COMPARISON OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF MODERN AND TRADITIONAL METHODS OF TEACHING THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE EIGHTH GRADE

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THESIS

Presented to the Graduate Council of the North Texas State Teachers College in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

By

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Graham, Texas

June, 1949

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine, if possible, whether any significant difference in achievement existed when eighth-grade social studies were taught by two distinct methods, namely, the traditional and the progressive.

Limitations

This study was limited to eighth-grade pupils enrolled in the Graham Junior High School, Graham, Texas. It was further limited to two separate classes in the social studies, each containing twenty-five pupils, and both having the same teacher. The area of study was confined to a comparison of rates of achievement by members of the two classes as measured by the Stanford Achievement Test and by a series of subject-matter tests originated by the investigator. It was recognized that the number of pupils included in the study, together with the type of testing utilized, would serve only as a possible indication of trends in achievement and would not in any way produce results that could

be accepted as wholly valid and final.

Sources of Data

Data for the study were obtained from observation in the classrooms, from testing, and from the reading of published materials in the field. Sources were both documentary and human. Documentary materials consulted consisted of numerous books and pamphlets related to the teaching of the social studies as related to the intermediate level. Human sources of data included the fifty eighth-grade pupils in the Graham Junior High School who co-operated in the study by taking the achievement tests and the series of subject-matter tests developed by the writer. The results of these testings in the two classes were accepted as a means of comparing the rate of achievement of individuals within the two classes and of the two groups as a whole by means of average scores.

Procedure

At the beginning of the new school session in the fall of 1948, two separate classes in the social studies at the eighth-grade level in the Graham Junior High School were selected for the purposes of this study. The two classes were paired as harmoniously as possible on the basis of intelligence quotients determined by the submission of standardized intelligence tests to the personnel of the

two groups. Although there were minor deviations in individual pairings, the average intelligence quotients for the two classes were identical.

One of the classes was selected, arbitrarily, as the control group, which was to have social-studies instruction by the traditional method; that is, by the exclusive use of the textbooks and of daily recitations based upon questions and answers. The other class became the experimental group, which was to receive social-studies instruction in the progressive manner. Textbooks were by no means eliminated, but they were supplemented by such newer teaching devices as field trips, various types of visual aids including the motion picture, related reading materials, current events, socialized recitations, and creative handwork. Since both classes were eighth-grade social-studies groups, the basic subject matter in both was the same, and for this reason the textbooks served as the means of instruction which was common to both groups.

At the beginning of the school session, the Stanford Achievement Test for the intermediate grades was administered to both classes. Again at the close of the semester the same test was submitted, since it was believed that the difference in scorings for the two groups on the two testings might indicate certain trends as to the relationship of achievement in the social studies to the method of instruction.

A series of somewhat comprehensive subject-matter tests was worked out by the teacher of the two groups, based upon the fundamental materials encompassed by the eighth-grade social-studies curriculum. These tests were given to both classes throughout the semester, at more or less regular intervals, and the results were carefully scored and recorded for use in this study.

Extensive reading was done in the field of teaching the social studies at the intermediate level, with special reference to the progressive methods of teaching as contrasted with the traditional procedures.

At the end of the semester, when all test results were known and tabulated, comparative tables were made to show distinctions and similarities between the two classes in eighth-grade social studies. These tabulations were carefully studied and analyzed, and conclusions and recommendations growing out of the study were formulated.

Organization

Chapter II of this thesis presents a digest of the reading done in the field of teaching the social studies, with special emphasis upon progressive methods as contrasted with traditional procedures.

Chapter III offers the tabulated data resulting from the testing of the two classes, together with analyses and comparisons.

Chapter IV presents conclusions and recommendations which appear to be valid in the light of the findings of this study.

CHAPTER II

PROGRESSIVE METHODS IN THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Not until comparatively recent years were so-called progressive methods introduced into the teaching of the social studies. As recently as 1893, in the report of the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association, and in 1899, in the recommendations of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association, a definite pattern was established for social-studies instruction which persisted for a generation; and this pattern was not in any way "progressive" as that term is now understood, although it did represent considerable advancement and some radical departures at the time of its adoption. Both of these committees concurred in the philosophy that the transmission of the cultural heritage, as interpreted by recognized historians, constituted the chief function of the social studies; and they therefore recommended a program composed almost entirely of history, with some slight attention to civil government.

> A study of the past was regarded as an unquestionably adequate means of preparing for the present and the future. Such study, it was felt, would foster social understanding, promote an appreciation of traditional values, and, above all, yield

> the historical perspective essential to social cohesion and stability. A rational intellectual appreciation of the traditional values in American culture was emphasized, and that appreciation was to be developed in students by a more or less severely didactic presentation of historical facts. The dominant method was, consequently, to be textbook memorization, class recitation, and fact tests. Such methods of instruction were supposed to discipline the mind, provide economy in learning, and establish a proper respect for authority.[1]

Such concepts of the social studies persisted and continued to claim more widespread acceptance until the time of the first World War. In 1916 the National Education Association's Committee on the Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, in its report, proposed that instruction in the social studies should no longer be centered upon a factual study of the formal social sciences, but that it should be reorganized on the basis of concrete problems of vital importance to society and of immediate interest and value to the pupil. According to this new concept, attention was to be centered upon the vital problems of everyday life, and the central aim was to be to broaden instruction in the social studies to make them more meaningful and worth-while. The term "social studies" as used in the committee's report was not a new one in the field of education, but its widespread acceptance within the next few years was due largely to the

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[1]Progressive Education Association, The Social Studies in General Education, pp. 3-4.

work of this committee. The report contained specific recommendations that community civics be given a prominent place in the curriculum, that work in modern European and American history be greatly expanded, and that a new course relating to problems of American democracy be introduced in the senior year of high school.

The detailed report of the Committee on the Social Studies produced a significant influence upon instruction in the social studies from 1916 onward. But it did not solve the problem of education for effective social living. Traditional practices and ideas were solidly imbedded in the framework of American education, and although courses dealing with community life and with social problems became common in schools throughout the nation, most of them were soon formally organized and formally taught by the old method of textbook memorization. As time passed it became increasingly evident that no course of study handed down by a national committee, no matter how comprehensive it might be, could bring about effective social education. Social change had become too rapid, maladjustments too pressing and too numerous, and the entire problem too complex. The work of the committee had significant results in altering the subject matter of the social studies, but the confusion in the field and in methods of instruction continued.[2]

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[2] Ibid., pp. 5-6.

In the past quarter of a century,

> many modifications have appeared in social-studies curriculums. Greater emphasis is being given to content other than history, to contemporary problems, and to direct community participation by youth, while the study of history is moving away from memorization of textbook material toward the development of critical techniques and of historical understanding. The boundaries between traditional subject-matter areas have also tended to break down; fused and integrated courses have appeared. Most recent curricular changes, moreover, have tended more and more to high-light the social studies and to assign them increasing significance.[3]

Modern educators now realize that in the past too much emphasis was laid in the social studies upon the mere techniques of teaching and learning of facts, although this meant that little or no consideration was given to improvement in reasoning and to the development of judgment, skills, and habits, as well as to the fostering of wholesome attitudes and ideals. To accomplish the present aims of the social studies -- and indeed, of education itself -- all training must be directed toward the development of worthy citizens.[4] In fact, one of the seven "cardinal principles" of education formulated by the National Education Association and widely accepted is "Education for good citizenship."[5]

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[3] Ibid., pp. 6-7.

[4] Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining, Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools, p. 51.

[5] Ibid., p. 34.

> The term "citizen" may be used in various ways, but as soon as the pupils can be made to understand that they are embryo citizens -- the men and women of tomorrow -- they should be taught to appreciate, as an inhabitant or member of their particular village, town or city, that they are "a citizen of no mean city." They should be taught to recognize their rights and privileges, and appreciate that public rights and privileges are in all cases accompanied by corresponding responsibilities and duties which every citizen owes to the State.[6]

The chief distinction between the old and the new methods, between the traditional and the modern, is the difference between passive and active teaching and learning procedures. Education is now regarded as an active rather than a passive process.[7] No longer in modern education is the memorization of the textbook considered adequate as an educational procedure. The textbook, of course, still retains a place in the educational plan, but it no longer is regarded as the sole or even the principal source of knowledge. Now its function is to supply basic information needed by the pupils in carrying out their activities.

Whereas the traditional aim of education was to equip pupils with multitudes of facts, the general objective of all learning has now become the development of the individual into a worthy, participating citizen. And this is the goal not only of the social studies, for

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[6] L. J. F. Brimble and Frederick J. May, Social Studies and World Citizenship, p. 30.

[7] Bining and Bining, op. cit., p. 68.

> All the subjects of the curriculum should contribute toward the training of worthy citizens. The social studies, because of their subject matter, as well as the methods and procedures that may be used, can contribute most directly toward that end. The aims of the social studies include the teaching of a certain amount of knowledge wisely chosen, the development of reasoning power and critical judgment, training in independent study, the formation of habits and skills, and the molding of desirable patterns of conduct. Each of the social studies has its specific aims, for each has special contributions to make. It should be clearly recognized that there is little use in setting up aims and objectives -- either general or specific -- unless definite and systematic plans are made to achieve them.[8]

By the very nature of their subject matter, the social studies possess a special responsibility for training children, young people, and adults "to bring informed, thoughtful, and purposeful intelligence to bear on international, national, and individual problems."[9]

As to the vital importance of training children for citizenship while they are in school, John Dewey has written:

> When the school introduces and trains each child of society into membership within such a little community [the school], saturating him with the spirit of service, and providing him with the instruments of effective self-direction, we shall have the deepest and best guarantee of a larger society which is worthy, lovely, and harmonious.[10]

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[8] Ibid., pp. 50-51.

[9] National Council for the Social Studies, The Social Studies Look Beyond the War, p. 7.

[10] John Dewey, The School and Society, pp. 27-28.

It is commonly agreed among educators with the progressive concept that the social studies include, or should include, much more than the mere acquisition of social information. In the classroom the wise teacher is concerned with working out a wholesome situation as much like life outside of school as possible. Wholesome human relationships are fostered, democratic processes and skills are put into practice, community resources are studied and utilized in broadening the understanding of the pupils, and, if possible, the pupils are encouraged to participate in some type of community service, both individually and as a group. Likewise, the teacher makes sincere efforts to develop skill in the usage of sources of information, to foster appreciation and understanding of other peoples, and, even more important, to develop in the pupils an awareness and a social sensitivity to the problems of the day. It is easy to see that in this concept of the social studies, the classroom is enlarged to extend far beyond the school into the community, where rich sources for exploration and investigation are to be found on every hand.[11]

The social studies provide the materials which serve

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[11] Walter A. Anderson, "Providing for Individual Differences in the Elementary School Social Studies Program," Adapting Instruction in the Social Studies to Individual Differences, Fifteenth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies, 1944, p. 33.

as a basis for making the world of today intelligible to the pupils, for training them in the development of certain skills and habits, and for cultivating attitudes and ideals that will enable boys and girls to take their places as efficient and effective members of a democratic society. All of these considerations are essential to the realization of the most prominent objective of education and of the social studies, that of training pupils for effective citizenship in a democracy that the American people are still striving to attain.[12]

Eight significant functions of the social studies have been formulated by Wesley as follows:

> 1. The first function of the social studies is to furnish experience in human relationships. . . .
> 2. The second function of the social studies is to supply information concerning human relationships. . . .
> 3. The third function of the social studies is to supply and vitalize social concepts. . . .
> 4. The fourth function of the social studies is to teach certain skills and furnish opportunity for their exercise. . . .
> 5. The fifth function of the social studies is to supply materials and activities for building character. . . .
> 6. The sixth function of the social studies is to supply the materials and activities for the forming of social attitudes. . . .
> 7. The seventh function of the social studies is to afford opportunities for social interaction. . . .
> 8. The eighth function of the social studies is to furnish exercise in problem solving. . . .[13]

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[12]Bining and Bining, op. cit., pp. 2-3.

[13]Edgar Bruce Wesley, "The Nature and Functions of the Social Studies in the Elementary School," The Social Studies in the Elementary School, Twelfth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies, 1941, pp. 52-55.

Concepts fostered by the social studies should be broad enough to take in the whole world and all peoples. Of course, education in civic and national affairs is good and should receive emphasis, but this alone does not go far enough to fulfill the modern concept of education. Every person is a member, not of one, but of several communities, including the family, the parish, the town, the county, the country, and the world. Today membership within the world community is not only available to the individual, but is inevitable and inescapable. Science has so effectively eliminated distance and time that the importance of events can no longer be measured in terms of geographical remoteness. A good citizen of any country realizes that his own welfare is dependent upon the welfare of his fellow citizens; and a further step in the same direction leads to the realization that the nations of the world are dependent upon the good will and co-operation of each other in the same way that the welfare of any community is related to the loyalty and support of its citizens.[14] Thus, if "education for the needs of life" is to be anything other than an empty phrase, the importance of world citizenship must be recognized in courses of study. "Education for world citizenship is education which promotes among all peoples a

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[14]Brimble and May, op. cit., p. 2.

sympathetic peaceful co-operation based on democracy."[15]

Because of the vital position in education now occupied by the social studies, both in the development of world-mindedness and international attitudes and in the solution of local problems,

> The teacher of the social studies in general education today occupies an enviable position. The trend of educational thought is toward increasing emphasis on the human values of all the subject-matters; hence the social studies, which deal directly with human beings in their various social groupings, have been assigned a steadily increasing prominence. This trend has been supported also by developments outside the strictly educational world. Since 1918, particularly, the problems of living together have pressed exactingly on all Americans. In the world at large, political instability has threatened peace as imminently as the sword threatened Damocles. In 1939 major warfare began anew in Europe. In the period between wars, economic dislocation followed economic dislocation, pitching us all into a whirlpool of personal and political predicaments. These and other kaleidoscopic social changes have put strains on our social institutions: the family, the church, the economic order, the political system. In these troublous times, the people, with typical American faith in education, have turned to the schools, demanding that the young be better prepared for meeting problems like unto those which have staggered their elders. The attention paid to the social studies and to those who teach them has steadily increased.[16]

The activities of the school and of the classroom must be socialized in order that they may reproduce real-life situations, or approximate them as closely as possible.

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[15] *Ibid.*, p. 3.

[16] Progressive Education Association, *op. cit.*, p. 1.

The individual and collective interests of the pupils must also be taken into consideration. The current educational philosophy with respect to an expanded curriculum and activity instead of passivity on the part of pupils has produced revolutionary effects upon instructional methods. In recent years the central place in the school, at least in theory, has been given to the pupil. It is believed that in the learning process the activity of the teacher cannot be substituted for that of the pupil, and for this reason any method of instruction which is not based upon the pupil-activity concept is out of line with modern educational theories.[17]

> The trend in method is . . . away from rigid formalism in teaching procedures. Education should be natural and informal. In the social studies, even more than in any other subject in the secondary school, socialization is necessary. Through his own activities intermingled with the activities of the group, the pupil can learn and develop. Education must begin with the child and must be adapted to the needs and requirements of the child as he grows. Only in this manner, according to the new philosophy, can the individual be made socially efficient.
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> The new philosophy . . . is based upon a new psychology and upon modern scientific procedure. It emphasizes the pupil, at least in theory; it regards learning as an active process; it considers the interests of the pupils individually and collectively; and it lays stress on education as being a constant process of reorganizing and reconstructing experience.[18]

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[17] Bining and Bining, op. cit., pp. 68, 71.

[18] Ibid., pp. 71, 73.

If the teaching procedures fail to recognize individual differences among the pupils, that is, if all pupils are taught as though they were all alike, many will find social problems to be dry, lifeless, and unreal. This will be true even of those problems which most directly affect the pupils' immediate lives. No one would assert that adults are all alike in their vocational preferences and pursuits; but the educational plan often attempts to treat all children as if they were identical in preparing them to assume their places in society, without recognizing that children in school are as different in their needs and interests as are adults in the working world. Each pupil must be recognized as an individual who learns what he experiences, or what has real meaning to him. It is essential to stress individual differences and to realize that each pupil has his own concerns and problems.

> Methods of procedure should be such that individual differences will be utilized so that all pupils have a contribution to make. Such a provision is necessary, not only for the individual's own good, but for the benefit of society as well. There should be attention to the non-bookish student as well as attention to the intellectually gifted or potential leaders of thought, for no group should be neglected.[19]

The National Council for the Social Studies has recommended the following as suggestive procedures for making

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[19] National Council for the Social Studies, op. cit., pp. 31-32.

the social studies realistic and vital and for recognizing individual differences among members of the group:

1. Provide for community participation through surveys, community service of various types, interviews, field trips, and observation.

2. Use visual aids and audio-visual aids, including recordings, radio, films, exhibits, maps, and charts.

3. Employ varied reading materials, including pamphlets, magazines, fiction, and supplementary books appropriate to the various levels of maturity.

4. Provide for dramatization, including documentary plays, pageants, and informal skits or pantomimes.

5. Share ideas and materials through panel discussions, symposiums, forums, town meetings, group planning, and informal discussions.

6. Provide for laboratory work, such as making maps, charts, and models.[20]

While procedures and teaching techniques have been undergoing changes in keeping with the new philosophy of education, attitudes toward the curriculum have likewise been revolutionized. No longer is the curriculum regarded as an end within itself, as was formerly the case; it is now looked upon as the means to an end, the avenue through which goals in education may be reached. It consists of not only

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[20] Ibid., p. 32.

the traditional textbook but also of varied materials, processes, and activities. "It should be remembered . . . that the curriculum consists of experiences as well as information, of processes as well as formulas."[21]

The program should consist largely of learning situations which resemble as closely as possible the problems met in life. The social-studies program designed to give boys and girls the ability to solve problems in social life is most likely to be successful when it employs genuine problems and issues.

> A proper balance between direct and vicarious learning experiences is needed. In the past the work of the schoolroom, in social studies as in other fields, has been devoted all too largely to the provision of vicarious experience to learners. High-school students in a city which had three coal mines within five miles studied about the coal industry from a book only; no attempt was made to give a basic experience of the nature of a coal mine or of the discomforts and dangers under which coal miners work; not one in a class of thirty had ever been down a shaft. . . . In all probability, most social science programs need to utilize more opportunities for direct experience than they have done in the past.[22]

Although history was the first of the social-studies subjects to be included in the educational curriculum, it has retained pre-eminence to the present day and is still the most prominent subject in the social-studies field. The first method of teaching history was to have the pupil

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[21]Edgar B. Wesley, Teaching the Social Studies, p. 250.

[22]Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, The Social Studies Curriculum, Fourteenth Yearbook, 1936, p. 95.

memorize the textbook word for word. This meant that the so-called superior pupil would be able to repeat the exact words of the textbook when called upon to do so. The teacher's duty under this system was to correct the pupils' variations from the phraseology of the textbook. Now long out of use, this method of strict textbook memorization was succeeded by a method which permitted the pupil to relate in his own words the facts and conclusions of the textbook.

> The method as it has come down to us and practiced even by teachers today [in other subjects as well as in history] may be summarized as follows: The teacher assigns a few pages of the textbook; the pupils memorize the facts presented in those pages; and then on the next day the teacher examines the class orally to see if the pupils can reproduce the substance of the facts that they have memorized. If any of the pupils see relationships between the facts, they do so in spite of the teacher rather than through his aid. This procedure stands condemned from all angles. In the first place it is not teaching; it is testing. Then again it does not accomplish even that which it purposes to accomplish. In classes of any size it is impossible in the time allowed for the teacher to examine orally each member on all the facts he is supposed to know. What he does is to ask each pupil, or as many as possible, a few questions. This does not insure that they know all the important facts of the lesson. Worst of all, however, the procedure violates the aims and objectives of the teaching of the social studies. Our aims in these subjects center in the understanding, and there is none of this faculty involved in a memorization of a list of facts.[23]

This does not mean that facts have no importance. A

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[23] Bining and Bining, op. cit., pp. 84-85.

knowledge of facts is necessary in order to see relationships and to reason intelligently; but facts are not ends in themselves. Therefore, any profitable and worth-while use of the textbook requires that facts be dealt with in their correct relationships instead of in isolation. One plan is to provide an opportunity for the pupils and the teacher to study the text together in class. With all books open, the teacher explains the main topics, the relationships among sub-topics, and the meaning of facts. Provision is made for supplementing the textbook material by other reading as well as by the comments of the teacher. From time to time the pupils read silently from the text, either the entire scope of a broad subject or special sections of the material; then the teacher asks a few practical, pertinent questions to judge how well the pupils are comprehending the significant portions of the material. Pupils are encouraged to discuss the subject matter freely and to ask questions. One serious objection to this procedure is that it does not encourage independent study on the part of the pupil outside of the classroom. However, the skilled teacher can arouse interest in related topics or in acquiring more information than the class time allows, and this thirst for more knowledge can become the basis for outside reading and of activities and projects.[24]

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[24] Ibid., p. 85.

> The textbook has probably exerted a more direct and extensive influence upon the social studies curriculum and upon teaching methods in the United States than any other single factor. . . . While there is considerable evidence to show that the influence of the textbook is less pronounced than it was a few years ago, there seems, in spite of the poor teaching and deficient learning sometimes charged against it, little probability of any fundamental diminution in its importance. The form, type, size, and scope of texts may change, but there is little likelihood of their elimination.[25]

It is obvious that the textbook, when utilized by a poorly trained or careless teacher, can easily be abused in its usage to the point at which it becomes highly objectionable or even useless as a learning device. Because the textbook is so often abused in the hands of teachers who lack initiative or skill, some educators have frequently regarded the textbook itself as the cause of unhappy procedures and methods, when actually the manner in which the text is used is responsible for most of the questionable techniques associated with it.[26]

At the same time no defense can be found in these days for the exclusive use of textbook teaching as such. The slavish use of the text for purposes of daily assignments and oral recitation has been justly criticized and condemned by progressive educators. The deadening effects of oral question-and-answer testing on the small details

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[25] Wesley, Teaching the Social Studies, p. 375.

[26] Ibid., p. 491.

of the daily assignment, especially in the broad content fields of the social studies, are recognized and deplored. But the complete rejection of the textbook is an unwise extreme.

As long ago as 1935 one authority wrote:

> The time is already at hand when new types of school books, better adapted to the progressive plans, are beginning to supplant the specialist's cyclopedic compendiums. Even these books must retain many of the efficient helps and features of organization, selection, grading, style, and form that have been developed as pedagogic arts by authors and publishers. The textbook, even in its present unrevised form, has such significant values for the unit plan, for parallel use with workbooks, as a basic reference manual for a present-day problem course, for socialized or laboratory plans, and for integrating courses that it cannot be abandoned because it has been abused. The textbook in all the social sciences is still the most convenient and best-organized condensed summary of available fundamental information. It is still the one most useful book for giving an introductory survey for perspective on any topic or unit in history, geography, or civics. Textbooks may have the disadvantage of excessive detail, but, in general, they are still the best adaptations in vocabulary and style that we have for the immature.[27]

Much excellent teaching has been and can be done by the textbook method, even by the use of a single good textbook. Modern social-studies texts are much better than the older ones. They are usually divided into several meaningful and well-organized sections, with carefully arranged sub-topics. Along with the use of a good single book, the

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[27]M. J. Stormzand and Robert H. Lewis, New Methods in the Social Studies, p. 159.

teacher can make liberal use of the "telling" method to enrich and to supplement the course, acquainting the pupils with much information and with related materials that cannot be contained within the limits of a single textbook.

However,

> The use of one text has been criticized from many angles. One of the chief objections made is that it tends to inculcate in the children a reverence for the authoritativeness of the printed page. The pupils will accept the authority of the book as final and will form the habit of accepting everything they see in print without question. This, however, might be due more to poor teaching than to the use of a single textbook. Each teacher should be an authority in his subject and his pupils should regard him as such. The root of the trouble lies in the fact that teachers themselves slavishly follow the text. If they would challenge the inaccuracies in the text and give the various interpretations of other authors, more good frequently would be done than by exposing the pupil to two or more textbooks, for the reading of various accounts does not insure that the pupils will note their differences.[28]

Within the limitations of the textbook method may be found both very commendable and very undesireable teaching. Since the textbook is so widely utilized in educational situations, it is highly essential that it be utilized in the classroom to the best advantage, and this often involves the use of other materials as supplementary aids to learning. Sincere efforts on the part of the teacher to employ the textbook effectively should not be taken as evidence of excessive faith in it or as criticism of other

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[28]Bining and Bining, op. cit., p. 87.

methods. Such efforts should be accepted frankly for what they are, in their ideal form -- simply an attempt to obtain the most possible assistance from the textbook as a widely accepted and employed educational device.[29]

Six distinct levels of teaching by the use of the textbook have been defined by Wesley as follows:

1. The most unworthy level of instruction is that in which the textbook is followed slavishly and pupils are expected to reproduce it almost verbatim.

2. The teacher assigns designated pages and devotes the class period to questions designed to reveal how literally and faithfully the pupils remember what the author said. The exact words of the book are not required, but accurate paraphrasing is emphasized.

3. Pupils read designated pages, then prepare outlines, summaries, or parallel accounts. This technique requires critical reading and originality.

4. The class period is utilized in teaching the pupils how to read, to analyze, to outline, to summarize -- in short, how to study. This is the open-textbook method, with emphasis upon directed learning rather than upon quizzing and reciting.

5. The teacher and the class build up concepts and

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[29]Wesley, Teaching the Social Studies, p. 484.

understandings, using the textbook as a basis, but employing additional sources to broaden knowledge. Relying both upon the textbook and upon other references and experiences, this process involves the synthesizing of two or more treatments and the wider use of varied materials.

6. The book is employed as a convenient aid, but it does not determine the fundamentals, such as content, organization, or method. The text is thought of as a supplement, as a basis for common understanding, and as a point of departure, but it limits neither content nor procedure. The textbook serves as a statement of minimum essentials for any project, activity, or problem of the class or of individuals.[30]

Even with all its faults and weaknesses, however, the textbook method of instruction possesses certain advantages, which may be summarized as follows:

1. The textbook furnishes a reasonably accurate account of the subject, field, or area under consideration.

2. It presents an organized synthesis of subject matter.

3. The textbook recognizes the limitations of the pupil and tries to meet his needs by various means, such as simplified diction, captioned sections, questions, references, projects, activities suggested for individual or

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[30] Ibid., pp. 487-489.

group effort, summaries, and numerous charts, maps, and pictures.

4. The textbook provides a common basis upon which to master reading and the processes of analyzing, outlining, and summarizing.

5. It furnishes the class with a common minimum core of content.

6. The textbook furnishes a definite basis for specific assignments, drills, and projects.[31]

But it would not be fair to mention the advantages of the textbook without naming also certain disadvantages, some of which have already been indicated indirectly:

1. The textbook covers a wide scope of material in a limited space, thus decreasing the possibility of scholarly treatment and bringing about errors in detail, interpretation, and point of view.

2. It is possible for the textbook to present only the minimum essentials in summary form, omitting a wealth of colorful detail that would give life to the account if it could be included.

3. There is always the serious danger that the textbook will mark the limits of the content of the course. This weakness, more than any other, has been responsible for the disrepute into which the textbook as a tool of

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[31] Ibid., p. 489.

learning has fallen; yet the fault lies in the way in which the text is used and not in the text itself.

4. There is also the danger of formalizing and routinizing class procedures because of the definite and convenient content of the textbook. It is easy to drift into the rut of "covering" so many pages each day, thus bringing about undesirable and deadening routine.[32]

Another traditional procedure in education which has received much criticism within recent years is the lecture. Although it is usually recognized that even the formal lecture may be of real value at the college level, such a technique is certainly unsuitable for elementary and secondary schools. A long discourse must be exceptionally interesting to hold the attention, especially if it is accompanied by detailed note-taking. But in its broader sense the lecture can be thought of as anything the teacher "tells," and as such it is a valuable technique of instruction at all academic levels, although caution must be exercised not to overwork it or to make it the primary teaching procedure, especially at the elementary and intermediate levels.

In European schools the formal lecture has been successful even at the lower levels because of highly skilled teachers, the careful selection of pupils, and the rigid

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[32] *Ibid.*, p. 490.

discipline maintained in the schools. It seems to have been only natural that the lecture should be transplanted to America, along with the many other phases of educational and cultural heritage which found root here. Whereas the formal lecture emphasizes the pre-eminence of the teacher in the educational program, the present tendency in the United States is to have the teacher as far in the background as possible. However, there is still a place for the lecture method, when used with discretion. The lecture as a teaching and learning device is often carried to the extreme on the elementary and intermediate levels; if the teacher cannot think of anything else to do, if he lacks initiative, or if he is a rigid disciplinarian, he lectures and requires the pupils to pay close attention to what he says.

Although the use of the lecture method varies with the different academic subjects, there appears to be more justification for its use in the social studies than in most other subjects. The very nature of the subject matter in this field, the vast scope of content, and the complex interrelationships that should be understood make it easy for the pupil to become lost and confused in a maze of facts. In such situations the lecture can be used frequently to clarify, to point out relationships, and to suggest practical applications of the facts being learned.

The uses of the lecture have been summarized in the following manner:

> 1. To give overview of a large unit, large topic, or large division of the course.
> 2. To aid and supplement the pupils' reading.
> 3. To give a background of a topic so that the pupils might more intelligently undertake their work.
> 4. To save time for the pupil so that he will have a greater amount of time for more significant study.
> 5. To arouse interest in the pupil.
> 6. To give an intelligent assignment.
> 7. To make summaries.[33]

It is interesting to note the similarity between the above list of uses of the lecture method and the list of "values" assigned to the lecture by the Texas State Department of Education, as follows:

> 1. To give an overview of the next lesson or of a longer period or unit to be taken up.
> 2. To give the class some practice in the art of taking notes.
> 3. To supply necessary information when the library is inadequate or when the subject is such that the teacher can best present it to the class.
> 4. To unfold and illustrate a point of view.
> 5. To evoke enthusiasm or whole-hearted sanction or condemnation.[34]

Wesley, an outstanding authority concerning the teaching of the social studies, sees several advantages in the wise use of the lecture. These are as follows:

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[33] Bining and Bining, op. cit., pp. 79-80.

[34] Texas State Department of Education, The Teaching of History and Other Social Subjects, Bulletin No. 260, 1929, pp. 17-18.

1. The spoken word is usually far more effective than the printed.

2. The lecture adapts itself to immediate repetition for emphasis and to modification for clarity.

3. It provides experience in listening.

4. The lecture can save time in many classroom situations.

5. The lecture requires adequate preparation on the part of the teacher -- an advantage which is readily transferred to the class.

6. The lecture serves as a stimulus to the more capable pupils to work out projects or to do original study or research.[35]

In conjunction with Wesley's list of advantages for the lecture should be given his analysis of disadvantages:

1. Extensive use of the lecture tends to substitute the teacher for the pupil in the learning situation.

2. Excessive use of the lecture tends to substitute the teacher for the textbook and for related reference materials.

3. The lecture places too great reliance upon vicarious learning.

4. The lecture lessens the pupils' opportunity to

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[35]Wesley, Teaching the Social Studies, pp. 496-497.

learn by doing and by their own study.

5. The lecture quickly develops into deadening monotony.[36]

Similar disadvantages of the lecture have been pointed out by the Texas State Department of Education as follows:

> 1. The great objection to the lecture method is that the teacher gets more benefit from the recitation than anyone else. Stenographic notes on class procedure reveal the fact that the teacher nearly always talks more than all the pupils together.
> 2. The pupils are deprived of all activity and self-expression.
> 3. The pupil is deprived of an opportunity to think for himself, to judge for himself, and to develop historical skills.
> 4. Self-activity and self-expression are repressed, and probably much undesirable learning is going on. There is nothing that could be a challenge to the class.[37]

The use of questions has always been recognized as an important phase of the instructional procedure. Authorities assert that the most effective questioning by the teacher occurs in the class in which the pupils are encouraged to ask questions of their own, and always feel free to do so. The fundamental condition which is necessary to induce pupils to ask questions is their faith that the teacher can answer them or can help them to find the answers for themselves. Only in rare cases will pupils ask questions for the deliberate purpose of embarrassing their

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[36] Ibid., pp. 497-498.

[37] Texas State Department of Education, op. cit., pp. 17-18.

instructor. The question is a natural expression of the thinking mind, and is to be encouraged in all educational situations. The most effective way to answer questions is to give assistance to the pupils in discovering the answers for themselves. When pupils can be inspired to ask the teacher for help in finding the answer rather than to give the ready-made answer verbally, vital learning situations result. But even so, there will be many questions in a normal educational situation which the teacher will answer forthrightly. When the teacher, because of timidity, over-cautiousness, or ignorance, fails too frequently to answer questions, he will soon discover that he no longer has any to answer. At the same time the teacher who does not receive a number of unsolicited questions should seriously examine his instructional methods.[38]

Wesley has listed twelve functions of the question-and-answer method in teaching the social studies:

1. To test the pupil's preparation of his lesson.
2. To discover errors and misunderstandings.
3. To provide review and drill.
4. To stimulate interest.
5. To supply incentives.
6. To emphasize important points.
7. To develop varied types of thinking.
8. To afford the pupil an opportunity to talk.
9. To establish relationships.
10. To develop an organization of content.

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[38]Wesley, Teaching the Social Studies, pp. 465-466.

11. To insure proper interpretations.
12. To secure attention.[39]

Another teaching technique often employed in the field of the social studies is that of the socialized recitation. In this situation the teacher functions as a guide, a director, and a co-operator, rather than a taskmaster, a tester, and a disciplinarian. Careful planning on the part of the teacher and the making of suggestions calling for the co-operation and activity of the pupils are the most characteristic phases of class management in so far as the instructor is concerned. Social routine takes the place of teacher-dictated routine. Specific responsibilities for the pupils are arranged for largely by the pupils themselves, usually by means of committees to make over-all plans. By making frequent changes in the personnel of committee membership, all pupils are given the experience of group leadership, of social co-operation, and of observation and constructive criticism of individual efforts.[40]

Important features of the socialized recitation have been summarized as follows:

1. Guidance of a discussion under the leadership of a student chairman.
2. Specific materials presented by a few leaders, usually as directed or planned by a student program committee.

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[39] Ibid., p. 460.

[40] Stormzand and Lewis, op. cit., pp. 78-79.

3. A common background of information familiar to all members of the class.
4. Free, random, informal, but courteous discussion of ideas or questions presented by pupil program committee, discussion leaders, or chairman.
5. Occasional interruptions by the teacher to control and direct the pupil discussion.[41]

In the broader sense, any class session which exhibits evidence of group consciousness and the feeling of individual responsibility toward the group is a socialized recitation. In this form of class procedure the period is not one in which the teacher monopolizes the floor, but one in which the feeling of co-operation among the group in accomplishing the work at hand is the dominant motive. Although the socialized recitation as it has existed in its more liberal forms in the educational plan has been criticized because it seems a step toward the elimination of the teacher from the classroom, such is not the case, for the pupils are always in need of guidance from an experienced leader. The teacher may become an exceedingly active member of the group, not dominating but tactfully guiding and suggesting; and he may often serve advantageously as chairman during the class periods.[42]

Since the prime objective of the social studies, as of education itself, is to produce worthy citizens for the American democracy, it follows logically that pupils should

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[41] Ibid., pp. 89-90.

[42] Bining and Bining, op. cit., pp. 150-151.

be trained in developing an interest in and an understanding of events that are happening round about them in their local communities, in the nation, and in the world. In the social studies considerable progress has been made in this direction in recent years by the use of so-called "current events," which consist either of clippings or articles from newspapers or magazines or of a systematic study of specially published newspapers available to the schools and carefully edited for the different grade levels. In the lower grades these prepared newspapers serve a vital purpose, since the pupils on these levels may not be able to read regular newspapers with any degree of proficiency. In the intermediate grades and especially on the secondary level, the pupils usually prefer to select their reports from the daily press or to summarize some pertinent magazine article. Thus initiative is encouraged and originality fostered.

> Current events began to find a place in the curriculum of the . . . school just prior to the outbreak of the [first] World War, but it was that catastrophe which gave the impetus to the introduction of the subject into a large number of schools. . . . Americans began to realize their ignorance, not only of international events and happenings, but also of the national problems that were before their eyes.
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> In view of the ignorance about current issues, many regarded the school as failing in its task of teaching pupils to understand the complex world in which they lived. About the same time the demand was made that all courses of instruction in the schools should be practical and should prove this through their functional values. Many believed that the study of current happenings and problems would aid pupils to understand their political, economic,

> and social environment and prepare them for useful living. In view of all this it was not hard for current events to find its way into the curriculum. The teaching of this subject has become contagious, so that today we find it endorsed by most educators, included in courses of study all over the country, and required by law in many states.[43]

To make history vital, to enable the pupil to read newspapers and magazines intelligently, and to enable the pupil to realize and understand the major problems of the world in which he lives are perhaps the aims of major importance in the use of current events in the social studies.[44]

> The possibilities of using present-day events as a basis for the problem method in social studies materials far exceed the traditional uses and aims. Scarcely a week goes by that the average . . . student cannot find something of vital interest to himself and most of his classmates in the news of the day. School journals issued for current-events purposes never lack for materials of this sort. The value of such reading for both the immediate and the ultimate objectives of the social studies teacher have been greatly underestimated. From the point of view of motivating immediate interests in social science lessons, or for the more remote objective of training for future intelligent citizenship, the study, the discussions, the explanations of present-day problems can be made vitally practical. The future citizen can be made to realize that history in the making is not mere novelty, not mere news to report to his classmates, but that it is the human action that has present significance to him and will become history only if it has importance in the lives of those who will follow; that these events are brought about by men; that, if they are desirable, other men can promote them, if not, that men change them. He comes to realize that history in the making is citizenship in action, for better or for worse.[45]

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[43] Ibid., pp. 261-262.

[44] Ibid., p. 264.

[45] Stormzand and Lewis, op. cit., pp. 49-50.

If an event which occurs at the present time will help to develop an understanding of the past, that event should be known. More than this, it should be considered in its relationships to past, present, and future events. It is also essential that pupils be taught to read newspapers and magazines to assist them in understanding the problems of the present. Today more than ever before is there an acute need to understand the problems of life. Human environment and man's activities have become increasingly complex, and if democracy is to be successful, if the many problems are to be solved, it is necessary that Americans be familiar with what is happening in the world and with possible solutions for the many problems. The settlement of these questions requires critical thinking and unbiased judgment as well as a discriminating electorate and an educated public opinion.[46] All of these considerations become vital phases of the use of current events in the social studies.

One of the most revolutionary conceptions in modern education is the widespread use of various types of visual and audio-visual aids. Such aids are particularly valuable in the natural and in the social sciences, in which so many understandings are essential and in which so many relationships should be accurately comprehended. "One look-see is

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[46]Bining and Bining, op. cit., p. 265.

worth a hundred tellings," according to an old Chinese proverb whose truth is being demonstrated daily in hundreds of classrooms throughout the nation.

Eight steps in the effective use of visual aids have been formulated by Wesley, as follows:

1. Use visual aids as supplementary learning devices and not as substitutes for teaching.

2. Select the type of visual aid that promises to be most helpful in the particular learning situation.

3. Plan the use of the aid in such a careful way as to have it appear at the most opportune stage of the learning process.

4. Prepare the class for the intelligent use of the visual aid by telling them what to look for.

5. Introduce the aid by reminding the children of the problem or situation which seemed to call for the use of the particular aid now about to be experienced.

6. Discuss and explain the aid so as to assure its effectiveness.

7. Review the results of the demonstration.

8. Measure the results.[47]

> Visual aids properly used cannot justly be regarded as supplementary learning; they are fundamental. They furnish experience; they facilitate the association of object and word; they save the pupil's time; they provide simple and authentic

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[47]Wesley, Teaching the Social Studies, p. 341.

> information; they enrich and extend one's appreciation; they furnish pleasant entertainment; they provide a simplified view of complicated data; they stimulate the imagination; and they develop the pupil's power of observation. Visual aids may need explanations, but they do not need translators; they speak a universal language of form, color, position, and motion. They constitute one of the royal roads to learning.[48]

Such visual devices as the stereopticon, glass slides, and filmstrips are especially advantageous in teaching the social studies. Since these aids adapt themselves to prolonged observation and can be carefully studied for lengthy periods of time if desired, they are particularly valuable for conveying concepts of details. They are excellent for presenting buildings, statues, ruins, paintings, roads, bridges, dress and costumes, weapons, and various types of scenes in which motion is not important. They are especially effective for showing phases and scenes of ancient and medieval history and for emphasizing any concrete object, as well as maps, graphs, and charts.[49]

Visual and auditory aids, such as maps, globes, charts, graphs, models, mounted pictures, specimens, slides, slide-films, filmstrips, sound and silent motion pictures, radio programs, and recordings have demonstrated their effectiveness both in and out of school as educational devices. Yet too few of these newer tools of learning have been readily

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[48] Ibid., pp. 340-341.

[49] Bining and Bining, op. cit., p. 317.

available to teachers, and their use has been all too limited.[50] Some of these aids, particularly motion pictures and other types of projections, involve considerable expense, but no teacher today has any excuse for not employing the more common and inexpensive visual aids such as may be found in every community and in every school library, no matter how limited.

In the past half century the motion picture has risen to the point where it is the most popular of all forms of recreation, and now it is rapidly assuming a pre-eminent position in the educational world. At the World's Fair held in Chicago in 1893 Thomas A. Edison exhibited his new "kinetograph," which flashed a series of pictures on a wall, the speed of their motion varying with the speed with which the operator turned the crank which operated the crude machine. Before long Edison had so greatly improved his invention that it was widely used for entertainment purposes, especially after he had equipped it with electric power. The use of motion pictures in the schools dates from the period of the first World War, but not until the years immediately preceding the second World War were they widely used for educational purposes. The "vitaphone" or talking motion pictures appeared commercially in 1927, but "sound"

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[50] National Council for the Social Studies, op. cit., p. 32.

motion pictures were not used at all in the schools until the early 1930's. Now manufacturers are producing many various models of projectors at comparatively low prices, which make it possible for many schools to utilize the motion picture, either with or without sound, as a teaching aid. Films are somewhat expensive to rent or buy, but many large business interests have produced innumerable excellent films containing a minimum of advertising, which may be obtained and used by schools by the mere payment of shipping charges. So, if a school has its own projection equipment, many fine films can be shown at practically no cost.

Whenever any highly successful educational device is perfected and becomes widely accepted, there is a tendency for some teachers to regard it as a panacea for the solution of all instructional problems and to use it to excess. Lest this should happen in the case of the motion picture, it should be remembered that

> The motion picture in any form cannot be more than a visual aid. But as an aid it has much value, for from it the pupil may receive an emotional and concrete basis for mental abstrections which is often more adequate than collateral reading or reference work.[51]

It has been proved by experimentation that audio-visual experiences help pupils to gain correct concepts in a shorter period of time than in instances in which such aids

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[51]Bining and Bining, op. cit., p. 314.

are not employed. D. C. Knowlton and J. W. Tilton in their extensive research with American history films (reported in their book, Motion Pictures in History Teaching), found that the experimental groups taught with the aid of films not only learned more than the groups which did not see the films, but that members of the experimental group actually completed the minimum essentials of the courses in less time. The estimated saving in a forty-week school year was one and one-half weeks.[52]

> Much has been claimed for the use of motion pictures, not only in history, but in the other social studies as well. Films on social life, on industrial activity, and on civic affairs may now be obtained. It has been claimed that the proper use of motion pictures in the schools is the best way to portray life in movement whether of the past or the present. They stimulate the imagination of the pupils and arouse interest which leads to increasing mental effort. They aid the memory, help in assimilation, and have many other values because they present material closer to reality than the presentation of the teacher, the text, or reference books. As to the place motion pictures will occupy in the teaching of the social studies and in school work in general, only the future can tell. The expense has been the chief factor in preventing the general use of this excellent visual aid.[53]

Another valuable technique in the teaching of the social studies, and one which is closely related to and often includes visual aids, is the use of community resources in

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[52]William H. Hartley, "The Use of Audio-visual Aids in Individualizing Instruction," Adapting Instruction in the Social Studies to Individual Differences, Fifteenth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies, 1944, p. 101.

[53]Bining and Bining, op. cit., p. 317.

making the social-studies program more meaningful and vital. Some teachers, even in these modern progressive days, feel that to transform the community into a social-studies laboratory requires too much time, and therefore they are apt to look with disfavor and skepticism upon the use of community resources in the educational program.

Admittedly, the utilization of community resources for educational purposes does require much time for careful planning and for using procedures that will bring the best possible results; but, at the same time, the rewards to be derived from a conscientious use of the community as an aid to teaching and learning nullify any objections and render highly worth-while any time devoted to this phase of education. Community resources provide an opportunity to obtain first-hand information, stimulating ideas, and new experiences, as well as topics or questions to be studied. "Through the use of community resources pupils discover important matters to discuss, read about, write about, and do something about."[54] Teaching and learning are vitalized and made more meaningful when community resources are utilized. At the same time, good school-and-community relations are fostered, since parents and other laymen participate in the program of the school, either by visiting the class or by having the class visit them in their places of

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[54]Anderson, op. cit., p. 37.

business. Usually both teacher and pupils will be amazed at what the community affords in the way of educational materials; and they are all readily available to the school.

> The community should be the laboratory in which the children in the school learn; only in this way can the greatest educational gain be achieved. The way in which this is done, however, will vary from school to school and from teacher to teacher. Unless community study is based on sound theory and practice, it will degenerate into a fad. Above all, the teacher must be careful to go only so far as he is ready to go. In our enthusiasm, we tend to dive in headfirst before we find our depth. Some teachers will use the community only to furnish illustrations for textbook topics; others will use the textbook only as background material for community activities. Some few able teachers will be able to organize class activities entirely about community agencies. Whatever technique is used, the teacher must feel that he is master of the method he employs.[55]

Every community, no matter how small, possesses a variety of resources which are useful in the social studies. These resources include people with exceptional talents or hobbies, vocations, skills, experiences, collections, films, and pictures, who have something to show or demonstrate or tell about. Also, they include community institutions and agencies of local government, business, industry, religion, and public service. Opportunities to study conservation of wild life, forests, soils, irrigation, and human beings are also at hand. Furthermore, the geographic, geological, and

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[55] Julian C. Aldrich, "The Teacher Explores the Community," Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies, Ninth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies, 1938, p. 23.

botanical resources are not to be neglected. Of importance also are the historical resources, illustrated by historical sites and museums, old papers, documents, records, and the like.[56]

> Carefully chosen community activities should have a part in the classwork of every teacher. On whatever the level of difficulty and in whatever the curriculum organization, every teacher can utilize community resources. To fail to do so is to neglect the richest educational material available. Before the teacher introduces the community to the classroom, however, he will want to explore it for himself. And that exploration will be a thrilling experience.[57]

Community resources useful for instructional purposes may be divided into physical phenomena, social institutions, and such intangibles as customs, beliefs, and traditions. Whereas in many instances there is no sharp line of distinction between these groups, there is the general difference that exists between tangible external objects on the one hand and intangible ideas, customs, institutions, and functions on the other. Among the physical phenomena that merit attention are hills, soil, lakes, roads, stores, banks, factories, churches, hospitals, and historical sites. As examples of tangible institutions may be named families, schools, clubs, parties, courts of law, organizations, and unions. Instances of intangibles are the practices in courtship, the attitudes toward amusements, labor, politics,

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[56]Anderson, op. cit., p. 37.

[57]Aldrich, op. cit., p. 25.

racial groups, and religion, and the beliefs in private property, democracy, and economic opportunity. Thus it is seen that the community consists of the functioning agencies and ideas as well as of the physical phenomena.[58]

As a significant means of utilizing community resources for educational purposes, the school field trip should be recognized and utilized, particularly by social-studies classes.

> The school field trip, taken in connection with and closely correlated with the topic being studied, should prove to be an effective device in bringing out the best in each individual pupil. Properly planned and conducted, the field trip offers not only an opportunity to view social and historical phenomena in their natural settings, but it also should stimulate pupils to a variety of activities. These activities should furnish an opportunity for the individual to express himself according to his own peculiar abilities. Too often the only followup activity in connection with school trips has been a teacher-required essay on "What I Liked Best on Our Trip." A well-drawn plan of an historical site, a poem written after a visit to the slums, or a series of pupil-made photographs may show even more penetration, synthesis or factual knowledge than the essay. In individual work lies the opportunity for each pupil to add to the group knowledge in his own way. For example, this may be the opportunity for the fellow who finds it difficult to put his feelings into words to express himself through the medium of cartoon, sketch, or model.[59]

A carefully planned field trip -- and it will be of little value if it is not carefully planned -- involves (1) adequate preparation of the class as to what they will

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[58]Wesley, Teaching the Social Studies, p. 414.

[59]Hartley, op. cit., p. 103.

see and what they should look for; (2) arrangements in advance, when necessary, with those in charge of the places to be visited; (3) adherence to a carefully planned procedure during the visit; and (4) checking and synthesizing the results of the trip into the larger pattern of the total instructional program.[60] If these steps are followed in connection with each field trip, they will yield highly worthwhile benefits.

> The demand that instruction be localized, that the teacher in Ailon use materials and resources which he would not use in Zenia, has very properly received great attention. The idea that the community is an elastic concept, varying in size and scope in accordance with the element under consideration, has been well-nigh universally accepted. The community as an epitome of the world, as a laboratory of available materials, and as the local manifestation of the generalities of the curriculum has been appreciated by many social studies teachers. The techniques of surveying and utilizing the community have been stated and restated. The significance of field trips and community relations has been broadened and deepened.[61]

Thus, in the pages of this chapter, certain phases of the progressive manner of teaching the social studies have been surveyed. The information herein presented served as a guide for setting up the experimental class in eighth-grade social studies with which this report deals. Also in this chapter are numerous references to traditional methods of teaching the social studies, with special reference

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[60] Wesley, Teaching the Social Studies, p. 421.

[61] Ibid., p. 53.

to the textbook and question-and-answer procedures, which were utilized in the control class for the current study.

CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION OF TRADITIONAL AND PROGRESSIVE PRACTICES IN THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Whereas the preceding chapter presented a digest of literature relating to concepts and practices involved in the traditional and progressive methods of teaching the social studies, it is the purpose of the present chapter to analyze the results of teaching the social studies by the traditional and the progressive methods.

As has been stated in Chapter I, this study was set up on the basis of two classes in the social studies at the eighth-grade level in the junior high school at Graham, Texas. Throughout the duration of the experiment, both classes remained constant in personnel, each containing twenty-five pupils, paired as accurately as possible on the basis of intelligence quotients. One class was conducted along strictly traditional lines of instruction, including the rigid use of the textbook and of the question-and-answer type of recitation. The other class, taught by the same instructor, was conducted on modern lines as a progressive enterprise in social-studies learning. In this group

such modern instructional techniques as the socialized recitation, current events, field trips, class projects, and many types of visual aids were employed. A series of ten subject-matter tests was administered to both classes during the period of the experiment. All these tests were devised by the investigator and were identical for both classes. These tests were used as the means of measuring progress and achievement in the acquisition of fundamental facts in the social studies at the eighth-grade level. In the present chapter the results of these tests are analyzed and compared in an effort to determine whether the progressive method of teaching the social studies tends to be more effectual in the acquisition of information in the field than is the traditional method. It is recognized, of course, that such an experiment with such a small number of pupils and lasting for only one semester cannot be expected to produce any conclusive evidence, but perhaps it can make a slight addition to the total research in the field and possibly point out an apparent trend with relation to what appears, within the limits of this study, to be the better method of teaching the social studies at the eighth-grade level.

In addition to the subject-matter tests formulated by the teacher, the social-studies sections of the Stanford Achievement Test were administered to both classes, once in

September, 1948, at the beginning of the experiment, and again in February, 1949, at the time of its conclusion. Results of this standardized test for both groups are compared.

Table 1 indicates the pairing of the fifty pupils as to intelligence quotients. It is apparent that many of the pairs are identical matches according to intelligence quotients, whereas others vary from one to three points, never exceeding three points of difference. A comparison of the intelligence quotients for the two groups leaves the impression that the control group had the higher total and average intelligence quotients, since fifteen members of this class had intelligence quotients of one hundred or above, while twelve members of the experimental group had intelligence quotients of one hundred or over. But an addition of the intelligence quotients for the two classes shows a total variation of only three points in favor of the control group; but when the average intelligence quotients were determined by mathematical calculation to the first decimal point, the average intelligence quotient for both groups was found to be identical, namely, 98.4. Thus it is shown that the two classes included in the experiment were equalized as to intelligence, in so far as standardized tests can be accepted as valid.

TABLE 1

INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS OF PUPILS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP COMPARED WITH THOSE OF PUPILS IN THE CONTROL GROUP, LISTED ACCORDING TO PAIRED INDIVIDUALS

Pupil Number	Intelligence Quotient	
	Experimental	Control
1	119	118
2	114	116
3	111	112
4	110	110
5	110	110
6	108	108
7	106	106
8	104	104
9	103	103
10	103	103
11	101	101
12	101	101
13	99	100
14	99	100
15	98	100
16	96	97
17	95	94
18	95	94
19	92	91
20	92	90
21	89	87
22	88	87
23	86	86
24	82	85
25	71	69
Total I. Q....	2462	2465
Average I. Q..	98.4	98.4

Table 2 lists the scores made on the first subject-matter test by the fifty eighth-grade pupils included in the study. For the experimental group the scores ranged from forty-five to ninety, while those for the control group ranged from twenty-five to eighty-five. The average score for the experimental group was 73.2, whereas that for the control group was 60.6 -- a difference of 12.6 points in favor of the experimental group. Preceding the administration of this test to both groups, the experimental class was engaged in a unit project and dealt with the fundamental subject matter by means of socialized recitations. At the beginning of the school session the publication Current Events was ordered for every member of the experimental class, and was used regularly throughout the duration of the experiment. Preceding the first test, the control group used the textbook in daily study, answered questions propounded by the teacher, and had written assignments to answer on paper the questions listed in the textbook at the ends of chapters.

The questions for the second test were based upon the history textbook, The Story of American Democracy. Again the control group used the textbook and the formalized recitation in daily study, but the experimental group was working on a unit entitled "How May We Help to Gain the Proper Respect in Our School Work for the Law and Order in Our

TABLE 2

SCORES MADE ON THE FIRST TEST BY PUPILS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS, ARRANGED ACCORDING TO PAIRED INDIVIDUALS

Pupil Number	Test Scores	
	Experimental	Control
1	90	85
2	80	70
3	90	40
4	70	70
5	80	65
6	60	80
7	80	70
8	80	50
9	75	80
10	85	60
11	80	..
12	85	60
13	75	65
14	70	75
15	50	65
16	80	50
17	60	25
18	60	70
19	80	75
20	70	65
21	70	50
22	70	60
23	70	65
24	45	50
25	75	80
Total.....	1830	1515
Average.....	73.2	60.6

Country Which Our Forefathers Worked So Hard to Establish, and Thereby Be Able to Prove Our Appreciation for Our Heritage?" Socialized recitations were employed regularly.

Table 3 reveals that when the second subject-matter test was given, scores for members of the experimental class ranged from fifty-five to ninety-five, while those for the control group ranged from seventy to ninety-five. On this test the control class made a higher average score (83.0) than the experimental class (76.6) -- a difference of 6.4 points.

The third test was given after a study of the section of the history textbook entitled "Discovery and Colonization," including people of the New World, the establishment of the English colonies in America, and life in the colonies. Both classes studied the early background of American history, the experimental group using study sheets, charts, and maps, and the control group spending most of its time in reading the textbook and in participating in formalized recitations.

Table 4 reveals that scores on the third subject-matter test for the experimental group ranged from fifty to one hundred, whereas those for the control group ranged from twenty-five to one hundred, with the average scores being 76.2 for the experimental class and 61.2 for the control class -- a difference of 15.0 points in favor of the experimental group.

TABLE 3

SCORES MADE ON THE SECOND TEST BY PUPILS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS, ARRANGED ACCORDING TO PAIRED INDIVIDUALS

Pupil Number	Test Scores	
	Experimental	Control
1	90	80
2	95	85
3	90	85
4	80	80
5	90	90
6	70	85
7	95	80
8	75	85
9	75	80
10	80	85
11	65	95
12	80	80
13	70	80
14	80	80
15	55	80
16	70	75
17	95	95
18	85	75
19	70	90
20	55	85
21	70	70
22	70	80
23	70	95
24	75	80
25	65	80
Total.....	1915	2075
Average.....	76.6	83.0

TABLE 4

SCORES MADE ON THE THIRD TEST BY PUPILS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS, ARRANGED ACCORDING TO PAIRED INDIVIDUALS

Pupil Number	Test Scores	
	Experimental	Control
1	90	80
2	95	90
3	80	35
4	85	85
5	85	55
6	75	75
7	75	85
8	100	35
9	60	95
10	85	60
11	70	70
12	80	70
13	80	40
14	80	60
15	65	100
16	65	35
17	100	50
18	70	35
19	50	50
20	70	80
21	65	60
22	80	40
23	75	75
24	55	45
25	70	25
Total.....	1905	1530
Average.....	76.2	61.2

Before the fourth subject-matter test was administered to the two classes, the experimental group worked on a unit entitled "How May We Help Create an Appreciation Among Our Fellowmen for the Freedom and Equality That We Enjoy, Which Are So Different from Those under Which the Students of Russia and of Russia-controlled Territories Are Reared?" Materials used included newspaper clippings, the publication Current Events, graphs, charts, maps, and daily readings of related materials. The socialized method of procedure was utilized. This unit was being developed during the time of the presidential election in the United States, which provided many opportunities for the use of newspaper and magazine materials and for the collection of information contrasting American elections with political methods practiced in Russia and in other totaliterian nations. While the experimental class was becoming deeply interested in current happenings here in America, the control group permitted events to pass virtually unnoticed, and devoted rigid attention to the civics textbook and to formalized recitations, including the writing of answers to questions listed in the book.

Table 5 shows that when the fourth test was given to the two classes, the experimental group made scores ranging from sixty to one hundred, whereas the control group recorded scores of seventy-five to one hundred. The average

TABLE 5

SCORES MADE ON THE FOURTH TEST BY PUPILS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS, ARRANGED ACCORDING TO PAIRED INDIVIDUALS

Pupil Number	Test Scores	
	Experimental	Control
1	..	95
2	100	90
3	90	85
4	90	95
5	100	90
6	100	95
7	90	95
8	85	85
9	95	95
10	80	95
11	80	90
12	100	90
13	80	95
14	95	95
15	90	100
16	85	..
17	..	90
18	100	90
19	90	75
20	90	90
21	100	85
22	85	75
23	100	..
24	90	85
25	60	75
Total.....	2075	2055
Average.....	90.2	89.3

scores for the two classes were almost identical -- 90.2 for the experimental group and 89.3 for the control group -- although there was 0.9 of a point difference in favor of the experimental group.

The fifth test was somewhat of a review over the colonial period of American history, the growth of American democracy, and new inventions which came into existence during that era. The experimental group did considerable reading from various sources, but the control group used only the textbook and formal recitations.

Table 6 indicates the scores made on the fifth test. An examination of the scores reveals that the experimental group made scores ranging from sixty-five to one hundred, whereas the control group made scores ranging from sixty to one hundred. Fifteen members of the experimental class made a score of one hundred, but only seven members of the control class made a perfect score. The average scores were 94.6 for the experimental group and 84.2 for the control group -- a difference of 10.4 points in favor of the experimental class.

Preceding the giving of the sixth test, both classes continued their study of the growth of American democracy, the experimental group using all related materials that it was possible to find, while the control group used only the textbook and the formalized recitation, together with the writing of answers to questions listed in the text.

TABLE 6

SCORES MADE ON THE FIFTH TEST BY PUPILS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS, ARRANGED ACCORDING TO PAIRED INDIVIDUALS

Pupil Number	Test Scores	
	Experimental	Control
1	100	100
2	100	100
3	100	75
4	100	85
5	100	60
6	90	90
7	100	100
8	100	45
9	100	85
10	100	100
11	100	90
12	65	85
12	90	85
14	100	100
15	90	100
16	100	80
17	100	75
18	100	80
19	85	90
20	75	100
21	100	85
22	80	85
23	85	80
24	..	60
25	90	70
Total.....	2270	2105
Average.....	94.6	84.2

In Table 7 are shown the scores made on the sixth test by members of both groups. Scores for the experimental class ranged from sixty-five to one hundred, whereas those for the control group ranged from thirty-five to one hundred. Average scores for the two classes were 84.4 and 78.1, respectively, for the experimental and control groups, indicating a difference of 6.3 points in favor of the experimental class.

Prior to the administration of the seventh test, the section studied in the textbook was that entitled "The Nation Divides and Unites." Again, the control group studied the textbook exclusively and engaged in the traditional type of recitations and written work, but the experimental class developed a unit entitled "How May We Aid in Establishing a Friendly Attitude between the People of the United States and Those of the Other Countries of the World So That a Lasting Peace May Be Established?" Much related reading was done in reference books and in current periodicals, and the unit appeared to be highly worth-while in the expression and development of wholesome concepts and attitudes. The nature of the unit was such that the experimental group tended to neglect the section of the textbook entitled "The Nation Divides and Unites" and to devote more time to the actual development of the unit from other sources. When the teacher formulated the questions for the seventh test, he

TABLE 7

SCORES MADE ON THE SIXTH TEST BY PUPILS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS, ARRANGED ACCORDING TO PAIRED INDIVIDUALS

Pupil Number	Test Scores	
	Experimental	Control
1	85	90
2	100	100
3	90	55
4	80	70
5	85	60
6	70	90
7	90	100
8	80	70
9	85	100
10	95	85
11	75	90
12	85	90
13	90	70
14	80	90
15	85	100
16	75	65
17	90	60
18	100	80
19	70	80
20	85	85
21	90	75
22	65	80
23	85	35
24	100	55
25	75	..
Total.....	2110	1875
Average.....	84.4	78.1

became aware of the diversity of material which had been utilized by the two groups, one using the textbook exclusively and the other practically ignoring the textbook, which was not closely related to the unit being developed. However, the questions set down, as for the other tests in the series, were based primarily upon the textbook, as this was the only teaching and learning device common to both classes. Hence it was no great surprise to find that the control group made better scores than did the experimental group on this particular test. Table 8 shows that scores for the experimental class ranged from sixty-five to ninety-five, whereas those for the control group ranged from sixty to ninety-five. However, the average scores for the two groups were 74.0 for the experimental and 81.6 for the control -- a difference of 7.6 points in favor of the control class.

Preceding the eighth test both classes studied methods of transportation and communication, the control group studying the geography test, while the experimental group developed a unit entitled "How May We Aid in Carrying on the Great Work Accomplished by the Different Means of Transportation in Making Our Nation a World Power on Land, in the Air, and on the Sea?" This class made field trips to visit the various systems of transportation available in the community, highway and railroad maps were used in the

TABLE 8

SCORES MADE ON THE SEVENTH TEST BY PUPILS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS, ARRANGED ACCORDING TO PAIRED INDIVIDUALS

Pupil Number	Test Scores	
	Experimental	Control
1	95	85
2	95	90
3	80	90
4	95	95
5	90	95
6	80	90
7	70	95
8	80	70
9	90	70
10	75	80
11	80	95
12	70	70
13	90	80
14	80	80
15	80	80
16	70	..
17	70	75
18	95	60
19	70	65
20	..	75
21	90	75
22	..	70
23	80	90
24	85	70
25	65	85
Total.....	1850	2040
Average.....	74.0	81.6

unit, and bus and train schedules were studied. The coverage of distance today was compared with that of earlier times. Pictures and movies were used in the experimental class at every opportunity during the development of the study of transportation and communication.

Table 9 shows the scores made by the two groups on the eighth test, the first of a series of three relating to transportation and communication. Scores for the experimental class ranged from seventy to one hundred, while those for the control class ranged from fifty to one hundred. The average scores for the two groups were 81.6 for the experimental and 73.2 for the control -- a difference of 8.4 points in favor of the experimental class.

Prior to the administration of the ninth test both classes continued their study of transportation and communication, the control group using only the textbook as source material, whereas the experimental class utilized, in addition to the text, field trips, work sheets, posters, projects, motion pictures, maps, and travel folders. Table 10 indicates that scores for the experimental group on the ninth test ranged from seventy to one hundred, with sixteen pupils making the perfect score. In the control group, however, the scores ranged from forty-five to ninety-five, with no perfect scores reported. The difference in average scores for the two groups was the largest noted for any of

TABLE 9

SCORES MADE ON THE EIGHTH TEST BY PUPILS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS, ARRANGED ACCORDING TO PAIRED INDIVIDUALS

Pupil Number	Test Scores	
	Experimental	Control
1	80	100
2	95	85
3	95	55
4	..	90
5	90	75
6	85	50
7	80	85
8	75	80
9	75	90
10	100	100
11	95	60
12	90	75
13	95	90
14	70	..
15	70	100
16	90	80
17	95	50
18	90	60
19	85	95
20	80	70
21	80	60
22	85	85
23	80	70
24	85	60
25	85	65
Total.....	2040	1830
Average.....	81.6	73.2

TABLE 10

SCORES MADE ON THE NINTH TEST BY PUPILS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS, ARRANGED ACCORDING TO PAIRED INDIVIDUALS

Pupil Number	Test Scores	
	Experimental	Control
1	100	95
2	100	75
3	100	60
4	100	60
5	100	45
6	100	60
7	100	95
8	95	75
9	80	95
10	100	70
11	100	70
12	80	75
13	100	65
14	90	65
15	85	85
16	100	65
17	95	60
18	100	55
19	100	70
20	95	60
21	100	60
22	100	75
23	100	50
24	75	45
25	70	45
Total.....	2365	1675
Average.....	94.6	67.0

the tests. For the experimental class the average score was 94.6, whereas that for the control class was 67.0 -- a difference of 27.6 points in favor of the experimental group.

But when the tenth test -- which was designed as a summary test over the study of transportation and communication -- was given, the average scores made by the two classes were almost identical. Table 11 shows that on this test the scores for the experimental group ranged from forty-five to ninety-five, while those for the control group ranged from fifty to one hundred. The average scores were 74.6 and 74.4, respectively, for the experimental and control groups, indicating a 0.2 point difference in favor of the experimental class.

Whereas the preceding ten tables have shown the individual scores and the average scores made by the two classes included in this study, Table 12 presents a comparison of the average scores made by the two groups on the ten tests formulated by the investigator as a means of determining, if possible, the comparable effectiveness of traditional and progressive techniques of teaching the social studies as indicated by the learning of factual information.

On all tests except the second and the seventh the experimental class made an average score higher than that made by the control class. On the fourth and tenth tests

TABLE 11

SCORES MADE ON THE TENTH TEST BY PUPILS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS, ARRANGED ACCORDING TO PAIRED INDIVIDUALS

Pupil Number	Test Scores	
	Experimental	Control
1	90	90
2	95	80
3	75	70
4	90	90
5	80	75
6	80	70
7	75	95
8	55	50
9	75	100
10	80	75
11	60	50
12	75	90
13	65	60
14	75	75
15	80	95
16	45	65
17	90	90
18	60	50
19	60	90
20	95	60
21	60	75
22	75	70
23	60	65
24	90	65
25	80	65
Total.....	1865	1860
Average.....	74.6	74.4

this difference in favor of the experimental group was so small as to be negligible in importance, but in the other instances the difference was rather pronounced. Of especial significance is the fact that, for all ten tests, the average score for the experimental group was 82.0, whereas that of the control group was 75.2. Thus the difference in average scores for the entire series of ten tests was 6.8 points in favor of the experimental class.

TABLE 12

AVERAGE SCORES MADE ON THE TEN TESTS BY THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Test	Average Score	
	Experimental	Control
First test.....	73.2	60.6
Second test....	76.6	83.0
Third test.....	76.2	61.2
Fourth test....	90.2	89.3
Fifth test.....	94.6	84.2
Sixth test.....	84.4	78.1
Seventh test...	74.0	81.6
Eighth test....	81.6	73.2
Ninth test.....	94.6	67.0
Tenth test.....	74.6	74.4
Average...	82.0	75.2

The administration of the Stanford Achievement Test to both classes included in the study provided the basis for certain interesting comparisons. The data for both submissions of this test (in September, 1948, and in February, 1949) are presented in Tables 13-16.

Tables 13 and 14 show the scores made on the three phases of the social-studies field included in the Stanford Achievement Test and the age and grade equivalents of the pupils in the experimental class at the time of the first and second administrations of the standardized test. It is significant that on the second test the average scores for the three social-studies phases of the test were somewhat higher than they were on the first administration of the test. As to grade equivalents as measured by the Stanford Achievement Test, only three pupils attained grade equivalents more advanced than the eighth grade in which they actually were classified, but in the second test nine pupils had grade equivalents above the level of their actual classification; that is, their understanding and comprehension of the social studies as measured by this particular test were more thorough than that to be expected of eighth-grade pupils.

TABLE 13

CHRONOLOGICAL AGES OF MEMBERS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP, SCORES MADE ON THE SOCIAL-STUDIES PHASES OF THE STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TEST AT THE TIME OF ITS FIRST ADMINISTRATION (SEPTEMBER, 1948), AND AGE AND GRADE EQUIVALENTS AS COMPUTED FROM THE RESULTS OF THE TEST

Pupil Number	Age	Social Studies Tests			Age Equivalent	Grade Equivalent
		I	II	Average		
1	12-4	71	87	79	16-0	11.0
2	12-8	63	59	61	12-0	7.0
3	13-1	59	63	61	12-0	7.0
4	13-1	61	62	62	12-2	7.2
5	13-6	55	76	66	13-1	8.1
6	13-5	53	66	60	11-10	6.8
7	13-9	70	87	79	16-0	11.0
8	14-3	57	75	66	13-1	8.1
9	13-9	71	66	69	13-9	8.8
10	13-7	64	66	65	12-10	7.8
11	13-0	57	62	60	11-10	6.8
12	14-4	75	79	77	15-10	10.9
13	13-10	63	70	67	13-3	8.3
14	13-9	48	62	55	10-11	5.9
15	13-1	63	65	64	12-8	7.6
16	13-10	50	62	56	11-0	6.0
17	13-7	53	56	55	10-11	5.9
18	13-2	55	63	59	11-7	6.6
19	13-8	52	60	56	11-0	6.0
20	13-11	50	58	54	10-10	5.8
21	13-11	46	52	49	10-2	5.1
22	14-6	64	58	61	12-0	7.0
23	13-11	62	63	63	12-5	7.4
24	14-8	52	70	61	12-0	7.0
25	14-10	50	60	55	10-11	5.9
Average..		58.5	65.9	62.4		

TABLE 14

SCORES MADE BY THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP ON THE SOCIAL STUDIES PHASES OF THE STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TEST AT THE TIME OF ITS SECOND ADMINISTRATION (FEBRUARY, 1949), AND AGE AND GRADE EQUIVALENTS AS COMPUTED FROM THE TEST RESULTS

Pupil Number	Social Studies Tests			Age Equivalent	Grade Equivalent
	I	II	Average		
1	76	84	80	16-3	11.3
2	63	68	66	13-1	8.1
3	58	68	63	12-5	7.4
4	72	78	75	15-4	10.3
5	65	76	70	14-0	9.0
6	63	63	63	12-5	7.4
7	68	84	76	15-7	10.6
8	65	74	70	14-0	9.0
9	68	72	70	14-0	9.0
10	82	63	73	14-9	9.8
11	63	61	62	12-2	7.2
12	58	76	67	13-3	8.3
13	66	60	63	12-5	7.4
14	61	66	64	12-8	7.6
15	58	61	60	11-10	6.8
16	63	63	63	12-5	7.4
17	61	60	61	12-0	7.0
18	72	74	73	14-9	9.8
19	62	61	62	12-2	7.2
20	57	61	59	11-7	6.6
21	45	53	49	10-2	5.1
22	58	58	58	11-5	6.4
23	64	76	70	14-0	9.0
24	57	55	56	11-0	6.0
25	59	46	53	10-8	5.6
Average	63.4	66.6	65.0		

Tables 15 and 16 indicate that members of the control class likewise showed perceptible gain in average scores when the second test was administered, as compared to their averages at the time of the first testing. With regard to grade equivalent, however, some retardation was noticeable. For instance, in the first test six pupils in the control group attained a grade equivalent above the eighth-grade level, whereas in the second testing only four pupils had a grade equivalent more advanced than the eighth-grade level at which they actually were classified at the time.

Thus it appears, from the results of both the teacher-formulated subject-matter tests and the Stanford Achievement Test, that the experimental class in this study tended to make better gains in social-studies concepts and information than did the control group in the study.

TABLE 15

CHRONOLOGICAL AGES OF MEMBERS OF THE CONTROL GROUP, SCORES MADE ON THE SOCIAL STUDIES PHASES OF THE STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TEST AT THE TIME OF ITS FIRST ADMINISTRATION (SEPTEMBER, 1948), AND AGE AND GRADE EQUIVALENTS AS COMPUTED FROM THE RESULTS OF THE TEST

Pupil Number	Age	Social Studies Tests			Age Equivalent	Grade Equivalent
		I	II	Average		
1	12-11	70	80	75	15-4	10.3
2	13-10	71	81	77	15-10	10.9
3	13-8	..	..	..	..	..
4	12-9	59	58	59	11-7	6.6
5	13-11	43	70	57	11-3	6.2
6	14-11	71	80	76	15-7	10.6
7	13-4	66	83	75	15-4	10.3
8	13-6	47	59	53	10-8	5.6
9	13-1	53	58	56	11-0	6.0
10	13-2	53	75	64	12-8	7.6
11	13-1	61	63	62	12-2	7.2
12	13-2	53	70	62	12-2	7.2
13	13-1	66	63	65	12-10	7.8
14	13-1	59	62	61	12-0	7.0
15	13-7	74	74	75	15-4	10.3
16	13-3	55	52	54	10-10	5.8
17	13-0	57	39	48	10-0	5.0
18	13-6	67	72	70	14-0	9.0
19	13-2	61	62	62	12-2	7.2
20	13-0	53	58	56	11-0	6.0
21	13-11	59	59	59	11-7	6.6
22	13-10	58	49	54	10-10	5.8
23	13-7	57	72	65	12-10	7.8
24	13-4	53	55	54	10-10	5.8
25	15-3	54	61	58	11-5	6.4
Average....		56.8	62.2	59.9		

TABLE 16

SCORES MADE BY THE CONTROL GROUP ON THE SOCIAL STUDIES PHASES OF THE STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TEST AT THE TIME OF ITS SECOND ADMINISTRATION (FEBRUARY, 1949), AND AGE AND GRADE EQUIVALENTS AS COMPUTED FROM THE TEST RESULTS

Pupil Number	Social Studies Tests			Age Equivalent	Grade Equivalent
	I	II	Average		
1	85	78	82	..	..
2	74	80	77	15-7	10.6
3	63	66	65	12-10	7.8
4	63	68	66	13-1	8.1
5	63	72	68	13-6	8.5
6	74	82	78	16-0	11.0
7	70	74	72	14-6	9.5
8	52	61	57	11-3	6.2
9	61	60	61	12-0	7.0
10	66	76	71	14-3	9.3
11	53	72	63	12-5	7.4
12	65	60	64	12-5	7.4
13	63	66	65	12-10	7.8
14	65	61	63	12-5	7.4
15	63	66	75	12-10	7.8
16	56	58	57	11-3	6.2
17	51	59	55	10-11	5.9
18	65	68	66	13-1	8.1
19	55	63	59	11-7	6.6
20	47	55	51	10-5	5.4
21	65	58	62	12-2	7.2
22	51	70	61	12-0	7.0
23	63	64	64	12-8	7.6
24	62	61	62	12-2	7.0
25	52	60	66	11-0	6.0
Average	61.0	66.7	64.8		

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine, if possible, which of the two methods of teaching the social studies -- progressive and traditional -- is the more effective teaching and learning procedure as measured by the acquisition of facts and information in the social-studies field at the eighth-grade level. In carrying out the study, two eighth-grade social-studies classes were organized in the junior high school of Graham, Texas, to be taught by the same instructor. Each class contained twenty-five pupils, selected according to corresponding intelligence quotients, so that the two classes would be balanced in so far as intelligence was concerned as measured by standardized tests. So accurately were the classes balanced as to intelligence that the average intelligence quotients for the two classes were identical, 98.4.

During the first semester of the 1948-1949 school session, a series of ten subject-matter tests was formulated by the teacher, to be used as measures of achievement for the two groups. The papers for each test were carefully

graded, and the average scores for the two classes were computed to the first decimal point. In the preceding chapter the test scores for both classes on the ten tests have been compared. Also, at the beginning and at the end of the semester, the Stanford Achievement Test, in its three social-studies phases, was administered to both groups, and the scores were carefully checked and compared.

In the discussion of the data, the class which was taught by traditional methods has been consistently referred to as the control group or the control class, while the class receiving instruction according to progressive concepts has been called the experimental group or the experimental class. It should be recalled that the control group used the textbook exclusively as its source of information in the social studies, and that recitations were formalized, consisting of questions and answers or of written answers to lists of questions appearing in the textbook. The experimental group, on the other hand, used not only the textbook as a basic reference but also many additional books, together with charts, maps, pictures, motion pictures, field trips, and class and individual projects. In this class the recitations were socialized.

Conclusions

In the light of the data presented in the preceding chapter, the following conclusions appear to be justified:

1. Within the limitations of this particular study, modern techniques in the teaching of the social studies yielded better results than did traditional practices. This fact is verified by the higher average scores made on eight of the ten subject-matter tests by the experimental group when compared with the average scores of the control group.

2. The results of the Stanford Achievement Test bore out the findings derived from the teacher-formulated subject-matter tests; that is, the class taught by modern methods made higher scores on the standardized achievement test than did the class instructed in the traditional manner.

3. The fact that both types of tests -- the teacher-formulated subject-matter series and the standardized achievement test -- resulted in a similar outcome appears to support the validity of the study within the bounds of its limitations.

4. In brief, this study indicates that progressive or modern methods of teaching the social studies at the eighth-grade level are more effective than traditional methods in so far as the retention and comprehension of facts and information in the field are concerned.

Recommendations

As a result of the outcomes of this study, the following recommendations are set forth for consideration:

1. Teachers of the social studies should acquaint themselves with all of the newer and more modern methods of teaching and of learning, and should familiarize themselves with the most effectual ways of presenting the social studies at the particular grade level at which they are working.

2. Although teachers should recognize the worth of modern methods, they should not become extremists, since it is evident that certain fundamental information and concepts are essential for understanding the broad field of the social studies. This means that the newer techniques of teaching -- such as projects, contracts, and visual aids -- are not to be accepted as ends in themselves, but rather as supplements to aid the pupil in comprehending and applying in practical situations the essential subject matter of the social studies.

3. Teachers who still teach the social studies by means of traditional practices should realize that they may be deliberately denying their pupils certain rich and meaningful experiences which, in a more modern learning situation, tend to arouse interest and to foster wholesome attitudes and concepts.

4. Much additional research should be conducted in the field to add further enlightenment on the problem of

which of the two methods of teaching the social studies -- the modern or the traditional -- is the more effective.

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