in our school.
3. We use the 'Lost and Found' basket freely. Children help each other find lost articles.
4. We try to keep our school (lavatories, rooms, halls) clean and free of marks.
5. Care for plants in the room.

Teacher B responded:

1. Children have 'Showing Day' (Thanks to Mr. \_\_\_\_\_) every day.
2. Each day they have free discussion at least the first thing in the morning and more often than not they want it the first thing in the afternoon too. The day's newest news item is chosen and put up on our Today's News from the discussion.
3. Help one another with daily work.
4. Help one another with finding and donning wraps.
5. Children bring books and records to be enjoyed by all.
6. Children make bulletin boards.
7. Care of room plants.

Teacher C responded:

1. Talked about rules and regulations in room and school; kinds of things that lead to good health; make stories of great men; found pictures; planning time for work and play; starting hobby group.

The responses of these three teachers to other similar questions were very similar. Another item on the questionnaire was phrased as follows:

Is there any procedure or device which you have found valuable in helping to understand children better? Check any of the following or add others:

- \_\_\_\_\_ Individual pupil records
- \_\_\_\_\_ Individual conference with pupil
- \_\_\_\_\_ Conference with parents
- \_\_\_\_\_ Use of Mooney Problem Check List
- \_\_\_\_\_ Use of Wishing Well
- \_\_\_\_\_ Use of interest inventories
- \_\_\_\_\_ Writing of autobiographies
- \_\_\_\_\_ Other 'free writing'
- \_\_\_\_\_ Sociogram
- \_\_\_\_\_ Role-playing or sociodrama

- \_\_\_\_\_ Conference periods
- \_\_\_\_\_ Class discussion of problems

Teachers A, B, and C all checked: Individual conference with pupil, Conference with parents, and Class discussion of problems.

There were no comments in response to the question, "Would you care to indicate briefly any suggestions for improving individual and group guidance next semester?"

To prepare a group report for the faculty, a dinner meeting was arranged for the five teachers which lasted about four hours. This report which the coordinator helped the group frame is given in full because of subsequent evaluation activities arising from the report.

The five lower elementary teachers have had time to discuss their plans for the coming semester and the following report is the result of that joint planning.

Their objectives were listed as follows:

1. More child planning and more cooperative planning among teachers.
2. Less academic stress.
3. More cooperative planning between teachers and children.
4. Greater use of the activity room.
  - a. Teachers plan to have a chart showing how many times each teacher uses the activity room and in what way.
5. Better community-school relationships.
  - a. Units on community and community helpers.
  - b. Provision for parents to visit.
  - c. Report cards--ways of reporting to parents.
  - d. Excursions into the community.
  - e. PTA.

Areas Mentioned for Special Consideration

- A. Pupil participation.
  1. Help children to realize that patrol boys help us, so in turn we give them cooperation and respect.
  2. Children care for plants in the rooms.
  3. Care of library books--keeping them clean and in order.
  4. Children plan parties for holidays--make favors, containers for candy, etc.
  5. Children plan decorations for their classrooms and the activity room.
    - a. Bulletins.
    - b. Sand table.
    - c. Good work charts--children select papers to be put on

charts.

6. Children plan for gardening in the school yard.
    - a. Older boys prepare soil for younger children.
    - b. Caretaker assists in plans.
    - c. Children gather and save seeds in the fall for spring planting.
  7. Lost and found--children take responsibility for helping locate lost articles.
  8. Children help each other--more advanced ones help slower ones in their work.
- B. Materials and techniques.
1. Showing of slides in upper halls to two or three classes.
  2. Children's Museum material arrives every two weeks, used by all classes.
  3. Use of pictures, charts, and booklets (from the Dairy Council, etc.).
  4. Use of records.
    - a. School owns some.
    - b. Children bring some from home.
  5. Listening to school programs Monday, Tuesday, and Thursday--possible because of the new radio-victrola equipment.
  6. Balls have been supplied for the activity room.
  7. Recently purchased materials.
    - a. Tom-tom, clay, picture books, colored construction paper.
  8. Building blocks much needed--teachers will try to secure them.
- C. Guidance.
1. Discussion periods.
    - a. Manners, safety, health, everyday problems, etc.
  2. Story periods.
    - a. Use of fiction to emphasize characteristics, such as tolerance, honesty, etc. Stories of individuals who have been good citizens.
  3. Hobby groups.
    - a. Scrap books, rug making, knitting, etc.<sup>1</sup>

This report was made by one of the teachers to the faculty early in February, 1947, three semesters after the first contacts.

Late in February a short meeting (thirty minutes) of the three of the five teachers was arranged to discuss the point in the report which indicated that the teachers might wish to report to parents through interviews instead of, or in addition to, reporting by the conventional

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<sup>1</sup>Coordinator's log.

report card method. It was agreed to consider the entire matter more thoroughly with the other teachers at a one-day meeting to be held early in March.

At this one-day workshop all five teachers, the principal, and several staff members were present. The staff members suggested reviewing the last report of the teachers which had been given the faculty, because they had spent some time analyzing the report and felt that it would serve as a long-range plan to which additions might be made at appropriate times. A tentative outline was presented and discussed. The final revised form (with names deleted) is given here to show the nature of the ideas discussed and to serve as a basis for an explanation of data gathering activities which followed.

<u>Aspects</u>	<u>Criteria</u>
I. Philosophy	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Overall growth and development of the child.</li> <li>b. Teacher-parent cooperation and interaction.</li> <li>c. Developing democratic attitudes through planning and sharing.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. The school should have purposes related to the overall development of the child which are considered as the subject matter and skill development.</li> <li>b. Frequent interaction between the school and the parent is desirable in the best interest of the child.</li> <li>c. In the first grade some provision should be made for experiences which will include democratic ideals such as sharing in planning (What shall we do with the sand table? Where shall we store our supplies?), sharing in the carrying out of the plans (Who shall do what? How shall it be done?), and in considering the effectiveness of the plans (How did it work? What was good and what was bad about it?).</li> </ul>
II. Organization	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Schedule of classes.               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Time distribution.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. The school schedule should make provision for a variety of worthwhile</li> </ul>

- 2. Subject-matter focus.
  - 3. Flexibility.
  - b. Pupil-teacher contacts.
    - 1. Per day.
    - 2. Per year.
  - c. Use of building space.
  - d. Use of school grounds.
- learning experiences for children.
- a. School schedules should be flexible enough to meet the needs of pupils as they arise in a situation.
  - b. Pupils in first and second grade should, if at all possible, remain with the same teacher for more than one semester.
  - c. The building space should be fully used to facilitate the school program.
  - d. The school grounds should include play space for children's use.

### III. Classroom Practices

- a. Methods of teaching reading.
  - a. The school should adopt an organization and use methods, materials, and procedures which take into account the differences in individuals.
  - a. Teachers should feel free to select the method which in their opinion will best achieve their purposes.
- b. Correlating, coordinating or relating experiences.
  - b. Learnings should be related and meaningful to children.
- c. Teacher-pupil planning.
  - c. Classroom practices should include experiences in which teachers and pupils plan together.
  - c. The experiences in planning should be consistent with the democratic values and consistent with the maturity of pupils.
- d. Interaction between pupils.
  - 1. Within a class group.
  - 2. Between class groups.
  - d. Pupils should participate in the activities of the group; in discussion, in planning, in carrying out plans, and in the evaluation of results.
- e. Individual and group guidance.
  - e. Teachers should provide for individual and group guidance. This implies that teachers shall attempt to know their pupils--their abilities, their limitations, their interests in and out of school, their backgrounds, their wishes, concerns, and the like.
- f. Variety and kinds of learning experiences.
  - 1. Free activities.
  - 2. Physical activities.
    - a. Organized play.
    - b. Rhythms.
  - 3. Musical activities.
  - f. Children's education is promoted by a wide variety of meaningful experiences. The school program should take into account the interests of children which include, among other activities, the following:
    - 1. Free activity (individual

- a. Singing.
  - b. Victrola records.
  - c. Radio programs.
  - d. Rhythms.
  - 4. Art activities.
  - 5. Visual-auditory.
    - a. Movies.
    - b. Slides.
    - c. Radio.
    - d. Records.
  - 6. Units - projects.
  - 7. Free reading (library, sources of the community in the literature).
  - 8. Assemblies.
  - 9. Use of community.
    - a. Excursions.
    - b. Services.
    - c. Materials.
  - 10. Services to others.
- g. Instructional material and equipment.
- 2. Organized play.
  - 3. Rhythms.
  - 4. Outdoor activities.
  - 5. Music.
  - 6. Art.
  - 7. Reading supplementary books.
  - 8. Looking at graphic presentations.
  - 9. Listening.
  - f. The school should use the resources of the community in the instructional program.
  - f. Direct experience with the community is a desirable learning experience for children.
  - f. Children should have an opportunity to render service to their group and their school.
  - f. Children should participate in the care of the grounds, in the planting of flowers, and the like.
  - g. There should be a variety of teaching materials and equipment designed to meet different interests and needs of children at ages six and seven.

#### IV. Pupils

- a. Reading abilities--grade 1.
  - b. Reading abilities of pupils--grades 2 and 3.
  - c. Friendships of pupils.
  - d. Satisfactions of pupils.
  - e. Tensions of pupils. Progress in reading--failure.
- a. Pupils should gain skill in reading; in communication of ideas to others orally and in writing.
  - b. Changes in the program at \_\_\_\_\_ should not materially lower the reading skills of pupils when they reach the second and third grade and could conceivably increase pupils' interest and ability in reading.
  - c. Pupils should have friends in school (be accepted by their classmates).
  - d. Pupils should like to go to school and should gain satisfaction from their school experiences.
  - e. Pupils should be relatively free from tension (undue worries, fears, concerns) regarding progress in school.
  - e. Before pupils are required to repeat a semester's work several factors should be taken into account--

the social maturity, the physical maturity, the child's happiness, and the like.

#### V. Teachers

a. Teacher involvement in the changing school program.

1. Planning for \_\_\_\_\_ program.

2. Evaluating the \_\_\_\_\_ program.

b. Satisfactions of teachers.

c. Tensions of teachers.

a. Teachers should be definitely involved in planning and executing the changes in the school program.

a. Teachers should participate in the evaluation of change in the school's program.

b. Teachers should have a feeling of satisfaction regarding their participation in Study activities.

c. Teachers should be relatively free from tensions, fears, worries, concerns over changes made in the school's program.

The group made no final decisions at the meeting. Two weeks later when the group was approached concerning plans to proceed with the reading tests, the new chairman of the committee of five teachers intimated that two teachers beside herself were interested, that one teacher was not interested, and she was not sure about the fifth teacher. She also suggested that the teachers would like to see more demonstration of experience reading as taught in a Detroit school.

A week later some strip films and a machine and other materials requested were left at the school and a final decision was reached to set dates for testing the 1A, 2A, and 3A grades each May. To collect teachers' opinions and evaluations concerning new procedures, meetings were tentatively scheduled for mid April, May, and June.

Copies of several primary reading tests were delivered to the school so that the teachers could determine which tests would ultimately be used. Three were finally designated: Gates Primary Reading Test, Garvey Primary Reading Test, and the Stanford Achievement Test (Reading

Section). The tests administered to the various classes are indicated below:

- 1A - Garvey Primary Reading Test, Form 1.  
Gates Primary Reading Test, Form A, Type A, B, and C.
- 2A - Garvey Primary Reading Test, Form 1.  
Gates Primary Reading Test, Form 1, Type A, B, and C.  
Stanford Achievement Test, Form D (Reading Test).
- 3A - Stanford Achievement Test, Form D (Reading Test).

Beside these tests, the regularly issued Detroit Reading Tests, provided by the Department of Instructional Research, were administered by the teachers as a regular part of the school procedure. A so-called "Spinach" Questionnaire was also completed by each student in these grades. It included such questions as:

Do you like spinach?	Yes	No
Do you like reading?	Yes	No
Do you like reading real, real well?	Yes	No
Do you like school?	Yes	No

Three times during the remainder of the semester (about once a month) the teachers met with staff members at lunch and completed an interview schedule designed to facilitate a systematic recording of specific activities, changes in procedures, and the teachers' honest opinions and evaluations of their experimental efforts. The compilation of these data show a wide variety of activity by three teachers. One teacher did not complete any of the forms and another teacher completed two rather incompletely. In many instances there was an indication of no change, or of a negative or uncertain disposition to specific practices, procedures, or results. During the last meeting in June, during which the questionnaire was used for the third time, one teacher in commenting on the answers to a question about what things have been done during the past month

to promote planning, etc., said, "We weren't doing any of these things a year ago, and we weren't using any of these materials."

At the end of the second year, the staff members were fairly certain that there had been some changes in some (probably three) of the five classrooms. They were only beginning to suspect that the meetings had had a shock effect on some of the teachers. The efforts of the teachers to cooperate seemed genuine, and there was a personal friendliness evident in the relationships between those involved, but the activities did not yet appear to be motivated by any decidedly changed values on the part of teachers. The activities were considered as something added. The failures in LB were about 10 per cent and in the LA about 2 per cent. This was slightly lower than the previous year. Family illness made it difficult for one teacher to remain in the building for lunch, and hence she was absent from many of the informal meetings of the group. However, this teacher's actions, although personally friendly, had not given even **her** colleagues the idea that she was even moderately interested. The teachers did not participate in meetings with any great measure of spontaneity. They still appeared to be waiting to be told what to do on many occasions.

### The Third Year

During the summer of 1947, all of the tests had been scored and tabulated and responses to the questionnaire forms completed by teachers and pupils had been summarized. In September, 1947, therefore, while delivering the last of the supplies and equipment for the large activity room which represented an expenditure of over two hundred dollars, a one-day meeting of the five teachers and the principal was arranged.

During this meeting, the general results of the testing program were discussed in terms of central tendencies. The results of the 1A tests confirmed what the staff members had suspected. According to the author's norms, the median score of the 1A group on the Gates Primary Reading Test, Form 1, was equivalent to a grade placement of 2.3 or better (one semester accelerated since their actual grade placement was 1.8) on all three types of the test: 1. Word Recognition; 2. Sentence Reading; and 3. Paragraph Meaning. The median scores for the group on the Garvey Primary Reading Test, Form 1, showed the same results: a grade placement of 2.3 or one semester accelerated with the average girl six months advanced beyond the average boy. The median score of 2A pupils on the Garvey Primary Reading Test was equivalent, according to the author's norms, to a grade placement of 3.9 or more than one full year accelerated beyond their actual grade placement of 2.8. The median score of the 2A group on the Stanford Achievement Test, Primary Battery, Form D, was equivalent, according to the authors' norms, to the actual grade placement. Individual test papers were then examined by teachers with what seemed to be genuine interest.

Examination of reactions to a questionnaire in which children were asked whether they liked reading and school indicated that only 6 per cent (all boys) of the eighty-nine 1A pupils did not like reading and only 3 per cent did not like school. The original papers were used to discuss each of these cases to discover clues and possible reasons for the reactions. The general trend of a decline in "liking reading a lot" and the increase of dislike for school as children advanced in grade was also considered.

At the conclusion of the meeting, staff members pointed out that there need be no fear or anxiety that the children were not learning to read. It was also suggested that the rather uniform procedures used in reading possibly restricted the number of experiences which might be given to the exceptional readers. The teachers seemed a little startled to find that a few LA's read as well as the average child entering the fourth grade, although this fact has been recognized for years. This suggested the necessity for some cooperation and planning by all primary teachers in determining policy about sets of readers of varying difficulty and the distribution of supplementary or extra reading materials.

In October, the teachers considered the idea of a primary grades parent tea which had been suggested by the principal. The five primary teachers had elected a new chairman who exhibited some anxiety because she did not know quite what was expected of her in conducting and planning meetings. After verbal assurances from the coordinator that she was entirely capable and that everyone would help, the chairman and the coordinator suggested that the five teachers use a portion of the faculty meeting period to discuss the possibilities of a tea. The results of this meeting were not known definitely, but there was a remark to the effect that "maybe parents can become too interested." The tea did not materialize.

In several short meetings during the next month, the group decided to use an activity chart to list the kinds and the amount of activities carried on in the activity room.

In mid December, the coordinator spent about thirty minutes in each

teacher's room to extend holiday greetings and try to arrange a meeting. She recorded evidence of experience reading in two rooms. The group agreed to meet for an hour after the holidays to explore the state of affairs generally.

During this meeting of the principal, the teachers, and two staff members, the staff members deliberately played a minor role. This seemed desirable since staff members felt they had probably taken an "initiator" role too persistently in the past. The meeting was rather dull, punctuated by periods of silence. Apparently the teachers did not choose either to report what they had been doing, to suggest what help might be desirable, to evaluate what they had done, or to project possible future plans.

A week later the staff members, feeling that this was not a very satisfactory meeting, discussed the meeting with one of the five teachers who was also a member of the total faculty planning committee. Staff members assumed a large measure of guilt for the low quality of the meeting. Teacher B, however, also seemed perplexed and expressed the opinion that the group did not attack their problems as the faculty planning committee had; that is, accepting some ideas and rejecting others. She suggested that she would try in the next meeting of the group of five to duplicate the procedures of the faculty central committee.

Two weeks later, Teacher B reported on her attempt. The group had decided to invite the coordinator to a meeting in two months. She also summarized the feeling of some in the group in the following statement: "We believe in what the Citizenship Staff says. We think it is important, but do others---would supervisors? How far can we go? Will we

be criticized?"

Staff members also discussed the matter of hesitancy or resistance or anxiety or pressure with the principal. The principal's interpretation of the situation hinged upon personal difficulties or problems of the individual teachers. She recounted the cases of illness in the family and the plans of one teacher to take a leave of absence for business reasons. It was the principal's opinion that the teacher who had been the nominal leader of the group was no longer exerting leadership because of her intention to leave and that the other interested teachers were feeling insecure.

In the course of the last two meetings, however, the five teachers had made two suggestions to the principal:

1. Parents might be invited to help in the school during the lunch hour.

2. Arrangements might be made for parent interviews.

While it was known that parent interviews by one entire school were not looked upon favorably by the immediate elementary school administrator in the district, the coordinator offered to provide substitute teachers while the regular teachers were interviewing parents. Such interviews were never arranged and various discussions of the matter led the coordinator to conclude that one of the blocks was, in a teacher's words, "We don't know what to do. What would we talk about?"

In April, the faculty planning committee suggested that the five teachers prepare a summary of their work for inclusion in a school progress report. This was finally submitted in April, 1948. It is given below in its entirety because it is a rather complete record of activities

and changes made and because it is quite different from the framework suggested by staff members which had served as a basis for almost a year. Special attention is directed to the concluding paragraphs, under "VI. Teachers." This set of statements is, in effect, a partial rebuttal to the group's perception of the values which had been proposed by staff members and consultants in meetings during the previous three years.

At the \_\_\_\_\_ School, we have a little different situation than they do at most schools. We have just the Blst and the Alst this semester, four teachers, and the non-platoon system. At the beginning of the Citizenship Study, we felt that the children needed varied experiences, but we lacked material; so, with the financial aid from the Citizenship Committee, we bought equipment for our activity room. Our activity room is in the basement and is now well equipped with playthings, books, paper, paints, crayons, gym mats, etc. Also, it is changed over by the children to be used each noon for those who bring packaged lunches. Classroom \_\_\_ is now equipped to show slides and movies to the children. With our new equipment, the children have many and varied experiences to meet individual needs.

At the beginning of the year, the \_\_\_\_\_ teachers decided to meet as many times as necessary to formulate and outline our basic beliefs for the education of our \_\_\_\_\_ children to live in a democratic society. Our basic beliefs:

1. Children must have experiences provided for them which will develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary in a democratic society.
  - A. The basic human needs of each individual must be met.
  - B. We must develop democratic principals which will grow in interest and value.
  - C. The community must enter into and be a part of the child's learning.

The outline showing how we had carried out our basic beliefs in the past and how we planned to do it in the future was outlined and has since been revised as follows:

- I. Understanding of Democracy.
  - A. Through discussing.
    1. Conduct.
    2. Cooperation.
    3. Sharing.
    4. Responsibility.
    5. Great men.
    6. Self-control.
      - a. One room had a unit on Good Citizenship. Children gave the attributes of good citizens in an illustrated booklet.
  - B. Problem solving and planning.

1. Children make rules for the rooms as problems arise on:
    - a. Conduct.
    - b. Safety.
    - c. Cooperation.
  2. Children plan for and evaluate on completing:
    - a. Bulletin boards.
    - b. Parties.
    - c. Excursions into neighborhood.
    - d. Decoration and care of Activity Room.
    - e. Care of books and other materials.
    - f. Care of lavatories.
      1. Keeping them clean.
      2. Trying not to waste paper.
  - C. Assemblies in the Activities Room and Classroom \_\_\_\_\_.
    1. Sharing of films and slides.
    2. Sharing of records.
    3. Policeman talked.
    4. \_\_\_\_\_ literature class gave play.
    5. Pop corn party for all rooms.
  - D. Materials.
    1. Films of community helpers, wealth of our land, health, safety, science.
    2. Museum materials.
      - a. About America.
      - b. About great men.
      - c. About science.
    3. Books.
      - a. Manners.
      - b. Safety.
      - c. Health.
      - d. Principles.
      - e. Kinds of men and what they do in a democracy.
  - E. Future possibilities.
    1. Discussion.
      - a. Have a plan for conference time.
      - b. Have duty boys talk to the children.
      - c. Learn to know children through discussion of family, experiences, etc.
    2. Problem solving and planning.
      - a. Units on democracy.
      - b. Books on democracy.
    3. Assemblies.
      - a. Fireman and postman to talk.
      - b. Safety talks by policeman.
    4. Tests.
- II. Community-School Relations.
- A. PTA.
    1. Meetings for conference with parents.
    2. Telephone communication.
    3. Notes to and from parents.
  - B. At school.

1. Parents visit for conference.
  2. Parents give birthday parties and help with others.
  3. Children take trips into community.
  4. Donated toys.
  5. Donated books.
  6. Parents take lunch duty each Tuesday.
    - a. Its success is still a question.
- C. Future possibilities.
1. PTA.
    - a. Regular attendance.
    - b. Room Mothers.
    - c. Individual conferences.
  2. At school.
    - a. Some activity to invite parents.
    - b. Individual conferences.

### III. Guidance.

- A. Discussion of group or individual conferences.
  1. Manners.
  2. Safety.
  3. Health.
  4. Interests.
  5. Problems.
- B. Story periods.
  1. To emphasize tolerance, honesty, etc.
- C. Hobby groups.
  1. Interest.
    - a. Scrap books.
    - b. Rugmaking.
    - c. Knitting.
    - d. Sewing.
- D. Testing.
  1. Questionnaires.
  2. Gates tests.
  3. Reading tests.
- E. Meetings.
  1. General faculty meeting.
  2. Dr. \_\_\_\_\_ - Growth and development of five and six-year olds.
  3. Discussion on conference periods in the level groups at \_\_\_\_\_ School.
- F. Future possibilities in guidance.
  1. Discussion—opportunities.
    - a. Individual and group.
  2. Story periods.
    - a. Books illustrating good manners.
  3. Hobby groups.
    - a. Enlarge for whole school or in each homeroom.
  4. Testing.
    - a. Further tests.
    - b. Individual records.
    - c. Questionnaires for:

1. Knowledge of democracy.
  2. Knowledge of service.
  3. Community contacts.
  5. Conference.
    - a. More and longer individual conferences to meet individual needs.
- IV. Inter-School Relations.
- A. Services to whole.
    1. Lost and found captains.
    2. Gardening.
    3. Share in decorating Activity Room.
    4. Children help slower pupils in various rooms.
    5. Children make new pupils feel welcome and secure.
    6. Sale of Defense Stamps, Christmas seals, Easter seals, etc.
    7. Helpers in lunchroom.
      - a. \_\_\_\_\_ service girls help each Friday.
    8. Radio programs.
    9. Sharing Activity Room.
  - B. Service as homeroom group.
    1. Care of plants in rooms.
    2. Care of school gardens.
    3. Greet new pupils.
      - a. Welcome them.
      - b. Orient them.
    4. Helpers for slow children.
    5. Care of fish.
    6. Materials captains.
    7. Care of books.
    8. Keep room clean.
    9. Help find lost articles.
  - C. \_\_\_\_\_ School service girls.
    1. Read to the children.
    2. Play games with the children.
    3. Wash boards.
    4. Dust.
    5. Help with and share in parties.
    6. Play records.
    7. Play the piano for and help with rhythms.
    8. Help in lunchroom each Friday.
- V. Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes.
- A. Lessened the amount of work taken in the first grade Reading Manual. . . . Increased the amount of Experience Reading and supplementary reading.
    1. Flexible schedule.
  - B. Acquired materials for wider interest range.
    1. Musical instruments.
    2. Art supplies, clay, etc.
    3. Radio-victrola combination.
    4. Library corner furniture.
    5. Movie-Mite and films.

6. Specimens of birds and animals from Children's Museum.
  - C. Excursions into community for betterment of understanding.
    1. Fire department.
    2. Stores.
    3. To watch steam shovel.
    4. To see building of new homes.
    5. Around the block to enjoy beauty of trees, flowers, etc.
  - D. Planning--teachers and pupils.
    1. Plan excursions.
    2. Construct story.
    3. Illustrate in some manner.
    4. Letters to Santa Claus.
    5. Letters to parents.
  - E. Conference.
    1. Solve daily problems of class and school.
  - F. Getting along together.
    1. Sharing activities in Activity Room.
    2. Showing movies and slides to two classes.
    3. Opportunities for sharing materials.
    4. Groups of children working on a project all their own and combining ideas for final result.
    5. Activity Room.
      - a. Children play piano.
      - b. Children dance.
      - c. Use gym mats.
  - G. Future possibilities.
    1. Increase value of experiences by further activity (more than just story).
      - a. Children should be given more opportunity to observe.
      - b. Children need training in listening.
    2. Films.
    3. Books for study of democracy.
- VI. Teachers.
- A. Tensions.
    1. If we had fewer children we could better pursue **experience** activities.
    2. The pace is so fast that it is exhausting with experience reading and required reading.
    3. Children are so excitable as to be unruly, and this is hardly a satisfactory state for learning.
  - B. Time.
    1. The time is too short to cover the work required in the Detroit courses of study plus all the activities we are supposed to have. Under the experiment, we are supposed to emphasize the social development of the child at the expense of formal learning of the tool subjects. If the Citizenship Study believes this is the best idea, why not begin formal reading, spelling, writing in the second grade instead of the first?

2. A flexible time schedule is very desirable. It makes for spontaneous work and many different experiences whenever the interest arises.
- C. Principles.
1. Democratic principles do not include anyone doing just as he pleases. Elementary children need direction for security.
  2. A child should have a definite plan of attack for developing basic knowledge and skills.

In May, an announcement was made throughout the Detroit schools that the currently used reading system or method of teaching would be discontinued in the primary grades. The principal lamented certain aspects of the change because she believed that certain phases of the old method had considerable merit. The teachers had probably been aware of her very definite opinion in this matter, and this may have accounted partially for their defense of it and their reluctance to replace it even partially with experience reading. They used experience reading, but it was used in addition to the regular teaching method.

During May, there had been some unfavorable parent comment on the teaching of one of the four teachers. To help determine the validity of the parent comments, the principal requested that a primary grade supervisor visit the teacher. Not to give the appearance of singling out the one teacher, the supervisor visited all of the four teachers. In visiting one of the rooms (Teacher B who was not under serious observation), the supervisor commented on some of the visible evidences of the experience reading activities of the class. Teacher B's explanation, that as a part of the Citizenship Study some exploratory work had been done with other teaching methods in reading, did not seem to meet with approval. The supervisor was reported to have wondered what the Citizenship Study was doing about reading since they were not supposed

to have any competency in that area. Teacher B did not appear unduly upset by the affair, but a second teacher reported being frightened. When the teachers in February had objected to further planning and expanding the innovations they had made, their perception that they might be criticized and that their attempts might not receive approval outside of Citizenship Study circles was correct, at least in some degree.

By the end of the third year of activity (June, 1948), the staff had rather informally come to certain conclusions which effected their actions during the fourth and last year.

Teacher A had taken a leave of absence. This left the group without a forceful leader. The four teachers remaining could be evenly divided into those who had rather actively changed some of their practices and were verbally in accord with many of the ideas presented, and those who were personally friendly, but who, professionally, had shown little interest in the many ideas explored and made few changes in their teaching procedure.

The report made by the group, in which all had shared, indicated that the framework proposed by the staff and the interviews which were intended to facilitate a continuing evaluation of activities was not meaningful to the teachers, and that some parts of the framework, as interpreted by the teachers, were objectionable. Consequently, it seemed unwise to continue to try to use the so-called framework, since it would probably not be any more helpful than it had been previously. The teachers' perception concerning the limits to which they might go before inviting criticism was fairly realistic, and any attempt to force them farther would not be wise.

The primary teachers had been rather isolated from other groups in the school even before the school's participation in the Citizenship Study had begun. This isolation had continued. However, groups were now active in the school considering such matters as guidance, service, and school-community relations which could very properly and profitably include the primary teachers. The faculty had also increased the number and the length of meetings devoted to discussions of school matters. Consequently, less emphasis was focused on the four teachers as a group. (Staff members' time was also limited due to an increase in their activities, and this also had an influence on the decision.)

The Fourth Year (September, 1948 - June, 1949)

In October, 1948, the faculty devoted a two-hour meeting to guidance and one phase of the activities consisted in exploring instruments and devices available to help teachers and children. The faculty divided into three groups, of which the primary teachers and several others formed one group.

A month later the four teachers and several second and third grade teachers met for an hour with the principal and two staff members to discuss results of reading tests given the previous May. In general, the results indicated that median scores for the 1A and 2A groups were, according to the test authors' norms, one full grade above the actual grade placement of the groups. (The average pupil about to enter the second grade read as well as the children generally who were entering the third grade.) The 2A pupils were also one year ahead of where they might normally have been expected to be according to the author's norms for the Garvey Primary Reading Test, Form 1. The 1948 1A group scored much

higher (about one semester in grade placement) than the 1947 1A group according to the Garvey Test.

The teachers examined some of the individual pupils' papers and, during the course of the discussion, a second grade teacher complained that the group which she was now teaching seemed disorganized and seemed to include a larger number of poor readers than she normally received. After a brief exploration of possible causes for this situation, the inference was made that it might result from the experimental or new procedures used in the first grade. The four teachers smiled broadly. A staff member attempted to interpret their smile by suggesting, "I think the first grade teachers will tell you that the changes they have made are not great enough to have been a cause. They still do things much the same." There were even broader smiles and a nodding of heads. The four teachers admitted that changes had been of a minor variety.

During the remainder of the year, no special meetings were arranged by the staff members for or with the four teachers, although the teachers participated regularly with other faculty members in various professional activities related to the Citizenship Study. Apparently the group met by themselves on several occasions, since the faculty planning committee approved a request from the group to purchase upholstered chairs to equip a small room for parent-teacher conference uses, and also for use in the rooms by the teachers when telling stories or otherwise talking with a small group.

#### Analysis and Conclusions

The case history just presented indicates that the group was successful in several areas of curriculum change and divided and only

partially successful in others. The divisions or subgroups which existed in the group were generally primary grade teachers and staff members. This division was evident from the time the group began work. The work-group-conference method was not used fully in the beginning stages because it was at that time not clearly perceived by staff members. Because of initial approaches its application later was more difficult.

The points of resistance or the factors which bolstered and sustained the teachers in their hostility to certain values expressed by the staff subgroup were:

1. Fear of criticism, disapproval, and rejection by the group itself and the school administration--meaning principals, supervisors, and others.
2. Insecurity and anxiety engendered by not knowing specifically just what teachers might do if they wished to act in accordance with new values.
3. Lack of professional interest.

This summary interpretation will be supplemented in the following pages by statements which include the facts from which the inferences were made.

There were no evidences of subgroup action or divisions as the group identified, worked toward, and evaluated such needed curriculum changes as:

1. The need for more music experiences--records, singing, and rhythms.
2. The need for more individual and group activity which was successfully provided by the activity room and excursions.
3. The increased use of such teaching aids as films, slides,

records, and supplementary books.

4. The increased use of upper grade children in giving some forms of service under teacher supervision.

In the course of the group's life which was concerned with these areas, there was a genuine group desire to achieve and progress accompanied by occasional admissions of ignorance, guilt, and manifestations of pride in achievement. The group reported progress to the faculty on two occasions and to the parents once. In the preparation of these reports, and in the reports themselves, there were expressions of pride and satisfaction.

In regard to certain aspects of the curriculum suggested by the staff subgroup which consultants and some few teachers in other schools considered worthy and important considerations, however, the primary teachers were resistant if not hostile. These might be generally identified as:

1. Attempts to critically explore the differences in growth patterns in reading, spelling, and number skills and to relate the conclusions to classroom procedures.

2. To explore the effects of maintaining rather rigid standards to determine failure and success.

3. To reconsider rather rigid discipline by teacher imposed rules in all areas of school life as the best way to promote responsibility and good human relationships.

4. To supplement the teaching method in reading with a more flexible method in which some of the previously mentioned ideas would be included.

In these matters there were some few evidences that certain teachers

were no longer hostile, but, as a group, values remained unchanged. A single important bit of evidence seems to summarize well other similar evidence. In the final formal report by the group after three years of activity, the final points under the general heading Teachers are:

- A. Tensions.
  1. If we had fewer children we could better pursue experience activities.
  2. The pace is so fast that it is exhausting with experience reading and required reading.
  3. Children are so excitable as to be unruly, and this is hardly a satisfactory state for learning.
- B. Time.
  1. The time is too short to cover the work required in the Detroit courses of study plus all the activities we are supposed to have. Under the experiment, we are supposed to emphasize the social development of the child at the expense of formal learning of the tool subjects. If the Citizenship Study believes this is the best idea, why not begin formal reading, spelling, writing in the second grade instead of the first?
  2. A flexible time schedule is very desirable. It makes for spontaneous work and many different experiences whenever the interest arises.
- C. Principles.
  1. Democratic principles do not include anyone doing just as he pleases. Elementary children need direction for security.
  2. A child should have a definite plan of attack for developing basic knowledge and skills.<sup>1</sup>

The work-group-conference method was not clear in the minds of staff members as they joined this group of primary teachers in their initial meetings. The staff members assumed the role of a change agent in a group which was rather satisfied with conditions. It now appears that staff members, while encouraging teachers to explore possible changes, merely tolerated most of the problems which the primary teachers identified and tried to sensitize the group to other problems. In so doing,

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<sup>1</sup>"School Progress Report." From the section submitted by the five teachers to the total faculty.

they employed various procedures which, although not so identified at the time, were in effect "shock" treatment. The procedures consisted of having two national authorities in education face them in a small group for several hours and explain in a pleasant and indirect way that much of what the teachers were doing was not acceptable. The teachers in the group observed the demonstration of a reading method as well as classroom management procedures which were quite different from those commonly used by the group. They heard the demonstrating teachers verbalize convincingly about the reasons for the use of such methods and the successes achieved. The group witnessed and participated in sociodramas which indicated sharp differences in educational viewpoints. Had this interaction of staff members with the primary teachers occurred after the work-group-conference method was more clearly formulated, the initial staff approaches to this problem would undoubtedly have been different. The succession of shocks would not have been used in the face of obvious resistance. The tempo would certainly have been slower, and there would not have been the compulsion to bring teachers to an entirely different level of thinking in one grand hurdle. It appears that a distinction should be made between having a potential change agent sensitize a group so that they recognize a state of affairs as a problem, and, the application of the work-group-conference method of working on a problem already recognized and acknowledged.

The work in this case seems to have been successful when an attack was made on problems accepted by the teachers. Work was continued on all phases of the problem by the staff members on the assumption that the group had been sensitized to and accepted the problems posed by staff

members. This undoubtedly was not entirely the case. There were isolated incidents which indicated that at least two individuals in the group of five were inclined to deny hostility to the new ideas and to accept most of the new values.

To construct a hypothesis which seems to explain these facts more satisfactorily, it is necessary to look for forces which sustained and bolstered the group so that it would resist the "shocks" and the new ideas which were supported by Study and certain nationally known educational theorists.

These forces might include such factors as:

1. The experience and perception of the group which denied the new ideas as unsound or not consistent with reality.
2. The natural inclination to fear or to be insecure in new or different teaching situations because of lack of "know how" to work in a different way—operational insecurity.
3. The perception of what effect the adoption and practice of new ideas or values would have on the status of the individual in the professional group—the small group of five, the faculty, or the school system generally.
4. The perception of adverse effects on such personal purposes as promotion, good will of superiors, or personal loyalty.
5. The teachers' perception that their job consisted first and foremost of pleasing their immediate superior regardless of their own convictions about the desirability of certain educational theories, philosophy, or research.

Teacher A in the group, after a year's leave of absence, came back

into the school system, but was placed in another school. In answer to an inquiry about not requesting a return to the school she had left, Teacher A replied: "I was with [the principal] a good many years and got along very well. I had never worked for anyone else but [that principal] and I wanted to see if I could please someone else."

On its face, some evidence in this case seems to point to a rejection of some of the ideas as unsound or unrealistic on the basis of a projection concerning their ultimate effects. This seems to be the intent of the following section of one of the group's reports written by the teachers. "Democratic principles do not include anyone doing just as he pleases. Elementary children need direction for security." Hardly anyone would disagree with these two quoted sentences, yet they were apparently meant to be a rebuttal to a point of view expressed in the group's considerations. The staff members who had complete information about the situation interpreted this to be a kind of rationalization which covered other reasons for rejecting the proposed ideas. On one occasion a member of the group in explaining why the group did not contemplate further plans said, "We believe in what the Citizenship Staff says. We think it is important, but do others--would supervisors? How far can we go? Will we be criticized?" Parenthetically it might be added that staff members often encountered this same perception of the situation on the part of principals. The teachers' professional activity seemed to be dictated far more by their perception of general acceptability to the system than by their own personal professional convictions or values.

During the first two years of activity there were many indications

as well as forthright statements that the teachers "did not know what to do" in a one-day meeting. Whether this indicated an attack on their disposition to wait and see, or on their general position of "tell us what to do," or whether it was the feeling of a general lack of skill in group planning is not clear. It may have been a combination of the three or the "growing pains" in collaboration described by Elliott Jacques as the ambivalent attitudes which tend to arise out of a group's process in attempting to solve its own problems.

On the one hand, there is the desire for improvement, for resolution of tension, for the development of new techniques, and, on the other hand, there is the fear that treatment is likely to be more painful than the problem. Exposing the complexity of problems, with the inevitability of creating new roles for which the individuals concerned do not yet feel adequate, excites the desire to hang on to old modes of behaviour. Though the old modes are troublesome, until they are relinquished one can avoid facing up squarely to the fact that perhaps not all is as well as it might be.<sup>1</sup>

During the third year, however, there is reason to believe that it was a feeling of inadequacy in skill.

Some conclusions about the adequacy and inadequacy of the method as applied under the circumstances described in this case are:

1. The primary teachers in case III did not have any well-defined professional problems on which to work. Those concerns which were at first suggested such as studying approved and effective punishment for offenders and working with severe discipline cases, were not urgent. In contrast, the staff members were sensitive to a number of problems and proceeded to try to sensitize the teachers to these problems and needs in a manner which approaches "shock" technique, although this was not

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<sup>1</sup>Elliott Jacques, "Social Therapy: Technocracy or Collaboration," Journal of Social Issues, III (1947), 64.

recognized by staff members at the time.

2. Silence and resistance disguised by a personal friendliness was the group's response to aggressive treatment because they were, in general, satisfied with the status quo.

3. The resistance of the group as a whole to certain aspects of curriculum change identified by staff members remained, although some members of the group effected some of the minor changes suggested. In considering and planning certain changes, the teachers and staff members worked harmoniously.

4. A great deal of the aggression to the new values expressed was transferred to the consultants used, although some was directed toward the staff members in oblique ways.

5. The teachers' group code concerning approved procedures withstood in the main the attack of new ideas with very little outward indication of hostility.

6. The attempt by staff members to reformulate, presumably on a higher level, the perceptions of the group by preparing, without the teachers' help or knowledge, a rather detailed framework resulted in the teachers' partial rejection of the framework. This occurred even though the group did cooperate in collecting data on the basis of this framework. The group did not use the data thus gathered except to reinforce the belief that they should be fairly well satisfied with what they were doing.

7. In spite of all staff attempts, the teachers chose and selected those materials and devised those procedures which they believed valuable for their ends in teaching.

8. The teachers' perceptions of the limits within which they might

safely deviate from general practice was very acute and a powerful determinant in what they would or would not do.

9. The teachers, through various means, determined what their status leaders (principals, supervisors, etc.) approved and disapproved and then acted accordingly. They used this perception to determine much of their professional activity.

CHAPTER VII  
CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary of the Study

Before discussing the conclusions drawn from the cases described, a summary of the Study may be helpful to those who for various reasons do not care to peruse all previous chapters.

Consideration of trends in school administration and supervision and their relation to studies of school adaptability—the adaptation and use of improved school practices and the rate of their adoption—suggests a need to study the details of cooperative, participatory procedures and methods designed to facilitate and speed curriculum or program change. In the course of the Detroit Citizenship Education Study, three Study staff members and the principal of one of the schools participating in the Study, after studying and trying the more frequently used methods for helping school staffs to formulate and implement an improved program of citizenship education, became increasingly aware of the limitations of conventional procedures. This led them to select and adapt from theory and practice in various fields those ideas or means which appeared to have promise in promoting school program revision by changing the values of school staffs. The ideas were synthesized into a procedure called the work-group-conference method.

The work-group-conference method emphasized: changing the expectations and perceptions of the group regarding the possibility of achieving success by methods other than familiar, conventional procedures;

developing an understanding of various group-related patterns of behavior; improving the insight into and skill in playing a variety of group-relevant roles with due consideration of the relationships in the group; providing for skill training and the acceptance of discipline imposed by certain procedural schemes such as problem solving and action research. The more mechanical features of group interaction such as the use of a blackboard for recording progress, the size of room, and the length of meeting received incidental consideration. The increased use of insights and skills related to the factors emphasized was proposed as a means for assuring progress and securing greater effectiveness and efficiency in curriculum change.

The hypothesis to be tested was stated as follows: A group of teachers and staff members of the Citizenship Education Study, voluntarily working together, using the work-group-conference method, will succeed in promoting the examination of certain areas of the present curriculum; in planning, executing, and evaluating specific experimental curriculum changes and, in the process, change their perceptions as a group. Incident to the testing of this hypothesis data bearing on the following questions concerning the method were also sought: What are the more important or salient aspects of the method or the application of the method? What are the pitfalls which must be avoided in the use of this method in curriculum reconstruction? What are the apparent limitations of the method?

Three specific cases were selected to test the hypothesis. They involved three groups of teachers and Study staff members each engaged on a specific curriculum project. One group of twelve junior high school

teachers, Case I, was attempting to improve the understanding of democracy by various teaching methods and materials. Another group of six elementary and junior high school teachers, Case II, was attempting to improve the learning resulting from Student Council experiences. A third group of five primary teachers, Case III, was attempting to improve education in the primary grades in one school.

The data taken from the activities of these three groups which were considered necessary and relevant were taken from records of meetings, the logs kept by Study staff members, group projects and reports, interview and questionnaire material, minutes of meetings, and the first-hand experience of Study staff members. The information assumed to be most directly relevant in studying the method and in testing the hypothesis was varied. It included: direct indication of changes in value; expressions of hostility to new or different values; identification of real blocks to change, including blocks within the self; attempts to enlist the school's effort to make change; expressions of feelings of accomplishment; the use of data by the group to correct its perceptions. Also considered as relevant data were the evidences of changes in beliefs or values about relationships between individuals and groups (teacher-pupil, teacher-teacher, teacher-administrator, teacher-school, school-community, administrator-top administration) which impinged upon curriculum practices. Other data considered were: evidences of new or improved group skill by participants; participants' disposition to accept peer status in the group and to treat other group members as peers; and the acceptance of lengthy formulations prepared by group members or subgroups presented for group consideration.

### The Tentative Nature of the Conclusions

From the description and discussion of the three case studies, the data appear adequate to draw some tentative conclusions. The tentative nature of the generalizations results from several considerations, four of which seem particularly important.

1. The number of cases on which the conclusions are technically based is extremely small.
2. The work-group-conference method or the general principles or guide posts established to direct the method were not uniformly applied in the three cases.
3. The collection of pertinent data and their interpretation was dependent upon the competence and insight of three staff members involved.
4. The effort to generalize about a group without a careful study of the various personalities comprising the group is often hazardous. Group composition was acknowledged as important, but the efforts at generalizations in this study deliberately minimized its importance. The method was considered as a means, a tool, useful to mentally healthy individuals, to improve the curriculum. It was not considered as a therapeutic device for psychological purposes, although in the opinion of staff members the method did have some such effects. Observations about the relation of the method to widely atypical personalities were not used.

### Conclusions and Hypotheses Drawn from the Three Cases

In general the data from the three cases studied supports the general hypothesis that the use of the method as outlined in Chapter III effected unity in the group so that examination, planning, action, and

evaluation in curriculum matters were promoted and that this process resulted in changes in educational values and improved relationships. There are, however, data which make conclusive, sweeping statements unwarranted, and point rather, to conclusions or hypotheses about more specific aspects or important features of the theory and application of the method itself and to the situations in which its use was attempted. Variations in the use of the method and in the test situations together with indications of group progress which were assumed to be related are described below. Hypotheses which explain some of the apparent differences in the groups' varying degrees of success which are related to the variations in situations and the application of the method are also given, followed by more general conclusions about the use of the work-group-conference method.

#### Group Cleavage and Sensitivity to a Problem

In cases I and II the method appears to have resulted in curriculum changes and in value changes without obvious group cleavage, factions, or subgroups with pronounced differences of opinion about the curriculum matters. In case III, however, while there was harmony and agreement on certain curriculum matters, on some matters there was also an obvious cleavage resulting in two subgroups. The two staff members constituted one group; the five teachers, the other. A less obvious three-way cleavage was also discernible. One group again consisted of the two staff members; the second group included two teachers who were sympathetic to almost all of the staff members' educational values, but loyal to their colleagues or hesitant about stating their sympathy and acting upon it because of the known differences in the values of their three colleagues.

The third group included three teachers who were definitely unsympathetic to many of the notions, ideas, and beliefs of the staff group. In attempting to identify the variables in the application of the method and other situational conditions which might account for these differences between cases I and II and case III in regard to harmony, unity, or group cleavage in reference to educational values and action, several pertinent relationships may be cited.

In case III, as the relationships between staff members and teachers were first established, there was very little dissatisfaction expressed by the teachers concerning their own professional procedures. There was, instead, criticism of pupil behavior. The staff members, on the contrary, were definitely dissatisfied with some features of the educational program and held some definite opinions about the values of specific procedures which would improve the situation. In cases I and II there was, from the beginning, evidence of outright dissatisfaction with certain phases of the professional state of affairs or an expressed desire to improve professional practices by the entire group. In addition, the staff members' perception of what might be done in cases I and II did not include specific procedures which were held in high esteem as in case III.

In case III two consultants were used. They were selected by staff members because they could demonstrate and explain values similar to those held by the staff members. Suggestions to invite the consultants to work with the group were initiated by staff members without any definite expression from the teachers concerning a need for or the desirability of such service. In cases I and II, no consultants were used by the small groups as such.

One hypothesis which appears to explain some of these differences is that the sensitivity to a curriculum problem must be present and widespread in a group so that aspirations and expectations concerning change are present and positive in nature before the group will use the work-group-conference method effectively and efficiently.

Such an hypothesis rules out the use of the method as a sensitizing device. It indicates that a subgroup attempting to use the device as a quick means of convincing others of guilt, or as a vehicle for sudden complacency "shock" is not successful when the continued use of the method for constructive group action is contemplated. It would seem that when the method is used as a vehicle of shock, the risk involved should be carefully calculated.

#### Expectations About Group Structure and Procedures

In case III, the teachers did not appear to assume a peer status with the staff members to the extent that it was assumed in cases I and II. It was also true that the orientation of the group in case III was deficient in explaining the role of staff members as group members.

These differences and those already noted can be explained by the addition of the following hypothesis: The orientation of a group to new procedures must be fairly complete so that all of the subgroups and individuals have common expectations that the peer status position of group members will be maintained and can observe that it is not being violated by individuals or subgroups, if the method is to be used effectively and efficiently.

In case III the five teachers in the group were rather isolated in the building and in the sense that they did not, or could not, readily

communicate with anyone other than the five teachers, they constituted a group. There was, however, little evidence of close social acceptance or interaction. In cases I and II the group members were assigned to three or four schools and did not interact with all or even a majority of the other members of the group except during the work-group-conference sessions.

In cases I and II the groups as a whole made the important decisions concerning new directions of activity, desirable procedure, and evaluations of current educational practices. In case III some of these decisions were true total group decisions, and some were decisions of subgroups. The subgroup decisions were made in separate meetings and, for subgroup members, assumed priority over total group decisions or hindered or prevented the total group from making decisions.

The following explanation accounts for some of **these** differences. The existence within a larger group of subgroups which meet separately, either formally or informally, and engage in decision making or in clarifying their expectations and aspirations detracts from the feeling of identification with the larger group, tends to make of the larger group meeting the scene for announcing decisions already made, or produces resistance to the making of aggressive decisions by the larger group. If a group wishes to use the work-group-conference method, decision making in important matters should be reserved for the total group meetings and avoided by subgroups.

#### Acceptance of Subgroup Formulations

In all three cases the staff members were either assigned a responsibility to organize some of the groups' ideas into a more systematic form,

or assumed the responsibility themselves. In case II the formulation was understood and accepted rather quickly and completely. In case I it was understood and used by some rather quickly, while at least two group members were not impressed by the formulation sufficiently to use it or even remember it distinctly. In case III the data-gathering forms based on the formulation were used by the group, but the formulation or framework itself was not used extensively, if at all, to direct activities or even as a basis of teachers' progress reports to the faculty or other groups.

There are several variables in the three cases which appear to be related to these differences in the groups' acceptance and use of formulations. In case II the ideas included in the formulation were taken largely from the content of the group discussion and retained substantially the same form in which they were proposed. The scope of the ideas was also rather strictly limited by the general topic--Student Council. In this case the group used the formulation as a device to explain their ideas to other teachers and solicit their aid more than they used it to clarify and direct their individual activities with pupils. In case III the formulation was based on group discussions and a report of the five teacher members of the group, but individual items were revised by staff members without any specific assignment from the group, so that the scope of the formulation finally presented to the group was more expanded or generalized than the collection of individual ideas originally presented. The group did not use the formulation extensively either to direct their own efforts or as an outline to report their activities to the faculty. Instead, the five teachers prepared another, apparently more meaningful, outline. In case I the formulation about democracy represented a more

specific statement about the generalities which the group had been considering and at the same time indicated the breadth of the problem. The outline was not accepted enthusiastically by the group, although there were no indications of disagreement with it. After repeated attempts by the staff members to demonstrate its usefulness in group sessions, the majority of the group used the formulation to direct their activities and to report them to others. Some members of the group, however, remained somewhat oblivious to the existence of the formulation, although they were actively engaged in pursuing what they perceived to be the purposes of the total group.

The hypotheses which appear to explain these differences are:

1. The formulation of a framework for a group will be used by the group to the degree that it contains the ideas already accepted by the group without undue reformulation, generalization, and expansion.

2. When the formulation is completely understood and accepted it is no longer necessary to direct action and is used to explain purposes and points of view to others. When the framework is not clearly accepted as a total group product, considerable demonstration of its usefulness to group members is necessary to obtain its acceptance by the group as a help to clarify and guide action.

3. Raising the level of thinking, broadening the group's perception of the problem is not readily achieved by submitting a formulation to the group.

#### Acceptability of Proposed Changes to Status Groups

In case III the apparent rejection of the formulation was based partially on a subgroup's projection of difficulties which would be

encountered if the formulation were accepted and acted upon. The teacher subgroup perceived, and probably very correctly, that the school system as represented by immediate superiors, principals, and supervisors would not commend or reward, and might censure, actions consistent with the formulations.

This indicates that the work-group-conference method is subject to the latitude given it by administrative authority.

#### General Conclusions

The conclusions underlying the hypotheses and explanations about the application of the work-group-conference method given above, drawn from the three cases, may be summarized in the following way:

1. The aspirations, expectations, and sensitivity of the individuals in the group to the problem are important factors in determining the group's success in applying the method to curriculum problems.

2. The more clearly the group members feel the need for a solution, the more immediate is the group's attack to solve the problem. This does not mean that there are no disagreements about means, or that values do not change because they are already crystallized and uniform. It means that the original broad purposes of the group serve to unify the group sufficiently so that there is a continued striving for group approved means to achieve success.

3. The orientation to the method is an important aspect of the application of the method. Where orientation was not sufficiently complete, the expectations of the group members or subgroups were different and resulted in confused group expectations and feelings of frustration or inadequacy in knowing what to do. When subgroups entertained expectations

that the behavior patterns would be rather clearly dominant-submissive in nature and another subgroup had no such expectation, the participation was strained and tensions about procedure arose.

4. The work-group-conference method was helpful when there was some agreement about the existence of a problem, or when examination of certain practices was generally considered desirable, but it did not function well when it was used as a vehicle for "shock" techniques by one subgroup to increase the sensitivity of another subgroup to certain ideas. The calculation of risk involved in a subgroup's use of "shock" as a part of the method, if there is any expectation that the total group will continue to work, should be carefully considered since other aspects of the method may suffer.

5. When the group as a whole discovers another purpose different from or related to its original purpose, it may pursue this purpose without resistance, but when a subgroup attempts to superimpose a purpose which is not group derived, there is likely to be resistance and group cleavage.

6. Group decision making bolsters a group's unity, improves its morale, and heightens its sense of responsibility to produce. When important group decisions are made, they tend to serve as the new value pattern for the group.

7. The acceptance by the group of lengthy, involved formulations (purposes, goals, procedures, or plans) which have been submitted by individuals or subgroups for group study and acceptance is not very genuine or lasting unless it is the subject or crux of considerable group activity. When the group itself evolves such a product or formulation,

the excess activity which often accompanies learning occurs during the formulation process. In voluntary curriculum revision there seemed to be little economy effected by having subgroups formulate complex plans which require considerable insight. They were ineffective and inefficient. The groups tended to accept those ideas which they already understood and in which they had considerable insight as a result of interaction in groups or from previous experience.

8. Participation in the work-group-conference method increased the professional interests of teachers and led to decision making in professional matters which was based more on educational theory and values than on personal loyalty or expediency when there were no obvious threats to the personal or professional security of group members.

#### Areas for Further Study

There are many facets of the problem explored in this study which need further investigation. Some of these are indicated by the minor hypotheses which have been proposed. From a practitioner's viewpoint, however, one important problem presents itself when small group methods of promoting revisions of school programs are considered. The important detail which also emerged from the experience described in this study centered on finding and using procedures and devices to prevent or neutralize cleavages in the educational values of the faculty arising from the varied activities of the groups. In large schools particularly this is desirable so that the school may maintain a program which is fairly consistent in its influences on pupils. This indication of a problem does not envisage change without some tension; it suggests the need for adequate communication, understanding, and some unity and security in

the face of impending change.

#### Some Implications for Supervisors, Administrators, and Teachers

The current trend to consider supervision not as coercion, but as a cooperative and participatory venture "not so much a supervisory function in which teachers participate as it is a teacher function in which supervisors cooperate,"<sup>1</sup> is closely related if not a part of the movement in administration to enlarge the opportunity for democratic participation by those people who will be effected by administrative policies. This trend, however, does not minimize the importance of the fact that supervisors and administrators have the responsibility of promoting and offering a type of leadership in curriculum change which will result in improved educational experiences in schools. Technical skill in promoting curriculum revision should be a primary concern, and the understanding of the various methods and procedures which will achieve or retard results constitutes a vital part of this skill. The use of the work-group-conference method with some fairly realistic idea as to its strengths and weaknesses described in this study is an illustration of the detailed way in which supervisors and administrators should examine practices in current use.

Supervisors and administrators will probably be forced to find new methods if they are to contribute the leadership which their status responsibility would seem to imply. Such general descriptions of procedures as "the workshop," "the committee system," "the small group method,"

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<sup>1</sup>A. S. Barr, William H. Burton, and Leo J. Brueckner, Supervision (2nd Edit.; New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1947), p. 10.

or "the use of consultants" do not reveal enough of the details to be adequate. The analysis must be more detailed if supervisors and administrators are to be helpful to each other and to society in performing successfully with means which are adequate to the task. To be adequate, practitioners, supervisors, and administrators must more than ever before, not only meet the requirement of proficiency in one or several areas of academic achievement and in classroom teaching methods and skills, but also be adept at working with people on a high cooperative level and know and understand underlying assumptions and theories as well as the mechanics of what they are doing. The attempts in this study to evaluate one method of attempting curriculum change indicates the need for more detailed knowledge about the many methods and approaches which may be useful, which may be communicated to the profession.

The attempts by supervisors and administrators to stimulate more teacher participation and cooperation in curriculum matters and to invite wider participation in policy determination should make teachers review their professional role. The movement which gives teachers greater freedom to express and act on their professional beliefs carries with it the need for increased professional responsibility and skill in cooperating to improve education. The implications of this study for teachers lies in the demonstration of the fact that new skills and procedures can be learned which are helpful in curriculum change and in creating relationships which facilitate such change. The need for an adequate knowledge of procedures is just as important to the teacher as it is to the supervisor or administrator if there is to be cooperative, participatory activity. The time appears to have passed when a teacher

can maintain professional status and at the same time insist that curriculum matters are the concern of the supervisor and the administrator, and hence of little concern to classroom teachers.

A final very evident, but very important, implication may be stated in the form of a proposition. Teachers must have skill in democratic cooperative group procedures if they are to teach and demonstrate these skills and values to students and thus build a democratic society. The method and the conclusions suggested in this study, though narrow in scope, suggest the details which may become important in studying and using cooperative procedures.

#### Some Implications for Teacher Education Institutions

While there are critics of teacher training institutions who decry the lag between the latest research findings in education and the content and methods being taught to prospective teachers, there seems to be little concern that the new teachers will have to continue to grow professionally for twenty years or more after entering the profession if education is to be improved by using promising or proved adaptations in school programs. This study would indicate that a part of this continued professionalization may be encouraged and hastened if new teachers have skill in working cooperatively to effect curriculum changes.

The security which accrues from curriculum theory and knowledge about what other teachers have done, which teacher education institutions give, is great. However, the security which comes with reliance on and belief in methods which will solve emerging curriculum problems is just as important if change is desirable and inevitable. The work-group-conference method and other techniques for professional advancement, if

taught in teacher training institutions, would aid in reducing the apparent lag or "crystallization" in curriculum matters and aid school systems in efforts to improve education.

#### Some Implications for Boards of Education

The implication of this study for boards of education interested in improving instruction, reducing "educational lag," and resisting "crystallization" centers on the inadequacy or incompleteness of currently used supervisory practices and programs of professional staff growth. The devices currently used and relied upon by boards of education to promote staff growth and professionalization might be summarized as: a one-day-a-year inspirational institute or conference to supplement, or to be supplemented by, the monthly faculty meetings; individual conferences; and the advanced college training through credit courses for in-service teachers, stimulated by bonuses. In spite of this, the rate of adaptation of schools is still very slow. The addition to the staff growth program of provisions for concentrated work periods by relatively small groups using methods carefully planned to achieve their purposes has some validity as a means to change school practice.

The purposes of such groups may be varied, and there is still great need to study the details of methods to be applied in such diverse cases as groups which are to complete productions for others' use; which wish to explore a practice; which wish to find out "how to do"; which intend to inform; which try to reconcile differences. Consequently, boards of education cannot expect the staff which they employ suddenly to function according to these methods. Time to explore methods and to gain skill in their use will cost considerable money, but it is necessary if change

is to be made. Time is, however, not the only costly element. Consultant services must also be provided, and unfortunately such consultant service would seem, in many cases, to be much more complex than delivering a lecture to all teachers. The staff groups must acquire skill in the use of consultants for specific purposes and, here too, there is much to be learned.

In summary, school boards should consider the idea that the cooperative effort now necessary to change a school program requires that professional growth programs be total staff programs including the superintendent and in some cases even the custodial department. There are organizational and administrative plans which can be used to expedite such a cooperative program, but their success or failure, their real effectiveness in producing professional growth, eventually hinges on devices which secure changes in educational values. Such changes are promoted by disciplined interaction in small groups. The discipline is effected by the methods and procedures employed and hence it has an important effect on broad organizational and administrative plans. Professional growth programs which result in significant change in a school require intensive effort and the expenditure of considerable money. Such programs require an initial period in which the staff may acquire the skills needed to carry on the operations which finally result in the use or application of the professional knowledge which is available and in the introduction, with understanding, of adaptations which appear to have merit.

APPENDIX A

SCHOOL-STAFF INTERACTION RECORD

- 41 FILM
- 42 TAPES
- 43 AUDIO
- 44 EXHIBIT
- 45 BULLETIN
- 46 DATA
- 47 HEADLINE
- 48 EVALUATION
- 49 DUPLICATED
- 50
- 51 PHONOLOGY
- 52 EVALUATION
- 53 VISITORS
- 54 MATERIAL
- 55 SOCIAL COMMUNITY
- 56 INTERVIEW
- 57 OUT OF CLASS
- 58 SOCIAL ATMOSPHERE
- 59 ADMINISTRATION
- 60 PERSONNEL
- 61 POLICY
- 62 UNDERSTAND CHILDREN
- 63 PUPIL ONLY TRAINING
- 64 BUREAUCRACY
- 65 PUPIL PARTIC.
- 66 DISCUSSION
- 67 EVALUATION
- 68 SPREAD
- 69 HYPOTH. I
- 70 HYPOTH. II
- 71 CAPACITY
- 72 BLOCKAGE
- 73
- 74
- 75
- 76
- 77
- 78
- 79
- 80

MATERIALS USED \*  
 MATERIAL: **N<sup>o</sup> 7582**

SUBJECT:—  
 PURPOSE:—

WHAT HAPPENED ?

DECISION—AGREEMENT—PLAN

OPPOSITION—TENSION—CRISIS

INTERPRETATION

NOTE: \* WRITTEN EXPLANATION REQUIRED IF HOLE IS PUNCHED.

DAY

MINUTES

PERSONS INCLUDED:

- PRINCIPAL 2
- ASST. PRINCIPAL 3
- \* DEPT. HEAD 4
- \* COUNSEL 5
- STEER. COM. CHAIRMAN 6
- COMMITTEE CHAIRMAN 7
- SUPERVISING PRINCIPAL 8
- 9
- \* INDIVIDUAL 10
- COMMITTEE 11
- \* TEACHER—CLASS 12
- FACULTY 13
- SEMINAR 14
- WORKSHOP 15
- \* DEPART-MENT 16
- TEMPORARY GROUP 17
- PUPILS ONLY 18
- TEACHER—PUPIL 19
- \* COMM. GROUP 20
- STEERING 21
- SCHOOL—COMMUNITY 22
- PUPIL PARTIC. 23
- GUIDANCE 24
- CLASS ROOM TECHNIQUES 25
- EVALUATION 26
- 27
- 28
- \* CONSULTANT 29
- SPEECH 30
- SPEECH-DISCUSSION 31
- DISCUSSION 32
- INFORMAL CONVERSATION 33
- PHONE 34
- INTERVIEW 35
- \* VISIT 36
- \* EXCURSION 37
- 38
- 39
- 40

MATERIALS USED \*  
 EVIDENCE OF CHANGE \*  
 AREAS OF WORK  
 FIRST ROW — AREAS OF WORK

PARTICIPATED  
 GROUP  
 REGULAR COMMITTEES  
 GENERAL MEANS

SCHOOL-STAFF INTERACTION RECORD — DETROIT CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION STUDY

SOCIAL PRODUCTS		SUMMARIES	
81	82	83	84
85	86	87	88
89	90	91	92
93	94	95	96
97	98	99	100
101	102	103	104
105	106	107	108
109	110	111	112
113	114	115	116
117	118	119	120

APPENDIX B

PROBLEM SOLVING

# .. Defining the Problem

## P R O C E S S

### E N C O U N T E R I N G *the problem.*

1. What is it that is bothering us?
2. Is it a real problem?

### S E L E C T I N G *the problem.*

- 1a. Is there concern and interest in this problem?
- 1b. Does the problem need to be solved?
2. Is this problem made up of a number of problems?
3. If so, which one shall serve as a starting point?
4. Is the problem within our capacity and knowledge?
5. Will we benefit by a consideration of the problem?

### W O R D I N G *the problem.*

1. Is the problem clearly and accurately stated?

### S E T T I N G U P *tentative solutions.*

1. What ways can be thought of, imagined, invented by which the problem can be solved?
2. What beliefs seem to lie behind each of these possible solutions?
3. What outcomes might be anticipated?

## CAUTIONS

## OBJECTIVES

1. Be sure not to select a problem the answer to which is obvious.

1. To recognize a problem
2. To increase sensitivity to problems
3. To recognize behavior that indicates that a problem is present

1. Be sure that there is real concern with this problem.
2. Do not try to solve several problems at the same time.
3. Try to make a logical selection of a starting point.

1. To select problems which are of individual or group concern
2. To distinguish major problems from sub-problems

1. Be aware of smaller problems which may be a part of the larger problem.

1. To state a problem concisely

1. Be sure that creative thinking is encouraged.
2. Be sure to aid in clarifying values that seem to underlie certain solutions.
3. Be sure that the plans are regarded as tentative plans.

1. To see possible ways of solving the problem
2. To recognize biases behind proposed solutions
3. To project possible consequences

# ...Working on the Problem

## P R O C E S S

### R E C A L L I N G *known information.*

1. What do we already know that is vital to the problem?

### D E T E R M I N I N G *need for more information.*

1. What kind of additional information is needed?

### L O C A T I N G *sources of information.*

1. Where is the information?
2. How can the information be obtained?

### S E L E C T I N G *and organizing information.*

1. Under what general topics might the information be grouped?
2. How can these topics be arranged in some kind of order or sequence?
3. How can information be selected and grouped under these topics?

### A N A L Y Z I N G *and interpreting information.*

1. Is the information as organized meaningful in terms of the problem to be solved?
2. Is there understanding of ideas and concepts?
3. Is the illustrative material in the form of charts, graphs and tables clear?
4. What is the value of the information as evidence?
5. What apparent relationships exist within the available information?
6. Which of the possible relationships are pertinent to the situation?
7. Does an examination of the relationships lead to other problems which must be solved first?

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## CAUTIONS

## OBJECTIVES

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Be sure to include personal experience and all kinds of information previously acquired through reading, movies, or the radio.</li> <li>2. Be sure to include personal opinion, second-hand evidence, and hearsay.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Be sure to include personal experience and all kinds of information previously acquired through reading, movies, or the radio.</li> <li>2. Be sure to include personal opinion, second-hand evidence, and hearsay.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To recall information pertinent to the problem</li> </ol>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Examine the known information to determine gaps.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Examine the known information to determine gaps.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To determine whether the available information on a given problem is adequate</li> </ol>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. In the gathering of information, use a variety of sources: Books, newspapers, pamphlets, magazines, museums, government publications, interviews.</li> <li>2. Do not forget the possibility of getting information from people.</li> <li>3. Be sure that the information includes varying points of view.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. In the gathering of information, use a variety of sources: Books, newspapers, pamphlets, magazines, museums, government publications, interviews.</li> <li>2. Do not forget the possibility of getting information from people.</li> <li>3. Be sure that the information includes varying points of view.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To know the available sources of information and how to use them</li> </ol>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Be sure that a limited number of important topics have been chosen under which information may be grouped.</li> <li>2. Examine the topics to determine the most systematic arrangement as it relates to the problem.</li> <li>3. Be sure to group related information under the proper headings.</li> <li>4. As new information is gathered, be sure to add new topics or sub-topics.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Be sure that a limited number of important topics have been chosen under which information may be grouped.</li> <li>2. Examine the topics to determine the most systematic arrangement as it relates to the problem.</li> <li>3. Be sure to group related information under the proper headings.</li> <li>4. As new information is gathered, be sure to add new topics or sub-topics.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To select important topics as they relate to the problem</li> <li>2. To arrange topics in a systematic and logical order</li> <li>3. To select pertinent information</li> <li>4. To group information under its appropriate heading</li> </ol>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Eliminate irrelevant information.</li> <li>2. Guard against differences in meaning given to same words or concepts by different individuals.</li> <li>3. Consider whether the samples and illustrations given are representative.</li> <li>4a. Differentiate between fact and opinion. 4b. If opinion, consider the values of the persons expressing the opinion. 4c. Consider the possible bias of the reporter. 4d. Consider the honesty and integrity of the reporter. 4e. Consider the accuracy of observation. 4f. If the information is factual, consider the reliability of the source. 4g. If fact, consider the necessity of examining the recency of the source. 4h. Consider the possible bias of the person making the analysis and the interpretation.</li> <li>5. Be sure that you have considered all possible causes and their relationships to the effects.</li> <li>6a. Be sure that fact and fact are fitted together. 6b. Eliminate wishful thinking.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Eliminate irrelevant information.</li> <li>2. Guard against differences in meaning given to same words or concepts by different individuals.</li> <li>3. Consider whether the samples and illustrations given are representative.</li> <li>4a. Differentiate between fact and opinion. 4b. If opinion, consider the values of the persons expressing the opinion. 4c. Consider the possible bias of the reporter. 4d. Consider the honesty and integrity of the reporter. 4e. Consider the accuracy of observation. 4f. If the information is factual, consider the reliability of the source. 4g. If fact, consider the necessity of examining the recency of the source. 4h. Consider the possible bias of the person making the analysis and the interpretation.</li> <li>5. Be sure that you have considered all possible causes and their relationships to the effects.</li> <li>6a. Be sure that fact and fact are fitted together. 6b. Eliminate wishful thinking.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To determine whether or not material is useful as it relates to the problem</li> <li>2. To understand ideas and concepts presented in the information</li> <li>3. To determine the adequacy of illustrative material</li> <li>4a. To distinguish between fact and opinion</li> <li>4b. To determine the value of opinion as evidence</li> <li>4c. To determine the reliability of factual information</li> <li>5. To see relationships in existing information</li> <li>6. To recognize the pertinent relationships</li> </ol>

# II... *Drawing a Conclusion*

## P R O C E S S

### S T A T I N G

*possible conclusions.*

1. What are the possible conclusions which can be drawn from the analysis and interpretation of the information?
2. Do these coincide with the tentative solutions suggested at the time that the problem was defined?

### D E T E R M I N I N G

*the most reasonable and logical conclusions.*

1. Which of the conclusions seem to be of lesser importance and hence need to be eliminated?
2. Which appear to be untenable in the light of the information collected?
3. Which of the conclusions seem to be the best in the light of possible consequences?

### R E A C H I N G

*a conclusion.*

1. What conclusion remains after the above steps are taken?
2. What reasons support the conclusion?

# CAUTIONS

# OBJECTIVES

1. Be  
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1. Be sure to take into account the biases and prejudices which may influence the reaching of a conclusion.

1. To state conclusions clearly

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2b. Do  
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1. Be sure not to eliminate conclusions only on the basis of our personal biases and prejudices.  
2a. Be sure that personal values of all individuals involved are weighed and considered in selecting the conclusion.  
2b. Do not go beyond information.  
3. Be sure to examine the consequences of possible conclusions.

1. To compare possible conclusions and weigh their significance as related to the problem  
2. To see the consequences of the conclusions

1. Be  
it.  
2

1. Be sure that the conclusion matches the reasons supporting it.

1. To draw a logical and reasonable conclusion

# V... *Carrying Out the Conclusion*

## P R O C E S S

### A C T I N G O N *the conclusion.*

1. What does the conclusion indicate?
2. If action is indicated, how can it be put into effect?
3. If no action is indicated, what is demanded in the situation?

### R E C O N S I D E R I N G *the conclusion.*

1. Has new information made necessary the reconsidering of conclusions?
2. Has the situation changed to such an extent that it becomes necessary to reconsider conclusions?
3. Has a shift in values or social theory made a reconsideration necessary?

# CAUTIONS

# OBJECTIVES

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1. In  
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1. In putting conclusions into effect, be sure to recognize the limitations of reality.

1. To act on the conclusion

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1. Avoid holding conclusions when new conclusions would be justified in a changing situation.

1. To change conclusions in the light of new evidence

APPENDIX I

UNDERSTANDING DEMOCRACY

# ...Dignity and worth of the individual

## ASPECTS

## CRITERIA

1

*The essential worth of each individual human being.*

1. Pupils should believe in the essential worth of each individual human being.

2

*The supreme value of human personality.*

2. Pupils should believe that human personality is of supreme value and must be respected.

3

*Sharing in decision making.*

3. Pupils should believe that those affected by a decision should share as far as it is possible in making the decision.

4

*Conservation and development of ability.*

4. Pupils should believe that it is important that ability be conserved and developed wherever it be found.

5

*Essentials for a healthy body and an educated mind.*

5. Pupils should believe that each person must receive the essentials necessary for a healthy body and an educated mind insofar as the ability of society permits.

6

*Personal merit the basis for status, position, opportunity, and reward.*

6. Pupils should believe that individuals may aspire to any status, position, opportunity, or reward on the basis of personal merit. This does not necessarily imply equality of rewards and possessions.

7

*Contributions of many cultures and religions to our democracy.*

7. Pupils should know that individuals of many cultural and religious backgrounds have contributed to the building of American democracy.

## MANIFESTATIONS

1. Do pupils practice consideration of their classmates in their day-by-day relationships, thus exhibiting their acceptance of the belief in the dignity and worth of the individual?
2. Is there any conscious effort made by teachers and pupils to orient new pupils into the group?
3. Does the group indicate or show concern for the member who is ill or who is involved in unhappiness or misfortune in or out of school? (Writing a note, planning how they can help a classmate on his return to school, remembrances or gifts.)
4. Are common materials shared by the group?
5. Does the group find ways to help the individual member who is in need of special assistance? (The slow learner, the child who has been absent.)
6. Does the group try to give each individual member an opportunity to participate in planning, in discussion, and in working with others?

Do pupils accept others without discrimination as to religion, race, economic status, physical handicaps, or general unattractiveness? Are there pupils who are rejected or isolated?

Is there wide participation by pupils in class discussion when plans are being made? How many individuals take responsibility for carrying out plans made by the group? Is there resistance to the idea that individuals should take responsibility for group planning and participation?

1. Does the pupil recognize and respect the peculiar abilities of himself and others?
2. Does the group praise or otherwise recognize a great variety of abilities exhibited by individuals? (Scholastic, musical, artistic, sports, ability in leadership, skill in human relationships.)
3. Does the individual gain personal satisfaction in contributing whatever abilities he may have? Does he like school? Does he feel happy? Does he gain satisfaction from being in his group?

1. Is the pupil concerned with the happiness, health, and safety of members of his group and others?
2. Are pupils willing to serve in such groups as safety patrol, hall service, and other services for the protection and happiness of the larger group?
3. Do pupils exhibit behavior at the drinking fountain, in lavatories, and school lunchrooms which indicates concern for the health of the larger group? (Handling of food, use of straws, disposal of refuse, cleanliness at drinking fountains, precautions concerning the spread of communicable diseases.)

1. Do pupils believe in equality of opportunity for all; that individuals of minority cultures and religions or of low socio-economic status should have an opportunity to aspire to positions of high responsibility in our society?
2. Do pupils know of restrictions in voting, housing, educational opportunities, employment, transportation, and health facilities? Do they object to artificial restrictions?
3. Are pupils aware of efforts made in an attempt to remove artificial barriers?
4. Do pupils understand that democratic equality does not mean that everyone should necessarily have the same amount of goods?

Do pupils know about the contributions made to American life by individuals with various religious and cultural backgrounds? (White, Negro, immigrants, varying economic status, varying religions, rural, urban, and other.)

# B... *Man can and should govern himself*

## ASPECTS

## CRITERIA

1	<i>The inalienable right of man to govern himself.</i>	1. Pupils should believe that a basic premise of democracy is that the people have an inalienable right to govern themselves.
2	<i>The power of governments derived from the consent of the governed.</i>	2. Pupils should believe that governments derive their just powers solely from the consent of the governed, and thus the people are free to bring about changes in their government, either in form or in personnel, when such change seems to them to be for the best interests of all.
3	<i>Faith in the capacity of man to rule well, assuming that facts and issues are understood.</i>	3. Pupils should realize that the ability of man to govern himself well is dependent upon the intelligent understanding by the people of the issues and facts about which they make decisions.
4	<i>Participation of the people in the government.</i>	4. Pupils should believe that democracy requires the fullest possible participation of the people in government, but this does not necessitate direct legislative action by the people nor does it reject the use of representative government.
5	<i>The rights and responsibilities of majorities and minorities.</i>	5a. Pupils should believe that there is an obligation to abide by majority decision, but at the same time the majority must always be restrained by the rights of the minority. 5b. Pupils should believe that every minority group should have full opportunity to try to change the views of the majority by peaceful, lawful means. 5c. Pupils should believe that minority opinion is cherished as a creative force in the social order.
6	<i>Relationship between the individual and the state.</i>	6. Pupils should believe that the state exists for the welfare of the individual and not the individual for the welfare of the state.
7	<i>Faith in democratic government.</i>	7. Pupils should believe that democratic government is the best possible form of government and should have faith that by means of the democratic process, man is entirely capable of dealing with the most profound and disturbing social and economic issues which may arise.

# MANIFESTATIONS

- a. 1. 1a. Do pupils believe that man has an inalienable right to govern himself?  
 b. 1. 1b. Do pupils understand the difference between a government whose powers are derived from the consent of the governed and other theories of government such as a belief in the Divine Right of Kings?
- 
- a. 2. 2a. Do pupils know that the Constitution can be changed?  
 b. 2. 2b. Do pupils believe that the people who elect representatives have the right to remove them?
- 
- a. 3. 3. Do pupils believe that in voting and in other governmental processes it is highly important to get facts and information before a decision is made?
- 
- a. 4. 4a. Do pupils believe that it is important that everyone should vote?  
 b. 4. 4b. Do pupils believe that everyone should be interested in knowing what the government is doing?  
 c. 4. 4c. Do pupils believe that democracy works best when there is the fullest participation by the people but this does not mean that all the people must make all the laws?
- 
- a. 5. 5a. Do pupils believe it is right to expect everyone to abide by majority decisions? Do pupils believe that the opinion of the minority is necessarily wrong?  
 b. 5. 5b. Do pupils believe that people have the right to criticize the government? Do pupils respect the right of the minority to hold their opinions?  
 c. 5. 5c. Do pupils understand the fact that minority opinions have frequently been the impetus which produces social change and progress?  
 d. 5. 5d. Do pupils know that in the past, the ideas of the minority have become the majority opinion in some cases.
- 
- a. 6. 6a. Do pupils believe that the government makes laws which are for the good of the greatest number of individuals?  
 b. 6. 6b. Do pupils believe that laws passed by the state, not in the long term interests of the majority, should be abolished?  
 c. 6. 6c. Do pupils know that laws are passed to help people achieve greater happiness and not to make them less happy?  
 d. 6. 6d. Do pupils know of significant events and documents in the struggle for our democratic form of government? (Mayflower Compact, Declaration of Independence, Ordinance of 1787, Constitution, Bill of Rights, Emancipation Proclamation.)
- 
- a. 7. 7a. Do pupils believe in and feel loyal to the democratic form of government? Do pupils defend democracy in opposition to other forms of government?  
 b. 7. 7b. Can pupils express their feelings of loyalty to the democratic form of government? (Articles in school paper, free writing, poetry, creeds and codes, graphic presentations, development of assembly programs, music, dramatizations, radio skits.)  
 c. 7. 7c. Can pupils verbalize regarding what democracy means to the individual and to the group? (Freedom of press, freedom of religion, freedom of speech, and others.)  
 d. 7. 7d. Do pupils act on their democratic beliefs and express these beliefs in action in the classroom and in the school?  
 e. 7. 7e. Do pupils believe that the democratic form of government is the best form ever devised by man?

# ... Understanding democracy's privileges and their

## ASPECTS

## CRITERIA

- |   |  |   |
|---|--|---|
| 1 | <i>Source of privileges and responsibilities in a democracy.</i> | 1. Pupils should have knowledge about and understanding of the privileges and responsibilities of citizens in a democracy.  |
| 2 | <i>The privileges and responsibilities of citizenship.</i>       | 2. Pupils should understand the rights and privileges of citizens in a democracy as they are enumerated in the Bill of Rights and other authentic sources. Pupils should also know that democracy requires that the individual be as conscious of his duties as he is jealous of his rights, for all rights imply obligations. Implicit in this statement is the responsibility of the citizen to cast his ballot at election time; to have respect for elected officials, for expertness and for trained leaders; to obey loyally any law which has reached the statute books, however much he may have been or still is opposed to it; to be ready to accept his full share of the burdens of organized social life; to be willing to give service to the general welfare without personal gain; and to develop understanding and appreciation rather than blind obedience. |
| 3 | <i>Limitations of individual liberty.</i>                        | 3. Pupils should understand that in a democracy the individual's liberty should be limited by consideration of the general welfare and the preservation of like liberty for others.   |
| 4 | <i>Participation of citizens in the governing process.</i>       | 4. Pupils should know that it is the duty of all citizens in a democracy to participate in the governing process.   |
| 5 | <i>Individual development through cooperative effort.</i>        | 5. Pupils should understand that a citizen in a democracy must be sensitive to the lot of others and must believe that the welfare of each should be the concern of all, and that only by working together with others for the common good can individuals develop toward their greatest potential.   |
| 6 | <i>Free public education in a democracy.</i>                     | 6. Pupils should understand that our form of democracy implies the right of individuals to be educated in a system of free public schools.  |

# attendant responsibilities

## MANIFESTATIONS

Can pupils identify the sources of the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy as set forth in such documents as:

- a) Declaration of Independence
- b) The Constitution—Bill of Rights
- c) Ordinance of 1787
- d) Emancipation Proclamation

- a. [ a. Do pupils know and understand their rights, privileges, and responsibilities? Do they believe that successful democracy requires that all individuals be as conscious of their duties as they are jealous of their rights, and understand that all rights imply obligations?
- b. [ b. Do pupils know and understand the rights and privileges guaranteed them in authoritative documents, and do they know what the consequences are likely to be if people insist on their privileges and do not discharge their responsibilities?
- c. [ c. Do pupils understand that the privilege of free speech entails the responsibility to be truthful?
- d. [ d. Do pupils understand the consequences of insisting on trial by jury and not accepting the responsibility of serving as an honest juror?
- e. [ e. Do pupils believe that all citizens should cast their ballot at every election and know the possible consequences of general non-participation?
- f. [ f. Do pupils believe that citizens should obey laws which have reached the statute books?
- g. [ g. Do pupils believe that citizens should be willing to give service to the general welfare without personal gain?
- h. [ h. Do pupils believe that in a democracy citizens have a responsibility to understand rather than obey blindly?

- a. [ a. Do pupils know which civil liberties are guaranteed to the individual in our democracy?
- b. [ b. Do pupils know about the religious liberties guaranteed to the individual in our democracy?
- c. [ c. Do pupils know that in our democracy individual liberty is limited by consideration of the general welfare and the preservation of like liberty for others?

- a. [ a. Do pupils know of any instances in which there were undesirable consequences when citizens did not assume their duty of participating in the governing process?
- b. [ b. Do pupils understand that the principle of participation in the governing process applies in part in their immediate school groups?

- a. [ a. Do pupils understand why a person getting smallpox in Mexico should be of concern to everyone in the United States?
- b. [ b. Do pupils understand why the welfare of each should be the concern of all?
- c. [ c. Do pupils know of instances in which citizens have not been sensitive to the welfare of others and where the consequences were unfortunate for all?

- a. [ a. Do pupils know that our democracy will not function effectively without a literate citizenry?
- b. [ b. Do pupils know why the state maintains free public schools?
- c. [ c. Do pupils know why the community is not discharging its obligation in a democracy if it does not make adequate provision for free public schools?

# D...The use of the method of intelligence in solving

## ASPECTS

## CRITERIA

- |   |  |   |
|---|--|---|
| 1 | <i>The use of reason rather than arbitrary authoritarian imposition in issues affecting the general welfare.</i> | 1. Pupils should believe that issues affecting human welfare should be decided by reason, not by arbitrary authoritarian imposition.  |
| 2 | <i>Improvement of social arrangements by peaceful and orderly methods.</i>                                       | 2. Pupils should understand that democracy implies a faith that social arrangements can always be improved and that this improvement can be accomplished by peaceful and orderly methods.   |
| 3 | <i>Procedural steps in the use of intelligence—in the solving of problems.</i>                                   | 3. Pupils should have some knowledge of and proficiency in using a somewhat systematic method in attacking problems—defining the problem, using data in working on the problem, drawing conclusions, and acting on the conclusions. |
| 4 | <i>The use of discussion and compromise in dealing with controversial questions.</i>                             | 4. Pupils should believe that in controversial questions every effort should be made to seek agreement by discussion and compromise rather than by the immediate imposition of majority will by force.                              |
| 5 | <i>Pooled knowledge, wisdom, and experience as guides for action.</i>  | 5. Pupils should know that an important principle in democracy is the belief that pooled knowledge, wisdom, and experience are the best guides to action.   |

# problems

## MANIFESTATIONS

1. Do pupils understand and make use of the method of intelligence in attempting to reach decisions affecting the welfare of a group and of the entire school? (This implies that the school gives pupils such an opportunity.)

- 2a. Do pupils believe that improvement in our present government is possible?
- 2b. Do pupils know the consequences of using other methods than those which are orderly and peaceful in attempting to bring about improvement?
- 2c. Do pupils know that the Constitution can be changed and understand the procedures for amending it?
- 2d. Do pupils know that government officials may be recalled and understand the procedures for doing it?
- 2e. Do pupils understand the right of petition and know how to use it as a peaceful and orderly method of proposing improvement?

- 3a. Do pupils recognize problems, select and define specific problems clearly, indicate possible solutions, recognize biases between solutions, and project possible consequences?
- 3b. In working on a problem, do pupils recall information pertinent to the problem, do they determine the need for more information, locate needed sources of information, discriminate in the use of data, analyze and interpret the information?
- 3c. Do pupils consider tentative solutions in the light of the data and reach logical conclusions?
- 3d. Do pupils act on these conclusions and reconsider their conclusions in the light of new evidence?

- 4a. Do pupils recognize the necessity of attempting to understand both sides of the issue in controversial questions?
- 4b. Do pupils use the techniques of discussion and compromise in attempting to settle controversial issues arising from the study of a problem?

- 5a. Do pupils know that an important principle in democracy is the belief that pooled knowledge, wisdom, and experience are the basis for action?
- 5b. Do pupils participate in contributing their knowledge, wisdom, and experience in solving problems affecting the welfare of a group?

# problems

## MANIFESTATIONS

Do pupils understand and make use of the method of intelligence in attempting to reach decisions affecting the welfare of their class group and of the entire school? (This implies that the school gives pupils such an opportunity.)

Do pupils believe that improvement in our present government is possible?  
 Do pupils know the consequences of using other methods than those which are orderly and peaceful in attempting to bring change?  
 Do pupils know that the Constitution can be changed and understand the procedures for amending it?  
 Do pupils know that government officials may be recalled and understand the procedures for doing it?  
 Do pupils understand the right of petition and know how to use it as a peaceful and orderly method of proposing and securing improvement?

Do pupils recognize problems, select and define specific problems clearly, indicate possible solutions, recognize biases behind proposed solutions, and project possible consequences?  
 In working on a problem, do pupils recall information pertinent to the problem, do they determine the need for more information, locate needed sources of information, discriminate in the use of data, analyze and interpret the information?  
 Do pupils consider tentative solutions in the light of the data and reach logical conclusions?  
 Do pupils act on these conclusions and reconsider their conclusions in the light of new evidence?

Do pupils recognize the necessity of attempting to understand both sides of the issue in controversial questions?  
 Do pupils use the techniques of discussion and compromise in attempting to settle controversial issues arising from their school life?

Do pupils know that an important principle in democracy is the belief that pooled knowledge, wisdom, and experience are the best guides to action?  
 Do pupils participate in contributing their knowledge, wisdom, and experience in solving problems affecting the welfare of their school group?

APPENDIX D

"DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE?" EXPERIMENTAL FORM 30

DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE? (Experimental Form 30)

Do not write in this booklet, please.

In this booklet there are some sentences and paragraphs describing things about which people may have different opinions. Some people agree and some disagree with the ideas. By giving your opinions, by marking whether you agree or disagree with each statement, it will be possible to tell what your group thinks about things.

Directions:

Do not write on any pages in this booklet. You will mark your opinions on the Opinion Ballot which is the separate sheet accompanying this booklet.

First write your name and the other information requested at the top of the Opinion Ballot (not this booklet).

Next you are to notice that there are five columns or rows of boxes on the Opinion Ballot named:

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Uncertain
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
X	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Y.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Now read this statement:

X. Some people think that everyone should do everything possible to prevent war.

Decide what you think about it. Do you strongly agree; do you strongly disagree; are you uncertain; do you agree, but not strongly; do you disagree, but not strongly?

Mark an X in the column that most nearly represents your true opinion. Look at the samples on the Opinion Ballot to make sure you understand. (Note that the person who marked the answer sheet Strongly Agrees with this statement. He put an X in the column marked Strongly Agree.)

Now read this sample:

Y. Some people say that people should use all of our trees for lumber even if we don't plant any more trees.

(The person who answered this Disagrees, as the X on the Opinion Ballot shows.)

Work as rapidly as possible. Be sure you are marking in the row of boxes that has the same number as the item on which you are working.

Read the directions again if you are not sure about what you are to do. If you still are not sure, raise your hand and someone will help you.

TURN THE PAGE AND PENCIL.

## WHAT IS YOUR OPINION?

1. There are some people who believe that the time spent in getting a lot of information before you make a decision is a waste of time.

Do you agree strongly?	Do you agree?	Are you uncertain?	Do you disagree?	Do you disagree strongly?
------------------------	---------------	--------------------	------------------	---------------------------

2. Some students think that since it take a homeroom so long to decide what is best and what it should do, it is best to have one smart, likeable student decide things for the room.
3. In our public schools students should study the good points of our democracy and they should also study those things that people say are wrong with our democracy.
4. A factory owner should be required by law to buy and put safety guards on his machines even if he doesn't want to do it because it cost a lot of money.
5. A Congressman should decide how to vote on a certain law by counting how many letters he gets that tell him to vote for and against it.
6. There are some people who say that the best way to settle an argument between a labor union and an employer is to call out the state troops or the army.
7. When friends help to get one of their group elected to office, then the person elected should take care of his friends and listen to them more than to other people.
8. The people in this state should be as much concerned about the people in China or India not getting enough food as we are when there are people in Illinois or Ohio who do not get enough to eat.
9. Some people believe that if this is to be a country in which everyone has an equal chance the government should pay part of the expense of some people's education if the person cannot pay for it himself.
10. It is all right for a Catholic to believe that he might become president.
11. It is all right to criticize the government if you think it is doing wrong.
12. There are some people who believe that the government will work just as well if only a few citizens vote.
13. Only people who have children should pay taxes for public schools.
14. It is wrong to make any changes in our Constitution or in our government.
15. Some students think that even if a student disagrees with some things a homeroom has decided, he should cooperate with the homeroom officers anyway.

16. There are some students who think it is wrong for officers of a school club to make the plans for the club without letting members have a chance to share in the planning.
17. When a new pupil joins your class, the other pupils should wait to see what kind of a person he is before allowing him to take part in class activities.
18. A good citizen will read only one newspaper so that he will not be mixed up by different opinions.
19. Because it takes so long for people to make up their minds and vote on things, it is much better in the long run to let one smart, careful person decide what should be done.
20. Some voters say that when people are on the welfare they should not be allowed to vote because they would vote for those candidates who would give them the most.
21. It is all right for a Negro to believe that he may become president of the United States.
22. It is not right for a group of citizens to punish a man themselves without a regular court trial even if they are sure that the man is a criminal and is guilty.
23. It is all right for people to join a labor union in a town even if there has not been any labor trouble in the town.
24. When people vote, the majority is always right and minority is wrong.
25. Some people believe that the best way of deciding people's problems is to use the knowledge, wisdom and experience of all the people.
26. Those pupils in school who are different or who are not well liked should have the same chance to be chosen for certain jobs as anyone else.
27. Some people say that the Jews should have separate schools and hotels from other people.
28. Some students believe that when two students in the student council have had a real argument about something in the meeting, it is best for them to go their own way and not talk to each other again about things.
29. The government should be just as interested in the janitors and dishwashers as they are in the bankers and businessmen.
30. A foreigner or a Mexican or a Negro should get the same amount of thanks and respect for a work of art or an invention as a white American.

APPENDIX E

"CAN YOU TELL US?"

mc	Date
hool	Section Grade

## CAN YOU TELL US?

Does this class try to do anything which will help to welcome new members into the group? (1) Introductions; 2) explanation of work; 3) showing new pupil around school; 4) invitations into groups.) (Check one.) Alab

- Yes  
 No  
 Sometimes  
 Can't remember

Does this class do anything for classmates who are sick or who have trouble at home? (Writing a note, helping with assignments, visiting, sending a gift.) Alc

- Yes  
 No  
 Sometimes  
 Can't remember

How many of your classmates like to share books, paper, crayons or other things which belong to the room? Ald

- Nobody  
 Only a few  
 About half  
 Almost everybody

Have you ever tried to help other students in your class with their work? Ale

- Yes, often  
 Yes, sometimes  
 Yes, once in a while  
 No

Are there pupils in your group who almost never take part in discussion? Alf

- Yes, one or two who do not.  
 Yes, three, four, five who do not.  
 Yes, about half the class do not  
 No.

3

Are there pupils in the class who urge those who never say anything to talk, to help or give their opinion? Alf

- Yes, many  
 Yes, a few  
 Very few  
 No, not any

3

Do you think that the kid who plays in the orchestra is apt to be a sissy? A4ab

- Yes  
 No  
 That depends

2-

8. Do you think that the kid who gets good grades is apt to be an apple polisher? A4ab
- Yes  
 No  
 Undecided
9. Do the pupils in your room praise or compliment those who do well? A4b
- Yes  
 Sometimes  
 Hardly ever  
 No
10. Are there some hotels in which Jews are not allowed to stay? A6b
- Yes  
 No  
 I don't know
11. Are there some parts of our country where people have to pay before they are allowed to vote? A6b
- Yes  
 No  
 I don't know
12. Are there some places where Negroes cannot buy property? A6b
- Yes  
 No  
 I don't know
13. Are there some schools in our country where Negro children cannot attend? A6b
- Yes  
 No  
 I don't know
14. Are there some churches which do not encourage Negroes to join? A6b
- Yes  
 No  
 I don't know
15. Are there factories and businesses which will not hire people of certain religions? A6b
- Yes  
 No  
 I don't know
16. Do you believe that giving everybody an equal opportunity or a fair chance means that everyone should have the same amount of money, goods or possessions? A6d
- Yes  
 No  
 I don't know

17. What is the race, nationality, background or religion of each of the following individuals? (Write it in the blank space after the name.) A7
- Marian Anderson \_\_\_\_\_  
 William Knudsen \_\_\_\_\_  
 George Washington Carver \_\_\_\_\_  
 Lafayette \_\_\_\_\_  
 Haym Salomon \_\_\_\_\_  
 Einstein \_\_\_\_\_  
 Toscanini \_\_\_\_\_
18. What important thing has each of the following done to make them well-known in American life? (Write briefly--such as painter, lawyer, etc.) A7
- Marian Anderson \_\_\_\_\_  
 William Knudsen \_\_\_\_\_  
 George Washington Carver \_\_\_\_\_  
 Lafayette \_\_\_\_\_  
 Haym Salomon \_\_\_\_\_  
 Einstein \_\_\_\_\_  
 Toscanini \_\_\_\_\_
19. Do you feel that a group of pupils have a right to remove or recall student council representatives when most of the group think they are not doing their jobs? B2b
- Yes  
 No  
 Undecided
20. In some schools almost all of the pupils vote for the election of representatives to the student council. In other schools only a few students use their opportunity to vote for student council members. In which schools do you think the student council is most likely to do the best job for all the pupils concerned? B4ac
- Where few pupils vote.  
 Where many pupils vote.  
 It makes very little difference.  
 I am undecided.
21. Why is the Mayflower Compact considered an important document in the story of the growth of democracy? B6d
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
22. What ideas about the rights of man are found in-- B6d
- The Declaration of Independence? \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_

Magna Charta? \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Emancipation Proclamation? \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

23. Do you believe that the democratic form of government is the best ever made or devised by man for the benefit of all the people? B7e

- Yes
- No
- Undecided

24. What are the important ideas about democracy? In your own words tell what they are. (You will be telling what democracy means to you.) B7c  
C2

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

25. Can you list some of the rights and privileges given to citizens by the Bill of Rights? B6d  
C2

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

26. We are given certain rights in a democracy. What tells a person how far he can go in using these rights before he becomes undemocratic? C2  
3

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

27. Is it democratic to require that a person with a contagious disease stay at home when the Bill of Rights says he may go where he pleases? C3c

- Yes
- No
- Undecided

If you checked yes, please tell why. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

-5-

28. Is it democratic to sue a person when he has said something which is untrue about someone when the Bill of Rights says that citizens have freedom of speech? C3c

- Yes  
 No  
 Undecided

If your answer is yes, please tell why. \_\_\_\_\_

---

29. Is it democratic to stop people from having a large meeting even if there is a riot when the Bill of Rights says that citizens have the right to assemble? C3c

- Yes  
 No  
 Undecided

If your answer is yes, please tell why. \_\_\_\_\_

---

30. Why does the state support free public schools? C6

- So that people can make more money.  
 So that people can learn something about art, poetry, music.  
 So that people can get along better with other people.  
 So that people will be able to vote and govern themselves more intelligently.  
 So that people who don't go to church schools will have a place to go.

31. One of the most important ideas of the Mayflower Compact is: C3

- They agreed that everybody would do what the majority decided was best.  
 They agreed to remain members of the same church.  
 They decided to wait a year before they established a permanent government.

32. From which document does the following statement come: "We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed with certain unalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness." C1a

- Declaration of Independence  
 Ordinance of 1787  
 Constitution--Bill of Rights  
 Emancipation Proclamation  
 Mayflower Compact

33. From which document does the following statement come: "Religion, morality and knowledge being necessary for good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." c1c

- Declaration of Independence  
 Ordinance of 1787  
 Constitution--Bill of Rights  
 Emancipation Proclamation  
 Mayflower Compact

34. From which document does the following statement come: "To form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare. . . ." Clb

- Declaration of Independence
- Ordinance of 1787
- Constitution--Bill of Rights
- Emancipation Proclamation
- Mayflower Compact

35. From which document does the following statement come: "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and to petition the government for a redress of grievances." Clb

- Declaration of Independence
- Ordinance of 1787
- Constitution--Bill of Rights
- Emancipation Proclamation
- Mayflower Compact

36. From which document does the following statement come: "That on the first day of January, the year of our Lord, 1863, all persons held as slaves within any state or designated part of a state, . . . shall be then thenceforward and forever free." Clc

- Declaration of Independence
- Ordinance of 1787
- Constitution--Bill of Rights
- Emancipation Proclamation
- Mayflower Compact

37. The Bill of Rights gives the citizen in a democracy the following rights and privileges. After each one of the following items, will you please write down what responsibilities the citizen must take if these rights and privileges are to be preserved. C2  
3

Rights

Responsibilities

- |  |          |
|--|----------|
| a) Freedom of religion.  | a) _____ |
| b) Freedom of speech.  | b) _____ |
| c) Freedom of the press.   | c) _____ |
| d) Rights of citizens to peaceably assemble.                                   | d) _____ |
| e) Rights of citizens to petition the government for change.                   | e) _____ |
| f) Right of trial by jury.   | f) _____ |
| g) Freedom from being held as a slave.   | g) _____ |
| h) Right to vote regardless of race, color or previous condition of servitude. | h) _____ |

-7-

38. Would you rather have a group of reasonable people make decisions which you would have to accept than to have the decisions made by one person? D1
- I would rather have the group make decisions.  
 I would rather have one person make decisions.  
 I am undecided.
39. Do you believe it is right for citizens in a democracy to try to change the Constitution? D2c
- Yes, I think it is all right.  
 No, I don't believe it is right.  
 I am undecided.
40. Do you believe that there are emergencies when the citizens in our democracy are justified in making changes in their government even if force has to be used. D2
- Yes  
 No  
 I am undecided.
41. Can the United States Constitution be changed in any way? D2c
- Yes  
 No  
 I don't know.
- If your answer is yes, how is this done? \_\_\_\_\_
- 
- 
42. If the people of Detroit discovered that the mayor of the city was dishonest, is there any way that he could be removed from office before his term was up? D2d
- Yes  
 No  
 I don't know.
- If your answer is yes, how could this be done? \_\_\_\_\_
- 
- 
43. Do you think it is lawful for a group of citizens to write and circulate a petition asking for more police service and to present it to the City Council? D2e
- Yes  
 No  
 I don't know.

-8-

44. Which of the following things should a person do before making up his mind on a controversial question (controversial question means on a question where people have different ideas)? D4a
- Think what your friends want you to think.
  - Try to get others to think as you do.
  - Wait until people have voted and then agree with the majority.
  - Know and understand both sides of the question.
  - Decide the way your newspaper suggests.
45. Which of the following things is it best to do when people who have different ideas try to decide on something? D4b
- Take a vote quickly without discussion.
  - Discuss the matter and try to get agreement by compromise, if necessary.
  - Have people who don't agree stay away from each other.
46. On which of the following ideas is democracy based? D5ab
- That one person chosen to rule should make all of the decisions.
  - That the best idea is to depend upon the knowledge, wisdom and experience of the people.
  - That everyone may do as he pleases
  - That the people who pay the most taxes should decide everything.

APPENDIX F

STUDENT COUNCIL FRAMEWORK

# *Selection of Representatives*

ASPECTS	CRITERIA
1 <i>Orientation of groups.</i>	1. There should be a period of orientation at the beginning of each semester regarding the functions, duties, and needed qualifications of Council members.
2 <i>Representation.</i>	2. The representation in the Council should be school-wide, except in cases of immature groups.
3 <i>Qualifications.</i>	3. There should be extremely few if any restrictions on qualifications for candidacy to the Student Council other than that of being a citizen of the school.
4 <i>Nomination.</i>	4. There should be opportunity for more than one nomination for each position on the Student Council.
5 <i>Election.</i>	5a. A representative to the Student Council should be elected by the group of which he is a member. 5b. The voting should be by ballot when the maturity of the voters warrants this procedure.

# *Involvement in the Real Problems of*

1 <i>Degree of permissiveness in dealing with school problems.</i>	1. In the Council meetings there should be an atmosphere of permissiveness in the discussion of school problems.
2 <i>Vitality of problems.</i>	2. The Student Council should deliberate on those problems which are of interest or concern to groups in the school.
3 <i>Source of problems.</i>	3. All groups (students, teachers, administrators, non-teaching personnel, and approved community groups) should have an opportunity to present problems for the possible consideration of the Student Council.
4 <i>Limitations on problems.</i>	4. When there are problems beyond the reasonable authority and maturity of the Council, limiting factors should be frankly explained by the sponsor.

## SUGGESTIONS FOR ACTION

## PERTINENT DATA

1. Arranging for and insuring adequate discussion in each home-room, conference, or other group to be represented, of the purposes and activities of the Student Council. Discussion of the meaning of representative government might well be included.

1. Was there a period of orientation regarding qualification and duties of Student Council members preceding the election?

2. Arranging for school-wide representation on the Student Council.

2. What groups are represented?

3. Provision for discussion of possible qualifications for Student Council representative. Emphasis on leadership qualifications rather than high academic achievement or conformity in behavior.

3. What are the qualifications for candidacy to the Student Council?

4. Providing opportunity in each group for more than one nomination for each representative to the Student Council.

4. Is there opportunity for more than one nomination for each representative to the Student Council?

5a. Provision for each group to elect their representatives.  
5b. Providing instruction by social studies teachers or other designated individuals regarding election procedures.

5a. Who chooses the Student Council representatives?  
5b. How were Student Council representatives elected?

## *the School*

1. Acceptance by the Student Council sponsor of the role of counselor and guide in Council affairs rather than that of initiator and end-determiner.

1. Do representatives feel free to raise problems for possible consideration in the Student Council?

2. Encouraging young people to raise and discuss questions which seem to be important and significant to them.

2. Does the Student Council deliberate on problems which are of real interest or concern to pupils in the school?

3. Providing opportunity for the possible presentation of problems to the Student Council by individuals and groups.

3. Where do the problems come from which are discussed in Student Council meetings?

4. Anticipating procedures for dealing with the situation when the Student Council attempts to deal with problems beyond its authority. This procedure should include a discussion of the problem thus identified and a frank explanation regarding the imposition of limitations.

4. When pupils attempt to solve problems which are beyond their authority, how is the situation handled?

# ...Communication of Ideas

## ASPECTS

## CRITERIA

1	<i>Opportunity for individual participation.</i>	1. Every citizen in the school should have the opportunity to have his opinions heard.	1.
2	<i>Two-way communication.</i>	2a. Student Council members should report to the groups which they represent. 2b. There should be opportunity for groups to discuss and decide upon questions to be presented to the Student Council. 2c. There should be opportunity for groups to discuss questions which have been or are being discussed by the Council so that the Student Council member may more effectively represent his group.	2a. 2b. 2c.

# ...Skills

1	<i>Discussion.</i>	1. Teachers and sponsors should deliberately provide opportunity for and guidance in improving discussion techniques.	1.
2	<i>Problem solving.</i>	2a. Teachers and sponsors should deliberately provide guidance in problem solving skills. 2b. Student Council members should improve in their ability to use problem solving skills.	2a. 2b.
3	<i>Reporting.</i>	3. Student Council representatives should develop the ability to communicate ideas effectively from the Council to the group they represent.	3a. 3b. 3c.
4	<i>Parliamentary procedures.</i>	4. Student Council representatives should gain competency in handling the minimum skills of parliamentary procedure: the making of a motion, the amending of a motion, and the procedures of voting.	4.

## SUGGESTIONS FOR ACTION

## PERTINENT DATA

1. Encouraging pupils in their groups to bring up and discuss their problems and concerns.

1. Do pupils feel that they have a right to bring up any problem which they believe is of interest or concern to the whole school?

2a. Providing time and opportunity for Student Council members to report to their groups.

2a. Do Student Council representatives report to the group they represent?

2b. Teacher-pupil discussion regarding problems of sufficient importance to be presented to the Student Council.

2b. Is there opportunity for groups to bring up, discuss, and decide upon questions to be presented to the Student Council for deliberation?

2c. Arranging time so that the Student Council representative may determine the opinions of his group regarding problems under discussion in the Student Council. Student Council sponsors should make some provision in the way of materials (forms, notebooks, etc.) for the keeping of minutes and recording of decisions.

2c. Is there opportunity for the group to discuss questions which have been or are being considered by the Council?

1. Providing time and opportunity for teachers and sponsors to give guidance to pupils in the use of effective discussion techniques. Faculty agreement concerning how effective discussion techniques shall be taught.

1. Are opportunities deliberately provided for the improvement of discussion techniques?

2a. Giving instruction in the use of procedural steps in problem solving which include: defining the problem, working on the problem, drawing conclusions. (For a more detailed outline, see **Problem Solving**, Citizenship Education Study, 436 Merrick Avenue, Detroit 2, Michigan.)

2a. Is guidance given in the use of problem solving skills?

2b. Provision by teachers and sponsors for continued guidance in the use of skills as they relate to the solving of school problems.

2b. Do Student Council members improve in their ability to solve problems?

3a. Provision at the close of each Student Council meeting for a summary of Student Council proceedings. This is invaluable in helping representatives to organize their notes for effective reporting to their groups.

3. How effective is the reporting of the Student Council representative to his group?

3b. Providing for direct instruction by all teachers in note-taking and reporting when there is need for such instruction.

3c. Informing the faculty following each Student Council meeting of the problems under consideration by the Student Council.

4. Facilitating the effective use of the minimum skills of parliamentary procedure by giving direct instruction in such matters as: making a motion, amending a motion, and procedures for voting.

4. Are Student Council representatives competent in handling the minimum skills of parliamentary procedures: making a motion, amending a motion, and the procedures of voting?

# ...Attitudes and Behavior

## ASPECTS

## CRITERIA

SU

1

### *Prestige of the Student Council.*

1a. The Council organization and its activities should be a fully recognized, prestigious part of the school's program.

1a.

1a.

1b.

1b. The faculty should exhibit intense interest in the welfare of the Student Council.

1b.

1b.

2

### *Rights, duties, and responsibilities of Student Council members.*

2a. Membership in the Student Council should contribute to the acceptance of greater responsibility for the welfare of the school on the part of Student Council members.

2a.

2b. Duties and responsibilities of leadership in the Student Council should be emphasized as well as the rights and privileges of leaders.

2b.

3

### *Morale of Student Council members.*

3. Student Council members should, as a result of their group experiences, exhibit a feeling of group loyalty to the school

3.

4

### *Democratic values.*

4. Membership in the Student Council should improve the pupil's discernment between democratic and undemocratic situations and increase his commitment to democratic action.

4.

## SUGGESTIONS FOR ACTION

## PERTINENT DATA

- 1a. Providing for recognition of the Student Council by such activities as the following: the designation of a special room with adequate facilities for conducting meetings; the use of recognition assemblies; of certificates, and special notebooks for each representative. Provision for the regular attendance of Student Council representatives at meetings of the Student Council without penalty.
- 1a. Provision for class groups to observe the Student Council in action.
- 1b. Providing time and opportunity for the total faculty to discuss and reach agreement regarding important aspects of the Student Council, and the criteria or standards of judgment of what constitutes an effective Student Council as it relates to the over-all purposes of the school. Providing time and opportunity for faculty discussion and agreement as to the action program demanded in the situation.
- 1b. Arranging for teachers to observe Student Council representatives in action in regular Student Council meetings.
- 1b. Provision for possible rotation of Student Council sponsorship thus increasing the direct involvement of the faculty.

- 1a. Do Student Council representatives, pupils not in the Student Council, and members of the faculty consider the Student Council a prestigious part of the school program?
- 1b. Is the faculty involved in the promotion of an effective Student Council program?

- 2a. Faculty encouragement, guidance, and support of Student Council members as they increasingly accept responsibilities for the welfare of the school.
- 2b. Sponsor and faculty exploration with Student Council members regarding the nature, functions, and obligations of leadership roles.

- 2a. Do Student Council members accept responsibility for the welfare of the school?
- 2b. Do Student Council members consider their responsibilities and duties as well as their rights and privileges?
- 2b. Do Student Council representatives exhibit increased leadership ability as a result of their participation in the Student Council?

3. Provision by the sponsor for representatives to participate in the planning of Student Council activities and for the solving of problems in an atmosphere of friendliness, mutual helpfulness, and warmth.

3. Is there a feeling of loyalty to the school within the Student Council?

4. Making use of Student Council experiences to help pupils test democratic values in action. As pupils participate in the democratic process, sponsors and teachers can assist them to generalize regarding the meaning of representative government in a democracy. This assumes that the school has reached some agreements concerning the meaning of democracy and the specific action to be taken by the school in promoting democratic values. (See **Understanding Democracy**, Citizenship Education Study, 436 Merrick Avenue, Detroit 2, Michigan.)

4. Does membership in the Student Council improve the pupil's discernment between democratic and undemocratic situations? Does it increase commitment to democratic action?

## Study Forms

The following two pages are devoted to study forms which were developed to gather information about the Student Council. The titles indicate the source of the information, and the symbols R, P, C, S, and A, which appear after each item, refer to the five major areas in the outline:

- R—Selection of Representatives.
- P—Involvement in Problems.
- C—Communication of Ideas.
- S—Skills.
- A—Attitude and Behavior.

Questions in Forms 1 and 2 are directed to Student Council representatives. Form 1 contains items about Student Council election procedure and the attitude of representatives toward their position. It should be used soon after the election. Form 2 should be given after a Council has completed several months of work. Form 3 contains some questions directed to Student Council sponsors. Items in Form 4 are directed to students not serving as representatives or delegates. Since this category includes almost the entire student body, it may be desirable to sample one-fourth or less of each homeroom or grade group. Form 5 is designed to secure faculty reaction near the end of a semester or year.

### STUDENT COUNCIL MEMBERS Form 1 (Early in the term)

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Grade \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

On this page you will find some questions about the Student Council in this school. Please try to answer all of the questions by placing an X in the proper space. Thank you.

1. How was the Student Council member in your group selected?
  - By raising your hands.
  - By writing a name on a piece of paper.
  - By having the teacher choose someone.
  - In another way. R
2. Who suggested the names of people you could vote for?
  - Pupils suggested names.
  - The teacher suggested names.
  - In another way. R
3. How many names were there from which you could choose?
  - Only one
  - More than one
  - I can't remember R
4. When did you vote for your Student Council member?
  - Right after the teacher told us about choosing someone.
  - A day or two later.
  - I can't remember. R
5. Did your class talk about the kind of person who would be good for Student Council work?  Yes  No R
6. How do you honestly feel about being a member of the Student Council? Do you consider it an honor that you were chosen?  Yes  No A
7. Do you think that most of the pupils in your group thought they were honoring you by choosing you?
  - Yes
  - No A

### STUDENT COUNCIL MEMBERS Form 2 (Late in the term)

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Grade \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

On this page you will find some questions about the Student Council in this school. Unless otherwise directed, please try to answer all of the questions by placing an X in the proper space. Thank you.

1. What are some of the things which the Student Council worked on during the past semester? List as many as you can remember. P
2. Has your group ever told you about some idea or problem which you should bring up or talk over in the Student Council meeting? Place an X in the proper space.
  - Yes
  - No PC
3. Are there questions that should have been talked about or worked on in the Student Council which for some reason were pushed aside or dropped?
  - Yes
  - No
  - I can't remember. P
 If your answer is "Yes," will you list some of them?
4. Do you make a report to your homeroom or other group after each Student Council meeting?
  - Yes, always
  - Almost always
  - Not very often
  - No C
5. Does your group talk about your report after it is given?
  - Yes, always
  - Almost always
  - Not very often
  - No C
6. Are you excused from classes to attend Council meetings?  Yes  No A
7. Do you think that most of the other pupils in your group would like to be elected to the Student Council some time?  Yes  No A
8. What are some of the things which you have done to help pupils in your school? A
9. Do you think being a member of the Student Council makes you like your school better?  Yes  No A
10. What do you consider the most important things you have learned from being a member of the Student Council? AS

### STUDENT COUNCIL SPONSORS' CHECKLIST Form 3 (Late in the term)

1. Are all students represented in the Student Council? Please list the names of representatives in the Student Council and the group or section they represent. R
2. Who initiated the problems presented to the Student Council?
  - Principal
  - Faculty
  - Teacher
  - Sponsor
  - Pupil Group
  - Non-teaching Personnel
  - Community
  - Individual Representative P
3. Which problems brought up in the Student Council have you, the principal, or some other adult discouraged? P
4. If the discussion of certain problems was discouraged or prohibited, what explanations were made? P
5. Do you specifically give pupils techniques for improving group discussion?  Yes  No S
6. Do you specifically give pupils techniques for solving problems?  Yes  No S

7. Do Student Council representatives have competency in the minimum skills of parliamentary procedure?  
 Yes  No S
8. In your opinion, what percentage of the faculty are vitally interested in the welfare of the Student Council?  
 0-24%  25-49%  50-74%  75-100% A

### THE STUDENT COUNCIL IN THIS SCHOOL

Form 4 (For a random sampling of non-representatives—  
Late in the term)

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Group \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

On this page you will find some questions about the Student Council in this school. Unless otherwise directed, please try to answer all of the questions by placing an X in the proper space. Thank you.

1. Were there any people in your room who could **not** be nominated (chosen) for Student Council? Place an X in the proper space.  Yes  No R
2. If your answer to question 1 was "Yes," what were the reasons? R
3. What are some of the things the Student Council has worked on during the past semester? List as many as you can remember. P
4. Has your group ever given its Student Council representative any ideas or suggestions to take to the Student Council?  Yes  No  I can't remember PC
5. Do you have a chance to bring up and talk about any problems in your group which you believe should be of interest to the whole school?  Yes  No PC
6. Does your Student Council member tell your group about what happens in the Student Council meeting?  
 Yes, always  Almost always  
 Not very often  No C
7. Does your group talk about the report given by the Student Council member?  
 Yes, always  Almost always  
 Not very often  No C
8. If you talk about the reports given by your Student Council representative, what do you think about the amount of time which your group spends on this? Should there be more time, less time, or about the same amount of time spent?  
 More time  Less time  Same time as now C
9. How do you honestly feel about the Student Council? Do you think it is an honor to be chosen as a member?  
 Yes  No A
10. Do you think that **most students in your group** think it is an honor to be chosen for the Student Council?  
 Yes  No A
11. What do you think about the Student Council?  
 a) Does it only do what the teachers want it to do?  
 Yes  No  
 b) Does it matter much to this school if there is a Student Council or not?  Yes  No A
12. Do you honestly think the Student Council does any good for your school?  
 Yes  No  I can't decide A

### STUDENT COUNCIL

Form 5 (Faculty reaction—Late in the term)

1. Were there any pupils in your group excluded from nomination as a Student Council representative?  
 Yes  No R
2. Was there a period of orientation, explanation, or discussion regarding purposes of the Student Council and the qualifications and duties of Student Council members preceding the election?  Yes  No R
3. How much time did this take?  
 15 minutes or less  30 to 60 minutes  
 15 to 30 minutes  More than an hour R
4. Do you believe the Student Council should bring up almost any kind of problem relating to life in the school?  
 Yes  Yes, with reservations  No P
5. Is there discussion in your group following the report given by the Student Council representative?  
 Yes, always  Almost always  Seldom  
 No C
6. How much time is generally devoted to such discussion?  
 None  15 to 30 minutes  
 3 to 5 minutes  Longer than a half hour  
 5 to 15 minutes C
7. Do you specifically give pupils techniques for improving group discussion?  Yes  No S
8. Has there been any improvement in the reporting of the Student Council representative from your group over the semester?  
 Considerable  Some  None S
9. Do you believe the time spent by Student Council members in attending Student Council meetings is as important to citizenship development as a like amount of time spent in English or arithmetic or other subject matter areas?  Yes  No  Undecided A
10. What do you think about the amount of time spent in Student Council meetings?  
 Too much time  Not enough time  
 About the right amount A
11. Is the Student Council effective in teaching citizenship in this school?  Yes  No  Undecided A
12. Has the Student Council rendered any real service to this school?  Yes  Yes, with reservations  No A
13. Would you be willing to estimate as best you can your opinion of the percentage of teachers who are actively interested in the Student Council?  
 0-24%  25-49%  50-74%  75-100%
14. In your opinion, is this a sufficiently high percentage to guarantee the effectiveness of the Student Council?  
 Yes  No  Undecided A
15. Do you think that membership in the Student Council has helped any pupils to develop leadership ability?  
 Yes  No  Undecided A
16. From your observation of Student Council representatives whom you know, do they demonstrate a greater ability to take responsibility than they did before they were chosen?  
 Yes  To some extent  No  Undecided A

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## BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES

The author was born on August 2, 1907 near Hersher, Illinois and attended the Hersher Elementary School. He was graduated from Concordia High School, River Forest, Illinois in 1924 and from Concordia Teachers College three years later. He received an A. B. degree from Battle Creek College, Battle Creek, Michigan in 1929 and an M. A. degree from the University of Detroit in 1931. Since that time he has been enrolled in University of Michigan and Wayne University graduate courses.

In 1927, after receiving a Michigan teaching certificate, the author taught and served as principal in the Calvary Lutheran School in Lincoln Park, Michigan. He then taught general science in the Lincoln Park Junior High School, and from 1931 to 1937 taught English and social studies classes and served for a time as a boys' counselor in the Lincoln Park Senior High School.

In 1937 the author was employed by the Detroit Public Schools, serving respectively as a social studies teacher, Social Studies Department Head, and as a Junior, and then Senior Administrative Assistant in the Department of Instructional Research. In 1945, he was loaned to the Citizenship Education Study, acting as Evaluation Director for the duration of the Study. During his affiliation with the Citizenship Study, he spent several weeks working with staff members of the Research Center for Group Dynamics, then located at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; he served as a consultant to the College Intergroup Study, The

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The author is married, has two children, and for the past ten years has lived in Huntington Woods, Michigan where he has served as a member of The Library Commission, Chairman of The Parks and Recreation Board, president of The Residents' Association, City Commissioner, and as a member of the local Superintendent of Schools Citizens' Committee. He is a member of Phi Delta Kappa, The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and other professional, civic, and religious groups.