THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY SCHOOL
TO A PROPOSAL FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF CORE PROGRAMS
IN THE CAMPUS SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF KOREA

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
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School of The Ohio State University

By

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* * * * * *

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The most significant event in the four thousand years of Korean history is, in the writer's opinion, the introduction of a democratic form of government with the inauguration of the Republic of Korea August 15, 1948. This was the most significant event not only because the people were given freedom, equality, and the right to participate in organizing and running their own government but also because this event brought to the people responsibility for contributing to the establishment of a free world.

During the ten years since the inauguration of the Republic, numerous accomplishments have been made by the government and the people, but at the same time there have been countless difficulties and frustrations encountered in many aspects of national life. These problems are still acute and will remain so unless positive action is taken by the people to overcome their difficulties.

The division of the land and consequent insecurity in the nation's economy, the Communist invasion, conflicts in beliefs and values, and inadequate educational conditions are some of the major factors which are intermingled to cause the difficulties and frustrations. However, a keen observer might point to the fact that the people lack training in democracy as one of the most serious weaknesses. It is one which has prevented the people from solving their problems, and one which has
interfered with the growth of democracy itself. While a superficial consideration of statistics might reveal a very high percentage of people participating in various kinds of elections, this high percentage does not guarantee high quality participation nor does it guarantee that the people make adequate contribution to the operation of the government.

Confucianism, feudalism, and dictatorship have made such a great impact on the personality of the Korean people that the change in the form of government made in 1948 has not altered to any great extent their values and attitudes. Even if the people could have been convinced of the fact that they were guaranteed the right to enjoy their equality and freedom, and to participate in running their own government, very few knew how to enjoy and use these privileges for the common good. Today, after a ten-year trial, the situation is much better. But, in fact, how much progress toward democratization could be expected, even in ten years, from a country which has been under continuous threats of invasion by the Communist forces?

If one recognizes the well-accepted fact that the narrow political concept of democracy must be reinterpreted and reoriented in order to achieve the more inclusive concept of "democracy as a way of life," he may be forced to conclude that Korea has a long way to go before it could claim to be a genuinely democratic country. Since the way in which people live their everyday life affects the character of the government which they operate, the degree of democracy in the government of a people will be dependent upon the extent to which the people are able to live democratically in the many aspects of their daily living.
Democracy as a way of life does not exist in any formality but it does exist in the quality with which men feel, think, make judgments, and act for the welfare of all people. Optimum development of each individual is an ideal of democratic society. Individual differences and variations are recognized and respected. As one has the right and freedom to grow to a maximum degree, so does he have the obligation to regard the same right and freedom for other individuals.

Democracy as a way of life implies the use of reflective thinking as the method by which the individual directs himself and participates with the group in solving its problems and in directing its course of action through cooperative efforts. In fact, the strength of a democratic society lies in the ability and freedom of each individual to think reflectively and to share the outcomes of his thinking with others.

The optimum development of each individual as a goal of democratic society and its reliance upon reflective thinking as the method of directing changes in the individual and the society presuppose the need of men for cooperative living. Cooperation is the process through which a group recognizes common problems, formulates common purposes, plans together, and act for the common good. In such cooperation, varied opinions are utilized to reach a higher level of agreement through the process of group thinking, and varied talents are used for the best solution of the common problems. It is through cooperation that men develop a strong feeling of "wenness," or belonging, which enhances one's love of fellow men and mankind as a whole. This feeling of "wenness," in turn, is one of the most significant factors in determining the effectiveness of cooperation. Only in such a cooperative social environment, is each individual provided with increased opportunity for
optimal development, and the method of intelligence becomes instru-
mental in directing desirable changes.

The Republic of Korea is mandated by its constitution to build a
democratic nation. Thus, the realization of the goals and ideals of
democracy briefly outlined in the preceding paragraphs become the in-
evitable task of the country. In performing this important task, the
schools of Korea, because of their unique function of educating young
citizens of the country, have a special responsibility to train the
young Koreans to become democratic citizens. Without an educational
program designed for developing democratic citizenship, the prospects
of increasing democracy in that country are not very good.

As will be pointed out in Chapter II, practices in the Korean
schools are not at all satisfactory for meeting the urgent need of
training for democratic citizenship. The need for fundamental changes
in the philosophy of Korean education and in educational practices has
been keenly felt by many thoughtful Korean educators as well as by the
educational experts from the United States who served as consultants
in the task of establishing democratic education in Korea.

Recognizing the challenge faced by the Korean schools, the writer
has attempted in this study to formulate for Korea a program for initi-
ating and developing general education designed primarily for an ef-
fective training for democratic citizenship. This program which the
writer attempts to plan for the Korean secondary schools is a core
program based upon democratic ideals and common problems of adolescents.

Since the proposed core program is new to the Korean secondary
schools, this study is, to the best knowledge of the writer, the first
attempt made for the specific improvement of the Korean schools in the
field of core curriculum development. As such, it should provide an impetus to the movement of democratizing the school programs and, eventually, the life of the people.

THE PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem

This study was undertaken to determine the basic philosophy, principles, and practices of a promising general education program as accomplished through the core at the secondary school level and to formulate a plan for developing core programs for the campus laboratory secondary schools of Korea. More specifically, this study is directed toward determining answers to the following questions:

1. What is the present status of the Korean secondary school curriculum with special reference to the general education programs in the campus laboratory schools? Do they provide sufficiently for training in democratic citizenship?

2. What are the major difficulties the Korean secondary schools are facing in assuming their responsibilities for providing adequate programs of general education?

3. What meaning and what purposes of general education receive the most support in the educational literature?

4. What are the theoretical foundations of general education as formulated in the United States?

5. What are the major types of general education programs identified in American schools?
6. What are the basic principles for developing a core program in the United States?

7. How has the general education program of The Ohio State University Secondary School been developed?

8. What is the present status of the general education program of The Ohio State University Secondary School?

9. How can the principles and practices of general education in the United States, in general, and in The Ohio State University School, in particular, be applied to the development of core programs in the laboratory secondary schools in Korea?

10. How can the Korean laboratory schools be improved so that they may play a leadership role in improving the programs of general education in other secondary schools of the country?

Need for the Study

In the introductory statement of this chapter, the writer presented a general background of the need for this study. There are other specific facts which also support the need for this particular study. The three most important of these facts may be stated as follows:

1. Ever-increasing threats to democracy in Korea as well as in other free nations of the world make it imperative that the school take a positive step for educating responsible citizens for democratic society.

2. Many educators have recognised that the subject-centered approach to general education falls short of meeting the demands for the preparation of responsible citizens of democracy. In spite of the weakness of such a program, the strictly subject-centered curriculum, which
is cut off from the contemporary problems of students and the society, is still the dominant one in the secondary school of Korea. In fact, it is almost exclusively the only type of curriculum organization now in existence there. The need for improvement of such a situation has been felt by some thoughtful educators, but there has been a lack of professional knowledge of how to accomplish this.

3. The campus laboratory schools of Korea have not been satisfactory either in providing effective general education programs or in functioning as centers for educational demonstration, leadership, and experimentation. The present study is an attempt to challenge these schools to take positive action for the improvement of the present situation.

Major Assumptions Underlying the Study

In planning and conducting this study the writer has made the following major assumptions:

1. Since the Republic of Korea has committed herself to the important movement of the free nations toward the realization of the ideals of democracy, it is the primary task of the Korean schools to provide the kind of education which will keep democracy alive and growing.

2. A core program of general education based on democratic ideals and adolescent needs or problems is a promising educational endeavor for providing effective training in common citizenship for a democratic society.

3. The campus laboratory schools, by the very purpose of their existence, are the most appropriate schools for experimenting with a new and promising idea in education.
4. The Ohio State University Secondary School, being an outstanding campus laboratory school, is one of the best representatives of those schools which conduct general education programs on the basis of democratic ideals and adolescent problems.

5. The basic principles underlying the development of core programs in the United States, especially as now reflected in the program of The Ohio State University School can be applied to the development of a core program in the laboratory schools of Korea.

PROCEDURES AND SOURCES OF INFORMATION

This study is largely a descriptive type research in which the writer used two major techniques, or approaches, of data collection for the solution of the problem stated previously in this chapter. One major approach used by the writer was an extensive study of the literature dealing with various aspects of the problem of this study. In order to determine major theoretical foundations of general education in the United States, a study was made of the literature which deals with educational philosophy, psychology of learning, and educational sociology. The literature dealing with the secondary-school curriculum was reviewed for the purpose of determining basic principles and procedures used in reorganizing the secondary school curriculum, with special emphasis on developing core programs in the United States. In determining the present status of the typical secondary schools of Korea, the writer examined extensive literature and various documents concerning the background of education in Korea and the curriculum organizations of the Korean secondary schools.
Because of the reason implied in assumption-3 of this study which was stated earlier, attention was focused on the four campus laboratory schools of Korea in formulating a program for developing core in the secondary schools of Korea. Accordingly, the writer secured through correspondence specific, up-to-date information concerning school operation, staff personnel, student personnel, instructional facilities, and curriculum organizations of the four Korean laboratory schools. It should be pointed out that the writer's experiences with the Korean schools before he left the country four years ago played a supplementary role in interpreting the data collected through the correspondence. For the purpose of comparison, the same types of information secured from the Korean laboratory schools were obtained also from four typical non-laboratory secondary schools of Korea.

The other major approach used in this study was a case study of the general education program of The Ohio State University Secondary School with special emphasis on its core program. For this case study, these three techniques were employed: documentary research, interview, and observation.

An extensive analysis of the documents, records, and writings concerning the history and the present status of the school was made to determine the present status of the general education program of the School and to identify the major factors which have contributed to the present status of the School's program.

In order to supplement the documentary analysis, interviews were held with eleven faculty members of the School of whom seven were core teachers, and with four other College of Education staff members. While
most of the fifteen faculty members were interviewed but once by the writer, a few of them were interviewed as many as five times. The nature of the interviews was informal except that the writer had prepared questions in advance of each interview.

Observation of certain classes of the School was another important technique used in determining the present practices of the School's general education. The core classes of the eighth and eleventh grades were continuously and extensively observed during the Autumn Quarter of the school year 1958-59. Other core classes and the special-interest area classes were observed as needed to supplement the information secured from documentary analysis and interviews.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

In examining and interpreting the findings and recommendations of this study, certain limitations inherent in this study need to be recognized. As may be inferred from the procedures used by the writer, this study includes more subjective than objective data. Furthermore, the recommendations the writer will present in his final chapter are general in character. Accordingly, each laboratory school of Korea will have to interpret the recommendations in terms of its particular situation.

The study has a weakness in regard to the information concerning the present-day Korean secondary schools and their curriculum organizations since the writer, having been away from his home country for nearly four years, had to rely almost entirely upon correspondence with his friends and former colleagues in Korea.
Another weakness of this study is that it is limited to a thorough consideration of one school only. Moreover, the case study of the general education program of this one school is not exhaustive. Accordingly, the writer had to draw heavily from the literature in order to provide a broad frame of reference for interpreting the case study and to supplement the limited information which could be secured within the time limitations of the study.

In reference to the case study, there is this additional weakness: direct information from the students and their parents could not be obtained.

In view of the above stated limitations and the exploratory character of this study, the recommendations based on the findings must be regarded as hypothetical proposals which have to be validated or rejected on the basis of trial in the actual situation of the Korean laboratory schools.

PREVIEW OF SUCCEEDING CHAPTERS

In Chapter II, the writer attempts to analyze and synthesize various factors which have been influential in the formulation of the principles and procedures of Korean education in general and of the campus laboratory secondary schools of Korea in particular.

In Chapter III is presented a discussion concerning the meaning, purposes, and theoretical foundations of general education. In the discussion of philosophical, psychological, and social foundations of general education, an attempt was made to examine the viewpoints of different schools of these three fields.
In Chapter IV can be found the description and discussion of various types of core programs and of specific principles and procedures for developing a core program based on problem areas of adolescents.

In Chapter V is described the historical background of The Ohio State University Secondary School with emphasis on the School's evolving functions, purposes, and general education program. The general setting of the School, in which its present program of general education operates, was also considered in the same chapter.

In Chapter VI is presented a description of the present status of the general education program of The Ohio State University Secondary School with emphasis on the operation of the core program. In this chapter is presented also a list of the points of emphasis which will serve as criteria in developing a core program in the schools of Korea.

In Chapter VII a proposed plan for developing core programs in the campus laboratory schools of Korea is presented.

In Chapter VIII, the final chapter, are found the major conclusions and recommendations of the study.
CHAPTER II

THE BACKGROUND OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS OF THE CAMPUS LABORATORY SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF KOREA

Educational reformation in any country cannot be considered outside the context of the historical development and current educational situation in the ever changing social, cultural, political, and economic setting of the country. It is the purpose of this chapter to analyze and synthesize various factors which have been influential in the formulation of the principles and procedures of Korean education in general and of the campus laboratory secondary schools of Korea in particular. Throughout the discussion, emphasis will be placed on ascertaining various important factors underlying the task of developing core programs in these schools.¹

KOREA

The peninsula, known to European people as Korea, derived this name from the Koryu Dynasty which ruled the country from A.D. 918 to 1392. More than a century after the fall of the Koryu Dynasty, the Portuguese, who happened to land on Cheju Island, the southern edge of the country, carried back to Europe the name of the dynasty, calling the country Korea. This designation then passed into general usage among English speaking peoples as the name of the country.

¹Much of the material presented in this chapter is taken from an earlier study made by the writer entitled "A Study of a Proposed Guidance Program for the Public Schools of Korea." Unpublished Master's thesis, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1956, Chapter II.
The territory. Korea is situated on a peninsula which is about 530 miles in length from north to south and 150 miles in width from east to west. It projects southeastward from the continent of Asia and is bordered by Manchuria and Siberia. The main peninsula and the more than two hundred islands surrounding it comprise the country, which has an area of more than 85,000 square miles. A mountainous backbone, the Taibaik Mountains, runs the length of the peninsula from north to south; the east coast is steep and rock-bound with deep water which has a tidal rise and fall of from one to two feet, while the west coast, on the other hand, is low and the tidal rise and fall is from 20 to 36 feet. A sharp distinction among the four seasons and ample waterfall provide a beautiful natural environment.

Until the end of World War II (1945) Korea was divided into thirteen provinces. The establishment of the 38th parallel which cuts across the peninsula divided the country into two parts: the northern part with approximately 48,300 square miles which is now occupied by the Communists, and the southern part with approximately 36,700 square miles. It is in this southern part of the country that the Republic of Korea was established in 1947 and has continued since that time.

The people. It is commonly believed that Koreans are a mixed group of uncertain elements of Mongoloid, Ainu, and some Manchu infusions. There are, at present, no exact census data about the population of Korea, but various estimates indicate that there is a population of about thirty million.

The use of a unique language instills in people a strong feeling of racial unity. Historically, two languages, Korean and Chinese, have been
used—the former for speaking and the latter for writing. In 1493 A.D., King Sejong, recognizing the difficulty of using Chinese ideographic characters with Korean phonetic expression, started a revolutionary change in Korean writing. After four years of concentrated research with his scholars in the Bureau of the Alphabet, the king completed and published the chart of the new alphabet of 28 letters for the use by all Koreans regardless of class. Several minor revisions have been made since that time and at the present time the Korean language has fourteen consonants and ten vowels which are rich in sounds. Even now, a limited number of Chinese characters are used in combination with Korean letters by older people.

The history. The country is believed to trace its origin from 2,333 B.C. at which time Tangoon was elected by the people as the first king of the country. In a strict sense, however, the recorded Korean history begins with the period of the Three Kingdoms, 57 B.C. to 933 A.D. During this period Korea was divided into three parts: the northern section, Kogooryu, included part of present-day Manchuria; the southern section, Silla; and the southwestern, Paikche. There were continuous conflicts among these three kingdoms until 668 A.D. at which time Silla unified the whole country through the help of the T'ang dynasty of China. The period of the Three Kingdoms is characterized culturally as the Golden Age, having reached its peak during Silla's unified domain of the country which lasted about three hundred years. It was during this period that Buddhism, along with numerous other cultural features of Chinese civilization, was introduced into the country.

Following the decline of Silla (which ended its dynasty in 953 A.D.), the Koryu dynasty which had been established in 918 A.D. came into
domination and continued thus until 1392. During this period Korea was continuously disturbed by the recurrent invasions of the Mongols and Japanese pirates. However, cultural achievement connected with Buddhism reached its zenith during this period. Nevertheless, it should not be overlooked that over-enthusiasm by the dynasty for Buddhism brought a corruption to the dynasty which hastened its fall. It was during this period that Confucianism, which influenced decidedly the personality of the Korean people, was introduced into the country.

The Lee dynasty, 1392 to 1910, which followed the Koryu, succeeded in solidifying feudalism in the country. The political power of the Buddhist monks and the Confucian philosophy of the people, combined to form feudalism and the dictatorship of the aristocratic class.

In addition to the traditional interference of China in the country, the large scale Japanese invasion during the period of 1592 to 1597 placed great pressure on the dynasty. At that time, the successive kings of the dynasty adopted a policy which resulted in strict isolation of the country from any foreign influence. Consequently, it came to be known as "The Hermit Kingdom." This isolation policy made Korea slow in adapting to the Western civilization, in contrast to the rapidity of Japanese westernization. It was during the period from 1874 to 1882 when the first Western contact with Korea started. By this time, however, Japan's power had already grown, having defeated China and Russia in the Far East.

In 1910, the long history of the Korean kingdom was put to an end leaving the people under the control of the Japanese. The thirty-five years of Japanese control, from 1910 to 1945, caused new adjustment problems for the Korean people with drastic changes in their daily life being imposed on them. It was, however, during this period that Christianity was widely welcomed by the depressed Korean people. In a real sense, the nationalistic movement of the Korean people must be said to have been instigated by the leaders of the Christian churches of Korea.

The end of World War II in 1945 meant for the Korean people liberation from rule by the Japanese, but it brought another disaster to them. The division of the country by the 38th parallel was arbitrarily interpreted by Russia as a permanent boundary, while it was intended to be only a military decision of the allied countries for effecting the surrender of Japanese forces. With the northern part of the country under occupation by the Communists, the United States Military Government was established in the southern part and assisted the people there in the formulation of an independent government. At the end of three years of military occupation, formal inauguration of the Republic of Korea took place on August 15, 1948. The Republic, of course, included only the area of Korea which is south of the 38th parallel.

During the period of military occupation, the United States endeavored to help the people learn the democratic way of life. Among the efforts made in Korea by the United States Military Government were (1) assistance in making the transition of the system of government from the Japanese style to the democratic system, (2) financial aid in order to help the country achieve economic independence, (3) introduction of a democratic
system of education, and (4) establishment of provisions for training personnel for the changing national life.

Before this new-born government reached two years of age, she had to experience the bitter Korean War which lasted from June, 1950, to July, 1952. In spite of the disastrous destruction caused by the war, the people of the country have courageously worked at the great task of reconstruction. As a result growth has occurred in every aspect of the life of the people.

**Religious influence and culture.** Korean culture has been influenced by three major religious philosophies: Buddhism, Confucianism, and Christianity. Chronologically, Buddhism came into the country first during the fourth century, Confucianism several centuries later than Buddhism, and Christianity in the late nineteenth century.

Before attempting to discuss these imported religious influences, it is necessary, in the opinion of the writer, to consider the moral and spiritual background of the Korean ancestors on which these foreign religions or ideas were introduced. Shin-kyo or Shinkyoism, which is believed to be the teaching of Tangoon, the first king, dates back to prehistoric days. Whether we accept it as Tangoon's teaching or not, it is correct to say that the doctrine of Shinkyoism was formulated in the country long before the Christian era.

Traditionally it is believed that Tangoon concerned himself with teaching the people a way of life which emphasized self-preservation and relationships involving husband and wife, father and son, and king and subordinate. This teaching was called Shin-kyo which means God's teaching.
The teaching deals with eight sins and nine rules. According to Changsoon Kim, the eight sins are

...to commit murder; to steal; to commit adultery; to tell lies; to drink alcohol; to sustain haughtiness; to maintain extravagance; and to make a self-pleasure.

The nine rules are

...to punish those who deny filial obedience; to punish those who deny friendship; to punish those who deny faith; to punish those who deny loyalty; to punish those who deny humbleness; diligence in morality; discipline over fault; sympathy toward unfortunates; courtesy to men.3

In contrast to this rather fearful concept of Shinkyoism concerning personal sin and punishment, Buddhism introduced the concept of salvation by means of prayer and meditation before the statues of Buddha which were often placed in Buddhist temples, located deep in the mountains. Withdrawal from everyday life was a characteristic of Buddhism, and this tendency influenced the personality of the people in a definite way. Buddhism in Korea has had a most significant influence in developing the arts of the country. Architecture, sculpture in stone and wood, and painting were all more highly developed in order to build and decorate the Buddhist temples. Many pagodas, temples, and decorations which were constructed centuries ago exist at the present time and they are protected by law as national treasures. Although Buddhism flourished during the periods of the Three Kingdoms and the Koryu dynasty, the impracticality of the concept of extreme asceticism and of isolation from real life prevented Buddhism from becoming the religion of the common people, although it served to satisfy the religious needs of upper class minority groups.

In contrast to Buddhism, Confucianism, which is in reality a philosophy of practical life rather than a religion, swept over the country and has exerted great influence in molding Korean society and thinking. Confucianism is based on the teaching of Confucius, a great Chinese educator who lived from 551 to 478 B.C. This philosophy is easily explained by the five cardinal principles of human relationships; these principles put primary emphasis on respect, obedience, and loyalty (1) of subject or servant to ruler or master, (2) of son to father, (3) of wife to husband, (4) of young to old, and (5) among friends. A man, according to Confucius, was a master of all creatures only to the degree that he conforms to these five principles. The traditional beliefs of the Korean people in Shinkyo-ism, which also emphasized these human relationships, no doubt provided a ready acceptance of the new foreign ideology; however, it is probably more important that Confucianism provided a theory for the traditional belief of Korean people. Private institutions were opened to teach Confucian theories. In fact, these Confucian institutions were the earliest schools in the country, having been developed throughout the Koryu dynasty and reaching their peak in the Lee dynasty. In order to receive an appointment to a high level government position, one had to master Confucian philosophy. This tendency of over-emphasis on Confucian ethics resulted in a feeling of disdain for the manual arts. As a result, the development of vocational education was hampered until very recently.

The great emphasis which has been placed for centuries on loyalty to ruler and obedience to father and elders lasted for centuries and has caused some lack of creativity and initiative on the part of the common people. It is interesting to observe that the first criticism raised by
parents to the democratic educational environment which had been established is the "lack of discipline," which means that students are becoming critical of their parents.

Finally, Christianity was accepted at the end of the nineteenth century after severe antagonism and persecution by the Buddhists and Confucianistically oriented people and by the isolation policy of the dynasty. However, once it was accepted, the missionary work was successful. Since the Korean people have long been subjected to authoritarian pressure, Christianity meant a completely new world to them. Accepting Christianity was, to the Koreans, the finding of "self" through not only Christianity but also through the Western culture which inevitably accompanied the advent of Christianity into Korea. About 75 years have passed since the establishment of the first Christian church in Korea. At present there are approximately 350,000 Catholics and 900,000 Protestants in the southern part of Korea with the prospect of increasing their numbers, while only 250,000 Buddhists remain without the prospect of further increase. However, in spite of the increasing number of Christians in the country, deeply rooted Shinkyoistic and Confucianistic attitudes of the people have a profound influence on Korean culture, and many years will be required to completely democratize the life of the Korean people.

Social and economic conditions. Social and economic conditions of Korea today show evidences of the influences of the social mores of Confucianism and of the changes made in the Korean economy by the Japanese rule, by the liberation of Korea, and by the Korean War. Continuity of the family and obedience to the elders in the family are the bases of the social structure. To have as many male children as possible
has been a high virtue of wives for years. This view of family life resulted in serious problems of overpopulation with the average number of persons in one family being more than six.

Some considerations of the economic situation in the country will reveal other aspects of social conditions. As previously indicated, the overemphasis on the Confucianistic view of moral life seriously hampered the development of the Korean economy until the end of the nineteenth century when commercial treaties with Western countries were signed. Accordingly, the modernized economic system of Korea was developed during the period of Japanese control, which lasted from 1910 to 1945. However, with political and economic power, Japanese technicians and managers held the key positions in industry and trade; Japanese industrial corporations exploited Korean mines and were the owners of Korean factories; and Japanese officials and educators held the key positions in the colonial government and schools of Korea.

This complete economic and political control of the Japanese during the thirty-five years made the Korean people almost helpless when suddenly they were released from Japanese control in 1945. The United States Department of State reports as follows:

Economic separation from Japan, removal of Japanese controls, and wholesale repatriation of Japanese technicians therefore brought about a complete collapse of the Korean economy, disorganization of production, loss of technical and managerial skills, and an interruption of trade.\(^4\)

In addition to this sudden separation from Japanese control, the division of the country by the 38th parallel produced a disruption in its

economic unity. Southern Korea is a farming region, potentially rich in foodstuffs but poor in minerals and industries, while northern Korea is the industrial area supported by mineral deposits and by well-constructed hydroelectric power plants. Agriculture in southern Korea had usually depended upon the chemical fertilizer produced in northern Korea, and industries in southern Korea had operated on the electric power and coal provided by the north. It was reported that when northern electric power was shut off on May 14, 1948, southern Korean industrial production was lowered to less than 50 per cent of the level it had attained after the close of World War II.  

An estimated 5,000,000 refugees or repatriates from northern Korea, Manchuria, Japan, China, and other Pacific areas entered southern Korea from September, 1945 to January, 1952. This sudden increase in population placed an additional burden on the economy of the country. During the period of the Korean War, (1950 to 1952), the economy of Korea had almost ceased to function. However, through the assistance of the United Nations, reconstruction of the Korean economy after the war has been successfully carried out with emphasis on industrial recovery. Some electric power plants were repaired and some new ones were constructed, a huge fertilizer plant was completed, and other individual enterprises have occurred, with all of these developments serving to stabilize the economic condition of Korea today.

Insufficient income for the support of a family produces various social and moral problems. It is estimated that almost one million people are unemployed. There are more than 100,000 war orphans and about the

5 Ibid.
same number of wounded war veterans who are under the case of the Minis-
try of Social Affairs and other philanthropic organizations. About
500,000 persons lost their lives during the war, resulting in tragedy,
directly or indirectly, to almost every family. Moreover, members of
the immediate family or other relatives of approximately 5,000,000 re-
fugees from northern Korea still live north of the 38th parallel. There
has been and can be no intercommunication between persons in the south
and persons in the north. For these reasons, the unification of the
country is a must for Koreans individually and for the nation as a whole.

EDUCATION IN KOREA

Out of the historical, geographical, cultural, social, political,
and economic background which has been presented, Korean education has
evolved to the status which the writer will describe in the remaining
sections of this chapter.

Development of the Educational System in Korea

There have been three fundamental stages in the development of the
Korean educational system: (1) before 1910, including the periods of the
Three Kingdoms, Koryu dynasty, and Lee dynasty; (2) 1910 to 1945, the
period of Japanese control; and (3) 1945 to the present.

Before 1910. The origin of the first Korean school dates back to
376 A.D. when king Sosoori of Kogooryu established a Daihak (college)
and, at the same time, Kim Sinmoon of Silla also established Gokhak
(national school) to teach the Buddhist Bible.

During the Koryu period Confucian schools were established in the
development main local areas. These schools were called Hyangkyo (community
schools), and in them were taught classics of Confucianism and poetry. These schools represent the first secondary level institutions in the nation. They were comprised of liberal arts and military divisions. For the students of the military division, military training was offered in addition to poetry and Confucian classics. Those who graduated from these schools were expected to go to Sung-Qyoon-Kwan (national college in the capital) to prepare for the national examination which was used as a basis for selecting certain higher officials of the government. In this sense, the secondary schools were primarily preparatory in nature for entering the National College.

During the period of the Lee dynasty, the community schools were widely established and there was the development of the Sudang, which was somewhat like an elementary school. It is interesting to note that in Korea the college level institution was first; the secondary school, second; and the elementary school, last.

Opportunity for admission to the national institutions was given primarily to children of the ruling class, and Confucian philosophy was taught exclusively. On the other hand, foreign languages, medicine, astronomy, phrenology, fine arts, law and other vocational subjects were taught in private schools for students from the middle and lower classes.

At the end of the Lee dynasty, there was an educational movement toward westernizing the school system. In 1885, Baichai-Hakdang, the first western type of secondary school for boys, was established by the first American Methodist Missionary. In 1890, the same missionary succeeded in establishing Ewha Hakdang, the first girls' secondary school in the country.  

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These two schools are, at present, the most outstanding Christian private schools in Korea.

1910 to 1945. Thirty-five years of Japanese control of the country brought about a great change in the educational system of Korea. In a strict sense, the modernized school system of Korea was organized and developed by the Japanese who had already, at that time, adopted the Western pattern of school organization. The general pattern of the educational system during the period of Japanese control was: six-year elementary school, five-year middle school, three-year high schools (college preparatory type and vocational type), three-year college (four years for medical college), and graduate school. However, of the total students enrolled in the various levels of the educational institutions in 1938, about 95 per cent were elementary school children, 4.5 per cent secondary school students, and less than one per cent college students. This means that only about five per cent of all elementary school graduates passed the very highly competitive entrance examinations and were admitted to the secondary schools. Likewise, fewer than 10 per cent of high school graduates attended college.

During the period of Japanese domination, school programs were organized solely on the basis of subject matter. Corporal punishment was a characteristic of their disciplinary methods. Moral education was treated as a separate subject in which special emphasis was placed on worship of the Japanese Gods and the Emperor, a living god to them at that time. Confucian principles were used extensively in developing the content of moral education. The Japanese language was taught as the national language and was used exclusively in the schools.

In order to carry out the colonial educational policy of Japan, more than 7,000 Japanese educators were employed in the public schools in the years just before the end of World War II. These educators were in all key administrative and instructional positions.

School administration during the period of Japanese control was centralized under the direction of the Ministry of Education, which still exists to some extent.

1945 to the present. Liberation from Japanese control meant to Korean educators an end of colonial education and the beginning of a new education for a democratic country. However, grave problems were immediately evident. The withdrawal of 7,000 Japanese teachers from the country and the increasing school enrollment forced the country to employ at least 7,000 unqualified teachers in the first year following the liberation. Table I illustrates the situation during the three-year period from 1945 to 1947.

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\text{Year} & \text{Elementary school pupils} & \text{Secondary school pupils} & \text{Higher school pupils} & \text{Elementary school teachers} & \text{Secondary school teachers} & \text{Higher school teachers} \\
1945 & 1,372,883 & 79,846 & 7,110 & 23,474 & 1,186 & 753 \\
1946 & 2,159,330 & 111,934 & 10,315 & 26,338 & 4,866 & 1,170 \\
1947 & 2,493,462 & 227,449 & 25,813 & 36,382 & 7,933 & 2,775 \\
\end{array}
\]

\text{Ibid., p. 26.}
These increases in enrollment and in the number of inexperienced teachers produced serious educational problems. In addition to the problems caused by increased enrollments and shortages of trained teachers, there were other serious problems. One of the most serious of which was that of replacing Japanese textbooks, since all textbooks used during the Japanese occupation had been written in the Japanese language. Until textbooks were written and published in the Korean language, teachers had to translate Japanese textbooks for classroom use. To make this situation worse was the fact that many young teachers had not been taught the Korean written language during their school years in the Japanese schools, and as a result had to study the Korean written language before they could assume their teaching responsibilities.

Under the United States Military Government, the school system was revised according to the American pattern: i.e. six-year elementary school, three year junior high school, three-year senior high school, four-year college (six years for medical schools), and graduate school. This basic pattern still exists today with the addition of (1) three-year vocational school at the junior high-school level and (2) two-year junior college. For those students whose parents cannot afford to pay tuition there are (1) civic schools at the elementary school level and (2) three-year higher civic schools at the junior high school level. Most teachers in these civic and higher civic schools are not professionally trained but serve the civic schools on a somewhat voluntary basis with a very low material reward.

A vast in-service education program was instituted with the cooperation of the military government. The primary purpose of the program
was, of course, to introduce principles and practices of democratic education to both experienced and inexperienced teachers who had been trained basically by the Japanese.

Since the establishment of the Republic of Korea (1948) there has been an increasing desire on the part of the Korean people for improvement of the educational system. This was curtailed for a while by the Korean War, but the burning enthusiasm for education on the part of educators, parents, and students themselves has overcome many difficulties. The following are evidences of certain changes in Korean education: the establishment of boards of education and school districts, the inauguration of compulsory education at the elementary school level, the increasing number of educators who are engaged in making curriculum studies, the establishment of educational research institutions, and improvement of programs for teacher education.

Present Situation of Korean Education

Korean education, since it involves the administration of more than 6,000 educational institutions with more than 4,000,000 students enrolled, is the most important and the largest enterprise of the government and the people for the realization of democratic ideals in the country.

Philosophy and purposes. The philosophy and purposes of Korean education have been well expressed in the education law of the country. The following is the English translation:

Article I. The aims of education are the improvement of character and preparation for the independent life and citizenship which are necessary for the development of a democratic nation and the advancement of prosperity.

Article II. In order to achieve these aims, the following educational objectives are set up:
1. Development of the knowledge and habits needed to maintain good health and to develop an indomitable spirit.

2. Development of a patriotic interest in preserving the independence of the nation and advancing the cause of world peace.

3. Development of Korean culture as an aspect of the development of world culture.

4. Development of scientific understanding and of desire for pursuit of the truth.

5. Development of a high regard for freedom and responsibility together with the ability to participate faithfully, cooperatively and respectfully in the social life of the country.

6. Development of aesthetic feeling and ability in the fine arts.

7. Improvement of economic ability as a good producer and a wise consumer.9

The statement of the purposes represents a noticeable shift from Confucianistic philosophy to that of democracy. However, because of the nation's political situation, great emphasis is placed on independence of the nation and patriotism.

These purposes serve as a guide for formulating the national policy of education, and each local school develops its own purposes in more specific terms but in accord with the national purposes.

Operation of the school. In Korea, national, public, and private schools are in operation in order to meet the general purposes of education. The national schools are established and controlled by the national government, public schools by school districts, and private schools by corporations, religious groups, or individual persons. In practice, however, there is no difference among these schools in the

9Ibid., p. 27.
sense that they are equally supervised by the Ministry of Education, an organized unit in the central government. Local administrative agencies are organized in such a way that the central policies and plans of the Ministry of Education are carried out locally.

The newly established boards of education and school districts do not possess as much independent power as is usually the case with boards of education in the United States. Due to the lack of cooperation of local government in budgeting and financing education, superintendents of schools have difficulty in assuming their responsibilities for administering the schools under their control. For instance, the education tax in a school district is collected by the county government and delivered to the superintendent. Very often this administrative process becomes ineffective when county governors use education tax, which is collected more effectively than other taxes, for other fields. Such uses delay its deliverance to the superintendent. This means that school districts are, to some extent, under the general administration even though they are not theoretically and legally. But, fortunately, there is a growing recognition of the need for school districts to have the status of independent general administrative units of the government.

All Korean students from elementary to college levels pay tuition fees, and more than 50 per cent of teacher salaries are met by tuition paid by the students.

School buildings and equipment. Most classrooms are too crowded for effective achievement of the educational objectives. More than 23 per cent of all classrooms which existed before the Korean War were entirely destroyed during the War. However, all destroyed classrooms have been rebuilt and many additional classrooms have been constructed through the
cooperative efforts of the Korean government, parents, and educators with the help of various United Nations agencies. In Table II is shown the number of classrooms which were available for student use in 1955.

### TABLE II

**NUMBER OF CLASSROOMS FOR TOTAL SCHOOL POPULATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Number of classrooms</th>
<th>Student population</th>
<th>Number of students per classroom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary schools</td>
<td>42,066</td>
<td>2,743,710</td>
<td>65.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary schools</td>
<td>10,200</td>
<td>633,270</td>
<td>62.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal schools</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>13,207</td>
<td>68.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher institutions</td>
<td>501</td>
<td>79,040</td>
<td>157.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civic schools</td>
<td>3,488</td>
<td>288,537</td>
<td>82.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>56,674</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,757,764</strong></td>
<td><strong>66.3</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in the Table II, on the average there are more than 60 students in a classroom at either the elementary or the secondary school level. It should be pointed out here that of these classrooms there are at least 12,000 temporary classrooms (tents or barracks) in use in the elementary and secondary schools.

School facilities and equipment are also inadequate. In was reported that about 80 per cent of the equipment, supplies, and books in institutions of all levels were destroyed or stolen during the communist invasion.\(^1\)

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\(^{11}\) Seoul City Teacher's Association, op. cit., p. 21.
At the present time, an average school has semi-fixed chairs and desks, blackboards, maps, and some charts. All students must buy their own materials and supplies.

Admission policies and entrance examinations. Except for the elementary school which must accept all elementary-school-age children in accord with the compulsory education law, all other schools and institutions admit students only on the basis of entrance examinations which are provided by the individual schools. In Table III is shown the number of students who in 1957 entered the succeeding unit of the total educational program.

TABLE III

NUMBER OF GRADUATES AND THOSE WHO ENTERED THE NEXT UNIT OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS\textsuperscript{12}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutions</th>
<th>No. of graduates</th>
<th>No. who entered the next unit</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary schools</td>
<td>336,289</td>
<td>148,965</td>
<td>44.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior high schools</td>
<td>148,257</td>
<td>96,987</td>
<td>65.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior high schools</td>
<td>83,973</td>
<td>28,975</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table III, fewer than one half of all elementary school graduates were admitted to junior high schools. Although a relatively higher percentage of junior-high school graduates enter senior high schools, only 34.5 per cent of all senior-high school graduates entered colleges and universities.

While there is no recorded information concerning the percentage of graduates who applied for admission to the next succeeding unit of the total educational program, the writer, on the basis of his experience in working with administrators and teachers, estimates at least 70 to 75 percent of elementary school graduates apply to junior high schools, 80 to 90 percent of junior-high school graduates apply to senior high schools, and 60 to 70 percent of senior-high school graduates apply to colleges and universities. Obviously, there is much competition in the program of entrance examinations. However, if all the applicants were equally divided among all schools or institutions, there would not be too much competition. Unfortunately, there is a deeply rooted practice of overvaluing certain schools or colleges which have had longer and better traditions and which have a better record for students passing examinations to enter the next higher school or securing better positions after graduation. Because of this traditional attitude toward certain so-called "high quality" schools or colleges, it happens that some schools have five times as many applicants as they are capable of admitting.

Pupils in elementary schools and secondary schools are under constant pressure because of the entrance examinations. It is not unusual for a sixth grader to stay up until midnight in order to study his textbooks in preparation for the coming entrance examination. In recent years there has been an increasing number of junior high schools which base admission on school records of the children and on a few simple oral examinations.

There is no college and university which does not require that applicants master all academic subjects to the extent that they pass the examinations which are prepared by professors of several subjects.
The system of entrance examinations now in existence in Korea is one of the most serious barriers to the improvement of curriculums at elementary and secondary school levels.

**Teachers in elementary and secondary schools.** For the preparation of elementary school teachers, the central government established and controls a total of 18 normal schools. Their programs are three years in duration and are of high school level. Some normal schools, in addition to providing three-year course of teacher education, also function as a two-year junior college of education. In 1957, approximately 55 per cent of elementary school teachers were normal school graduates and the remaining 45 per cent consisted of (1) ordinary high-school graduates who had some education courses taken in high schools and/or (2) who were qualified by attending in-service training programs, and (3) totally unqualified teachers.¹³

The four colleges of education in universities and the nine junior colleges of education are concentrating primarily on providing secondary school teacher training. However, these colleges of education have not been able to meet all demands for teachers in the secondary schools. In Table IV is shown a summary of the educational backgrounds of the Korean secondary teachers as of 1957.

As indicated in Table IV, over 60 per cent of all secondary school teachers are graduates of colleges other than colleges of education, and this fact is largely responsible for the curriculum of secondary schools being so strictly subject-matter centered.

The curriculums of colleges of education reflect a strict departmentalization of subject fields. Furthermore, all departments tend to

¹³Ibid., p. 35.
TABLE IV

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Background</th>
<th>Junior-high school teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Senior-high school teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>College of education</td>
<td>1,399</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>1,499</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior colleges of education</td>
<td>1,932</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>485</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other colleges</td>
<td>6,305</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>4,477</td>
<td>63.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unqualified</td>
<td>1,123</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>581</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>10,759</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>7,042</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

operate their curriculums in the traditional manner of a college of liberal arts and science. At least 20 semester hours in education courses plus four hours of student teaching are required of all students in colleges of education for graduation. However, little effort is made to prepare students for teaching in more than one subject area. Moreover, not much is done to establish functional relationships between the department of educational principles and practice and the other departments concerned with the special subject areas. Accordingly, most of the college of education graduates have developed a traditional attitude toward narrow academic subjects before they take teaching positions.

It should also be pointed out that many high school principals prefer teachers who are graduates of colleges of liberal arts and science rather than graduates of colleges of education. This is true mainly because the former have had more concentrated study in a specific subject than the latter who, according to the principals, have lost, at least 20 semester.

14 Ibid.
hours by taking education courses. This negative attitude of high school principals toward college of education graduates has been caused primarily by the competitive entrance examinations but partially by their unchanging traditional viewpoint regarding education.

Because of the national policy of giving priority to college of education graduates for securing teaching jobs and because of the improved teacher-training programs of colleges of education at present time, a much higher percentage of graduates of colleges of education are obtaining teaching jobs than is the case with non-education college graduates. However, colleges of education have to compete continuously with other colleges. This competition is another factor which forces colleges of education to place much emphasis on special-subject teacher training. Many efforts have been made recently to extend the traditional four-semester-hour practice teaching program to include additional time to be spent in participation and additional teaching. For example, only one or two graduates in education are accepted each year in the Graduate School of the Seoul National University. Opportunity to attend graduate schools is very limited not only for graduates of colleges of education but also for graduates of other colleges.

Because of the fact that more than 60 per cent of the secondary teachers are graduates of colleges other than education and because of the additional fact that many non-college graduates are teaching, in-service education programs are widely used and emphasized. These are usually provided by the central government in cooperation with colleges of education and the Central Education Research Institute of Korea. Sometimes, local school districts carry out their own in-service programs by using instructors from outside the school district.
Each year since September of 1952, there has been an American Education Team visiting Korea, with the primary purpose of contributing to the in-service growth of teachers as well as to the improvement of teacher training programs of colleges of education and normal schools.

There is no academic credit given for any of these in-service programs. However, 160 hours of formal in-service workshop participation is required for promotion from the third-class teacher to the second-class, from second-class to the first-class, from first-class to vice principal, and from vice principal to principal. There are also regular workshops for principals, supervisors, and superintendents.

**Elementary school program.** A six-year period of elementary education is required of all Koreans by law. In 1957, 3,503,967 children, or 93.4 per cent of all of those who are of elementary school age, were enrolled in the 4,369 elementary schools.15

In conformity to the purposes of education as indicated in the education law of the country, each elementary school has the responsibility of developing its own program. The Ministry of Education prescribes the required hours in each of the subject matter areas to be carried by each child. Korean language, arithmetic, social studies, natural science, health, and music are required every year, and business or home economics is required in grades four, five, and six. In addition to the time for the required subjects, one or two hours per week are set aside for extracurricular activities. All textbooks used in elementary schools are uniformly provided by the Ministry of Education.

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Each subject is taught separately, but, in general practice, all subjects in a given grade are taught by the same teacher, the home-room teacher of that grade. Recently, there has been a gradual increase in the number of elementary schools where unit study is encouraged in the lower grades. However, there are many problems encountered by those elementary schools which attempt to apply modern educational principles to their programs since all programs have to be adjusted to the national prescription of curriculum, to the national textbooks, and to the entrance examination.

Secondary school program. A total of 856,036 students were enrolled in 1957 in the 1,960 junior and senior high schools.\(^\text{16}\) Originally, junior and senior high schools were not separate units but were combined under one principal in the same building. However, a few years ago they were separated from each other by order of the Ministry of Education. Nevertheless, at the present time many junior and senior high schools use the same building and are under the direction of one principal. In such schools (junior and senior combined), however, individual vice principals and different staffs are assigned to the two units. Except for a few campus laboratory schools, which are attended by both boys and girls, separate schools are established for the two sexes. According to the education law of Korea, there are two aims of education: (1) "The aim of education in the middle school shall be to continue the general education of the student upon the foundation which was laid by the primary school." (2) "The aim of education in the high school shall be to give more advanced general and technical education."\(^\text{17}\)

\(^\text{16}\)Ibid., p. 38.
\(^\text{17}\)UNESCO Educational Planning Mission to Korea, op. cit., p. 37.
From the above statements, it is clear that the middle school (junior high school) is considered as a continuation of the primary or elementary school. Senior high school education is considered to consist of two types—more advanced general education for the academic high school and technical or vocational education for the vocational high school. In this general frame of reference, each secondary school is encouraged to formulate its own objectives of education in more specific terms. However, very few schools have formulated their specific objectives. The schools which have attempted this have expressed them in such vague terms that there continues to be a pronounced gap between purposes and school practice. Most teachers do not participate in formulating the purposes of the school with the result that they do not understand the purposes clearly and are in reality not guided to any great extent by the statement of purposes. In practice, the main purpose of secondary education is considered to be the mastery of the classics, foreign languages (specially English), and advanced mathematics.

The Ministry of Education prescribes the subject hour standards for secondary schools just as it does for elementary schools. In Tables V and VI are shown subject hour standards as prescribed by the Ministry of Education for junior and senior high schools.

Recently, the Ministry of Education has given limited freedom to individual schools for establishing flexible curriculum organizations within the general framework of the national standards. In practice, however, most secondary schools, if not all, require all students to take at least four hours a week in each of these courses: Korean language, English, mathematics, social studies, and science. This is the practice because these courses are fundamental in preparation for the entrance examinations to
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>7th grade</th>
<th>8th grade</th>
<th>9th grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General requirement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean language</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social studies</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural science</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business or home economics*</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business or home economics*</td>
<td>1-7</td>
<td>1-7</td>
<td>1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign language</td>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>3-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0-3</td>
<td>0-6</td>
<td>0-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra-curricular activities</td>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>2-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total hour limits</strong></td>
<td>34-38</td>
<td>34-38</td>
<td>34-38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Business for boys and home economics for girls.

colleges and universities. As a result, there are almost no elective courses except foreign languages such as Chinese, German, and French.

The Ministry of Education provides uniform textbooks for the study of Korean language for all secondary school grades. For other subjects individual schools may choose among the textbooks which are approved by the Ministry of Education. Instructional programs in the Korean secondary schools are strictly subject-matter centered with accompanying emphasis on the mastery of factual knowledge from the textbooks, because of such
### TABLE VI

SUBJECT HOUR STANDARD FOR THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>10th grade</th>
<th>11th grade</th>
<th>12th grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>General Requirement</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean language</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social studies</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean history</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(3 in two years)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural science</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music and Art</td>
<td></td>
<td>(4 in three years)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business or home economics</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military training for boys</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Electives</strong></td>
<td>8–13</td>
<td>16–21</td>
<td>18–23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total hour limits</strong></td>
<td>34–39</td>
<td>34–39</td>
<td>34–39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Available for electives are Korean language, history, geography, advanced mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, astronomy, foreign languages, philosophy, education, and extra-curricular activities.

Factors as the nature of the curriculum, the textbooks, the competitive entrance examinations, and the background of the teachers.

In order to supplement the rigidity of the regular courses of study, most schools require all students to participate in extra-curricular activities at least two hours a week each semester.

As indicated in Table VI, moral education is required of all students for one hour per week each year. The officially approved textbooks are used for moral and ethical instruction with the assumption that knowledge

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Ibid., p. 7.
of morality and ethics will lead to moral and ethical behavior. In relation to moral education, the guidance function of the school is greatly emphasized. Generally accepted aims of guidance programs are the development of independent character and ability, patriotic interest, self-control, and sense of responsibility and cooperation. However, in practice, the guidance program is little different from a disciplinary program. In the transition period from the domination of Japan, there has been a basic misunderstanding of the concept of guidance as well as of education.

The majority of Korean educators and parents believe that education or guidance is to indoctrinate youngsters with a set of values, knowledge, and behavior patterns. This erroneous attitude toward the guidance concept has resulted in guidance programs being almost completely directive rather than assisting, forcing rather than suggestive, inhibitive or punitive rather than understanding or permissive, and obviously teacher-centered rather than student-centered. Until 1957 there was no professionally trained guidance worker or counselor in any Korean secondary school. All guidance responsibilities were assumed by the staff members in charge of discipline. Usually, the major persons responsible for handling the problem behavior of students are the principal, vice principal, physical education teachers or military trainers, and homeroom teachers. Very recently departments of educational psychology in a few colleges of education began to prepare counselors for the elementary and secondary schools. Even though a bachelor's degree is considered to be adequate training for a counselor, there are throughout Korea fewer than ten such counselors working in secondary schools. A decisive guidance movement was started in 1958 when the country gathered all guidance specialists from universities to provide a series of guidance workshops for teachers in service. This group of guidance
specialists consists of fewer than ten college instructors and research workers who have at least a Master's degree in guidance or in psychology which was granted between 1951-1958 from the colleges in the United States. This group effort in guidance will undoubtedly bring a new light to Korean education.

Evaluation of student progress is achieved primarily through the use of teacher-made tests. In use in every school is the traditional report card to parents which indicates grades in letters or numbers for each subject. In response to the increasing emphasis on total development of the child, there are also included in the report cards and cumulative record forms such items as self-direction, responsibility, cooperativeness, creativity, and leadership. There is one standardized intelligence test and one interest inventory for use in the secondary schools. Recently the writer has been informed by means of letters from his fellow educators in Korea that a few standardized achievement tests are in the process of being constructed for use in the secondary schools.

Higher education. In 1957 there was a total of 78 institutions of higher education with 91,616 students. About 55 per cent of the total of college and university students are in the areas of the humanities and social sciences and the remaining 45 per cent are in the physical and biological sciences. Since these institutions of higher education have very short histories, less than ten years except for a few of the older universities, students suffer greatly from a lack of library facilities, equipment for laboratory experiences, and well-trained instructors.

19Korean Supervisor's Association, op. cit., p. 38.
Upon the approval of the Ministry of Education, students may go abroad to study. During the period from 1951 through 1957, 4,206 Korean students were approved by the Ministry to study abroad. Of these students, 3,795 students (or 90 per cent) came to the United States for study, 121 to France, 74 students to West Germany, and the rest were distributed among 16 other countries. More than one half of the students who went abroad to study were enrolled in graduate schools.

**CAMPUS LABORATORY SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF KOREA**

There are at the present time four campus laboratory secondary schools which are located in colleges of education in Korea: (1) Seoul National University Junior and Senior High Schools, (2) Ewha Women's University Secondary School, (3) Kyung Book University Junior and Senior High Schools, and (4) Kongju College of Education Laboratory High School.

The Junior and Senior High Schools of Seoul National University were begun operations in October, 1945. They are independently operated with different principals and separate faculties, and are housed in separate school buildings. The Secondary School of Ewha Women's University is four year old and, at present, includes only the four grades from seventh through tenth. As the tenth-grade students progress it will be extended to a six-year school by 1960. In this school one principal and one faculty are responsible for both Junior and Senior High Schools. The Junior and Senior High Schools of Kyung Book University, established in 1946, are under the direction of one principal, and are located in close proximity to the College of Education of the University.
However, different vice principals and different instructors are assigned to the Junior and Senior High Schools. Kongju College of Education has only a senior-high school because of the failure of the College to support a junior high school.

These laboratory schools are, of course, under the direct supervision of the deans of respective colleges of education as well as the university presidents. In addition, Seoul University Schools and Kyung Book University Schools, being the national university schools, are also under the administrative control of the Ministry of Education of the central government.

The Students, Staff, and Facilities

The nature of the student bodies in the Korean laboratory schools does not differ greatly from that of other schools in the sense that students in all forms of schools are admitted on the basis of entrance examinations. Moreover, since these laboratory schools are classified as better-than-average high schools, the requirements are somewhat higher than requirements for the average school. This means that the student bodies of the Korean laboratory schools are comprised of students who are above average in intellectual ability and in social and economic status.

The number of students enrolled in 1958-59 in the laboratory schools is shown in Table VII. As may be inferred from Table VII, all schools have more than two classes for each grade. The Junior and Senior High Schools of Seoul National University have six classes for each grade, which is not an unusual situation for urban schools. The class size ranges from 46 students to 66. Except for Ewha Women's University Secondary School, all laboratory schools have 60 or more students in each class.
### TABLE VII

**STUDENT ENROLLMENT IN THE LABORATORY SCHOOLS OF KOREA in 1958-59**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>No. of students</th>
<th>No. of classes</th>
<th>Average class size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seoul National University Junior High</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>1162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seoul National University Senior High</td>
<td>741</td>
<td>516</td>
<td>1257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewha Women's University Secondary</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kyung Book University Junior High</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>414</td>
<td>836</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kyung Book University Senior High*</td>
<td>721</td>
<td></td>
<td>721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kong Ju College of Edu. High*</td>
<td>487</td>
<td></td>
<td>487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3160</td>
<td>1723</td>
<td>4883</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*For boys only.

Except for Ewha Women's Secondary School, the class size for these laboratory schools is not significantly different from the average class size of all Korean secondary schools which is 62.1.

As a group, teachers in the laboratory schools have better professional training than teachers in other secondary schools. In Table VIII is shown information regarding the professional training of the laboratory school teachers.

From the data presented in Table VIII it can be seen that from 45 to 92 per cent of the teacher in the several laboratory secondary schools of Korea are graduates of colleges of education. This situation is
TABLE VIII
EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND OF TEACHERS IN THE KOREAN LABORATORY SECONDARY SCHOOLS in 1958-59

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Total no.</th>
<th>College Percentage of teachers with Edu.grad.</th>
<th>Teachers Percentage of Col. of with Master's degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seoul National Univ. Junior High</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seoul National Univ. Senior High</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewha Women's Univ. Secondary</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kyung Book Univ. Junior High</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kyung Book Univ. Senior High</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kong Ju College of Education High</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Includes all who have at least Bachelor's degree in education.

especially encouraging as regards the educational program of such schools when compared with data presented earlier in this chapter which revealed that for all types of secondary schools of Korea only 13 per cent of the junior high school teachers and 21 per cent of the senior high school teachers were graduates of colleges of education. The remaining teachers of the laboratory secondary schools are primarily those who have the bachelor's degree in areas other than education. While there is no available information to determine the number of teachers who have Master's degrees,
there is information which shows that not a single secondary teacher has a doctoral degree. Ewha Women's University Secondary Schools have six teachers with Master's degrees, but about half of these earned the Master's degree in fields outside of education. It is likely that in other schools some teachers have the Master's degree but the number could not total more than 15 for all laboratory schools.

Traditionally, the teachers in these campus laboratory schools have been regarded as just teachers of good secondary schools, and they receive salary and rank equal to that of the teachers in other Korean secondary schools. Teaching loads of the teachers in laboratory schools range from 16 to 27 hours per week with an average of 21 hours. In addition to the teaching load, each teacher is responsible for certain clerical work which is said to average 10 hours per week and for supervision of after-school activities which involves at least 6 hours a week.

School facilities and equipment used in the laboratory schools do not differ from that in other secondary schools. However, in this aspect the laboratory schools have one advantage over other schools in that the former can use in addition to their own certain of the facilities and equipment of the university or college to which each belongs. But, since the colleges of education as well as the universities have their own difficulties in regard to overcoming the lack of facilities and equipment, the assistance provided by them to the laboratory schools is insufficient. Each of the laboratory schools has for student use a library of 2,000 books on the average. One or two librarians are employed in each laboratory school, but only one of all librarians in the laboratory schools is a professionally trained librarian. Only recently a few of the Korean universities began to offer programs of preparation for librarians.
Functions of Korean Laboratory Secondary Schools

For all campus laboratory schools of Korea, the primary function of each school in relation to the college of education to which it belongs is to provide the students of the college opportunities to observe classrooms, to participate in educational activities, and to carry on student teaching. Of these three, the most emphasis is placed on the practice teaching or student teaching aspect. Moreover, the laboratory schools usually assume major responsibility in planning, conducting, and evaluating the student teaching program. Since all these laboratory schools strive to serve as model schools, the determination of the school program is protected from outside interference.

In addition to the functions mentioned above, these laboratory schools have responsibility to conduct research and experiments and to serve as demonstration centers for teachers of other schools and for the general public. However, in practice, the research function of the Korean laboratory schools tends to be minimized because of factors such as (1) over-emphasis on student teaching, (2) lack of functional relationship between the laboratory school faculties and those of colleges of education, (3) competition with other schools in preparing students for entrance examination, (4) inadequate teacher preparation for conducting research, (5) inadequate classroom situation, and (6) heavy teacher loads. Very limited research studies are conducted in the laboratory schools with primary emphasis on the improvement of teaching methods in certain subjects. In addition to studies regarding teaching methods one of laboratory junior-high school has experimented with a non-written entrance examination system which included instead of written examinations.
the following: (1) recommendations from elementary schools, (2) physical fitness examinations, and (3) oral examinations.

Purposes of the Korean Laboratory Secondary Schools

As is true of other secondary schools in Korea, the laboratory secondary schools base their purposes on the national purposes of secondary education which are indicated in the education law. Specific purposes are set up by each school to provide concrete direction of the educational program. The following is a statement of purposes set up by one of the laboratory high schools:

Development of Personal Living:
1. Development of ability to use Korean language
2. Development of ability to use the method of intelligence in problem solving
3. Development of good habits of and understanding in public health
4. Cultivation of ability to express and appreciate aesthetic values
5. Improvement of self-discipline
6. Development of moral and spiritual values

Family and Social Living:
1. Development of respect for individual personality
2. Development of friendly and cooperative attitudes
3. Development of love for family and ability to build a democratic home
4. Development of social understanding and critical attitude toward social affairs
5. Development of tolerance and active participation to social improvement
6. Development of ability to cultivate and conserve cultural resources
7. Development of respect for national laws
8. Cultivation of interest and understanding in political affairs
9. Development of ability and zeal to contribute to the establishment of world peace
Economic Living:

1. Development of understanding and respect of various vocations
2. Development of ability to choose the most appropriate vocation in terms of one’s capacity and interests
3. Acquisition of vocational preparation
4. Development of ability to purchase and spend wisely

Customarily, these purposes are developed by a few persons participating, with the principal, vice principal, and curriculum coordinator. Accordingly, there is small likelihood that a whole faculty agrees on or in fact even understands the school’s purposes. Thus it follows that, no matter how well developed the purposes may be, there is not much possibility of the purposes being fully implemented by individual teachers through the planning and carrying out of their instructional programs. Moreover the rigidity of the subject-centered curriculums which characterize the programs of Korean secondary schools including the laboratory schools provides little opportunity for schools to realize these purposes.

Programs of Korean Laboratory Secondary Schools

In the determination of the curriculum for the school, each Korean laboratory school follows the curriculum standards prescribed by the Ministry of Education with minor changes being made when it is considered feasible or desirable because of the particular situation of the individual laboratory school. Accordingly, learning experiences are organized around specific subjects. In Table IX is shown a school program

\[21\text{The Kyung Book University High School, School Bulletin. Taigu, Korea: Kyung Book University, 1957, pp. 40-42.}\]
TABLE IX
SEUL NATIONAL UNIVERSITY JUNIOR HIGH
SCHOOL CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject areas</th>
<th>Hours per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7th grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National language</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social studies</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural science</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine arts</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational subject</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra-curricular activities</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

for a typical laboratory junior high school. This program does not differ basically from the programs of other Korean junior high schools.

As may be noted from Table IX, primary emphasis is placed on these broad fields of national language, mathematics, social studies, science, and English. In teaching and evaluation, the separate subjects in each broad field are treated independently. For example, the area of social studies for each grade is divided into ethics, civics, history, and geography. These are properly scheduled in terms of balance among them and taught by different teachers. All nine subject areas and extra-curricular activities are required of all students; however in the vocational area, boys are required to choose between agriculture and business education and girls are required to take home-economics.

In Table I is shown a typical laboratory senior-high school program. As in the case of the junior high school this program is also similar to the program of other senior high schools in Korea.

TABLE I

KYUNG BOOK UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>10th grade</th>
<th>11th grade</th>
<th>12th grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National language</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 (3)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General social studies</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean history</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World history</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>(2)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(1)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General mathematics</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>(4)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematical analysis</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>(5)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geometry</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>(4)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physics</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>(3)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>(3)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine arts</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>(2)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>(3)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra-curricular activities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>24 (15)*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Indicates hours for the subjects required of those who plan to apply for admission to humanities and social sciences colleges.

**Indicates hours for the subjects required of those who plan to apply for admission to physical and biological sciences colleges.

As indicated in Table X, all students are required to spend 39 hours in the given subjects. All the seniors have 24 hours required in common plus 15 hours of additional requirements which may be from one of these two groups: (1) humanities and social sciences and (2) physical and biological sciences. Accordingly, the senior student actually has no electives but merely makes a choice between two sets of requirements.

Teaching procedures followed by the laboratory secondary schools vary from one class to another according to the individual teacher. There is no basic difference among classes in regard to the emphasis placed on mastery of subject-matter covered in the textbooks. However, in recent years there has been a growing emphasis on functional learning for the purpose of effective mastery of subject matter. Group studies, field trips, and various displays are encouraged to enrich learning experiences in a given subject class. Nevertheless, these activities are seriously limited because of the rigid time schedule which provides only a 50-minute period for each class.

In the Ewha Women's University Secondary School, which is considered to be the most progressive school, a broad field approach is utilised in social studies and science. Learning experiences in these broad fields are organised around central themes (or units of study as designated by the faculty of the School). In these classes, problem solving approaches are emphasised and textbooks are regarded as reference materials to be used only when needs arise in the process of solving problems. However, according to information secured from the school, larger blocks of time are not assigned to these fields.

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The laboratory schools as other Korean schools are in session six days a week. Regular class periods are 50 minutes in length with 10 minutes allowed for changing classes. In addition to the regular class periods there are morning and afternoon homeroom periods; in the morning this period is fifteen minutes long and in the afternoon it may be only a few minutes or may be extended in terms of needs for any homeroom activities. In general practice, these homeroom periods are utilized for school and class business such as attendance, announcements, discussions concerning self-discipline, and activities related to the planning and carrying out of class projects.

Except for Ewha Women's University Secondary Schools, none of the Korean laboratory schools has a professional guidance worker, and, consequently, the guidance workers in these other schools are involved largely in the traditional disciplinary programs. The Secondary Schools of Ewha Women's University, however, have one counselor who works closely with classroom teachers of both schools to help individual students solve their personal problems.

Evaluation of pupil progress in the laboratory schools does not differ, to any extent, from that of ordinary schools which was previously discussed early in this chapter.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH INSTITUTES IN KOREA

At present, the Central Education Research Institute functions as a center of education research for the nation of Korea. There are several other local educational institutions established to provide research services to the schools in the local provinces. Research personnel in
these local educational research institutes were primarily trained by the research staff of the Central Education Research Institute, and these institutes have been in existence only a short time. The oldest institute is the Central Education Research Institute which was estab­lished in 1952 under the co-sponsorship of the Ministry of Education and the National Federation of Korean Teachers' Associations.

While the local research institutes are not yet able to function as efficiently as is desired, emphasis is placed on facilitating the professional growth of the research staff members rather than on the outcomes of well-conducted research. Accordingly, a description of research activities in Korean education is almost exclusively confined to the activities of the Central Education Research Institute.

The Institute has four departments each of which is directed by a department head who is responsible to the director of the Institute. The four departments are the (1) Department of Research, (2) Department of In-Service Education and Publication, (3) Department of Business and Clerical Affairs, and (4) Library Department. The Department of Research is the main body for planning and conducting all research activities; it has eight senior staff members and approximately ten junior staff members. The Department of In-Service Education and Publication has one senior staff member and one clerical worker; the administration of workshops and seminars and publication of research findings and other educational materials are the primary functions of the Department of In-Service Education and Publication. The Department of Business and Clerical Affairs serves as the general business office of the Institute. The Library Department provides the reference materials requested by the research
workers and by the participants of in-service education programs
sponsored by the Institute.

During the school year of 1956-57, the Institute conducted the
following studies:

1. The construction of model examination questions for entrance
to secondary schools (to be used in March, 1958)

2. A critical evaluation of the secondary school entrance
examinations which were administered in 1957

3. A study of the validity of junior high school entrance
examinations

4. A community survey in selected regions for determination
of factors influencing education

5. A survey study of the status of junior high school teachers

6. The standardization of a diagnostic computation test for
the elementary grades

7. The development of a mental maturity test for the inter-
mediate grades

8. A study of determining the extent of social development of
selected elementary school children

9. A survey study of school neighborhoods for determination of
factors influencing school activities

10. A documentary analysis of 1,530 juvenile delinquents

11. An analysis of disciplinary cases which occurred during a
one-month period in 81 secondary schools

12. An achievement test in natural science for intermediate grades

13. A study of children's vocabulary development

Some of these studies were initiated in previous years, some were
undertaken and completed within the year, and some were begun in the year
but are being continued in the year(s) that follow.

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25The Central Education Research Institute, The Brief Report of Our
Progress for the Year April, 1956—March, 1957. Mimeographed, Seoul,
Korea: The Institute, 1957, pp. 2-18.
In addition to the research functions, most of the in-service education provided for Korean teachers is sponsored by the Institute with the authority given by the Ministry of Education. The senior research members of the Institute and college professors and the officials in the Ministry of Education serve as leaders of various kinds of in-service teacher education. During the year 1956-1957, the Institute sponsored 13 in-service programs which involved more than 1,300 educators. A total of 11 books and 10 bulletins (including standardized tests and manuals) were published during the year 1956-1957.

In summarizing this chapter, the writer attempted to analyze and synthesize various factors which have been influential in the formulation of the philosophy and practices of Korean education in general and of the campus laboratory secondary schools of Korea in particular. Out of this attempt, the following major generalizations were made:

1. The training of the Korean people for democratic citizenship is the most urgent need of the country.

2. Approximately two-thirds of the Korean youth are deprived of the benefits expected from attending secondary schools.

3. Examination of the statements of the philosophy and purposes of the Korean schools indicates a noticeable shift in the last ten years from Confucianistic philosophy to that of democracy.

4. In the implementation of their purposes, there is a big gap between the philosophy and purposes of the Korean secondary schools and their practices.

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Inadequate school buildings and facilities, inadequately trained teachers, crowded classroom situations, strictly subject-centered curriculum and classroom procedures, and the highly competitive entrance examinations for the next school step are major causes of unsatisfactory development of general education in the Korean secondary schools.

The lack of an elective program in the Korean secondary schools results in failure to meet the special needs and interests of students.

Teacher-education programs of the colleges of education of Korea do not provide for preparation of core teachers.

The Korean schools have an urgent need to provide adequate guidance services for many students who need such services.

The campus laboratory secondary schools of Korea do not differ in any significant degree from the typical Korean secondary schools in their operation and curriculum practices.

The Korean laboratory secondary schools are failing to play their roles as centers of educational experimentation, leadership, and demonstration with undue emphasis being placed on the student-teaching programs.
CHAPTER III
THE THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF GENERAL EDUCATION
IN THE AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

For a few decades there has been a trend in America toward training for democratic citizenship through a general education program. Since the advent of Sputnik, however, there has been a seemingly reversed trend with increased emphasis being placed by the American public and certain influential educators on mathematics, science, and foreign language. Nevertheless, there are many other professional persons who believe that the emphasis on democratic citizenship education should not only be continued but be strengthened in this age of anxiety.

In his book Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum published in 1953, Alberty gives the following reasons for the need for emphasis on general education:

One reason for this emphasis is the continuous threat to our democracy by forces that are more likely to succeed if we neglect basic citizenship education.

A second reason is the realization that "specialism," however important it may be in our technological age, must not be allowed to permeate that part of the program which is directed primarily toward the development of the ideals, attitudes, understandings, and skills of common democratic citizenship.

A third reason is the trend toward a redefinition of the "fundamentals" of education. This has come about as the responsibility of the school has been widened from the mere transmission of the cultural heritage and the imparting of the
basic skills of reading, writing, and computation, to the more important role of providing for the perpetuation and refinement of our way of life through active participation in living democratically.¹

Stickler, using a different way of expressing it, gives reasons for the movement of general education which are almost identical with those quoted above from Alberty. He states:

Thus we see that general education is a reaction against some things; it is a movement for some things. It is against education limited to specialised knowledge; it is for greater unity in the learning experience. It is against the traditional organization of subject matter into more or less isolated academic disciplines; it is for inter-disciplinary organization of subject matter. It is against the notion of an especially educated elite; it is for a common educational experience for all. It is against learning as merely reading, listening, memorization, and reflection; it is for learning as an application of thinking to personal and social problem-solving.²

An inference based on these two quotations concerning the reasons for the growth of the general education movement in the United States may easily lead one to conclude tentatively that the movement is an outgrowth of changes in concepts of education, in concepts of learning, and in concepts of social process.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe and examine the philosophical, psychological, and social implications of general education. Following this analysis, the writer intends to formulate his own point of view concerning general education.


Since general education is the center of discussion in this chapter as well as in the entire study being reported, it appears to be logical and necessary at this point to define and clarify the meaning of the key term "general education," by examining definitions and purposes of general education.

Definitions of General Education

Even though the term general education is widely used by American educators, they do not all have the same concept of the term. Moreover, programs of general education are so varied in design that it is difficult to formulate a clear-cut, comprehensive definition. Despite this difficulty many definitions have been stated by sincere writers. Most of these definitions are in agreement in some respects, and fortunately there is an increasing trend toward agreement on the meaning of general education. The quotations which follow in this section of the chapter will indicate certain agreement in definition. An early attempt at defining general education, made by the New York State Regents, is the following statement:

What these boys and girls now need is a broad general education which will give to all alike at least the same minimum essential tools of intercommunication and thinking, the same minimum up-to-date scientific acquaintance with the world in which we live, both natural and social, an appreciation of the culture and standards of our civilisation, the beginnings of the ability to work well with others, a common understanding and belief in the democratic process, and the desire to preserve and defend self-government.  

The contribution of the Regents' Inquiry to the movement of the American secondary school toward meeting the life needs of youth is a well-known fact in the history of the American education. The above quotation from the report of the Regents' Inquiry, published in 1938 after a two-year survey of the schools of the state of New York, is a reaction against the college preparatory nature of their high schools. Before the above-quoted statement in the report, appeared this statement: "Now that all the children are in school, the idea that the school program should be planned from top down, primarily to meet the needs of colleges, is wrong."\(^4\) In the same year that the Inquiry was published, Hutchins, in a speech at the meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, said that "general education is not professional education. The curriculum must be designed to prepare the student for intelligent citizenship."\(^5\) Even though Hutchins' approach to the training of intelligent citizenship was somewhat drastically different from that of the Inquiry, there is a commonality between the two as to the meaning of general education as shown in the two statements.

Four years after the report of the New York Regents' Inquiry (in 1942), the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools published *General Education in the American High School*, which seems to be the first book entirely devoted to general education at the secondary

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\(^4\)Ibid., p. 11.

school level. In the introduction to the volume, Johnson attempts to answer the question "What is general education?" as follows:

General education is general in at least three respects: First, general education is intended for everyone—not merely for the select few who become scholars or who enter the professions.

Second, general education is concerned with the total personality—not merely with the intellect but with emotions, habits, attitudes.

Third, general education is concerned with the individual's non-specialized activities.

James B. Conant, in his writing entitled *Education in a Divided World* published in 1948, claims that the term general education is used to include all those aspects of formal training designed to attain the objectives of education for citizenship and for the good life.

McGrath, in *Toward General Education* published also in 1948, is more inclusive in his definition than Conant. He says:

General education, as we conceive it, is that which prepares the young for the common life of their time and their kind. It includes the fund of knowledge and beliefs and the habits of language and thought which characterize and give stability to a particular social group. It is the unifying element of a culture. It prepares the student for a full and satisfying life as a member of a family, as a worker, as a citizen—an integrated and purposeful human being.

Emphasizing the role of general education as a unifying element of the culture, George H. Henry very recently defined general education

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as "a search for the source of unity in a democratic society." He writes as follows:

...general education is a search. General education seeks to find the common elements that sustain our culture, and this objective becomes so important that even if the 'core program' variant of it should die in a school, some similar plan by another name must serve in its stead.  

Many additional definitions of general education similar to those already quoted are found in numerous educational writings. 

While the definitions which have been considered so far place due emphasis on providing common education for democratic citizenship, there is in them a failure to pinpoint those aspects of general education which differentiate them from those of special-interest education. Nor is there, in these definitions, any clear indication of the relationship between general education and special-interest education. The following quotation will partially serve the purpose of supplementing the lack in establishing the relationship between general and special education.

It should also be understood that there is no competition between general education and vocational education on the one hand, or the common learnings and the differential learnings on the other. They are both important to the welfare of the individual and to the security of the republic. General education should provide not only an adequate background against

10 Ibid., p. 131.
which an intelligent selection of a vocation can be made, but also the sense of direction and the system of values against which a vocation can be truly evaluated.\textsuperscript{12}

While it appears to be very difficult, if not impossible, to distinguish the various aspects of the curriculum, Alberty tried to clarify the meaning of general education by contrasting it with special-interest education. He writes as follows:

...there are two interrelated aspects of education which must be taken into account if the enterprise of optimal development of all is to be taken seriously. First, there are those ideals, attitudes, understandings, and skills that each citizen should possess if he is to plan, work, and act in concert with his fellows; and second, there are those special talents, interests, and needs which are unique, or shared only by groups. This specialized aspect of human development grows out of and plays back into the common life, to vitalize and enrich it.

From the standpoint of the organization of education it is desirable and necessary to distinguish between these two aspects of development because opportunities need to be provided for developing general citizenship (common ideals, attitudes, understandings, and skills) and for the cultivation of special abilities and interests of an avocational and vocational nature. While both of these aspects should be permeated with the same spirit, content and method differ significantly. We are justified then in calling the first aspect general education, and the second, special-interest education. When special-interest education is directed primarily toward developing competence in making a living, we are justified in calling it vocational education.\textsuperscript{13}

Finally it seems to be necessary to distinguish meanings of the terms "general education" and "core curriculum." There are educational leaders who use the terms general education and core curriculum

\textsuperscript{12}Galen Jones, "The High School of the Future," \textit{Teachers College Record}, 50:451-56, April, 1949.

\textsuperscript{13}Harold Alberty, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 162.
synonymously. Aikin in the *Story of the Eight-Year Study* made his position in regard to the two terms clear when he wrote as follows:

As this new work developed, it became necessary to find some term to designate it. Since it was not just English or social studies or science, but all of these and more, it could not be called by any of the conventional subject names. Some schools began to use the terms 'Stem Course,' 'Basic Course,' 'General Education,' but more adapted the designation 'Core Curriculum.' None of these terms is entirely satisfactory, but General Education and Core Curriculum, terms most frequently found in the school reports, are used here synonymously.14

Holding almost the same position as the author of the *Story of the Eight-Year Study*, Alexander and Saylor state that "general education and core curriculum have come to be used almost synonymously to describe various types of curriculum reorganization designed to improve the elements of the high school curriculum common to all pupils."15 However, after listing some significant characteristics of the programs of general education and core curriculum, the authors make some differentiation between the two terms. They write:

Thus the effort is to provide flexibility and purpose to the phases of the curriculum that are considered essential for all high school students. These phases, in their entirety, may be considered 'general education'; the plan itself, or one major kind of plan, the 'core curriculum.'16 Alberty expressed it as follows:

There seems to be one common element in programs that are referred to as the core. The term is applied in some fashion to all or part of the total curriculum which is required of all students at a given level. In other words, the core is used to designate all or part of the program of general education.17

16 Ibid., p. 292.
At this point a further explanation seems to be necessary. When a core program of a school consists of separate subjects required of all, the term "core" is applied to all of the general education program. On the other hand, when a core consists of fusion of two or more subjects or problem areas, there is a tendency to put physical education, mathematics, and the like outside the core but still to require them of all. If this is the case, the core plus those subjects required of all constitute the general education program, and the core is then a part of general education.

To summarize, general education is directly concerned with developing those common values, understandings, attitudes, and skills needed for all citizens of democracy and, therefore, required of all students. General education is differentiated from special-interest education but is not separated from it because general education provides a broad background and gives a sense of direction to special-interest education which, in turn, contributes to enriching the content of general education.

**Purposes of General Education**

Just as there are many definitions of general education in the educational literature, so also there are numerous statements of purposes of general education. Especially well known among students of education are statements made by the President's Commission on Higher Education.\(^{18}\)

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and the California Study of General Education in the Junior College.\textsuperscript{19}

Both of these statements were formulated for the general education programs of higher educational institutions. While there is no basic difference between the two statements of purposes of general education, the one established by the President’s Commission appears to be more applicable to the general education of secondary schools. These objectives were —

1. To develop for the regulation of one's personal and civic life a code of behavior based on ethical principles consistent with democratic ideals.

2. To participate actively as an informed and responsible citizen in solving the social, economic, and political problems of one's community, State, and Nation.

3. To recognize the interdependence of the different peoples of the world and one's personal responsibility for fostering international understanding and peace.

4. To understand the common phenomena in one's physical environment, to apply habits of scientific thought to both personal and civic problems, and to appreciate the implications of scientific discoveries for human welfare.

5. To understand the ideas of others and to express one's own effectively.

6. To attain satisfactory emotional and social adjustment.

7. To maintain and improve his own health and to cooperate actively and intelligently in solving community health problems.

8. To understand and enjoy literature, art, music, and other cultural activities as expressions of personal and social experience, and to participate to some extent in some form of creative activity.

9. To acquire the knowledge and attitudes basic to a satisfying family life.

10. To choose a socially useful and personally satisfying vocation that will permit one to use to the full his particular interests and abilities.

11. To acquire and use the skills and habits involved in critical and constructive thinking.\textsuperscript{20}


\textsuperscript{20} President’s Commission on Higher Education, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 50-57.
One may infer from this statement a scope for general education which, except for the development of vocational competence, is as broad as that of all education. However, for the purpose of differentiating the scope of general education from that of all education, it is necessary to point out that the task of general education in each of these eleven statements is primarily to seek the growth and development needed by all students.  

French and Associates, attempting a further clarification of the scope of general education which is implied in the statement of the purposes made by the President’s Commission, write as follows:

Specialized education continues, both in the secondary and higher schools, the process of self-realization begun in general education by providing more complete and detailed experiences with one or more of these goals for particular students. The problem before us is not that of deciding which of these areas to exclude from general education, but rather that of deciding how far we should go toward each of these goals.

On the assumption that purposes of general education should be as broad as those of all education, the members of the committee of The Survey Study of Behavioral Outcomes of General Education in High School based their development of specific behavioral goals of general education on the *Purpose of Education in American Democracy* which had been developed by the Educational Policies Commission in 1938. The four major purposes of education in American democracy established by the Commission are (1) self-realization, (2) better human relations, (3) economic

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efficiency, and (4) civic responsibility. From these four major objectives of education the members of the committees of the Survey Study attempted further to analyze and subdivide each of them until they came out with a statement of illustrative behaviors. Since the purpose of this section is to help clarify the meaning of general education, a more detailed analysis of various approaches to the establishment of the purposes of general education will be made later in this report.

While there are few disagreements among educators in regard to the general statements of the meaning and broad function of general education, there appears to be a wide variety of disagreements in the methods and consequently in the outcomes of general education. These differences in methods and outcomes occur because of the different philosophical, psychological, and sociological viewpoints of general education. Before undertaking a separate treatment of these three foundations of general education, it must be pointed out here that these three foundations are so intricately interrelated among themselves that a full discussion of one foundation independent from others is not only undesirable but also impossible except for convenience of organizing the discussion.

PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS OF GENERAL EDUCATION

A philosophy, being a guide to human conduct, consists of a set of general concepts about man, principles of nature, and values influencing

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and at the same time growing out of human experiences in a certain age, culture, and society. On these concepts, principles, and values, the goals of education are based. These concepts, principles, and values are not always fixed; they have not received unanimous agreement and they have not provided a basis for action for everyone in any society and any age of history. As a society changes, there are "shifts in basic patterns of ideas." Harold Taylor explains this phenomenon well when he writes:

These shifts in basic patterns of ideas occur whenever there is an opportunity within a society for new ideas to assert themselves and for people who observe the events of their time freshly, free from intellectual inhibitions and social restraints, to express their attitudes and beliefs, both by way of thought and by way of action. Therefore, the process of an open society, as revealed in the values implicit in its educational system, merge with the processes of thought expressed in philosophies, and philosophy and education become the means by which a society becomes aware of itself and its tendencies.  

Because of this process of ideas changing as society changes and because of the influences of those groups of people who are inclined to support and further develop a pattern of ideas different from those of others, there have emerged the several philosophies which exist at the present time. The same process is at work with the philosophy of education, and more specifically with the philosophy of general education in the United States, a topic which the writer will attempt to discuss briefly in the following pages.

While there are various ways of classifying and analysing the trends in American philosophy of education, it is not within the scope of this

study to search out and treat all of them. Nor is it the purpose to treat even the ones selected for consideration in very great detail. The scheme used by Taylor in his analyses of different philosophical approaches to general education seemed to be more appropriate for the purpose of this study than any of the others, and it is used by the writer as a pattern for analyzing the major philosophical approaches to general education.

Taylor identifies, classifies, and discusses the philosophical foundations of general education under three major divisions of thought. The first of these is rationalism which uses as its basic frame of reference neither the immediate American influences nor the nineteenth-century European movements, but a stream of thought in Greek philosophy represented mainly by Aristotle and St. Thomas' system of philosophy of the medieval period. It places utmost emphasis on the training of the reason which is to apprehend universal or absolute truth, leaving the determination of partial truth to experience and science.

The second philosophical approach to general education is that of eclecticism which Taylor describes as neo-humanism. The advocates of this system of thought assume a dualism between mind and body as in the

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case of the rationalists. The neo-humanist refuses to formulate any specific philosophical system in support of the kind of general education program he recommends. This plan of general education is believed to be best represented by the program described in General Education in a Free Society, a report of the Harvard Committee on the Objectives of a General Education in a Free Society.

The third approach is that of naturalism and instrumentalism which, in the main, have grown out of the work of William James and John Dewey. These philosophers, in turn, have been influenced by the nineteenth-century European movements as represented by the works of Darwin and Bergson and by the organismic philosophy. The terms "pragmatism" and "experimentalism" are also used in the place of "instrumentalism," but the writer prefers to use "instrumentalism" as did Taylor. In contrast to the first two trends, naturalism denies any kind of dualism, and its central emphasis is empirical. Conclusions are suspended in this philosophy until it is proved by scientific knowledge. Implications of each of these trends for general education will be briefly discussed in the following pages.

Rationalism

The philosophy of rationalism is represented, in its basic orientation, by the thoughts of the neo-Thomists, whose leader, Jacques Maritain laid the philosophical foundations for programs of general education for the Catholic schools and colleges. The introduction and

27 For much of the presentation of the divisions of philosophical thought, the writer is indebted to Harold Taylor, op. cit.
application of this system of philosophy to the secular educational institution was made primarily by Mortimer Adler, who was followed by Hutchins and Van Doren.

The neo-Thomist view of human nature and values is described in terms of a hierarchy of being and values. More specifically, man finds his place in a hierarchy of being in which he is above the animal and below the universal spirit. By the same token, "in the intellectual realm, wisdom, which knows things eternal and creates order and unity in the mind, is superior to science or to knowledge through particular causes; and the speculative intellect, which knows for the sake of knowing, comes before the practical intellect, which knows for the sake of action."28

Oriented to the neo-Thomist view of man and values, the followers of the rationalism hold that man is distinct from other animals by virtue of his rationality and, therefore, the sole aim of education or of life itself is to cultivate man's reason or intellect in order to enable him to apprehend the universal truth. In rationalism with its dualistic view of the nature of man and truth, reason is a separate entity cut off from and superior to its social and physical entity. By the same token the universal or absolute truth is cut off from and superior to the partial truth, and both reason and the universal truth are everywhere the same.

This view of reason or intellect and truth is expressed by Hutchins in the following sentences.

Teaching implies knowledge. Knowledge is truth. The truth is everywhere the same. Hence education should be everywhere the same...

If education is rightly understood, it will be understood as the cultivation of the intellect. The cultivation of the intellect is the same good for all men in all societies. It is, moreover, the good for which all other goods are only means. Material prosperity, peace and civil order, justice and the moral virtues are means to the cultivation of the intellect.  

For the rationalists, there is a definite distinction between ends and means. Van Doren makes this distinction clearly when he expresses his view of democratic citizenship education. He states:

Democracy cannot survive a loss of faith that the best man will make the best citizen. It certainly cannot afford to educate men for citizenship, for efficiency, or for use. Its only authority is reason, just as its only strength is criticism.

From the above statement of Van Doren, one may conclude that a good democratic citizen will result from the cultivation of reason, that is believed to make men good, rather than from a specific program for citizenship education.

In relation to the source of truth, the advocates of rationalism assert that universal truths are discovered by the great thinkers of the classical tradition of the Western world. Accordingly, it is the common belief of the rationalists, as expressed by Taylor, that "within the work of the classical thinkers is to be found a set of objective principles and of absolute values which reflect factors inherent in the universe and inherent in the relation of man to nature." Thus the study of the prescribed texts of the Western tradition was assumed by the


31 Harold Taylor, *op. cit.*, p. 27.
rationalist to lead the learner to the discovery of the absolute values and principles which are believed to apply to all affairs of everyday living.

From these basic assumptions of the rationalist system of thought, it follows that the curriculum for general education is to consist of a carefully selected and prescribed set of textbooks which constitute an organized body of knowledge based on the classical works of the great thinkers of the Western tradition. It also follows that such a curriculum is valid for all students and at all times.

At the meeting of the National Association of Secondary School Principals in Atlantic City in February, 1938, Hutchins suggested an outline of the program for general education for the last two years of high school and the first two years of college. In his proposed program, he mentions:

I do not hold that general education should be limited to the classics of Greece and Rome. I do not believe that it is possible to insist that all students who should have a general education must study Greek and Latin. I do hold that tradition is important in education—that its primary purpose, indeed, is to help the student understand the intellectual tradition in which he lives. I do not see how he can reach this understanding unless he understands the great books of the Western world, beginning with Homer and coming down to our own day. If anybody can suggest a better method of accomplishing the purpose, I shall gladly embrace him and it.32

The practical learning activities of the rationalists then consist of those activities which will enhance the students' understanding of the materials drawn from classical literature, philosophy, science, and the arts; these understandings will come through listening to lectures, reading a great deal, and participating in discussions. Evaluation of

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student progress in the rationalist program of general education does not require any complicated techniques of measurement. Evidence of student progress can be established simply by giving examinations or using other methods designed to measure the amount of these materials which the student has perceived and remembered and to measure the ability of the student to analyze and manipulate abstract ideas. If a student is able to demonstrate through examination his ability to reason on the basis of his knowledge of the Western tradition, he is assumed to be able to carry out the responsibilities of citizenship.

Eclecticism and Neo-Humanism

As Taylor uses the term "eclecticism," it does not commit itself to either of two extreme philosophical views of the general education program—rationalism and instrumentalism. Instead, it adopts the assumptions from both extreme positions. It accepts the assumptions of the Western tradition and culture on the one hand and the assertions of science on the other; and it attempts to reconcile them. This position, eclectic in character, is well expressed as follows:

We do not believe, for example, that education can safely be left with those who see our culture solely through the eyes of formal religion. Neither do we think this culture wholly reflected in any one list of great books,... But we are equally suspicious of those empiricists who believe the truth is to be found only in experiment, a position that finally implies the denial of any stable truth. Without denying the partial value of any of these views, we believe rather that the main task of education is to interpret at all stages both the general and the particular—both the common sphere of truth and the specific avenues of growth and change.33

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The more positive expression of the position the neo-humanists hold is seen in the following quotation:

The true task of education is therefore so to reconcile the sense of pattern and direction deriving from heritage with the sense of experiment and innovation deriving from science that they may exist fruitfully together, as in varying degrees they have never ceased to do throughout Western history.  

The neo-humanist makes a distinction between scientific fact and moral value on the assumption that it is through literary and philosophical disciplines that one reaches truth and moral choice but not through science. Science, in the neo-humanist realm of thought, is only capable of validating fact but cannot lead one to ultimate reality or moral ends.

The neo-humanist holds a classical view of human nature. He assumes the intellect as being divided into faculties of reason, imagination, and memory. From this view of human nature, it follows that each of these faculties has its own appropriate area for education. An emphasis is placed, in this system, upon the necessity of educating the whole person, but the interpretation of "education of the whole person" is different from that of the naturalist or instrumentalist. The former refers to the harmony of the desires with the reason, or the control of emotion by reason, while the latter refers to the concept of integrated whole of human individual. Accordingly, the provisions for social and emotional development of the individual in the general education proposed by neo-humanists are simply left to the study of the subject matter in the major areas of knowledge; which are the humanities, social studies, mathematics, and science. The assumption here, therefore, is that emotional and social development follow normally as a natural sequence from academic study.

34Ibid., p. 50.
An important task of educators in planning a general education program under this philosophy is the selection of significant ideas and information to constitute the content of the subject matter in the major areas of knowledge. Since the cultivation of a sense of values and the development of clear thinking have to come through the study of the subjects, the subjects to be studied must be well selected to include a sense of values and they must also be well organized so that teaching and learning can be easily achieved.

The instructional activities in this scheme of general education do not differ much from those of the rationalist. The important values and principles have to be learned through acquisition of information presented in the texts, because the neo-humanist assumes that the knowledge of the good will lead to a commitment to the good. The effective way of presenting the materials has to be worked out by the teacher. The connections and relationships between these materials are assumed to be established in the student through careful guidance of the teacher in order to secure a meaningful pattern. The assumption here is that such a pattern will lead the student's mind to the integration of the knowledge and value for which general education is planned. Accordingly, it is not difficult in this scheme of general education to consider the acquisition of factual knowledge and understanding of the subject matter as the major factors to be measured in an evaluation program.

Naturalism and Instrumentalism

The naturalism and its branch system, instrumentalism, differ drastically from the rationalism and the neo-humanism in the concepts of truth,
knowledge, and human nature. The instrumentalist does not accept such a
notion that there are absolute truths which man has to follow. Instead,
the instrumentalist holds that truth works outward from individual ex-
perience; this results in the development of concepts and facts which
are continuously reaffirmed, modified, or denied through the unending
process of the reconstruction of the experiences of the individual.

In this sense, then, any truth or law is nothing but a hypothesis
which is yet to be tested by subsequent experiences. This position of
instrumentalism toward truth is expressed by Orville Brim as follows:

Moreover, all laws are approximation. They never get
beyond the level of hypotheses—hypotheses which have unusual
reliability, it is true, but differ in degree rather than in
kind from the conclusions of the theorist. As a consequence,
they take on the quality of general principles or concepts
that should be used as the weapons of intellectual attack as
we face a new post, that should guide us in handling a novel
situation rather than as a law to be followed or obediently
and slavishly applied. They should facilitate thinking rather
than be a substitute for it.35

The assumption here is that truths or principles arrived at and de-
scribed through this reconstruction of experience are no less certain than
the absolute truths accepted by the rationalists and/or the neo-humanists.
Moreover, the instrumentalist asserts that truths or principles which
were arrived at through continuous reconstruction of experience are more
meaningful to the searcher and are less dogmatic.

Knowledge, in this system, is conceived not as an end in itself but
as a means to a more intelligent solution of life problems. Thus,
knowledge can lead to a more meaningful life for the individual and a

35Orville G. Brim, The Foundations of Progressive Education, Con-
tributions to Education No. 1. Columbus, Ohio: Elementary Education Club
of Ohio State University, 1935, p. 8.
freer order for the society. For an instrumentalist, knowledge is not something given or a fixed reality but the product of interaction between the organism and his environment, or what we call experience. Interpretation of knowledge is a description of the process through which particular problems are actually solved by the method of reflective thinking.

Thus, knowledge and values or truths, in the instrumentalist system of thought, exist within the realm of the individual's experience. Behind this assumption lies the theory of human nature of the instrumentalist. This theory is a revolutionary departure from the traditional theory in which the individual student is conceived to be a passive responder. The instrumentalist conceives the individual student as a dynamic whole rather than a passive, responding mechanism. Growth and behavior occur when the unique, dynamic, and living organism interacts with the equally dynamic and changing environment. There is no dualism in this system between organism and environment, mind and body, intelligence and emotion, and stimulus and reaction. All these are regarded "as parts of a dynamic, on-going process of life, which we call experience, and of which the behavior act is a unit."

When the individual student is conceived as a dynamic organism, it is assumed that he has growth potential or, borrowing a phrase from dynamic psychology, he represents a system of energy in unstable equilibrium. Behavior and growth occur when the organism extends its inner energy outward in interaction with its environment, or when the organism strives for greater stability of equilibrium. In this concept of man as

a dynamic organism, it is also implied that the individual student is intent upon carrying out his purpose. In other words, he is constantly expending energy in ways dictated by the purposes he is attempting to achieve. The foundation on which the instrumentalist depends for his view of human nature is the discoveries in various fields of science, especially in biology, neurology, and psychology.  

Moreover, according to the instrumentalist, concepts of values and human nature are inseparably bound to his commitment to the philosophy of democracy, which emphasizes above all the respect of individual personality, the use of the method of intelligence in problem solving, and the application of cooperative living. These characteristics of a democratic society are imperative conditions for the optimal development of human personality. In relation to the respect for human personality and its optimal development, Hook presents the instrumentalist view of democracy as follows:

The philosophy of progressive education had from the outset been committed to the belief that only in a democracy, and in a continuously expanding social democracy, can the end of individual growth be achieved. This follows from the concern with which the needs of every child were to be considered, the necessity of harmonizing these needs to permit their fruitful expansion, and the recognition that genuine equality of educational opportunity demands social democracy at one end and industrial democracy at the other.  

The use of the method of intelligence or reflective thinking underlies the instrumentalist concept of truth, values, and knowledge; and it

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is intimately related to the concept of growth as the reconstruction of experience. It is through the use of reflective thinking that one can arrive at certain concepts, facts, values, and judgment which will be reliable.

Cooperative living as another characteristic of democratic society has also a significance to the optimal development of human personality. The rationale of cooperative living of the optimal development of human personality, and of the respect for human personality is well described by the Committee on Philosophy of Education, appointed by the Progressive Education Association in September, 1938. The Committee states:

It is only in the process of living and working together that the optimal development of personality can be achieved. Only as man shares with his fellows in achieving common ends, does he best grow and develop as a distinctive personality. Hence, in a democracy it is necessary to organize our social, economic and political life in such a way as to provide for ever increasing participation of all. This means, on the one hand, that the unique contributions of the individual to the common good are cherished and utilized; on the other, that group action springs increasingly from common consent.... These two ideals, respect for human personality and associated living or participation are, as has been suggested, reciprocal in character. The more we respect human personality, the greater will be our concern for organizing our social institutions to promote its development and the more we share in the common life, the greater will be the enhancement of the individual.39

Because the instrumentalists hold these new concepts (of man, knowledge, value, and democracy), the problems involved in the selection and organization of educative experiences have to be seen in a new light.

In the general education program advocated by the instrumentalist, there is little place for either fixed aims or fixed subject matter which

are favored by the rationalist and/or the neo-humanist. Instead the educational program in this philosophy is constantly in process of development; the changes occur according to changes in student purposes and needs and according to changes in the structure of the society in which he lives. It deals more directly with problems and issues in contemporary society because the student lives here and now. This emphasis on contemporary problems and issues does not necessarily ignore the past; rather the past is significant only when it relates to the present concern and provides means for the solution of the problems faced here and now. Thus, it follows that a thorough study of the characteristics of child development and of the dynamics of societal change becomes prerequisites of curriculum making.

The teaching and learning activity in this system deliberately fosters student purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating individually and/or as a group under the guidance of the teacher, instead of having the teacher plan and the students follow. The democratic procedure in the solution of common problems is extremely highly recommended. The necessary information for the solution of the problem is sought from all the available sources including all the subject areas and resource personnel both in and out of the school. An evaluation program in such a system, then, is more than measuring facts and information learned by the students; rather it is concerned with all the aspects of total human growth and development.

The writer so far has reviewed here three major philosophical approaches to general education in the United States. In practice, some schools may hold philosophical positions which do not exactly agree with
either one of these three. It may be safe to say, however, that in most instances the general education programs in the country can be placed on a continuum somewhere between rationalism at one extreme and instrumentalism at the other. It may also be safe to point out that, as far as professional writing in contemporary education is concerned, there is a growing trend in the direction of the philosophy of instrumentalism.

As previously mentioned it is almost impossible to treat fully philosophical foundations of general education independent of psychological and social foundation because of the interrelatedness of these three. In fact, some reference has already been made to psychological and social concepts in the discussion concerning philosophy. By the same token some philosophical concepts will appear in the ensuing discussions of psychological and social foundations of general education. It is possible that a better viewpoint concerning general education can be established by seeking deliberately to establish interrelatedness of these three aspects of general education backgrounds.

PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS OF GENERAL EDUCATION

All the programs of general education, whatever philosophical position they may take, have one purpose in common among them: to bring about changes in students which will insure improvement of individual welfare and the betterment of society. But they disagree regarding the method of bringing about desirable changes. These differences in method are based on different conceptions of learning.

It is the purpose of this section to examine major conceptions of learning by reviewing three major schools of psychology of learning.
While there are various ways of classifying the major theories of learning, the scheme proposed by Alberty seems to be most appropriate to this study. His classification includes (1) mind-substance theory, (2) association theories of learning, and (3) field theories of learning.  

**Mind-Substance Theory**

The foundation on which the mind-substance theory stands is the concept of man as a free soul. This theory differentiates mind from body, a situation called by the familiar term "dualism." Bode, in his critical examination of this theory, describes this dualism as follows:

Matter is spacial; the mind is non-spacial. Matter is subject to the rigid and universal laws of nature; the mind is free and responsible for its acts. Matter is corruptible; the mind is incorruptible. Matter is confined to the present; the mind can live in the past and in the future. Matter is a collection of atoms, with no destiny but blind, unending movement; the mind is an indivisible unit and an independent source of goodness, beauty, and truth.  

Thus, a properly trained mind or intellect leads man to goodness, beauty, and truth; and consequently he becomes an intelligent citizen of society.

If we accept this theory of mind, then it follows that (as pointed out by Bode in his criticism of the theory) "all learning is a process of  

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developing or training the mind, and it can be nothing else.42 Bode's
comment is correct because in this system it is assumed, as Hutchins says,
that "an intellect properly disciplined, an intellect properly habituated,
is an intellect able to operate well in all fields."43 This, then, enthrones the concept of formal discipline.

The close relationship between the mind-substance theory and the
general education programs proposed by the rationalist and the neo-
humanists is observed in their common concept of mind. The mind-substance
theory assumes the division of the mind into the faculties of reason,
memory, and imagination as the two philosophical groups did. From this
primary assumption there follows a secondary assumption that the training
of the mind is achieved by the discipline of those faculties through
subjects appropriate for each of them. For instance, as Hutchins says,
"correctness in thinking may be more directly and impressively taught
through mathematics than in any other way."44 Similar to Hutchins' statement, but in more or less flexible terms, the Harvard Report states
that "doubtless some courses will contribute more to some traits and
others to others."45 It may be inferred from the above quotations that
the programs suggested by the rationalist and neo-humanist are given
support, consciously or unconsciously, by the mind-substance theory.

42 Ibid., p. 35.
44 Ibid., p. 84.
45 The Harvard Committee, op. cit., p. 74.
Practical application of this theory to general education dictates that difficult subjects and intensive drill be required in order to provide for mental discipline. Specific objectives of education such as improving skills, understandings, and attitudes in everyday affairs are not in themselves considered to be of major importance in the learning situation; this is true because the well-disciplined mind is assumed to sense intuitively appropriate conduct in any new situation.

Alberty concludes concerning this theory that "so far as psychology is concerned, this doctrine is dead."[46] The only justification for the treatment of the theory at all is its significant contribution to the evaluation of the validity of some of the programs of general education. The major issues of today in the field of psychology of learning lie between two dominant groups: the association theories and the field theories of learning.

**Association Theories of Learning**

Association theories of learning represent a group of psychological schools which include Thorndike's connectionism, Watson's behaviorism, Skinner's conditioning theory, and Hull's systematic behavior theory.[47] While these psychological schools differ among themselves in a minor way as regards their interpretation of learning phenomenon, they are in general agreement among themselves in their mechanistic view of human learning. They assume that wholes are built up from parts and that the learner reacts as a collection of parts rather than as a unified whole.

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[47] For detailed analysis of the positions of these psychological schools, see Ernest R. Hilgard, *op. cit.*
In the association system actual learning is explained in the relationship between stimulus and response, or more specifically between sense impressions and impulses to action. A connection or bond which is formed through association between these two different elements is the basis of learning accepted by the associationists. Effectiveness of learning depends upon the quantity of the formed bonds and their availability, and repetition of the connections with reward tends to reinforce the bonds. Thus, learning in this system is a process of habit formation through repetitive drill. In explaining the act of problem solving, "the stimulus-response psychologist finds the learner assembling his habits from the past appropriate to the new problem, responding either according to the elements that the new problem has in common with familiar ones, or according to aspects of the new situation which are similar to situations met before."\(^{48}\) When the new situation or problem is of such nature that no identical element is present or when past habits do not provide enough "bonds" to solve the new problem, the learner resorts to "trial and error" until the problem is solved. This is the explanation of the associationist of transfer of learning and problem solving. At this point it comes in conflict with the theory of formal discipline accepted by those who support the mind-substance theory.

The atomistic concept of the whole and the mechanistic interpretation of human learning accepted by the proponents of the association theories had some influence on the scientific movement of the American education in the earlier part of this century. In this movement, objectives of education are concerned with specific knowledge, habits,

\(^{48}\text{Ibid.}, \ p. \ 10.\)
skills, and attitudes to be acquired instead of the development of gener­
al intellectual power. In order to prepare students to live in a highly
complex society, the abilities necessary for numerous activities must be
carefully analyzed and isolated for training; and this training is to be
done without reference to the purpose, needs, and interests of the
learner. The classroom procedures, then, put more emphasis on lectures
about predetermined topics, on drill, and on memorization of specific
facts rather than on the use of reflective thinking. Teacher domination
of the classroom is likely to prevent cooperative teacher-pupil planning.
In evaluating student achievement it is assumed that all specific
learnings can be measured through the use of objective instruments.

General education programs designed around the subject-matter fields
are likely to follow the general principles of learning accepted by the
associationists. This is true because once a subject is assigned to be
studied, it leaves little choice for the teacher and students except to
cover the ground as dictated by the subject or textbook.

Field Theories of Learning

The third, or last group of conflicting theories of learning to be
treated is designated by such terms as field theories, organismic theory,
dynamic psychology of learning, and Gestalt psychology. Regardless of
the designation used, this group of learning theories had its origin in
the works of Max Wertheimer, who was followed by Kohler and Koffka in
the early part of the present century. These three leaders in the early
development of this group of learning theories are known as Gestalt
theorists. They gave a new direction to the ideas concerning learning
by emphasizing such aspects as "cognitive structure," the role of the dynamic nature of the organism, and the role of meaning, of understanding, and of insight in the learning process. More recently Lewin, a student of Gestalt psychology, presented a theory, called "field theory," in which greater emphasis is placed on the role of the "whole" learner with reference to his "total" environment.

The basic assumption underlying the field theories of learning is the view of man as a whole. After pointing out the major fallacy of the mechanistic point of view of man in which wholes are assumed to be made up of parts, Wheeler and Perkins claim that "a whole is more than the sum of its parts." The authors call this statement "the law of field properties." They also present "the law of derived properties" which states that "parts derive their properties from wholes."

In order to answer the question of how the organism functions as a whole or a unit, Wheeler and Perkins advanced two laws. The first is "the law of maximum work" which states "that any influence affecting a system of energy, affects it throughout," and "that in an energy system a maximum amount of energy, for any given set of conditions, will be expended in the course of maintaining balance." The second law is "the law of configuration" which the authors describe as follows:

A system of energy always functions as a unit, and always adjusts itself to a multitude of disturbing influences. The multitude of disturbing influences is called a total situation, and the unit that adjusts itself is called a configuration.... It is a whole whose parts are dependent upon organization for the manner in which they will function. Because this is true, the effect that any single outside influence will have depends upon the effects of all the other influences.

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50. Ibid., p. 19. 51. Ibid., p. 31. 52. Ibid., p. 33.
The second important assumption underlying the field theories of learning is the acceptance of "growth potential in the individual, which gives to his behavior spontaneity, a searching character, aggressiveness, and creativeness." Growth potential, which is in itself creative, is the key factor which makes growth possible in the process of interaction between the organism and its environment. Coghill, who gave support to the field theories of learning through his findings from the study of Amblystoma, states the following:

The real measure of the individual, accordingly, whether lower animal or man, must include the element of growth as a creative power. Man is, indeed, a mechanism, but he is a mechanism which, within his limitations of life, sensitivity and growth, is creating and operating himself.

The third assumption of the field theories of learning which are intimately interrelated with the first and the second assumptions is that human behavior is goal-seeking behavior. When the learner faces a new problematic situation his equilibrium is disturbed and his actions are an attempt to restore equilibrium. In this goal-seeking behavior of the learner his intrinsic needs, desires, and purposes supply the driving forces and directions to action. This concept of goal-seeking behavior gives a new explanation of the nature of motivation. The learner's intrinsic needs and purposes provide a more primary motivation for learning than reward or punishment.

It is on the basis of these three basic assumptions concerning human nature that the field theorists explain the process of learning. As previously indicated, learning is conceived in this system as an active process of interaction between the dynamic organism with growth potential

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53 Ibid., p. 222. 54 C. E. Coghill, op. cit., p. 110.
and the equally dynamic total environment; and it is through this active process of interaction that the learner reconstructs his experience toward optimal development and growth. This dynamic concept of learning then puts great emphasis on both the learner as a whole and the total environment and stresses that these two factors are not regarded as separate entities but as a functional unit. The end result of learning for the field theorist is the grasp of meaning and understanding rather than habits formed through drill. Finally this dynamic concept of learning has opened up new possibilities in its interpretation of transfer of learning by emphasizing understanding and relationship instead of identical elements. Hilgard, commenting on the field theorists' ideas regarding transfer, states:

There is something in common between the earlier learning and the situation in which transfer is found, but what exists in common is not identical piecemeal elements but common patterns, configurations, or relationships. One of the advantages of learning by understanding rather than by rote process is that understanding is transposable to wider ranges of situations, and less often leads to erroneous applications of old learning.  

The field theories of learning which have been examined and reported upon briefly come very close to proving the validity of the general propositions underlying the general education program suggested by the instrumentalists. The organismic concept of man as a dynamic whole who is capable of directing his growth according to his purpose is, as it was indicated in the discussion of the instrumentalism, the basic tenet of the instrumentalists in planning a general education program. If learning is an active process of interaction between the learner and his

environment, the task of education becomes one of guiding the interaction or experience by providing an environment which is appropriate to the purpose, needs, and ability of the learner. If the learner is considered as having creative potentiality to grow and if the needs and purposes of the learner are regarded as basic motivating factors in learning, then clues for planning a general education program are to be found in the individual learner—his purposes, needs, problem, and interests. Advocates of this system of learning also recognize the importance of developing useful skills and the need for drill in developing certain skills. However, they insist (1) that skills are more effectively mastered in connection with meaningful activities in which the skills are integral parts and (2) that, if drill is required, it should be based on understanding.

With respect to transfer of learning, the Gestalt psychologists contend that transfer of learning is possible not because there are identical elements in the old and new situations but because of the presence of common patterns, configurations, or relationships. For the Gestalt psychologists, especially for the configurationists, insight plays a vital role in transfer of learning and in solving new problems. For them insight into, or understanding of, the relationship of means to ends in a problem situation leads to solution of the problem; and such a perceived relationship, or generalization, is transferable to another problem situation in which the relationship is applicable although there may be some differences between the two situations. The field theorists' interpretation of the transfer of learning (with its emphasis on insight, understanding, configuration, and relationship) provides a logical basis
for the psychological implications of the method of intelligence or reflectivethinking, which method is highly recommended in the program proposed by the instrumentalists. As pointed out by Alberty, "the reconstruction of the situation in terms of old and new meanings (insights) is, in a sense, transfer."^56

The field theories of learning have exerted more influence on programs of general education in recent years than the other theories. Programs of general education based upon the organismic concepts of learning place great emphasis on the spontaneous growth of students through their participation in the cooperative teacher-student activity of identifying problems common to the group, in planning the solution of their problems, in carrying out their plan, and in evaluating their work. The use of reflective thinking and the use of democratic procedures are regarded as the bases for effective learning. Throughout the process of teaching and learning, the teacher plays the role of guide, of a resource person, and of a member of the group. Subject matter is brought in as needed for solving problems.

Important considerations for evaluation in such programs of general education are measurement and appraisal of changes in student behavior in terms of values, attitudes, understandings, problem solving, and skills which are needed by responsible citizens of a democracy. Since these aspects of human development are intangible in character, the evaluation of them requires procedures different from the traditional methods which put primary emphasis on mastery of subject matter.

^56 Harold Alberty, op. cit., p. 67.
So far three psychological concepts of human nature and the learning process have been studied in relation to the various general education programs proposed by the different philosophical groups. Even though it is rather generally admitted that the mind-substance theory belongs to an outmoded psychological theory of learning, there still exists considerable controversy between the associationists and field theorists. However, there is an increasing number of professional writers and researchers favoring the field theories. Accordingly, more reliance can justifiably be placed on the field theories than on the association theories. Nevertheless, there is a need for clarification and refinement of the field theories in order that they may be applied to the learning situations.

SOCIAL FOUNDATIONS OF GENERAL EDUCATION

It is almost a universal belief of socialologists, educators, and laymen that society is in process of change, regardless of whether the change is desirable or undesirable. There is a variety of conflicting opinions among professional as well as lay persons regarding the role of the school in the social order. Some would simply prepare students to adapt to the changing social conditions; others would deliberately attempt to keep students from the influence of changing social conditions in an effort to preserve tradition; still others would prefer to have schools take an active part in directing the present social order toward a new one. And among the latter group, there are those who hold that the school should be society centered, while others put more emphasis on the learner. There are also those who insist that the
school should indoctrinate the ideals and principles necessary for effective participation in social change. This variety of opinion concerning the role of school in society is due primarily to the differences in concepts regarding the nature and the extent of social change occurring in society and regarding the differences in social values. Accordingly, the writer will attempt here to examine briefly the different points of view concerning social change with reference to their implications for general education.

Theories of Social Change

Among the older theories of social change are (1) the "great man theory," (2) "determinism," and (3) the "theory of cyclical social change." The "great man theory" holds that the major change of society and its culture is directed by the genius and intuition of great men, who are regarded as appearing when "the time is ripe." The "determinism" regards changes in society as inevitable or determined. There are two forms of determinism, (1) direct and (2) indirect and evolutionary. The direct determinism considers social changes as resulting from biological, geographic, and economic conditions. The indirect determinists recognize intermediary steps and series of influences before the final changes result. Hegel's dialectic approach in his interpretation of social change provided a theoretical foundation of evolutionary determinism. The "theory of cyclical social change" claims that the beginning, development, and fall of a society and culture follow a cycle. These theories of social change bear a deterministic view in varying degrees and tend to deal with a single factor selected as a basis of social change and to
ignore the dynamics of other social elements. These theories are accepted by few, if any, contemporary sociologists.  

A widely accepted theory of social change during the early part of the current century was the "theory of social lag," which regards the culture as being broadly divided into "material culture" and "adoptive culture." The material culture includes technology, while the adoptive culture includes institutions, morals, and beliefs. The adoptive culture lags behind material culture, and it is this lag which causes social conflicts, problems, maladjustment, and crises. In this theory, technological invention is significantly regarded as a source of social change.  

A theory frequently supported by anthropologists is known as the "theory of social contact and cultural diffusion." In this theory, persons in isolated societies tend to have a stable life and culture and enjoy the traditional ways of living; but when people with divergent cultural backgrounds come in contact, cultural diffusion begins to take place through the process of conscious or unconscious borrowing of cultural elements from one to another.  

There is another well-known theory of social change which identifies social movements as a basic source of social change. Social movements occur because of the restlessness of the members of the society who are dissatisfied with the social structure. The scope of the movement

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depends upon the degree of dissatisfaction felt by these members, the effectiveness of a process of public opinion formation, and the nature of the existing social structure. 60

Most of theories briefly described so far do not touch upon the specific roles of an individual as being among the causes of social change. This failure to include the role of the individual may be due to the tendency of the historians, anthropologists, sociologists, and other scientists who contributed to those theories to place emphasis on the broader perspective. Moreover, the social changes themselves are usually thought of as being broad, general trends in society and culture.

Some of the recent theories have a great deal of support in empirical facts, but they also, like the older theories, tend to identify some outstanding source of social change but fail to explain the dynamics of the change which occurs within the individual and in his relationship to others or society. If one arbitrarily follows these deterministic theories, he may come out with a notion that the task of education is simply to adapt to, or at the best reflect, the changing society which follows its own predetermined course toward a definite goal. If one takes a positive position of the possibility of the individual participation in the change and if he, at the same time takes the deterministic view of social change, he would logically use indoctrination as a method of educating the students. For once the direction of a goal is definitely fixed, there is little opportunity left for the spontaneous, creative intelligence of man to change the direction. Examples of the latter case are found in the communist governments and other dictatorial states 60.  

60. Ibid.
where individual purposes and interests are all subordinated to the
great goal of the states.

**Individual and Society in Interaction**

Even though most students of social change have tended to ignore or
overlook the important place occupied by the individual in social change
they all agree that society consists of individuals, and they would also
agree that all the social changes work through individuals. The signifi­
cance of the role played by the individual in his social interaction has,
in the recent years, been gaining increasing attention of the students of
human relations and the group process. Understanding of the way in which
the individual and society influence each other is of utmost importance
for the curriculum designer who is interested in the welfare of the indi­
vidual student as well as in the welfare of society.

In her explanation of the social process, Tourglich writes that
"society is the web of human interrelationships through which we live.
It is the entire network of dynamic processes which constitute a social
equilibrium, or balance."61 George H. Mead contends that mind and self
are without exception the result of social interaction, and the process
is aided by the use of language, a "significant vocal gesture." Mead
sets two stages for the development of self. At the first stage, the
individual takes the demands, values, and attitudes of the other indi­
viduals (in the situation) toward himself and toward each other. At the
second stage, the self, which was heavily influenced by these particular
demands and attitudes of others, reaches its full development by organizing

the demands, values, and attitudes of other individuals into the organized social attitudes and by bringing the social attitudes of the "generalized other" into the process of reconstruction of his experience. In the same manner, the individual self influences others in their development of social or group behaviors. 62

Mead's concept of self is a social foundation of the self but it is not the whole picture of the self, because the self as conceived of by Mead is more than a passive response to the social environment. On the basis of the social foundation of the self which he has carefully analyzed, Mead proceeds to explore the significance of the "I" part of the self in its interaction with the society. He defines the "I" in relation to "me" as follows:

The 'I' is the response of the organism to the attitudes of the others; the 'me' is the organized set of attitudes of others which one himself assumes. The attitudes of the others constitute the organized 'me,' and then one reacts toward that as an 'I.' 63

In a social situation which must be straightened out, the "I" calls for the "me" which serves as a datum reflecting the organized social attitudes and points of view of others, but his response to them is not mechanical but will contain a novel element. In the "I" there is freedom of choice and a sense of initiative. 64 In other words, social consciousness affects the individual's social behavior, but the "I" in the individual self exercises its freedom of choosing the most appropriate course

63 Ibid., p. 175.
64 Ibid., p. 175-178.
of action according to his purposes and the creative energy of his intelligence in responding to a given social situation. The answer as to the question of which course of action the individual would take in a certain social situation depends on the factors which include the nature of the problem, the general setting in which the problem arises and is solved, and the unique nature of the individual and his background experiences.

It is this social consciousness, freedom, and initiative of the "self" that makes the individual grow as an active organism shaping the society and likewise being shaped by society in the on-going social process. It is also this freedom, initiative, and creative power of the individual mind that makes an emergent social evolution possible even though it is unpredictable because of the dynamic process of social interaction among individual human beings. At this point it should be emphasized that as the social climate becomes more harmonious and as it increasingly permits free social interaction, the result will be the optimal development of the individual self and increased social productivity. Experimental studies of human behavior have been carried out in different social climates with the results that a democratic social atmosphere is to be preferred to the autocratic and laissez-faire situations if one desires better individual adjustment and harmony of a group as a whole.

This view of social change as a process of interaction between the individual and society has significant implications for planning a program of general education. First of all, it helps to reduce the pointless argument of whether or not the program should be student-centered or society-centered. It also imposes upon schools the responsibility of an educational program which will enable each individual to participate actively, creatively, and harmoniously for the purpose of bringing about a new improved social order.

**Autocratic Society versus Democratic Society**

In the totalitarian society, dictatorship is monopolized by the minority group while leaving the majority followers or audience in an unstable and unsatisfying condition. The dictatorship provides a superficial unity by creating a mass movement to which people may belong; but people are kept from free communication with one another lest the dictatorship be threatened. Even if the totalitarian society provides people with opportunity to have public discussion it directs the public discussions to predetermined (by the dictator) solutions by means of strict censorship or by providing much of the content of the discussion so that it will lend support to the dictator. In such a communist regime, the common people are even pressured to participate in such meetings.

In this type of society, a program of general education has for its purpose accepted the including of the doctrines and beliefs in the young citizens of the society. The educational leaders in the totalitarian society may recognize the importance of the needs, interests, and creative expressions of students in education, but these encouraged only within the limits of the predetermined course of social action and change.
A democratic society, on the other hand, presupposes rights of the individual and his freedom to grow to a maximum degree through free communication of ideas and experiences. All individual members of a democratic society are encouraged to participate and contribute to the planning of the common life and are protected in this participation, because it is believed that the qualities of leadership are not the product of the elite of the society but are drawn from the common people. Development of individual capacity to participate and contribute intelligently is fostered through "mutual recognition of interests" among the members. Bode expresses his view on the matter as follows:

The whole idea of the 'social' implies mutual recognition of interest, with corresponding obligations. In this mutual recognition each individual finds an avenue for the development of his capacities. The patterns which happen to be evolved in any given society derive their justification from the fact that they serve as instrumentalities for maintaining and promoting reciprocal relations, or common interests among men.66

A democratic society provides for the continuous modification and reconstruction of social organization as long as it promotes and extends common interests and purposes of all members of the society. There are no fixed ends in the social theory of democracy; neither is there a dualism of ends and means. As Dewey says, "every means is a temporary end until we have attained it. Every end becomes a means of carrying activity further as soon as it is achieved." There is only "the intrinsic continuity of ends and means."67 Thus, the progressive development of society depends for its effectiveness on the presence of common

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purposes and interests of all members and on the degree of cooperative use of method of intelligence in attacking common problems. However, the pursuit of individual interests is encouraged and fostered to the maximum; and harmonizing the divergent interests and ideas of the participants through free, sincere discussion and sharing becomes an important technique in democratic procedures.

Thus interpreted, a democratic society has a need of providing equal, educational opportunity for all members of the society regardless of social, economic, and intellectual levels in order to meet the educational needs of all to become responsible citizens of democratic society. Development of the ability to use the method of intelligence in solving common problems and development of appropriate attitudes and skills for cooperative living become the major objectives of general education in a democratic society. The three major philosophical positions previously discussed agree on the necessity of creating and developing a democratic society, but they differ as regards the desirable social theories for planning educational programs. While the naturalist or instrumentalist would represent the position just described, the rationalist still holds a traditional view of social change and educational planning. He accepts the notion of ultimate truth and draws the principles and ideas for direction of the democratic society from the Western tradition as reflected in the great works of the great thinkers. Thus, indoctrination has a significant place in the democratic education of the rationalist. The neo-humanist agrees with the rationalist in looking to the Western tradition for a source of unity, but he agrees with the naturalist in
that education should be closely tied into the social process. The Harvard Committee on general education says:

> Education, like all society's prime needs, changes as society changes. Yet, since the general character of a culture changes more slowly and human nature more slowly still, if at all, there exist also relatively constant elements in education.\(^{68}\)

On the basis of the assumption above quoted and others related to it, the Committee concludes that "the problem of general education is one of combining fixity of aim with diversity in application."\(^ {69}\)

TOWARD A POINT OF VIEW IN THE FOUNDATIONS OF GENERAL EDUCATION

In the preceding discussion, various points of view concerning the meaning and philosophical, psychological, and social foundations of general education have been reviewed. After studying such a diversity of opinions and ideas concerning the fundamental problem of general education, it seems to the writer that no single point of view is sufficient to lay a broad foundation on which a sound general education program may be based. However, it is possible to draw from these divergent theories some basic generalizations on which to formulate a tentative point of view to serve as guide in planning a general education program.

1. **There is an increasing need in modern life for a general education which is concerned with the development of common ideals, attitudes, understandings, and skills, necessary for every individual to become a responsible citizen of a democratic society.**

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\(^{68}\) The Harvard Committee, *op. cit.*, p. 31.

The ever increasing ideological conflicts and international tensions of today's world are a continuous threat to democracy. This situation inevitably forces the educational program to lean to specialism with some sacrifice of the part of the program which was designed for training for common citizenship needed in a democratic society. These two interrelated forces have put American education, as well as the rest of the free countries of the world, in the midst of dilemma between, on the one hand, the need for accomplishment of unity in the genuinely democratic society and, on the other, the need for meeting the professional and scientific manpower problem of the country.

In spite of this seeming dilemma, there is an unceasing need in American education for strengthening general education, which is primarily designed for developing common ideals, attitudes, understandings, and skills needed by everyone to become a responsible and active democratic citizen. The basic assumptions are (1) that the development of common ideals, attitudes, understandings, and skills needed for democratic living is an inescapable requirement for maintaining the unity of a democratic society and (2) that the general education designed for this basic training of democratic citizenship also provides a broad background and a sense of direction for the full functioning of the part of the program which is designed for developing special interests and abilities of individual students. Through a variety of experiences in problem solving provided in the general education program for both the individual and the group, students become keenly aware of the common problems of the society, the nation, and the world. It is also through those experiences that students acquire democratic values and grow in understanding, attitudes, and skills
necessary for democratic group action as well as those necessary for reflective problem solving. Again it is through those common learning experiences that each individual student explores his own interests in relation to the common problem and finds opportunity to make his unique contribution to the group action. The guidance and counseling function of general education can help the individual at this point to identify and further develop his interests for specialization. From this explanation of the relationship between general and special-interest education, the second generalization follows.

2. General education and special-interest education are not in conflict but enrich each other forming a continuum in which general education provides the background and the sense of direction for special-interest education which, in turn, contributes to general education.

It was pointed out in the discussion of the purposes of general education that a statement of over-all objectives of general education is as broad as that of all of education, the only difference being that general education is primarily concerned with growth and development needed by all students. Special-interest education, in the same broad statement of objectives accepted by general education, continues the process of self-realization which was begun in general education by providing more specific experiences according to the particular needs of individual students. However, one cannot divide the experiences of the individual into two groups—those learnings secured from general education and those from special-interest education—because they are integrated parts of the total growth of the individual. For example, some student may go deeply into his own special-interest area when he is working on a
specific project for a committee of a core unit, although he is still working within the program of general education.

The following is a specific illustration of the point. In a tenth grade unit study on the problem of world peace a group of students may be interested in having a committee on the peaceful use of atomic energy. In this committee a student may want to know more specifically about the source of atomic energy and how it works in order to see more clearly the meaning of the peaceful use of atomic energy. To achieve this, the student may want to consult with a science teacher, or more specifically a physics teacher, before he completes his project and shares the findings with other committee members as well as with the whole class. Out of this experience, the student may obtain new meanings, ideas, and attitudes toward science and physics; and at the same time the science or physics teacher might have come to understand the student more clearly than before in order to help him achieve maximum development in terms of his interests and capacity. This hypothetical illustration shows the close interrelation of general and special-interest education which forms a continuum. More specifically the illustration indicates the way general education provides a background for special education and shows the contribution of the special-interest area to general education.

In the sense that general education is primarily concerned with cultivation of common values, attitudes, and skills necessary for democratic living, it also provides a sense of direction to special-interest education. The relationship of general and special-interest education becomes closer and less incidental if there is well-coordinated and thoughtful preplanning.
3. **General education should provide for all youth regardless of intellectual, social, and economic level.**

On the theoretical level all the different programs of general education proposed by various philosophical groups agree that general education should provide for all. Mark Van Doren expresses his view concerning equality of educational opportunity when he said that "education is for all, and there can be no compromise with the proposition."\(^{70}\) The Harvard Report states its democratic view of equality of educational opportunity as follows:

> Democracy is the view that not only the few but all are free, in that everyone governs his own life and shares in the responsibility for the management of the community. This being the case, it follows that all human beings stand in need of an ampler and rounded education.\(^{71}\)

The view of the instrumentalist on the subject is expressed by many writers, and it will suffice here to select one of them for the purpose of documentation. The Educational Policies Commission makes the basic assumptions that "all American youth (1) are citizens, (2) are family members, (3) are products of American culture, (4) need physical and mental health, (5) must learn to earn their living, (6) are capable of rational thought, and (7) must make choices. The Commission concludes as follows:

> When we write confidently and inclusively about education for all American youth, we mean just that. We mean that all youth, with their human similarities and their equally human differences, shall have educational services and opportunities


\(^{71}\)The Harvard Committee, *op. cit.*, pp. 52-53.
suited to their personal needs and sufficient for the successful operation of a free and democratic society.\textsuperscript{72}

In spite of this general agreement on the subject, the ideal of education for all American youth has not been yet realized. In 1953, Alberty stated that: "While accurate statistics are not available, it is safe to assume that at the present time between 75 and 80 per cent of the youth of high-school age are enrolled."\textsuperscript{73} Although one cannot ignore such factors as economic, social, intellectual, and physical conditions as possible causes of the failure to provide education for all youth, it appears that a major cause is the failure of the schools to meet the divergent needs of all students. When one considers the number of pupils who drop out during high school years, he must admit the inadequacy of the high schools to meet the needs of all youth.\textsuperscript{74}

If prosperity of democratic society depends largely on the quality of each individual's growth and development and if the schools accept the need for educating all youth with their divergent needs and interests, then school programs must be developed which will meet the needs of all youth, with consideration to such factors as the social and economic being. Uniform programs of general education, based on the great works of the Western tradition which are remote from adolescent needs and problems, will encounter great difficulties in trying to provide for the

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\item[73]Harold B. Alberty, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 3.
\end{footnotes}
divergent capacities, interests, and needs of students. It is the responsibility of the curriculum maker to plan a varied and flexible general education curriculum which is based on both the common and individual needs, interests, and problems of adolescents. Only in this way will it be possible to promote the development of the common characteristics of democratic citizenship and the maximum development of individual potentialities.

4. Planning for general education requires a profound understanding of sound philosophical, psychological, and social principles of education.

Whether he is aware of it or not, a curriculum designer reflects his concept of human values, of the purposes of education, of the nature of human growth and behavior, and of the nature of social change and progress. A primary source of information concerning values and purposes may be found in the field of philosophy. Psychology provides information concerning the nature of social organization, change, and progress. These three fields of knowledge are so closely interrelated that none of the three should be considered independently from the others in planning a school program. For example, any philosophical formulation of human values and purposes of education cannot be comprehensive nor reliable unless it is based on authentic knowledge of the nature of human growth and development and the dynamics of social process. Since the nature of human growth and behavior plays an important role in formulating social structure and in determining social process, interpretation of social phenomena requires reliable information concerning individual growth and behavior. Actually out of this need, social psychology has emerged as a new field of science. By the same token, facts and findings
in psychology concerning human behavior, however reliable these findings may be, cannot be very valuable for educational use unless they are appropriately interpreted and utilized in terms of individual and social values and directed toward the general purposes of education. The contributions of various sciences to education and the interrelationships among sciences are not limited to the three fields selected here for discussion but extend to other fields of science such as history, biology, and physics. However, any more extended treatment of the topic appears to be beyond the scope of this study.

Assuming this inescapable involvement of various fields of knowledge in educational planning and the interrelative nature of the sciences, the planning of any educational program, and more specifically general education, cannot be left to the curriculum designer's incidental knowledge in those fields of science. A deliberate effort must be made in planning a general education program to secure necessary and reliable data from all areas of knowledge if the program is to serve well the individual and the entire society. If the general education program is to be conducive to the development of common ideals, attitudes, understandings, and skills for democratic living, the planning for general education should be based on a sound knowledge of (1) the ideals, values, and characteristics of democratic society; (2) the nature of the progressive development of social process and the principles of democratic group action; and (3) the way people solve their common problems most effectively.
5. A sound philosophy of general education should be relevant in terms of the valid and reliable findings of studies of the nature of human growth and behavior and the nature of social process.

This generalization is a logical development from the preceding generalization. As previously discussed there are at least three major philosophical groups proposing different approaches to general education program: the rationalists, the neo-humanists, and the naturalists or instrumentalists. Arguments concerning educational planning among these three groups may be confusing to educators if they attempt to select and accept one of these unless they apply some criteria to evaluate the validity and reliability of any philosophical position. One way of developing such criteria is to use reliable findings of studies in psychology, sociology, and other related fields of science. While there is also a problem of determining the reliability of those propositions concerning human learning and in social change, there are certain hypotheses which are gaining more professional acceptance and there are those which are not. The selection of the more promising theories from the less reliable ones depends on the professional depth of the evaluator in this matter. On the basis of the previous discussions on various views concerning the nature of learning and social change, the writer's judgment leans to the side of the organismic theory of human nature and growth and the dynamic view of social change as a process of continuous interaction between individual and the society, although there are some specific points which are not definite.

If one accepts the organismic view of human nature and growth and the dynamic concept of social change, he must then come closer to the
naturalistic point of view of general education. It is more than a coincidence that the naturalistic concept of education which gets most attention from contemporary professional writers fundamentally agrees with the organismic theories of learning and with the concept of dynamic process of social change, while the traditional philosophy, rationalism especially, corresponds more closely to the traditional concepts of social change characterized by determinism and also the old theories of psychology known as mind-substance theory and faculty psychology. Since philosophy is concerned with living man, his values, and purposes, any philosophical thought cannot be formulated without making basic assumptions concerning the biological, psychological, and social nature of man in one way or another.

6. **Learning is a dynamic process in which the whole individual interacts with his total environment.**

From the beginning the human organism is a dynamic whole whose parts appear through maturation and differentiation. When stimulating conditions affect the individual, it affects his total personality. On the other hand the individual responds not only to a primary stimulus but also to the total picture of the environment. Through the creative energy of growth, the individual responds to the total environment which is filled with energy systems interacting upon each other. Thus the individual affects the environment in the same manner in which he is affected by the environment.

This generalization is not a recent development, nor is it entirely a contribution of the field theorists or organismic psychologists, although credits must go to them for their experiments and systematic
development of the theory. Even before the first announcement of the Gestalt theory advanced by Wertheimer in 1912 in Germany, John Dewey in his writing on the child and the curriculum published in 1902 has already laid the foundation of the dynamic theory of human growth. He writes:

Again, the child's life is an integral, a total one. He passes quickly and readily from one topic to another, as from one spot to another, but is not conscious of transition or break. There is no conscious isolation, hardly conscious distinction. The things that occupy him are held together by the unity of the personal and social interests which his life carries along. Whatever is uppermost in his mind constitutes to him, for the time being, the whole universe. The universe is fluid and fluent; its contents dissolve and re-form with amazing rapidity. But, after all, it is the child's own world.

While it is not necessary to repeat a detailed explanation of the concept which was previously made along with the discussion of the field theories of learning, it may be necessary and desirable to point out that this concept of the dynamic nature of human learning is now commonly accepted by most professional educators; at least, it is accepted on the theoretical level. It should also be pointed out that this concept, with other related principles of the field theories of learning, has greatly influenced the theory and practice of American education, and as a result most have departed from the traditional concept of education in which the learner is conceived of as a static and passive responding body and in which growth is regarded as the process of unfolding latent capabilities or as an additive process.

In spite of the theoretical superiority of this concept of the dynamic nature of learning over the traditional ones and in spite of the

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acceptance of the concept at the theoretical level by educators, there
still exists what some writers call "curriculum lag" in educational
practices, especially at the secondary and higher education levels. While
the dynamic concept of human nature and growth dictates the necessity of
organizing a program of experience to facilitate and develop the creative
potentiality of human growth, most practices subordinate students to out­
side stimulus given in the form of logically organized subject matter
from outside the student experience.

7. Effective learning results in desired change in behavior.

All learning experiences result in changed behavior, positive or
negative. If a student spells the word, DEMOCRACY, correctly although
he could not do it before, we know that he has learned how to spell the
word and that he responds differently to the word. There has taken place
in his behavior a change, even though a very simple one. When the same
learner recites the meaning of the word DEMOCRACY correctly, as defined
in a dictionary, when he was not able to do it before, we know that he
has memorized the meaning of the word. There has also taken place in his
behavior a change which is slightly more complex. When the same student
reads quietly so as not to disturb others; when he listens patiently to
others while they talk in a group discussion; when he persistently works
on constructing a difficult model, a task which he accepted as his re­
 sponsibility for preparing a group report; when he admits his own mis­
takes and accepts the suggestions of others in a self-evaluation or a
group evaluation; we, then, know that he has learned how to live demo­
 cratically. He has changed his behavior significantly.
The learning situation is not simple and static, but is usually dynamic. The learner is affected by all of the stimulating conditions and as the conditions affect him his whole personality is affected. For example, when a student is learning a mathematical equation he is also forming attitudes toward mathematics, toward the teacher and classmates, and toward the school life in general. Through such learning experiences in mathematics he may come to dislike mathematics and cease to study it further, or the result may be entirely opposite. The result will depend on the conditions involved in the complex situation of learning. Thus, we see that, regardless of whether or not he has learned the mathematical equation, his behavior has undergone some change.

If we accept this idea that all learning results in some form of changed behavior, we need to plan our educational program in such a way that it will bring about the desired and planned change of behavior in the students. More specifically, we have to plan and operate a general education program in such a way that through it the students will learn to understand and accept common values and attitudes for democratic living and live according to what they accept as values and desirable attitudes. The final test of the general education program then is not only the amount of knowledge accumulated by the students about democracy but also, and more important, the demonstrated improvement in the qualities of living in which the students are engaged. Kilpatrick makes this point clearly when he writes:

Our problem of learning is thus fundamentally changed from what most teachers think. Instead of thinking of subject-matter that it get learned, or even perhaps primarily of learning at all that it shall go on, we must think first of living, of the worthy quality of living and how we may somehow encourage it, how we who are in charge may so condition present living that it will sprout
forth that finer living. For our children will learn, necessarily will learn, what they live... And it is the quality of the living that counts. 76

8. The purpose and needs of the learner are the most important factors in effective learning.

What makes the learner active in his learning is, as previously pointed out, his creative growth potential. And the learner's needs and goals, or purposes, provide motivation and direction for functioning of the growth potential or for releasing the energy system of the individual. By definition, learning is a process of goal-seeking behavior. When the learner faces a problem or a need arises, his equilibrium is disturbed. He then sets up a goal and directs his action toward realization of his goal in order to restore the disturbed equilibrium.

It is a well-established fact that there are two kinds of sources of motivation for goal-seeking behavior—internal and external. The physiological needs (such as the needs for food, rest, and activity) and the socio-psychological needs (such as the needs for affection, recognition, and success) stem from the inner source. These needs are basic to all human beings regardless of the type of social and cultural environments in which the individual live. The second source of motivation is the social and cultural environment, sometimes referred to as social pressure, mores, or social expectation imposed upon the individual by the environment in which he lives. 77


These two different sources of needs appear to create a problem even among people who are in favor of having curriculum planning based on adolescent needs and problems. While there is a general agreement among them on the significance of both kinds of needs for curriculum planning, there is a difference in opinion as to the degree of emphasis placed on the two kinds of needs. While more detailed treatment of the subject will appear in the following chapter, the writer confines the present discussion to the recognition of the significance of dual nature of goal-seeking behavior for curriculum planning. In relation to the curriculum planning based on this generalization, Alberty expresses his opinion as follows:

It is difficult to organize the life of the school in a highly complex society in which there are of necessity many deferred values, in such a way as to promote intrinsic motivation. The best clue is to place the emphasis upon direct first-hand experiences growing out of the problems of the students, rather than upon the transmission of racial experience through organized subject matter.78

9. Learning achieved by generalization and the understanding of relationships is transferrable to wider ranges of situations than is learning which is acquired merely by rote memorization.

A complete explanation of how transfer of learning takes place seems to require more research. There is, however, a common agreement among contemporary psychologists that learning in one situation may help learning in other situation, although there is a difference in interpretation between the associationists and organismic psychologists. As was pointed out in the earlier discussion of the different theories of learning, transfer of learning is possible for the associationist only when there

78 Harold B. Alberty, op. cit., p. 72.
are identical elements between the old and new situations; for the field theorists, it is the function of insight, understanding, relationship, or configuration instead of piecemeal elements which make learning in one situation transferable to another situation.

Katonas's card-trick experiments reported in his book on Organizing and Memorizing and Hilgard, Irvine, and Whipple's extended experiments all proved that in learning new tasks, understanding was better than rote memorization. Since the development of the ability to solve personal and social problems is one of the most valued and important purposes of education in a democratic society, those learnings which contain maximum transfer values, or which contain maximum applicability to new situations, become a natural emphasis in organizing learning experiences for students. In the solution of new problems, the ability to grasp the nature of a confronted problem as a whole, the ability to establish inherent relationships of the problem in terms of possible solution, and the ability to generalize and understand principles are all important factors. These qualities are most effectively gained by students when they are engaged in concrete experiences of solving their own problems under the competent guidance of the teacher. This leads us to the next generalization.

10. Characteristics of behavior for democratic living are best developed by democratic group experience.

This generalization stems from all the previous generalizations concerning the nature of learning. Learning and experiencing are synonymous.


in that they all take place in an active process of interaction between
the individual and his environment. Effective learning flows from ef-
cfective experiencing. Effective experiencing requires (1) clarified
goals and purposes intrinsic to action; (2) use of the method of intelli-
gence for the best solution of the problem; and (3) "undergoing the con-
sequences" of his action, thus resulting in a changed behavior. The
same is true with group experience. As each individual has his own
purpose and need, a group or a society has its problems commonly shared
by all the members of the group. When a problem arises for the group,
it disturbs the equilibrium of the group causing the group to act in at-
tempt to solve its problem. As the individual needs to change his be-
behavior to solve his problem, the group also needs change and recon-
struction of the quality of the group for solution of its problem. By
reconstruction of the quality of the group, it may mean that (1) the
group has to act in such a way that each member participates in identi-
fying the problem common to each member; (2) the group has to work in
such a way that each individual is encouraged through his own growth to
make his unique and best contribution to the unified plan of group action;
(3) the group has to be able to harmonize a variety of ideas and opinions
through effective use of group discussion without reducing the importance
of minority opinion; (4) each member of the group must respect group
decision and accept and discharge his responsibility according to the
group decision; (5) the group morale must be enhanced through mutual re-
cognition of interests and well-shared leadership; and (6) the group must
seek improved ways of working together through continuous evaluation of
its cooperative action.

81See John Dewey, Democracy and Education. Chapter Nine.
Those elements of improving group action constitute the characteristics of individual behavior for responsible citizenship of democracy. Without going through the concrete experiences of active participation in group action, there is no other way for an individual to learn either one of these characteristics of democratic behavior. Understanding of democratic principles of group action at the verbal level does not guarantee improved participation and contribution to democratic group action. The research evidence does not indicate much correlation between knowing and acting, but on the other hand research does support the strength of teaching democratic character through direct experiences. 82

11. A concept of social change as a continuous process of interaction between the individual and society is consistent with democratic interpretation of social progress.

The significance of the interrelationship between the creative potentiality of the individual to grow and the totality of the social forces in effecting human growth was a central emphasis throughout the preceding generalizations concerning principles of learning. The same organismic principle which explains the nature of human growth and learning also explains the nature of social change. While individual's behavior in a society is affected by the generalized attitudes of others, he also affects others in the same manner through his unique and creative reaction to the social conditions. Thus the individual, as he grows, shapes society which, in turn, shapes him; and the individual and the

society in which he lives are a functional unit in a process of continuous interaction. The condition for the most effective interaction between the individual and society or among individuals is one in which individual personality is respected, freedom to search for truth is encouraged, and a free flow of communication is guaranteed. Such conditions are the characteristics of a genuinely democratic society. In comparison of social theories of totalitarian and democratic societies, Dewey states this point clearly:

A society based on custom will utilize individual variations only up to a limit of conformity with usage; uniformity is the chief ideal within each class. A progressive society counts individual variations as precious since it finds in them the means of its own growth. Hence a democratic society must, in consistency with its ideal, allow for intellectual freedom and the play of diverse gifts and interests in its educational measures.\(^3\)

The acceptance of the dynamic nature of social change leads us to the next generalization.

12. A sound general education program in a democratic society should be effective in directing social change.

Provision of a maximum freedom of thought and action in a democratic society should not be confused with laissez-faire social policy. Maintenance of integrity of the social order is an important condition of progressive development of a democratic society. Every man is subject to making false decision and if every man is provided with freedom of action on his false judgment, it will only result in hopeless confusion or to act chaos in the society. At this point, it is the responsibility of education to guide and direct the students' thinking and decision making.

\(^3\)John Dewey, op. cit., p. 357.
The importance of training thought is well emphasized by Dewey when he writes:

For anything approaching their adequate realization, thought needs careful and attentive educational direction. Nor is that the whole story. Thinking may develop in positively wrong ways and lead to false and harmful beliefs. The need of systematic training would be less than it is if the only danger to be feared were lack of any development; the evil of the wrong kind of development is even greater.84

In addition to the necessity of training individuals to think, there is also a necessity to develop attitudes and skills of group thinking. Because of individual variations in background experiences, abilities, interests, and needs, divergent ideas and judgments of individual members are naturally expected in a group action. Harmonizing the divergent opinions and making the best decision as a whole group require respect and tolerance of different opinions, competent leadership for enlisting the best contributions of every member of the group, and skills of effective communication of ideas. Development of those values, abilities, attitudes, and skills for effective democratic living is the most important task of education. In this sense, general education which is primarily concerned with the development of these characteristics of democratic citizenship, holds the key to insuring the best direction of social progress. In light of the fact that the greater portion of the students' life is spent outside the school, one must recognize that the school is not the only institution responsible for training democratic citizens. Homes, churches, and other community agencies should also share the responsibility. The schools, however, for their primary reasons of existence should take active responsibility of leadership in enlisting all the available cooperation of the community.

CHAPTER IV

THE NATURE OF CORE PROGRAM, AND PROCEDURES FOR DEVELOPING A CORE PROGRAM BASED ON ADOLESCENT PROBLEMS

The previous chapter dealt with theoretical foundations of general education in the United States, and in it the writer formulated a broad frame of reference for planning a general education program. In this chapter is presented the description and discussion of specific principles and procedures for developing a core program of general education which is consistent with what the writer has concluded to be the most promising theories of democratic values, of learning, and of social progress. Before discussing the principles, procedures, and techniques for developing such a core program, it is necessary to clarify the distinctive nature of the core as compared to other types of curriculum organization.

NATURE OF THE CORE PROGRAM

The term core, as a pattern of the high school curriculum, has been given various meanings and interpretations by many people within and outside the field of education. Some conceive of it as a pattern of curriculum which is completely cut off from subject matter. Others conceive of it as consisting of those courses required of all. Still others think that core and unified studies are synonymous. Confusion
and misconceptions concerning the nature of the core are even more extensive than is indicated by those the writer listed as examples.¹

Efforts have been made by some experts to clarify the nature of the core curriculum by classifying the core into the various types. Well-known classifications are those made by Wright and by Alberty. Even though Wright has based her classification to some extent on that of Alberty, there are significant differences between the two.

Wright's Classification of Various Types of Core

In her most recent report, titled Block-Time Classes and the Core Program in the Junior High School, Wright classifies and describes four types of the core as follows:

Type A—Each subject retains its identity in the block-time class, that is, separate subjects are taught (1) with consciously planned correlation, (2) with no planned correlation.

Type B—Subjects included in the block-time class are unified or fused around a central theme or units of work or problems stemming from one or more of the subject fields in the block-time class.

Type C—Predetermined problem areas based upon the personal-social needs of adolescents—both needs that adolescents themselves have identified and needs as society sees them—determine the scope of the core program. Subject matter is brought in as needed in working on the problems.

Pupils may or may not have a choice from among several of these problem areas; they will, however, have some responsibility for suggesting and choosing activities in developing units of study.

Type D—The scope of the core program is not predetermined. Pupils and teacher are free to select the problems upon which they wish to work. Subject matter content is brought in as needed to develop or to help solve the problems.²

As indicated in her description of the four types of core programs, Wright makes it clear that all types of core programs are to be taught in the "block-time class."

Alberty’s Classification of Core

Alberty classifies six types of core programs, all of which have one common element in the area of general education; and the one element is that "they all involve that part of the total curriculum which is held to be essential for all students, and which, as a consequence, is required of all."³ He classifies them in the order of deviation from subject-matter curriculum, the classification follows:

Type-One Core, based upon separate subjects, required of all students at a given level.

Type-Two Core, based upon the informal correlation of some or all subjects required of all students at a given grade level.

Type-Three Core, based upon the formal correlation of two or more required subjects.

Type-Four Core, based upon the fusion of two or more of the required subjects.


³Harold Alberty, Reorganizing the High School Curriculum, p. 194.
Type-Five Core, based upon common needs, problems, and interests of adolescents selected from established problem areas.

Type-Six Core, based on the teacher-student planned activities without reference to any formal structure.4

When the writer compared the two classifications, he arrived at the following conclusions:

1. Wright's Type B, C, and D are essentially the same as Alberty's Type-Four, Five, and Six respectively.

2. Wright's Type A appears to include Alberty's Types One, Two, and Three, but with the difference that she assumes only a "block-time class," whereas Alberty does not make this assumption for his Types-One, Two, or Three.

Recognizing the differences and similarities between these two major classifications of core programs, the writer will discuss in the following pages the various types of core programs as classified by Alberty.5

Type-One Core. This type of core consists of separate subjects such as English, American history, mathematics, social studies, science, and health—subjects which are required of all high-school students as graduation requirements. These courses usually represent logically organized bodies of knowledge which are pre-determined by the experts in each of these areas of knowledge. In this type of core the major purpose of general education is to develop those common values, attitudes, understandings, and skills accepted for democratic living. However, the realization of this purpose is left mainly to incidental


5 For much of the discussion on the types of core programs which will appear in the following pages, the writer is greatly indebted to Harold Alberty, op. cit., Chapter 6.
learning which takes place as the students learn to master the content of subject matter. Moreover, those who are in favor of this type of core, assume that the acquisition of facts, knowledge, and truth which are drawn from the past achievements of human race or tradition will provide appropriate training of the intellect. They further assume that a properly trained intellect will naturally result in commitment to democratic citizenship. These assumptions are the same as those underlying the educational philosophies of rationalism and neo-humanism which were discussed in Chapter III of this report. The low validity of these assumptions was also shown in the same chapter as they were checked against the bases of democratic values, principles of growth and learning, and the nature of social process.

In spite of the inadequacy of the subject-centered program of general education for democratic citizenship training, a large number of secondary schools in the United States are reported to have this type of curriculum organization for general education. On the basis of the data from Wright's comprehensive survey of the status of the core program in the American public high schools conducted in 1949 and reported in 1950, Alberty infers that "96.5 per cent of the public high schools organize their programs for meeting the common needs of adolescents in terms of required separate subjects."6

Type-Two Core. This core is not fundamentally different from Type-One Core in the organization of the school program, which is around separate subjects, but this core tries to establish some relationship

among learnings in one subject and those in other subjects. It is assumed that the learner who is taught in such a way that he can see the relationship of one subject to other subject will accomplish a better integration of knowledge. This type of core seeks only informal correlation among subjects by keeping each subject organization intact. For example, if the world history class is studying the history of China, the geography teacher might provide some material for students' references concerning the geographical conditions of China which might have influenced the culture of China. Likewise, the English teacher might recommend that students read Pearl L. Buck's *The Good Earth* or translations of some famous Chinese novels.

In a study in 1958 of block-time classes and core programs in junior high schools, Wright found that approximately 51 schools, or 16 per cent of a sample of 487 schools which use some type of core, were using the informal correlation core. It should be pointed out (1) that these data do not include eight-year elementary schools and four-year high schools, and (2) that Wright describes the informal correlation core somewhat differently from Alberty's "Type-Two Core."  

Since the informal correlation of some subjects does not disrupt the logical organization of subjects and since it does not require any change of time schedule, this appears to be the simplest way of improving the school program. However, this program places most emphasis on the acquisition of facts and information from textbooks and other printed materials. In this sense, general criticisms directed against the subject-centered curriculum also apply to Type-Two Core.

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7See pp. 129-131 of this report.
Type-Three Core. Taking a step beyond the Type-Two Core, this type seeks deliberate and systematic correlation of two or more required subjects. Type-Three Core also does not disturb the identity of each required subject, but it requires a great deal of modification and reorganization of the content of each subject according to some central theme, such as "Conserving Community Resources." For example, in an arrangement in which this is the theme, the English teacher might use more reading materials related to community life and he might also suggest some topics related to the central theme for free writing; or possibly he might cooperate with the teachers of other subjects in helping students improve their written reports of projects assigned in each subject area. The science teacher might modify his materials to include a survey of the natural resources of the community. The social studies teacher might reorganize the content of the subject in order to include the study of some of the issues of the community related to the conservation of its resources.

Wright, in a study in 1952 of 519 secondary schools using some types of core other than the subject-centered core, reported that 53.6 per cent of these schools used the type of core which may be defined as identical to Alberty's Type-Three Core. Wright in her most recent study of core programs in junior high schools found that 277 schools, or 56.9 per cent of 487 schools reportedly utilizing some types of core, were utilizing the type of core in which "each subject retains its identity in the block-time class, that is, separate subjects are taught with consciously planned correlation." From the findings of these three studies, one

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8Ibid., pp. 9-10.
may infer that the largest group of schools having core programs other than Type-One Core are utilizing Type-Three Core.

Although, this type of core program seeks better integration of learning by modifying the subjects in order to make them more functional, it does not result in the separate subjects losing their identity. Thus, learning experiences to be provided for students in this type of program are more or less tied to departmentalized organization of certain areas of knowledge instead of drawing materials from all the subject areas freely as they are needed in the process of problem solving. Although cooperation is sought among the teachers of different subjects and although one teacher may teach two or more of the subjects to be correlated, there is nevertheless a definite obstacle for the student to the desired unity of the problem solving act which has been proved to be the most effective way of learning.

Type-Four Core. Rejecting a general education program based on original or modified subjects which are taught separately, the Type-Four Core tries to break subject-matter barriers and attempts to fuse or unify two or more areas of knowledge around the central theme of the core.

Thus English and social studies are commonly combined. The central theme may be again around the development of culture in human history, and units formulated within the theme may be arranged chronologically. Or the central theme in a fusion of English and social studies may be the contemporary problems of the world; and the units may be based on the problems of living in America today. In the lower division of some secondary school, the block of time is extended to half of a school day in order to include other required subjects or fields of knowledge.
Whenever larger blocks of time are used so as to include more than two fields of knowledge, the social studies are generally regarded as providing the basis for determining the general theme and the units, while the other subjects and/or fields combined in the core provide resource materials as needed in carrying out each unit.

According to the findings of Wright's study made in 1962, 43 per cent of 159 schools reporting core programs other than subject-centered core were utilizing the type of core based on fusion of subjects "into a unified whole around a central theme." On the other hand, Marani found that 30 per cent (the largest group) of the 47 schools considered to be utilizing the problem-area structure of core were actually utilizing this type of core.

Although this type of core program reduces to some degree the barriers among subjects nevertheless it operates within the tradition of subject matter in the sense that it puts more emphasis on the understanding of bodies of knowledge in subject areas than on the actual solution of adolescent problems. When this type of core or unified study is organized chronologically, it certainly facilitates understanding on the part of the student of various aspects of a given culture in the past; however, the understanding of the past does not directly relate itself with the solution of the adolescent problems in this complex contemporary world. Even if contemporary problems of living are considered to

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be the unifying theme, they are largely vehicles for teaching conventional subject matter.\textsuperscript{11}

**Type-Five Core.** The distinctive characteristic of the Type-Five Core compared with the previously discussed four types of core programs lies in its sharp deviation from the traditional orientation of a general education program based on bodies of knowledge. In the Type-Five Core, there is no place for any preconceived body of subject-matter which must be covered, but, instead, there are only the needs of students to be met and their problems to be solved. Information is sought from all areas of subject matter which can provide pertinent data for clarifying and solving common problems.

The scope of this type of program constitutes problem areas predetermined by the faculty; and from the predetermined problem areas the learning units are developed by the teacher and students. In practice, problem areas are developed on the basis of the faculty's beliefs or findings in democratic values, in personal-social needs and problems of adolescents, and in the characteristics of adolescent development. Thus, the process of determining problem areas is not a simple task for the faculty but requires a great deal of study and cooperation from the students, the parents, the community, and experts in curriculum development. The sequence of the program may or may not be determined by the whole faculty. Some schools using this type of core program require each grade to deal with certain problem areas and, on the other hand, some schools regard a list of predetermined problem areas at all grade levels of the secondary school as only suggestive for the cooperative

\textsuperscript{11} Harold Alberty, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 177.
decision of the teacher and students regarding units of study. Between these two extreme practices there are varying degrees of sequential arrangements of the problem areas.

In most of the schools using this type of core, teacher-pupil planning is regarded as a "must" in selecting learning units from the problem areas and in organizing procedures for carrying out the units of work to solve the problems. Teacher-pupil cooperation continues throughout the process of carrying out the unit and the evaluation of the work done. All available resources, both material and personnel, are sought for information related to the particular problem on which the students are working. In usual practice, a large block of time, including from one-third to one-half of the school day, is given to the core. The whole block of time assigned for the core is not necessarily used for unit study only, but it is used also for guidance and counseling of individual students as well as for other group activities.

Underlying this type of core is the conviction that adolescent boys and girls can best grow into responsible citizens of democratic society only when they learn how to identify and solve common problems facing them and society through the cooperative endeavor of all concerned. And this conviction is consistent with the modern principles of learning.

Alberty identifies and describes the strengths and weaknesses involved in the Type-Five Core as follows:

**Strength:**

1. Such a program makes possible a direct attack upon the needs of youth and the problems which beset them in our present-day culture.

2. Such a program is the means of bridging the gap between education and guidance, between the curriculum and the extracurriculum, between general education and special-interest education.
3. The problem-areas design tends to break down the class barriers which so frequently are maintained in the traditional program.

4. It facilitates the unification of knowledge.

5. Such a program is consistent with the newer theories of learning and transfer.

6. A program of this type encourages the teaching staff to plan and work together.

7. The procedures of this program encourage the use of democratic practices in the classroom.

8. The study of problem areas encourages the use of the community as a laboratory for learning.

9. Such a program makes it possible for teachers to reduce materially the student loads which they are required to carry in a traditional program.

Weaknesses:

1. The program requires a vast amount of work on the part of teachers and as a consequence many groups are unwilling to undertake such a drastic reorganization.

2. There is danger that the scope and sequence may become "frozen" and thus fail to meet the changing needs of youth.

3. Teachers are not well equipped through training to carry out such a program. Consequently they may feel insecure and defensive.

4. The public may be slow to accept a program which breaks so completely with the familiar subjects.12

Marani, in her recent survey of 46 schools considered to be using problem-areas, found out only 19 per cent were actually using structured adolescent-problems core programs.13 Wright, in her recent survey of 487 junior and junior-senior high schools, found out that only 30 schools, or six per cent, (not including four-year high schools) reporting core programs were actually using programs which approximate Alberty's Type-Five Core.14


14Grace S. Wright, Block-Time Classes and the Core Program in the Junior High School, pp. 9 and 15.
Type-Six Core. This type of core program does not support any kind of structured curriculum for general education. The proponents of such a program contend that since the environment is constantly changing and since as a result the needs and interests of the individual cannot be anticipated, the curriculum framework cannot be pre-planned. They also contend that any form of structured curriculum would more or less force the learner to sacrifice his own needs and purposes if he is to pursue the goals set by others.

In the Type-Six Core, learning activities are chosen by the teacher and students through the cooperative endeavor of identifying common needs and problems. Methods and procedures of identifying common problems and of solving the problems through the cooperative use of the method of intelligence are regarded, in this type of program, to be of utmost importance. Concerning the scope and sequence of such a core program, Gertrude Noar states that "inasmuch as there is no way of predetermining such problems and questions, there can be no artificial determination of grade themes or even of sequences within any one term's work." She set up these basic questions for use in determining sequence, and she believes that a careful consideration of them by the teacher and students will lead to an appropriate determination of the next job to be done. These questions are—

1. What have we done?
2. What is there still to do be done?
3. In the light of the strength and weakness of past performance, and of our present position on the road to becoming intelligent citizens, what must we do next?"¹⁵

¹⁶Ibid., pp. 13-14.
The use of all pertinent materials and information drawn from all available resources is a general practice in solving problems of this type of core as well as of the Type-Five Core. Even though this program is more consistent with the modern principles of learning than are the other types of core, it has its own weaknesses when applied to actual practice. Alberty lists the following strengths and weaknesses of Type-Six Core:

Strength:

1. This plan recognizes the dynamic character of the learner and the learning process.
2. The procedure provides optimally for teacher and student initiative.
3. The design guards against the 'freezing' of programs in terms of problem areas, or subjects to be mastered.
4. The use of the democratic process in the classroom is facilitated.

Weaknesses:

1. The program may be opportunistic, with little or no continuity.
2. It may lead to teacher-student insecurity.
3. Teachers in specialized-interest areas may become dissatisfied with the program because they see no pattern which is being followed and, hence, have little faith in what is being taught.
4. The public is likely to question a program which departs so radically from conventional practices and which at the same time appears to be opportunistic in character.17

Only a very limited number of schools are reported to be using this type of program. Wright found in 1952 that 13.5 per cent of the 519 schools reporting use of core programs were using a program which approximated Alberty's Type-Six Core.18 On the other hand, Marani found

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17 Harold Alberty, op. cit., p. 138.

in 1958 that only three schools, or six per cent of 46 schools surveyed, were using a program which is an approximation of this type of core.  

The Position of the Writer

An examination of Alberty's six interpretations of the core program, listed early in this chapter, indicates that the six types may be divided into two major groups: (1) subject matter oriented core programs which include Types One through Four inclusive and (2) adolescent problem core programs which include core Types Five and Six.

In the development of a new core program, the choice of the curriculum designer between these two major types of core programs should be based on the consideration of at least two basic factors. One of these pertains to the major purposes of general education and the other to the basic principles of effective learning. It was pointed out in the preceding chapter that the major purpose of general education is the development of common values, understandings, attitudes, and skills basic to responsible democratic citizenship. It was also pointed out that the most effective learning of these values, understandings, attitudes, and skills results only when the students participate directly in purposing, planning, executing the plan, for attacking the problems common to all, and in evaluating together. If we accept this purpose of general education in a democratic society and if we accept this basic principle of learning these democratic characteristics of behavior, the first group of types of core programs based on the orientation of subject matter would not seem to provide very effective designs for a general education program. This

does not mean, however, that the correlated core programs and the unified studies which have proved to facilitate functional learning of subject matter are unworthy of consideration in reorganizing a general education program. They have their own merits for practical application. For instance, in a school where the entire faculty, student body, and parents are not ready to accept any drastic reorganization of strict subject-centered curriculum toward the adolescent problem core, the correlation or fusion of two or more subjects might be the most appropriate design for initiating some reorganization. However, what is meant here is that any program of general education which is subject-matter oriented fails to meet effectively the accepted purpose of general education in a really serious sense.

A desirable choice for the design for general education, then, will have to be made between Types Five and Six. While the Type-Six Core may be more consistent with modern principles of the dynamic process of learning than is true of the Type-Five Core, Type-Six presents more serious impracticality than the Type-Five in terms of present conditions in the schools.

Therefore, the writer regards the core program characterized by Alberty's Type-Five Core as the most promising. For the purpose of clarification, and emphasis, the definition of a sound core curriculum may be restated here as consisting of broad problem areas pre-planned by the faculty on the basis of democratic values, common needs and problems of adolescent students, and the characteristics of adolescent development.

The discussions of principles and procedures for developing a core curriculum which follow in the next section are based on this concept of
the nature of a core program. Alberty identifies and describes seven major steps in the development of a core program. These follow:

1. Formulate the philosophy and purposes of the school.
2. Determine the common needs (or problems) of students.
3. Establish and organize Problem Areas (Scope).
4. Establish a basis for determining sequence.
5. Develop resource materials based upon the problem areas.
6. Develop learning units in the classroom.
7. Set up a program of evaluation consistent with the philosophy underlying this type of program.²

It seems, in the writer's opinion, to be logical to follow the general pattern of steps as laid down by Alberty for the discussions of principles and procedures for a core program development which are to follow.

PRINCIPLES AND PROCEDURES FOR DEVELOPING THE CORE PROGRAM

Any form of curriculum reorganization begins with the recognition of the needs for it on the part of one or more members of the faculty. In the beginning, the need for a reorganization of curriculum might be sensed by some insightful members of the faculty on the basis of their understandings of general principles of curriculum development even without making a systematic evaluation of the existing program. Actually a need for curriculum reorganization should be continuously felt because the curriculum itself, if it is to provide appropriate experiences for the growing adolescents in a changing society, must be in a process of continuous change. Those who first recognize the need for curriculum reorganization in terms of the adolescent problem core are in a position to take leadership in bringing the rest of the faculty to the recognition of the need. This may be done in various ways such as providing

² Harold Alberty, Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum, pp. 260-261.
in-service training. Regardless of the procedures used for bringing the whole faculty to a realization of the need for reorganization, a good understanding of the nature of the core program which is going to be built must be secured by all members. As the rest of the faculty members join in the common feeling of need for reorganization, the faculty as a whole or a committee selected by the total faculty might proceed to make a systematic evaluation of the existing program in order to determine specifically the “what” and the “how” of the task of reorganization.

When the faculty as a whole has achieved some basic understanding of the nature of the core program and the principles involved in developing the program and when, because of the evaluation study or other reasons, they are motivated by the need for reorganizing the program, the faculty may be considered to be ready for to begin working together to develop a core program.

**Formulating a Philosophy and Purposes of the School**

Any reorganization of curriculum should begin with the formulation of a philosophy or reconstruction of the existing philosophy of the school, for the philosophy provides the foundation and direction for planning, executing, and evaluating a school program. In formulating a philosophy and purposes of the school, there are various ways of doing the job. A school might consider several statements of philosophy and purposes of some selected schools and from these select and adopt for its own one which sounds best to the faculty. It might formulate a philosophy and purposes by way of selecting and considering with minor modifications items from several statements of purposes of other schools.
Another approach to the problem of formulating the purposes of a school might be to begin by accepting a statement of broad objectives of education formulated by a nationally known group or organization and further developing the statement into the specific behavioral goals in terms of the specific conditions of the school in a particular community. A detailed treatment of the outcomes and the procedures used in this approach is presented in *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High School* formulated by the committee of *The Survey Study of Behavioral Outcomes of General Education in High School*.  

The faculty might base its formulation of a philosophy and purposes on the outcomes of a number of staff meetings devoted to the discussion of important issues in contemporary education. The faculty might devote itself to a critical study of "the systematic philosophies which are to be found in current writing about education" in order to choose a suitable philosophical position of the faculty.  

Still another approach to the task of formulating a philosophy and objectives of a school might be "to start with a study of democracy, its basic ideals and values, and the characteristics of personality which the good citizen of our democratic culture ought to possess."  

The selection of one of these procedures for formulating a philosophy and purposes will depend on various conditions of the school including such factors as time available, abilities of the faculty members, and the sources available for securing the necessary information. In

addition to these factors, the most important consideration in the de-
velopment of a philosophy is the degree of participation and contributions
of each faculty member to the cooperative venture. The cooperative
action of formulating a philosophy and purposes by the faculty of a
school results in much more than producing a statement of philosophy and
purposes for the school. An even more significant outcome expected from
the action of formulating philosophy and purposes is the professional
growth of the faculty members. The principles of learning which places
the utmost importance of individual participation in purposing, planning,
carrying out the plan, and evaluating the performance in terms of
purpose also apply in the same way to the professional growth of edu-
cators as in the case of student learning. By actively participating in
the task, each member of the faculty not only comes to understand better
the school's philosophy but also develops enthusiasm and a sense of re-
sponsibility for helping to achieve the philosophy and purposes through
his guidance of the learning experiences for the students. The under-
standing of the purposes and the enthusiasm for achieving the purposes
lead the teacher to develop better insight into effective ways for a-
chieving the purposes. In this sense, the degree of participation and
the experience gained by each faculty member from the cooperative action
should serve as the first criterion for deciding a procedure of formu-
lating a philosophy and purposes of the school.

If one evaluates the several suggested procedures for determining the
purpose of the school on the basis of this criterion, one would be forced
to reject the procedures based on some plan of adopting from others since
such procedures do not provide adequate opportunities for wide
participation and for the effective professional growth of the members of the faculty. While the procedure of analyzing some broad objectives of education into very detailed behavioral outcomes in terms of understandings, attitudes, and skills might provide some opportunities for the faculty to think and work together, there is a danger of losing a unity of philosophy and purposes in a very detailed and complicated analysis of behavioral goals. This does not mean that a statement of purposes should be in very general terms, which are too vague to give a definite direction. Rather it means that interpretation of the broad objectives into specific behavioral goals is, in a sense, necessary and desirable for a definite direction but the description should be simple enough to be comprehended and viewed as a unit of purposes by each member of the faculty.

The procedure of formulating a philosophy based on the staff discussions of the current issues in education does certainly provide opportunities for each member of the faculty to grow professionally provided that the faculty meetings are conducted by means of effective procedures and democratic discussion. However, in light of (1) a great number of issues in modern secondary education, (2) various philosophical and psychological positions involved in each of the issues, and (3) a limited time provided for professional activities, this procedure might appear to be impractical.

The procedure of having faculty base its philosophical position on an extensive study of various schools of philosophy appearing in contemporary writing in education also has values for the purpose of inservice training of the faculty. However, because of the somewhat limited philosophical background of secondary-school teachers, this procedure
probably would not meet with the approval of many of the faculty members because of the difficulty involved in critical analysis and in comparison of the conflicting philosophies.

Finally, it seems to the writer that the most promising procedure is that of formulating purposes for the school based on the study of democracy, its basic ideals and values, and the characteristics of personality desired for a democratic citizen. The merits of this procedure of formulating a philosophy and purposes may be that (1) a statement of purposes of the school formulated through this procedure more closely represent the democratic viewpoint of general education; (2) accordingly the statement gives better unity and continuity for developing a program of general education; (3) the procedure, when conducted in terms of democratic principles which the faculty has developed, provides ample opportunities for each member of the faculty to understand the meaning of democracy basic to general education and to grow in thinking and working together with his fellow workers; (4) the discussion and study of the democratic way of life does not necessarily require the use of difficult, philosophical terminology which might be inescapably used in a discussion of conflicting philosophical thoughts, and (5) the procedure does not necessarily require as much time as in a series of faculty discussions on a number of educational issues.

The Committee on the Function of Science in General Education of the Progressive Education Association has formulated a philosophy and purposes of science program in general education on the basis of the study of
ideals and values of democracy, and the personal characteristics for
democratic living. The major findings of the study are as follows:

The Major Ideals of Democracy

1. Optimum development of personality
2. Reciprocal individual and group responsibility for
   promoting common concerns
3. The free play of intelligence

Personal Characteristics Essential to Democratic Living

1. Social sensitivity
2. Tolerance
3. Cooperativeness
4. The disposition and ability to use reflective thinking
   in the solution of problems
5. Creativeness
6. Self-direction
7. Esthetic appreciation

The foregoing items which constitute a philosophy and purposes of
general education as developed by the Committee were further illustrated
to show their specific implications for developing learning experiences
conducive to realization of the formulated purposes. Taking only one
item for instance, under the item of "The Disposition and Ability to Use
Reflective Thinking in the Solution of Problems," the following list was
made:

a. Sensing a need in the situation
b. Analyzing the situation and locating the problem with
   sufficient accuracy to attack it
c. Formulating and refining an hypothesis to act upon
d. Acting on the most promising hypothesis

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25 Committee on the Function of Science in General Education, Pro­
gressive Education Association, Science in General Education. New York:

26 Ibid., pp. 46-47.
This procedure of formulating philosophy and purposes of the school can be utilized on the basis of committee projects with appropriate participation of the total faculty or as a total group project depending on the conditions of the school. Whatever plan is utilized should provide opportunity for each member of the faculty to identify his role in the cooperative work and also it should draw upon every available cooperation from the community which the school serves.

Formulating Problem Areas

Since the problem areas in the core program provide a framework for the scope of learning experiences which will be provided for implementing the purposes of the school for general education, establishment of problem areas is the logical step to follow the formulation of a philosophy and purposes of the school. A variety of sources, procedures, and techniques for formulating problem areas is reported in the literature on core curriculum. Some people would set up problem areas empirically on the basis of a set of carefully developed criteria. Others would employ one or more of such techniques as the case study method; the interview method with pupils and parents; administration of a problem check list and other inventories; analysis of published research on the adolescent needs and problems as well as on problem areas; community studies to determine needed improvement. In a recent survey, Marani identified seven

sources of data for formulating problem areas, which are more frequently utilized by the schools surveyed:

- Studies of crucial social issues and problems in America
- Studies of the literature of adolescent growth and development
- Analysis of the social issues and problems of the community
- Studies of research on the nature of the learning process
- Major values of democratic living
- Studies of adolescent needs and problems found in the literature
- The school's philosophy

Of many procedures used for the formulation of problem areas, two typical procedures will be reviewed here as illustrations.

Lurry's approach. As the first step in formulating problem areas, Lurry has developed a set of criteria which might be used to evaluate the adequacy of problem areas chosen for the core program. The criteria read as follows:

A problem area should--

1. Represent persistent problems of a personal-social nature common to adolescents in our culture.
2. Be adapted to the maturity level of the group.
3. Provide experiences for growth in terms of such values as tolerance, social sensitivity, cooperativeness, civic competence, aesthetic appreciations, self-direction, critical thinking.
4. Encourage the use of the problem-solving technique to attack problems in all areas of living.
5. Provide opportunity for cooperative planning in the group, i.e., teacher-pupil, teacher-teacher, pupil-pupil planning.
6. Provide opportunity for generalization beyond the experiences of adolescents and their own daily lives.
7. Provide opportunity for meaningful direct experiences and enriching vicarious experiences through a wide variety of resources in men, materials and techniques.
8. Provide for the integration of knowledge through the use of subject matter as it bears upon the problem at hand.
9. Provide experiences which develop continuity in the emotional, intellectual and physical aspects of the learning process.

28 Jean V. Marani, op. cit., pp. 117-120.
29 See Lucile L. Lurry, op. cit., Chapters V and VI.
10. Provide opportunity for the guidance functions of teaching, both individual and group, to become an integral part of the curriculum.

11. Extend the interests of individuals into the various special-interest areas.

12. Lead to other meaningful learning experiences—suggest new problem areas.

Following the setting up of a set of criteria, Lurry surveyed the literature in the field of core curriculum in relation to the developed criteria. After reviewing the literature and in relationship to the developed criteria, a tentative list of sixteen problem areas was formulated. Examples of typical learning experiences were included to indicate the scope of each problem area. This list of sixteen problem areas with the criteria and definitions of key terms was sent to thirty curriculum experts for judgment. On the basis of the judgment of the curriculum experts, the sixteen problem areas were revised as follows:

1. Problems of School Living
2. Problems of Self-Understanding
3. Problems of Finding Values by Which We Live
4. Problems of Social Relationships in a Democracy
5. Problems of Employment and Vocation
6. Problems of Using and Conserving Natural Resources
7. Problems of Education in American Democracy
8. Problems of Constructive Use of Leisure
9. Problems of Family Living
10. Problems of Communication
11. Problems of Democratic Government
12. Problems of Community and Personal Health
13. Problems of Economic Relationships in a Democracy
14. Problems of Critical Thinking
15. Problems of Achieving World Peace in the Atomic Age
16. Problems of Intercultural Relations

30 Ibid., p. 128. 31 Ibid., Chapter V and VI.
Examples of typical learning experiences included in each of these problem areas indicate the scope of each area. The following quotation is only an illustration of this procedure:

Problems of Critical Thinking: How can we develop skill in forming conclusions? Include such problems as: (a) Studying the sources of information, i.e., propaganda analysis; (b) Arriving at a sound basis for forming opinions in a democracy; (c) Developing skill in critical thinking through analysis of problems which are important to adolescents; (d) Differentiating between assumptions, hypotheses and facts; (e) Recognizing responsibility for acting on conclusions and reconstructing behavior in terms of the evidence.  

Marani's approach. In an attempt to establish a scientific procedure for formulating problem areas, Marani proceeded to formulate criteria for developing problem areas on the bases of democratic concepts of general education and other data dealing with problem-area structure. The criteria reads as follows:

1. Problem areas ought to represent the broad areas of living found in our culture.
2. Problem areas ought to represent the relationships among individuals and groups and the institutions and organizations of society.
3. Problem areas ought to be formulated in terms of the democratic aspirations of society.
4. Problem areas ought to encompass common and persistent concerns of adolescents.
   4-A. The adolescent ought to participate in determining his problems and concerns.
   4-B. Adults familiar with adolescent growth and development should participate in determining problems of youth.
5. Problem areas ought to be preplanned for a series of grades in the secondary school.
6. The formulation of problem areas ought to involve the total faculty in the curriculum improvement process.

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32 Ibid., p. 154. 33 Jean V. Marani, op. cit.
34 Ibid., pp. 80-91.
Based on the established criteria, Marani administered the Science Research Associates Youth Inventory to the students of two high schools to determine their immediate, personal problems; and questionnaires were used to determine the problems of adolescents recognized by adults (including teachers, parents, and social scientists). The data were summarized under the nine "basic areas of responsibilities and relationships in adolescent growth" which she had previously developed on the basis of a survey of the related literature. The following quotation is an illustration of the procedure of grouping the collected data or the common adolescent problems under one area of responsibilities and relationships:

**Area-I: GAINING MATURITY IN MEETING PERSONAL PROBLEMS**

Problems pertaining to:
1. Self-understanding—junior and senior high
2. Health and physical change—junior high
3. Achieving and maintaining health—senior high

As indicated in the above illustration, Marani was able, on the basis of the responses of the participants of the study, to designate for each problem a general sequence. Out of the summary of problems as illustrated above, she identified and developed two problem areas: **Self-Understanding** and **Healthful Living**. The scope to be included in each problem area was derived from the collected data. This procedure is illustrated as follows:

1. **Self-Understanding.** The focal points of adolescent concern in this area are: (a) achieving a sense of responsibility, (b) accepting the obligations and privileges of adulthood, (c) understanding the forces which mold personality, (d) developing desirable characteristics of maturity, (e) understanding the relationship of self to peers and adults, (f) developing a wide range of interests, (g) achieving a sense of personal satisfaction in leisure activities, (h) learning to select worthwhile leisure interests, (i) learning to make wise decisions, (j) developing personal values and standards of conduct, (k) achieving

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self-respect and a sense of personal worth, (1) gaining a sense of security in meeting new situations.\textsuperscript{36}

The problem areas developed by Marani through the above sketched procedure are listed as follows:

1. Self-Understanding
2. Healthful Living
3. Home and Family Living
4. Personal-Social Relations
5. Education and School Living
6. Vocational Preparation
7. Living in the Community
8. Democratic Government
9. Economic Understanding
10. Relationships with Minority Groups
11. Intercultural Understanding
12. Finding Values by Which to Live.\textsuperscript{37}

While these two typical approaches for formulating problem areas for general education mentioned in the preceding pages would provide the reader with a general idea of how to formulate problem areas, more specific considerations will be given to the concept of the adolescent needs and some approaches to identifying them will be pointed out. Practically, identification of adolescent needs or problems occupies the major part of the tasks involved in formulating problem areas, because the term "problem area," as defined by Alberty "is used to designate a broad category around which a large number of the problems of adolescents cluster."\textsuperscript{38}

Clarifying the meaning of adolescent needs. There is considerable confusion as to the meaning of the term "adolescent needs." While on the one extreme some people would restrict the meaning of needs to only those

\textsuperscript{36}Ibid., p. 312.

\textsuperscript{37}For a complete description of the problem areas, see Ibid., pp. 309-326.

\textsuperscript{38}Harold Alberty, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 106.
psychological aspects including drives or desires, wishes, and wants, there are those who regard adolescent needs in terms of "lacks" or "shortcomings" in the adolescent with respect to social demands and requirements. Implications of these two extreme positions for the study of need and curriculum development lead one to two entirely different approaches and outcomes. If one interprets needs in terms of psychobiological tension or need, he would rely heavily upon the behavior of adolescents in identifying their needs. Techniques for this identification might include observations of adolescent behavior in various situations, interviews with adolescents, use of check lists and questionnaires, and use of other objective measures. The content of education based on this concept of adolescent needs must stem from what the adolescents wants to know, to learn, and to solve.

On the other hand, if one interprets needs in terms of "lacks" or "shortcomings" for assuming responsible adult social life, he cannot rely upon the adolescent for information but he has to turn to adult society to determine its values, ideals, standards, regulations, and so forth through an analysis of society. In this case the curriculum is theoretically based on what society wants the adolescent to become, to learn, and to know.

Neither of these extreme positions is supported by modern writers in education, psychology, or sociology. The reconciliation of these extreme positions was made possible by the recognition of the interactive nature of both internal and external needs in affecting individual action. When the individual strongly feels the need to belong, he cannot achieve the goal without behaving in an acceptable manner to the standards set.
up by the group. In this sense, as Low says, "it is reasonable to consider needs as an expression of the interaction between the individual-with-his-feelings-of-need and society-with-its-imposition-of-tasks." In other words, needs are personal-social in character.

The Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association should be given credit for its extensive study of adolescent needs which is regarded as having greatly influenced the curriculum workers toward the concept of personal-social character of needs. This Commission, in surveying the needs of adolescent, "has found it helpful to think of the involvements of youth in terms of four basic aspects of living; (1) Personal Living; (2) Immediate Personal-Social Relationships; (3) Social-Civic Relationships; and (4) Economic Relationships." The scope of needs in each of these four basic aspects of living is indicated as follows:

**Personal Living:** (1) The need for personal health; (2) the need for self-assurance; (3) the need for a satisfying world picture and a workable philosophy of life; (4) the need for a range of personal interests; and (5) the need for esthetic satisfactions.

**Immediate Personal-Social Relationships:** (1) The need for increasingly mature relationships in home and family life, and with adults outside the family and (2) the need for successful and increasingly mature relationships with age mates of both sexes.

**Social-Civic Relationships:** (1) The need for responsible participation in socially significant activities and (2) the need for social recognition.

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Economic Relationships: (1) The need for emotional assurance of progress toward adult status; (2) the need for guidance in choosing an occupation and for vocational preparation; (3) the need for wise selection and use of foods and services; and (4) the need for effective action in solving basic economic problems.

Following the lead of the Commission's study of adolescent needs, a number of extensive studies of this kind have been conducted and published. A careful analysis of these studies shows that there are still certain degrees of variance in emphasis placed on the felt needs and the social demands.

Another attempt to reconcile the conflict between psychobiological needs and social demands as concepts of needs is seen in the use of new terminology, "developmental task," which has been frequently used by Prescott in his writing during 1941 and 1942 and which continues to be used by Havighurst, Redl, and Corey in the years following. Havighurst states the concept as follows:

The developmental task concept occupies middle ground between the two opposed theories of education: the theory of freedom—that the child will develop best if left as free as possible, and the theory of constraint—that the child must learn to become a worthy responsible adult through restraints imposed by his society. A developmental task is midway between an individual need and a societal demand. It partakes of the nature of both.

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41 Ibid., Chapters III through V inclusive.
42 For a careful analysis of various studies, see Harold Alberty, op. cit., Chapter IV.
43 For a brief history of the developmental task concept, see R. J. Havighurst, Developmental Tasks and Education. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1948, pp. 1-5.
44 Ibid., p. 4.
In a revision of the pamphlet originally published in 1946, Havighurst lists and discusses the following developmental tasks of adolescence:

1. Achieving new and more mature relations with age-mates of both sexes
2. Achieving a masculine or feminine social role
3. Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively
4. Achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults
5. Achieving assurance of economic independence
6. Selecting and preparing for an occupation
7. Preparing for marriage and family life
8. Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence
9. Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior
10. Acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behavior

Similar formulations of the developmental tasks of adolescence were made by Corey in *The American High School* and by Tryon and J. W. Lilienthal III in *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*. "Developmental task" is not the only new term which has come into use among curriculum workers. As Alberty says, "for the same reason that Havighurst abandoned the term 'need' in favor of 'developmental task,' many people are turning to the terms 'problem' or 'problem area,' to identify behavior and to serve as a basis for the curriculum."

It seems safe at this point to conclude that there is an increasing trend toward interpreting adolescent needs or problems as personal-social

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in nature. While the psychobiological needs are felt by every adolescent, all of the social demands or requirements will not be necessarily felt by him. In this sense, an identification of adolescent needs require both the analysis of adolescent behavior and a study of the social order. Marani's approach, as previously illustrated, may be said to have strength as a procedure for identifying adolescent needs or problems because she includes adolescents, parents, teachers, and social scientists as well as research reports as appropriate sources of information.

While various devices for measuring and identifying both individual and group needs were being developed and popularized, an increasing realization of the need for school personnel to develop the ability to evaluate, select, and use the devices effectively has also been developing. In many schools, professionally trained guidance workers and school psychologists are called upon to cooperate in a study of adolescent growth and behavior and in the reorganization of the curriculum of the school.

**Determining Sequence in the Core**

When a program is based on subjects or fields of knowledge, there is no serious problem involved in determining sequence. In organization of subjects and in fields of knowledge, there are various bases for determining sequence, such as chronological development of the subject or the field and degrees of difficulty and complexity of the content of the subject or the field. These bases for determining sequence should not be applied when developing a core program based on adolescent needs and problems. Instead, the functional sequence of adolescent experiences must be determined and used as a basis for determining sequence. It was
indicated in the discussion of Alberty's Type-V Core that there are a variety of practices used for determining sequence in the core program. Some schools use fixed sequence programs for each grade level, while other schools use more flexible sequence programs. In both cases, the basis for determining sequence is the basic needs and characteristics of the adolescent growth. In Narami's approach as previously described, the sequence is flexible and is determined by the responses made by adolescents themselves and adults who are sensitive to the needs of the adolescents. More careful consideration of sequence is sometimes shown in a resource unit built upon a certain problem area by suggesting possible activities. However, more reliance is placed on teacher-pupil planning to determine what to study next. A set of criteria might be developed cooperatively by the faculty or by the teacher and pupils for use in choosing the next unit of study. The teacher's understanding of the maturity level of his students and the teacher's ability and skill in guiding students to grow according to the natural sequence of experiences are of utmost importance in satisfactorily solving the problems involved in determining sequence in the core program.

**Developing Resource Units**

Even though the school has studied the common needs or problems of adolescence and has formulated the problem areas for a core program, it does not follow that adequate pre-planning has been accomplished by core teachers. In describing the experiences of the participating schools of the Eight-Year Study in developing core programs, Giles and others expressed the need for additional aid to teachers as follows:

If the preliminary planning should stop with defining categories..., an impossible load is placed on the shoulders
of the teacher charged with the responsibilities of teaching a core course. Additional help is required. What source materials can be used profitably? How can they be made available? What activities can be utilized profitably? How can the significance of an activity be determined? These questions and many others must be answered satisfactorily by the teacher.

The term "resource unit" which is believed to have grown up in the early workshops of the Eight-Year Study is now generally accepted as meaning a collection of ideas and suggestions to be used by the teacher as an aid in guiding student learning experiences. More specifically, Alberty defines the term as follows:

A resource unit is a systematic and comprehensive survey, analysis, and organization of the possible resources (e.g., problems, issues, activities, bibliographies) which a teacher might utilize in planning, developing, and evaluating a learning unit. In other words, it is a reservoir out of which the teacher working cooperatively with students may draw helpful suggestions for developing a unit of work in the classroom.

**Forms and contents of resource units.** Various forms and organizations of resource units are currently utilized in developing a resource unit. A commonly used form is described by Alberty as follows:

1. **Introduction.** This section places the unit in its setting and sometimes includes general suggestions for using it.

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51 Harold Alberty, op. cit., p. 424.

2. **Philosophy and Objectives.** Here the practice varies greatly. Frequently this section includes a statement of the general philosophy and purposes of the school, and the objectives of the particular unit.

3. **Scope.** This section usually deals with a brief outline of the general problem area covered by the unit, problems, issues, hypotheses, and sometimes a bibliography to aid the teacher in familiarizing himself with the general area.

4. **Suggested Activities.** This section consists of organized or unorganized statements of activities which the teacher and student might find useful in carrying out a learning unit in the classroom.

5. **Bibliography and Teaching Aids.** This section generally lists books, pamphlets, periodicals, free and inexpensive materials, films, film strips, recordings, models, pictures, and maps, which might be helpful to a class in developing a learning unit.

6. **Evaluation.** This important section is designed to provide suggestions for the continuous and final evaluation of a learning unit based upon the general problem area covered by the resource unit.

7. **Leads to Other Units.** This section is usually brief and deals with the possibilities of developing other related resource or learning units.

8. **The Use of the Unit.** Practice varies widely but frequently those who prepare resource units include a section dealing with the various possibilities of using the material in the various phases of developing a learning unit.³³

While an extensive treatment of the organization and content of resource units is beyond the scope of this study, sections 3 and 4 in Albery's suggested general organization quoted above will be further discussed.

**Scope.** The section dealing with scope in a resource unit usually contains the problems, issues, or hypotheses which represent a general outline of the particular problem area for which the resource unit is developed. Practices in this section, however, range from a brief list of content outlines or possible problems which might be raised by the students to scholarly discussions of the problems, issues, and hypotheses involved in the problem area. A brief outline of content or a list of problems or

questions might give a teacher a quick grasp of the general scope of the area. However, the list of problems may not provide enough information for the teacher's insight into the nature and issues of the area. In this sense, an inclusion of professional references in this section may help orient the teacher to the problem area. A very comprehensive treatment of the scope of a resource unit has been made by Alberty and his students in a graduate course at The Ohio State University. The resource unit prepared for high-school teachers is entitled, *Helping Teenagers Explore Values*. The section of the resource unit dealing with scope contains elaborate discussions of the nature of the area, problems and issues. Possible student questions are inserted at the end of each subtopic of the discussion of the area; and at the end of the section, an annotated bibliography of professional books is included for the teacher's use in further understanding of the scope of the resource unit. The scope of a resource unit usually covers more than the teacher and students can actually cover in their cooperative planning and carrying out of learning experiences at a given grade. Accordingly it is the responsibility of the teacher to select and determine appropriate content for developing a learning unit based on the needs and interests of his students and the particular conditions of the school.

*Suggested activities.* This section in a resource unit is also treated in various ways. It ranges from a very detailed description of the "what" and "how" of leading student learning activities to a general collection

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54 Harold Alberty and Others, *Helping Teenagers Explore Values*, Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: Department of Education, The Ohio State University, 1956.
of possible activities. While a detailed description of suggested activities tends to give a secure feeling to less experienced teachers, it has the definite limitation of hindering creative and flexible use of the resource unit. A fairly common practice is the one that seems to give more flexibility to the suggested activities so that teachers can make creative selection or modification of the suggested activities without losing a sense of direction. This position is accepted by Quillen in his description of content of the resource units in the Problems in American Life series. He describes the nature of "suggested activities" in the resource unit as follows:

These are divided into initiatory, developmental, and culminating activities. The initiatory activities are suggestions as to how the unit might be started with a group of pupils so as to challenge their interest. The developmental activities are suggested procedures for collecting information about the problem during the research periods. The culminating activities suggest ways in which the class might develop and use conclusions bearing on a solution of the problem. Again these activities merely suggest possibilities which teachers might utilize, and final selection should be based on the needs of the particular group of pupils being taught.55

A more general approach to the suggested activities may be characterized by the monograph Helping Teenagers Explore Values in which the selection of "suggested activities" contains 118 possible activities. They are not organized in terms of initiatory, developmental, and culminating activities suggested by Quillen, but they are generally grouped in terms of the organization of the discussion in the section on scope. The introduction to the section "Suggested Student Activities" follows:

The following list of activities suggests the kinds of experiences which a class might utilize in carrying through a

learning unit. The activities reflect the needs of youth in the area of exploring the values by which they live. They were developed within the framework of the scope of the resource unit and express the objectives of the unit. The activities attempt to provide a range of learning experiences appropriate for various maturity levels. Some are intended for an individual, others involve the entire class or small groups. The teacher may wish to develop with the class additional activities appropriate to the nature of the learning unit which is selected. In this sense the activities are illustrative of what a class might do. The listing is not exhaustive nor is it intended that all activities will be used in a single unit. The activities are grouped under the various aspects of living in which values find expression as they were defined in the section on scope. This grouping is not entirely defensible since the areas often overlap one another, but the categorizations may be helpful to the teacher in exploring the kinds of relationships in which value conflicts occur.\(^{56}\)

The wealth of possible activities included in this resource unit is a distinct strength. Whichever approach may be taken in suggesting possible activities for the area, the selected activities should meet certain criteria if they are to be used effectively. Such criteria may include:

1. Do the activities implement the purposes of general education as well as the objectives of the problem area?  
2. Do the activities provide opportunity for and encourage the problem solving approach?  
3. Are the activities relevant to the maturity level of the growing adolescent?  
4. Do the activities provide for individual as well as group work?  
5. Do the activities provide for the use of information drawn from a variety of sources?  
6. Do the activities provide sufficient opportunity for teacher-pupil planning?  
7. Are the suggested activities clearly stated and organized for effective use by teachers?

Other considerations in resource-unit construction. As is true with the formulation of philosophy and development of problem areas, the task

\(^{56}\)Harold Alberty and Others, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 34.
of developing resource units also requires cooperative efforts of the faculty members including the teachers of special-interest areas. Since the resource units for the core program require information from all available sources regardless of subject-matter boundaries, contributions of special-area teachers are regarded as a very important factor in the construction of a good resource unit. Their participation in the resource-unit construction gives opportunities for them not only to contribute by presenting special information but also to understand the core program in relation to their fields and to the total program of the school. And this understanding of the relationships of various aspects of a total program helps teachers to contribute more profitably to the development of a better integrated program. Inclusion of the core teachers who will use the resource units in the resource unit construction is also very important, because, this provides for teachers not only to gain insight regarding the resource unit but also to become competent in the use of the resource unit. Since developing resource units requires time, budget, and group work, sufficient provisions of time, money, and leadership should be made by the administrative leaders of the school.

Developing Learning Units

The final test of effectiveness of the core program is to be sought in the changes made in the behavior of the students resulting from their living and learning under the guidance of the teacher in the program. In this sense, the way the actual learning experiences are planned and carried out during the period assigned for core is the most serious concern of all involved in curriculum development.
The nature of learning unit. With the change of curriculum structure from the subject-oriented core to the adolescent-problems core, the classroom procedure also needs to be changed from the daily recitation procedure to one which employs a problem-solving approach through teacher-student planning. Such a procedure is known by different names such as the unit of work, the classroom unit, the teaching-learning unit, the learning unit, or the general method. While all of these designations are acceptable for the new classroom procedure, the term "learning unit" is used in this study because this term seems to occur most frequently in the literature dealing with core curriculum.

Reasons for the need to change the daily recitation procedure to the learning unit approach are related to certain failures of the recitation procedure. Following are some of the recognized failures of the recitation method:

1. Failure to meet the challenge of new theories of learning
2. Failure to provide for student's creative participation in the learning situation
3. Failure to provide adequately for individual differences
4. Failure to provide for integrated learning experiences
5. Failure to provide for learning experiences in democratic living
6. Failure to use the abundant resources available in the school and in the community
7. Failure to provide for problem-solving experiences

Moreover, since the recitation method was designed for teaching a separate subject matter, it does not fit the core program which cuts across subject-matter areas.

Because of the shortcomings of the recitation method, increasing efforts have been made by educators during recent decades to develop a
method of group instruction which is consistent with the growing knowledge of human development and learning as well as with the values and principles of democratic living. This method, which the writer calls the "learning unit" approach, has several important characteristics recognized by some American schools through their experiences with this approach. These characteristics follow:

1. A creative process of teacher-pupil planning, cooperative execution of the plan, and continuous cooperative evaluation of the work

2. Treatment of comprehensive problems or issues which all adolescents face frequently

3. Problem-solving approaches utilizing all the available information drawn from various sources

4. Carefully selected and organized activities for the group as well as for individuals

Because the major characteristics of the learning-unit approach are considered to be the most promising procedure for meeting the purposes of general education, this approach is widely used in the core program of the American schools.

A learning unit is usually carried out through three stages which Alberty describes as follows: "(1) the PLANNING STAGE in which problems are clarified, alternate plans of work considered, and decisions reached as to how the group shall proceed; (2) an extended WORKING STAGE in which there is much group discussion, library research, investigations, experimentation, individual and committee work, and the like; and (3) a CULMINATING STAGE, in which results are brought together, conclusions are reached, and results are evaluated."

Teacher's preparation for developing learning units. In a strict sense, learning units are not part of the pre-planning phases of the core-program development. Alberty emphasizes that:

They cannot be developed in advance of teaching. They are descriptions of what happens when a teacher and a group of students engage in a cooperative learning enterprise. Consequently, learning units should not be regarded as lesson or unit plans.58

This does not mean that the teacher does not need to have his own plan before he goes into the class to meet with his students for the purpose of teacher-pupil planning. It does, however, mean that no ready-made set of experiences prepared by the teacher in advance of the teaching-learning period can be imposed on the students. Rather learning units are the result of the teacher and students working creatively and cooperatively in the selection and determination of a common problem to be studied, in planning how to attack the problem in carrying out what is planned, and in evaluating continuously the procedure as well as the outcomes of the work.

In the cooperative development of a learning unit, the teacher plays a distinct role as a guide, participant, and resource person. In order to perform this important role he needs to have his own plan in terms of principles for effective performance of his role in the development of learning units. This plan may include (1) general schedule of time which will be allocated to the three major stages (planning, working, and culminating) in the development of a learning unit; (2) checking with the librarian and other teachers to determine availability of resource materials and persons to be utilized for probable units of the class;

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58 Harold Alberty, op. cit., p. 421.
(3) preparation of a record or records showing the previous units or
problem areas experienced by the students of his class; and (4) prepa-
ration of a set of criteria for selecting a unit and for evaluating the
process and outcomes of a unit.

In addition to this type of preparation, the teacher should have
sound understandings of (1) the general nature of each of the pre-planned
problem areas from which a learning unit is selected; (2) the character-
istics of growth and development of his particular group of students;
(3) procedures and techniques for helping students, individually or as
a group, to identify their common and special problems, needs, and
interests; (4) principles and techniques of the method of reflective
thinking; and (5) principles and techniques of democratic group process.

Guiding student experiences through learning units. Provided that
all the necessary preparations have been made by the teacher for working
with students on developing a learning unit, the job remaining for the
teacher is that of participating in the teacher-pupil cooperative living
and learning as a guide, as a fellow member, and as a resource person
while the group works toward optimum solution of student problems.

The effectiveness of developing learning units depends on the compe-
tency of the teacher to create learning situations which are consistent
with the modern theories of learning and democratic principles of group
action. Such learning situations may be characterized by the following
points of emphasis which will help the teacher in guiding learning units.

1. Maximum participation of and contribution by all students are
encouraged in cooperative purposing, planning, executing, and
evaluating.

2. Individual differences are respected and provisions are made
to take into account these differences.
3. The method of reflective thinking is valued and this method is used by the group, as well as by the individual, for the solution of their problems.

4. A variety of activities is provided so that each student may have the experience of working in a large group, in a small group, and individually. Moreover, such a variety of activities may desirably include library research, reading, laboratory work, construction of displays, field trips, viewing films, listening to speakers, oral and written reports; however, all of these varied activities are integral parts of the learning experiences.

5. A variety of resources are used as needed in problem solving; valuable resources include reference materials from appropriate fields of knowledge, recordings, radio and television, resource personnel, etc.

6. Democratic principles of group procedures are followed when the students work in group situations.

7. The objectives which have been established cooperatively by the teacher and the students are used in the continuous process of evaluating the work of the group.

This list is not exhaustive of desirable points of emphasis for guiding learning units, but it will serve the teachers as a general frame of reference in their work with students. An illustration of developing a learning unit for use in the Type-V Core program is presented in Chapter VI. 59

Guidance in the Core Program

The guidance program in an educational institution aims at helping the individual student achieve maximum development as a responsible citizen of a democratic society. More specifically, Humphreys and Traxler define the guidance point of view "as the attitude that aims to

help the individual (1) to understand himself; (2) to make the most of his capacities, interests, and other qualities; (3) to adjust himself satisfactorily to the varied situations within his total environment; (4) to develop the ability to make his own decisions wisely and to solve his problems independently; and (5) to make his own unique contributions to society to the fullest possible extent.

In order to achieve these objectives, the guidance services, as generally conceived by the guidance specialists, attempt (1) to identify the problems, needs, and interests of individual students by means of various techniques, both subjective and objective, of studying the students; (2) to provide information for student use in problem solving; (3) to provide expert helps to students for their solutions of personal problems through individual counseling as well as in the group situation; (4) to help the individual student choose appropriate courses to take in school and choose a college or find a promising job in terms of his ability, needs and special interests; and (5) to follow-up the individual while he is still in school as well as after he has left the school.

With the guidance point of view and the guidance services thus defined, one can see that there are relationships between the guidance services and the core program. The process of studying the problems, needs, and interests for the purpose of formulating problem areas does not differ from what is called "the inventory service" in guidance. In either case, a careful study of the individual student and the keeping of a record of the findings concerning the individual in a cumulative record are

considered to be very important provisions for identifying the common and special problems, needs, and interests of the students.

The nature of problem areas, from which learning units are developed cooperatively by the teacher and students, is so closely related to the personal and social problems adolescents face in daily life that a variety of activities in the core classes provide ample opportunities for students to receive the kind of help the guidance services attempt to provide. For instance, by actively participating in the group problem solving as well as by carrying out individual projects, the student grows in ability to identify his problems, to use the method of intelligence for the solution of his problems, to choose values, to make his own decisions, to respect the contributions of others, to work and play with others, and to behave in a sensitive manner in social situations. Through these growth experiences, the student gains self-confidence and satisfies his need for recognition, sense of achievement, and consequently the need for a feeling of security. Excellent opportunities for utilizing procedures and techniques for group guidance are thus inherent in the core classes.

The core classes also provide opportunities for the teacher to help individual students solve their special problems through counseling activities. A large block of time provided for the core class usually includes homeroom activities, student council, free reading period, social period, and the like, in addition to the unit study. Accordingly, the core teacher in such a large block of time is in a more favorable position than the guidance specialists to understand the students through close observation of their behavior in both group and individual situations, to create a favorable atmosphere for counseling, and to follow them for some length of period.
When a core teacher confers with the student, his parents, and special-interest area teachers as to what the student should elect for his special-interest portion of his total school experiences, and when he confers with them for choice of college or vocation, he is practically performing a function of placement service of the typical guidance program. Many schools using core programs conduct follow-up studies of the graduates as a part of the curriculum-development study.

In light of the facts considered in the previous paragraphs, guidance is an integral part of the core program. However, it does not necessarily mean that there is no need for specialized guidance workers in the core program, but it does mean that many of the functions of guidance specialists in schools not having a core program are assumed by the core teacher. In practice, the core teacher has some limitations for functioning as a guidance specialist. He usually does not have the kind of specialized training the guidance specialist receives and even if he had secured adequate training in guidance, he would have only limited time for performing all the details which are the responsibility of the guidance personnel.

The guidance worker may provide invaluable aid to the core teacher by participating in a study of the adolescent problems which require complicated procedures and techniques; by collecting, organizing, and displaying educational and vocational informations; by providing in-service training regarding principles and techniques of conducting counseling and group activities for guidance; by taking care of those students whose problems are too difficult for the nonspecialized classroom teacher to handle; and by establishing functional relationships between the school
and other community organizations such as religious organizations, philanthropic organizations, mental-hygiene clinics, and other referral agencies and governmental offices.\(^6\)

**Evaluation in the Core Program**

Evaluation in an educational institution is considered as an integral part of planning and carrying out the total program. The core program, which does not rely for a sense of direction on any pre-determined subject-matter to be covered, especially emphasizes careful and continued evaluation of the procedures, as well as the outcomes of program development, in terms of democratic values and purposes of the school, the principles of democratic action, and the principles of effective learning. The evaluation of a core program, or of any other types of curriculum, may be viewed as an (1) over-all evaluation of the procedures employed for developing a program as well as the final form of the program and (2) as the evaluation of pupil progress through the program.

A continuous evaluation of the procedures of developing a program may be achieved concommitantly with the process of cooperative development of the program if the faculty checks the procedures against a set of criteria for effective core-program construction. Such criteria may include items of the following types:

1. Is the whole faculty aware of the need for developing a core program?

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2. Does the faculty employ a democratic process of group problem solving? In other words, does the faculty apply the principles of reflective thinking in its work? Is provision made for the maximum contribution of each member? Is contrary opinion respected? Does the faculty strive to reconcile conflicting opinions? Is the final decision made on the basis of consent of all faculty members? Is the final decision given reconsideration for possible change when the need demands?

3. Are the school's philosophy and purposes which have been agreed-upon understood well and utilized continuously in examining any aspect of the core program?

4. Are the provisions for time and budget adequate for co-operative studies of adolescent problems, the formulation of problem areas, and the gathering of resource materials and teaching aids?

5. Are provisions made for the maximum professional growth of the faculty members through their work experiences in the curriculum construction?

6. Are provisions made for the participation of students, parents, and other community members?

The overall evaluation of the core program may also be accomplished through the use of a set of evaluative criteria and by analyzing the results of specific evaluation of pupil progress in terms of behavioral changes. Since a set of evaluative criteria of the core program will be presented at the end of this chapter, it is not treated here. However, an evaluation program of pupil progress in the core will be discussed.

The evaluation of pupil progress in the core classes is a more difficult task than the evaluation of pupil progress in the traditional situation in which emphasis is placed upon the measurement and evaluation of gain in facts, information, and skills. Evaluation in the core, however, is concerned with the measurement and appraisal of such intangible aspects of growth as attitudes, appreciations, ability to use the method of intelligence, and personal-social adjustment.
Since the primary purposes of evaluation in a school program is to determine the effectiveness of the program in fostering desirable behavior changes as indicated by the purposes of the school, the formulation of the objectives of the curriculum based on the philosophy and the purposes of the school and the clarification of the objectives in behavioral terms become initial steps in the process of evaluation. The nature of the analyzed and classified objectives of the curriculum determines the procedures and techniques to be employed in the process of evaluation.

**Steps in the process of evaluating pupil progress.** A systematic program of evaluating pupil progress generally follows a series of the broad steps which should be taken in carrying out the evaluation program. The Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study set up seven major steps as the general procedure in developing the evaluation program. They are (1) formulating objectives, (2) classifying objectives, (3) defining objectives in terms of behavior, (4) suggesting situations in which the achievement of objectives will be shown, (5) selecting and trying promising evaluation methods, (6) developing and improving appraisal methods, and (7) interpreting results. The steps covering formulation, classification, and definition of objectives were already treated in the section of this chapter dealing with the formulation of philosophy and purposes. Of the remaining steps, the selecting of appraisal methods and the

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constructing techniques involve some problems because of the lack of suitable instruments for appraising intangible aspects of human behavior and because of the difficulty of constructing such instruments.\(^\text{63}\)

A full treatment of selection, construction, and use of appraisal methods is beyond the scope of this study; nevertheless, some basic principles underlying these steps follow:

1. Any instrument or evaluation technique used for evaluation should have high validity and reliability.

2. Any instrument or evaluation technique should have usability or practicability in terms of cost, time, and the ease of administration and scoring.

3. No single instrument or technique is satisfactory for measuring the comprehensiveness of human growth. Sociometric devices, interest inventories, self-rating inventories of personal and social adjustment, attitude scales, teacher observation and rating, discussion of effectiveness of group work, and so forth are methods of appraisal frequently used in core classes to supplement standardized tests.

4. Selection, construction, and use of evaluational instruments and techniques should be carried out either by the experts in field or at least under their direction.

5. The results of the evaluation should be organized into meaningful interpretation and should be utilized as a basis for further improvement or revision of the curriculum.

This is by no means an exhaustive list of principles for effective selection, construction, and use of evaluational instruments and techniques; however, the five points listed are major items to be recognized if the evaluation program is to be consistent with the purposes of the core

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program. The importance of techniques of evaluation in curriculum development is emphasized by Alberty as follows:

While very few instruments for evaluating these intangible but important goals are available, it cannot be too strongly emphasized that the best curriculum-development program may bog down and become ineffective if the testing program is not consistent with the purposes or goals. The testing program, in a very real sense, determines what is taught and learned.64

TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS FOR THE CORE PROGRAM

One of the most important factors determining the success of core-program development is the competence of the teacher who is to take full responsibility for guiding the students in the core class. The fact that the core program is a drastic deviation from the organized subject matter approach imposes on him many difficulties which the subject-matter teachers do not have; and these difficulties demand special competencies on the part of the core teacher. The special competencies needed by the core teacher to overcome most of the difficulties encountered in the core teaching have been effectively summarized by Alberty and a graduate seminar group directed by him in 1949. They are presented in the following two lists:

Those competencies which can be met within the framework of general professional courses:

1. The core teacher should know the contributions of the leaders in the field of general education and how to utilize these contributions in developing and improving the core program.
2. The core teacher should be able to interpret present day events and movements as they relate to the learning activities of the core.

64Harold Alberty, op. cit., p. 544.
3. The core teacher should understand the processes of growth and maturation in children and adolescents for the purposes of identifying common basic needs and interests in various levels of development.

4. The core teacher should be able to develop learning units in broad problem areas with the purposes of improving human relations.

5. The core teacher should know how to utilize and direct the various types of student activities (e.g., student councils, assemblies, publications, social clubs and parties, and sports) and relate them to the common learning part of the school program.

Those competencies which require special courses or experiences for prospective core teachers:

1. The core teacher should be able to evaluate programs of leading schools with an emphasis on core curriculum and understand their contribution for the improvement of education.

2. The core teacher should be able to draw upon major fields of knowledge in helping youth to meet their common needs and solve their problems.

3. The core teacher should understand the nature and significance of controversial issues in terms of the major fields of knowledge and develop suitable techniques for dealing with them in the core class.

4. The core teacher should know how to utilize guidance and counseling techniques in relating the activities of the core to the total development of the adolescent.

5. The core teacher should know how to utilize the resources of the community in solving the common problems dealt with in the core.

6. The core teacher should be able to utilize the occupational opportunities of the immediate and wider community for providing general vocational orientation for the adolescent.

7. The core teacher should have an ability to utilize techniques of cooperative planning, and to work with colleagues in coordinating all the learning activities of the core group.

8. The core teacher should know how to set up problem areas based on common problems, needs and interests and how to utilize them in evaluating learning activities.

9. The core teacher should be able to build resource units related to broad problem areas and to utilize them in planning learning units with the pupils.65

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These two lists of summaries of special competencies needed by the core teacher provide a new basis for developing programs of the core-teacher training both pre- and in-service. Until the teacher-education institutions and the school administrators make a positive move toward providing an appropriate program of core-teacher training, core program development is likely to face continuous difficulties.

FOCAL POINTS FOR EXAMINING A CORE PROGRAM

On the basis of the preceding discussions of the philosophical, psychological, and social foundations of general education in the Chapter III of this report and on the basis of the discussions of the various structures of core programs and the principles and procedures of developing the core program which is based upon structured problem areas, the writer has arrived at some tentative conclusions concerning the nature of a good core program for general education. These tentative conclusions may also serve as a set of criteria for evaluating a core program in any school, and in this study they are considered as focal points for studying the core program of The Ohio State University Secondary School. These criteria are as follows:

1. The core program strives directly for the attainment of democratic philosophy and purposes of the school which were cooperatively arrived at and formulated by the total faculty.

2. The core program recognizes that adolescent needs and problems are personal-social in character and strives to identify them and make them the basis for curriculum development through a carefully conducted study of adolescents.
3. The general scope of the core program is indicated in the form of problem areas which are formulated on the bases of (1) the identified common, persistent needs and problems of adolescents, (2) the democratic philosophy and purposes of the school, and (3) the modern concept of human development.

4. The core program transcends subject-matter boundaries and is organized so as to utilize all fields of knowledge necessary to solve problems.

5. The core program provides for close cooperation among the members of the faculty in different areas through their planning and working together.

6. The core program facilitates integration of various learnings in the students.

7. The core program provides a sufficiently large block of time for a variety of activities such as group discussions, library activities, field trips, laboratory experiences, social activities, free readings, creative writings, and student activities.

8. The core program is so organized that individual and group guidance become an integral part of the core.

9. The core program provides for cooperative teacher-student purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating in developing learning units in order to enable students to grow in the democratic way of life.

10. The core units provide intrinsic motivation for learning on the part of the learner by making possible a direct attack upon the problems of his own concerns.
11. The core program helps each individual to identify, create and extend his own interests.

12. The core program is not isolated from the special-interest areas but is the unifying center of the total school program.

13. The core program utilizes a comprehensive evaluation program which is consistent with the purposes of the program.

14. The core program requires sufficient space, facilities, equipment, resource materials, and teaching aids for effective achievement of the purposes of the program.

15. The core program requires competent teachers who have sufficient training and experience for assuming those responsibilities in carrying out the program successfully.

16. The core program requires administrative provisions for continuous research and evaluation activities as well as appropriate in-service training of the teachers for continuous improvement of the program to meet the changing needs of the society and of the adolescents in this rapidly changing world.
CHAPTER V

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY SCHOOL: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND GENERAL SETTING

The Ohio State University Secondary School was selected for study with the expectation that a careful examination of its general-education program might provide suggestions for the development of core programs in the campus schools of Korea. It seems to the writer that it is appropriate at this point to describe in broad terms the historical background of the school and the general setting in which its general education program operates, since no aspect of a school program functions apart from the total school program, or apart from the foundations laid throughout the past experiences of the school, or apart from the students, staff, and general surroundings which influence the program.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUNDS OF THE SCHOOL

The Ohio State University School provides a continuous program of education from kindergarten through grade twelve. For convenience in planning and operation, the School is considered to be comprised of these divisions: (1) the lower division (or school) including two groups of kindergarten (four year old group and five year old group) through grade six and (2) the upper division (or school) including grades seven through twelve. The writer uses the name "The Ohio State University Secondary
School" to refer to this upper division of the School. Throughout the period of its entire existence during which the staff, students, and parents have cooperated with other faculty members in the College of Education and with other interested professional lay groups, the School has undergone marked growth in functioning as a modern laboratory school. Major aspects of the historical development of the Secondary School will be discussed here with primary emphases on the functions, philosophy and purposes, and the program of general education as they have evolved.

Beginnings of the School

The need for a laboratory and demonstration school had been strongly felt by some faculty members of the College of Education at The Ohio State University before the definite planning and organization of the University School was underway around 1925. It was reported that bills were introduced in the legislatures of 1926 and 1927 for the appropriation of money for the construction of a building for a laboratory school to serve the teacher education program of the University, but it was not until 1929 that an appropriation bill of $400,000 for building and $50,000 for equipment was passed in the legislature.

Upon the success of the University in securing the budgets for building and equipment, faculty members of the College of Education under the leadership of Dean George F. Arps took immediate steps toward planning

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1For much of the presentation of the discussion of the beginnings of the University School, the writer is greatly indebted to R. D. Lindquist, "The University School at Ohio State University: an Evaluation of Its Program of Education for Children and Youth." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Los Angeles, Calif.: University of California, 1936, Chapter V.

2Ibid., p. 70.
the building. The faculty members who had participated in the original meeting for the building plans included: Dean Arps, Chairman, H. B. Alberty, B. H. Bode, H. C. Good, T. C. Holy, R. D. Hughes, E. E. Lewis, S. L. Pressey, J. A. Leeder, and W. H. Stone. The building plans were approved by the University Schools Committee and were adopted by the Board of Trustees in July, 1930. A significant aspect in this completion of the building plans is the fact that practically all staff members of the College of Education, school-housing specialists, professional artists and architects, school administrators within and without the campus, and other interested groups took part in one way or another in formulating the plans and in evaluating and revising them. Several visitations were made by Dean Arps and others to some outstanding schools during the planning stage. The Program Committee had presented a report listing fourteen areas of study as a basis for planning the building. These areas were: art, biology, chemistry, commercial arts, English, general science, health, household arts, industrial arts, languages, mathematics, music, physics, and social studies. The original plan also had included an auditorium and swimming pool as integral parts of the building designed for a laboratory school. The first building to be constructed was to house grades seven through twelve, inclusive. The construction of the then called "Elementary Wing" was also anticipated, but the coming of the depression prevented the realization of this plan.

In the meantime, the Committee on Organization and Control, one of several sub-committees of the Committee on University Laboratory School,

3Ibid. 4Ibid., p. 71.
was working on the general scheme of the organization and administration of the school and its policy. Some of the important recommendations which had been made by the Committee on the Organization and Control have been important factors for the development of the School. A series of recommendations of the Committee was included in its report presented to Dean Arps on May 6, 1930:

1. All the University Demonstration Schools under the control of the College of Education are included in the considerations leading to these recommendations.

2. We believe that the University Demonstration Schools should be an independent division of the College of Education, controlling and operating its own budget and coordinating in status with other departments of the College of Education.

3. Control of the Schools should rest in a Council on University Demonstration Schools, operating within the College of Education under the general administrative limitations prescribed by the College and the University. It should nominate to the Dean its own executive officers and its approval should be required for appointments to the staff.

4. The Council should consist of at least seven members, including the Dean and the Director, who should serve as ex-officio members. The remaining members of the Council should be appointed by the Dean for one year and should serve until their successors are appointed.

5. A Director of the Schools should be nominated by the Council to act as its chief executive officer, with responsibility, in cooperation with his staff, for formulating and executing the policies of the Council.

6. It is the judgment of the Committee that the Department of Principles and Practice, in cooperation with the subject-matter specialists in the University, is the appropriate agency for the continuing formulation and integration of the curricular and instructional policies of the Schools to be presented for the consideration of the Council.

7. The Committee does not consider it to be its function to make further recommendations concerning policies of organization within the schools. This would be the responsibility of the Council on University Demonstration Schools.
Finally, the Committee recommends that the members of the Council be appointed by the Dean at his early convenience, and that they be instructed to organize the Council immediately and proceed at once to the active performance of their duties.\(^5\)

Implications of certain of these recommendations need some explanation. When the Committee used the word "Schools" rather than "School," it was referring the following three divisions: (1) the University Elementary School, which had been operated since September, 1930 on Frambes Avenue under the direction of Laura Zirbes, (2) the kindergarten which had been added to the Elementary School in 1931, and (3) the University Secondary School which had been planned. Accordingly item one of the Committee recommendations implied that these units be combined into a single organization which would provide students continuous curricular experiences from kindergarten through grade twelve. In fact the kindergarten and the elementary school moved into the new building to join the secondary school in the fall of 1933. Thus, at that time the University School began to function as a complete unit under the direction of Mr. Rudolph D. Lindquist who had been brought to the University in July 1, 1931 to serve as the first director of the University School.

Recommendation Two proposes that the School have autonomous status. The assumption behind this recommendation is believed to be that without such status the laboratory school would lose its internal integrity in an attempt to satisfy a wide diversity of specialized expectations of the

\(^5\) "Recommendations of the Committee on the Organization and Control of the University Demonstration Schools Submitted to the Dean." Typewritten copy, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, May 6, 1930.
faculty members representing various points of view of education in the several fields. This, of course, assumed that it would be operated in close relationships with other departments of the College of Education and that the college faculty members would provide advisory or consultant help to the School, but it emphasized the principle that the carefully chosen staff of the School should be given freedom and responsibility to direct the development of the School.

Recommendation Three, Four, and Five are concerned with the organization of a University Schools Council as a major policy-making body. In conformity to this recommendation of the Committee, Dean Arps took action to create a new Council consisting of seven members including himself who served as chairman until Mr. Lindquist became director of the School in July, 1931 at which time the director took over the chairmanship of the Council. Under Mr. Lindquist's chairmanship the Council was "reconstituted somewhat and enlarged, for the Director desired the benefit of advice from the widest possible representation in the College on the problems of organizing the High School Division of the University School." At the earliest stage of the work of the newly formed University Schools Council, it attempted to solve some of the major problems through the works of various Committees. Of several reports which had been made by these Committees, those of the Committees on Personnel Budget and of the Committee on Objectives bear valuable materials for studying the philosophy, objectives, and functions of the University School. While the original copy of the report of the Budget Committee is not now available for reference, the writer had access to the part of the report Lindquist

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6R. D. Lindquist, op. cit., p. 80.
quoted in his study. The Budget Committee in its report of July 8, 1930, recommends among other things:

...that, therefore, the University High School faculty should be of such academic and professional quality as to make possible secondary school teaching on a level second to none either in this country or in Europe. Frankly, this means a college faculty in the strict sense of that term, which means a faculty comparable in quality to the best continental secondary schools. In somewhat greater detail, this means that the director, heads of departments, and as many teachers as possible shall possess the Ph. D degree as the minimal academic preparation and shall have an established record for instructional competency. It is furthermore contemplated that three-fourths of the teachers shall be men, since it is well known that the American secondary schools are over-feminized.

That the point of departure in the development of the University High School shall represent a distinctive point of view, a cardinal feature of which will be social orientation and perspective. The Department of Principles will be essentially concerned with the development of this point of view and the methodology to be pursued in its attainment. There is no precedent in the traditional and historical practices toward which the director, the secondary school staff and the college faculty may turn for specific guidance. In these circumstances and in the event of administrative approval, it is again convincingly evident that an unusually high grade faculty is imperative if the viewpoint as here briefly expressed is to become a reality. 7

Some of the ideas held by the early members of the University Schools Council concerning the quality of the University School staff are expressed in these recommendations with reference to the purposes and functions of the School. A further detailed report on the philosophy and purposes of the School, formulated before the opening of the School, was submitted to the University Administration by the Committee on Objectives in its report, after reviewing (1) the medieval ideal, (2) the classical ideal, (3) the industrial or democratic ideal, and (4) the present

7"Memorandum in re: The Personnel Budget of the University School," July 8, 1930. Quoted from R. D. Lindquist, op. cit., pp. 82-83.
situation, presents a basic philosophy and aim which should provide a
direction for the new school. The committee states:

Our University School will not identify itself with any one
of the ideals previously mentioned; it will not have an official
creed. At the same time it will take due cognizance of the fact
that it is a primary function of education to promote clarity of
thinking with respect to the question of what constitutes a good
life. It will be our aim, therefore, to combine flexibility
of activity with the cultivation of outlook, in order that every
kind of capacity and interest may find opportunity for expression.

With reference to general education, the committee report states that
"it is our belief that the idea of general education can be so conceived
as to give it continuity and also a natural terminus; and, furthermore,
that if this is done it will be possible to remedy certain outstanding
evils, such as lack of seriousness, lack of thoroughness and lack of pro-
per guidance." As these brief quotations indicate, the Committee report
implies that a great emphasis should be placed on (1) developing clarity
of thinking, (2) providing for continuity of experiences, (3) cultivation
of intellectual, esthetic and vocational interests, and (4) providing for
an independent self-direction through proper guidance.

In reaction to the then prevailing trend toward extending general
education beyond twelfth grade to fourteenth grade, the Committee included
the following important statement in its report:

The weakness of this movement (junior college) lies in the
fact it has no respectable notion of what constitutes a general
education. In most cases it seems to mean that a somewhat arbi-
trary period of time is allotted to the study of a variety of
subjects, which are selected on the basis of no ascertainable
principle and for no specific purpose. This allotment of time

\[8\] H. Bode et al., "Objectives of the Proposed University School."
Typewritten copy, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, December,
1930, pp. 6-7.

\[9\] Ibid., p. 8.
in this junior college program is fixed at two years beyond the high school, or a total of fourteen years. We propose to do two things: first, to substitute for this random procedure a definite, unified program, and, secondly, by virtue of this improvement in program and by making provision for superior teaching, to realize this aim of general education by the time that the pupil has completed our elementary and our more advanced school. This represents a period of twelve years, which we think is sufficient, if properly managed, to give a person an intelligent conception of the world in which he lives and a basis for an independent social philosophy or outlook or life. From that point on he should move in the direction of a specific career. In a word, we venture to think that if a pupil finishes the entire course with us we can take him about as far as the end of the sophomore year in college and that we can do a better job than is done by the high school and the junior college combined.10

The broad scope and nature of the new school program are clearly suggested in this statement. Providing a superior general educational program was a common, strong desire of those who had enthusiastically participated in the founding of the School. Dean Arps in his letter addressed to the Board of Trustees on March 9, 1931 reflected the same thinking concerning the nature of the School which underlies in the report of the Budget Committee as well as that of the Committee on Objectives. Dean Arps writes:

The University should not undertake to operate merely 'another high school' on the campus. It should, however, undertake to operate an exceptional high school, exceptional in reference (a) to the quality of its teaching, (b) to the attention given to the morals and physical and mental health and progress of the pupils, (c) to the measure and the order of presenting subject matter and the ways in which the different subject matters are interrelated and integrated into a progressive educational program. It is well known that various subjects have intimate relationships but it is also well known that there is almost universal failure to present them in these relationships so that the pupils may get the whole view; this we hope to do. Also in reference (d) to the greater speed that a pupil to have already completed the work of the freshman year in college and perhaps a considerable part of the sophomore year, (sic.) We believe that this can be done in the

10 Ibid., p. 9.
school life of the pupil beginning at six and ending at about eighteen, the normal school period. And also with reference to the purpose (e) to build the library into the everyday work of the pupils in such manner as to make self-education a feature of the program.11

The founders of the School had reached a definite agreement on the functions as well as the philosophy and purposes of the new School. A general description of the functions of the School as conceived by the founders of the School was expressed by the Committee on Objectives in its report, and it was again summarized by Dean Arps in his letter to the Board of Trustees. The summary of the functions of the School included in Dean Arps' letter reads as follows:

This school may then be thought of as a laboratory for the College of Education, a demonstration school for the students who are taking teacher training and for the teachers and school administrators of Ohio, and a source of publications concerning organization of subject matter, or educational procedures, and of all significant experiments which we may carry on.12

While these early activities had been carried out by the joint effort of the faculty members of the College of Education, there was an important factor which made it possible to bring those ideas and plans of the faculty members into the actual operation of the school program. This factor is pointed out by Mr. Lindquist as he recalls the experiences of his early days as the Director of the School:

The Director had been employed since July 1, 1931, and had had the opportunity to confer with members of the Department of Principles and Practice in the College of Education in a series of ten meetings, with practically all the members present, and in many additional conferences with Professors Boyd H. Bode, Harold Alberty, Gordon Hullfish, Creville Prim, and Laura Zirbes. These experiences gave him an opportunity to develop plans with respect to the curriculum, which he could present to the smaller

11"University Schools," Letter to the Board of Trustees from the Dean of the College of Education, March 9, 1931.

12Ibid.
faculty group assembled soon after July first. The plans developed by the latter group were then discussed with other faculty members when they arrived in September.\footnote{R. D. Lindquist, op. cit., p. 96.}

Even though the philosophy and purposes of the School had been formulated before the first faculty meeting of the School, they were not imposed on the new faculty members. By means of thoroughly democratic procedures, the faculty sought to have the philosophy and aims take a "realistic account of the circumstances...; to make them flexible and subject to revision when new facts came to light; to make them the result of group thinking which had worked its way through to a solution that appealed to all as reasonable, and which had internal consistency.\footnote{\textit{Ibid.}, p. 97.}

The final plan for the organization of the School was discussed in the conference of September, 1932 which also served the purpose of getting acquainted with the new co-workers who had arrived from various parts of the country. Lindquist lists the following recommendations which received faculty approval at that September conference:

1. That there be a continuous required exposure of all children in each of the five major areas—social science, science and mathematics, language, health, and art.

2. That the work of the various teachers be integrated in so far as possible so that the meanings acquired in each area might be extensions of those acquired in other areas.

3. That the child's thinking be motivated by problems that to him seem real and of vital importance, i.e., that first-hand experience have a prominent place in the educative process; also, that the child be led through vicarious experience to sense and solve problems outside the field of his immediate personal experience.

4. That the child be concerned about the social implications of what he is learning and that he develop a disposition and ability to discover and eliminate basic conflicts among these implications, so that he may experience personal integrity in a growing field of thought and action.
5. That pupils be encouraged to participate purposefully, not only in planning and executing school tasks, but in evaluating results as well.

6. That health be thought of as harmonious all-round development of the child, mental as well as physical; and that all the activities of the child, in and out of school, be evaluated in the light of what is good for him from the point of view of his health, as above defined.

7. That definite attempts be made to develop in the child his power of self-direction and self-appraisal.15

In accord with these desires, ideas, and cooperatively developed plans for establishing the University School and upon the completion of the building, the School opened on October 3, 1932. At that time a group of twenty-one competent teachers, selected from various parts of the country and a group of young people enrolled in classes from kindergarten through the tenth grade, began to plan, live, and work together for the realization of the ideas and desires of the founders of the School. As previously indicated, the lower school, including the kindergarten and the elementary school, had already been functioning since 1930 as a laboratory and demonstration school in temporary quarters near the campus; and it remained there until the Autumn of 1933 when it was moved into the new building to join the upper school.

At the opening of the School in the new building, the upper school enrolled fewer than 200 students in grade seven, eight, nine, and ten. It was extended through the twelfth grade as the tenth grade of 1932 progressed. Accordingly, the School graduated the first class in 1935.

The writer has attempted up to this point to summarize the ideas and plans worked out and the procedure followed by those who laid the

foundations of the University School. Further development of the School since its opening will now be considered.

Evolving Functions of the School

Since the opening of the School, it has been thought of as a laboratory and a demonstration school as conceived by the founders of the School. A definite statement of the functions of the School, however, did not appear until May, 1943. In 1942, the Policy Committee appointed Harold P. Fawcett and Louis Raths to investigate the relationships that then existed and those which should exist between the School and the other departments of the College of Education. Out of a thorough investigation which included a series of meetings involving the faculty members of the College of Education and of the University School, a comprehensive statement of the functions of the University School was secured. This statement was mimeographed and distributed to the faculty members of the College of Education in May, 1943. The same statement was adopted in concise form and was included in The Philosophy and Purposes of the University School published in 1948.

The statement of the functions of the School included in the publication reads as follows:

1. The University School Must Be A Good School.

To make its unique contribution to the entire program of teacher education, the University School must strive continuously to make itself the finest place possible for children to grow and learn in a democratic setting.

16 "Report of the Policy Committee on the Relationships of the University School to Other Departments in the College." Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1943.
2. **The University School Must Be a 'Demonstration' School.**

It is a demonstration school in the sense that it demonstrates ways of formulating an educational philosophy and of working this out in the best ways the faculty can cooperatively conceive.

3. **The University School Must Be an 'Experimental' School.**

It is an experimental school in the sense that intelligent hypotheses for improving education should be tried out carefully and studied critically, and the program reconstructed in the light of evidence secured.

4. **The University School Should Be a Laboratory for the Development of Methods to Facilitate Relationships Between the College of Education and Ohio Schools in General.**

The fourth important function underlying the work of the University School involves the working out of such relationships between the school and other departments of the College as will serve as excellent examples of the way in which the other departmental staffs can work with many schools in the state.

5. **The University School Has an Obligation to Contribute to the Improvement of Educational Practices of the State and Nation.**

The University School staff acknowledges that it has the obligation to give wide publicity to those practices which it finds to be good, to the end that they may become hypotheses to be tried out by many schools in the state and nation.

6. **The University School Must Have 'Two-Way' Relationships with Every Department in the College.**

Another important function of the University School is to cooperate with other departments in developing the philosophy of the College and procedures which will more effectively implement it. This implies a reciprocal relationship among departments, each being responsible primarily for its own peculiar part of the total program, but also sharing responsibility with all other departments for every part of the program. The University School, in its work with other departments, should reflect two-way relationships. In developing its own part of the College program, the University School should have the benefit of the thinking of other departments.\(^{17}\)

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\(^{17}\)The Faculty of The Ohio State University School, *The Philosophy and Purposes of the University School*. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1948, pp. 2-3.
As one may note in the preceding statement, "the first, and probably the most important, function of the School is to become the finest place possible for children to grow and learn in a democratic setting." Demonstration and experimentation are the main reasons for the School's existence in the College of Education. However, these functions become meaningful only when they are regarded as an integral part of the ongoing program of the School for the best possible education of children. In this sense, the demonstration function of the School implies that it does demonstrate the ways of working together to make the School the finest place for children to grow. The observer is free to draw whatever significance he finds from what he observes in the ongoing program. By the same token, the experimental or laboratory function of the School implies that the University School staff in cooperation with the college members tries out "intelligent hypotheses" for making the school "the finest place" for education of young people. No one function of the School is permitted to cause any disturbance in the internal consistency of the School program and in the continuity of experiences provided for students.

As had been planned by the founders of the School, there were many observers, including not only teachers in training but also teachers and administrators from the schools of Ohio, the nation, and foreign countries.

Educational experimentation in the School began with the opening of the School. An experimental attitude and enthusiasm for trying some of the new ideas of education were characteristic of the staff in the earlier years; these continued to exist and increase as the staff gained confidence in their efforts. Since the School was selected one of the
participating schools in the Eight-Year Study, it enjoyed considerable freedom to experiment. A member of the staff of the School told the writer that experimentation was going on all the time throughout the entire program, even when there was no formal and carefully organized experiment in progress. The cooperative efforts of the School staff and the College faculty have been an important factor in the continuous improvement of the experimental program of the School.

Contributions of the faculty to the improvement of educational practices of the State and the nation through publications have been greatly encouraged from the very beginning of the School. A bibliography, entitled Faculty Contributions, was published in 1937; it lists more than sixty titles and includes books, booklets, and articles in professional magazines. This bibliography was published for the convenience of those desiring to learn more concerning the theories and practices of The Ohio State University School.

The functions of the University School should not be regarded as fixed ones since they are always subject to reexamination and revision as the needs demand. In 1954, the Committee on the University School attempted to evaluate the impact of the school upon public education and


19 The Publications Committee of The Ohio State University School, Faculty Contributions. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1937.
endeavored to further clarify the functions of the School. At the outset of the report, the Committee states:

The Committee on the University School has concluded that in the future the School should occupy a larger place in the program of the College of Education than it now does. Through its prolonged trial of advanced educational practices, the School has had a substantial impact on public education generally. This is one of only four or five such schools in the country to have had such an impact. The reputation of the School as a place where the most promising educational ideas are being applied is a source of pride to the College of Education and the University.20

The Committee report puts primary emphasis on the research and experimental function of the School. In order to perform this "chief function of the University School" the Committee believes that—

1. The University School should be open to any qualified researcher on the University campus, short of interference with the education of the children, as judged by the faculty of the School and others qualified to make such a judgment.

2. The members of the staff of the University School should themselves be involved in conducting educational experimentation.

3. The parents of children attending the School should understand clearly that the teaching is experimental in nature, and that, therefore, untried methods will often be employed.

4. The parents should understand further that the University will claim the right to gather extensive information about the children attending the School, through the use of psychological measurement, medical measurement, sociological measurement, and other legitimate research devices.

5. The parents and the children of the University School shall be assured that the risks taken for purposes of educational experimentation will not be so great as to endanger the quality of the over-all education offered to the children.

20 "Report of the Committee on the University School." Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, November 1, 1954, p. 1.
6. The practices being carried forward in the University School shall be consistent with those practices considered best and most advanced by other members of the College of Education. (This does not mean that the University School staff shall have no influence on what practices it carries forward. It means, rather, that the University School staff shall not determine in isolation what practices shall be carried forward at the University School.)

In addition to the experimentation which the Committee called "the chief function," it also lists and discusses the functions of the School including observation, participation by the students in the College, demonstration, and the leadership by the school staff. Specially, concerning the leadership function of the School, the Committee insists:

From the point of view of this committee, the leadership function is central in exactly the same sense as is the experimentation function. An experiment is not complete until it is reported; much of the reporting of experimentation carried on at the University School should be in the form of consultation, public appearances, and exchange of teachers, as well as in formal publications.... Educators have been slow to see the implication of the success of the Extension Service for their own work in disseminating findings. In the opinion of this committee, it is high time that members of the University School staff carry their message off the campus in person.

The functions of the School thus reviewed seem to be in agreement with the increasing recognition of the unique functions of a laboratory school which put more emphasis on research and experimentation, leadership, and demonstration and less emphasis on student teaching. Although it has been customary throughout the nation to use the laboratory school as one of the schools to which teachers in training are assigned for student teaching, there is an increasing sentiment that the laboratory school should be reserved for more specialized laboratory experiences. Student teaching in The Ohio State University School is thus curtailed by other

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21 Ibid., p. 5. 22 Ibid., p. 9.

23 The Association for Student Teaching, Functions of Laboratory Schools in Teacher Education, Thirty-Fourth Yearbook. Lock Haven, Pa.: The Association, 1955, Chapters II and IV.
Important functions of the School which include experimentation, demonstration, and leadership.

Evolving Philosophy and Purposes of the School

Although the philosophy and purposes of the School which had been formulated by the Committee on objectives before the opening of the School provided a broad foundation for the general direction of the School, no effort was made during the early years to have the new faculty of the School agree on a statement of purposes. Since the School was to try out the most advanced ideas in education, there was need for time during which teachers, students, and parents might familiarize themselves with the new ideas. Even though the faculty members were selected on the basis of their interest in this new educational venture, they had not had much experience in this type of program. In the report of the Eight-Year Study, the faculty of the School described the situation the School encountered in the earlier years of the experiment as follows:

Hence many of the new practices could come only as all concerned sought to use intelligence in the solution of problems, rethinking together the practical implication of specific situations in terms of larger goals.24

However, continuous cooperative efforts were made by the faculty to seek a "common sense of direction." A series of meetings for planning and discussion was attended by the whole faculty before the opening of the School; and, following the opening of the School, the annual evaluation and planning in the spring conference was directly related to the

24 The Faculty of the School, "University School of The Ohio State University," Report of the Eight-Year Study—1932-1940. Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1940, p. 6; see also Progressive Education Association, Thirty Schools Tell Their Story.
development of the "common sense of direction." Tentative statement of purposes were attempted and were reevaluated and revised in terms of their relevance to the actual curricular practices. This faculty process of "mutual interaction" between purposes and curriculum and the democratic process of rethinking of the purposes and practices of secondary education should be said to have characterized the development of philosophy and purposes of the School.25

One of the earliest tentative statements of the purposes of the school was prepared by the Committee on Integration of the Department of Education and the University Schools in December, 1934. The general statement of the purposes reads as follows:

The purpose of the school is to provide for a rich, challenging environment in which each pupil, through actual participation in social living, is stimulated and guided in the continuous reorganization of his experience in the direction of a consistent, ever-expanding life program and a responsible role in a dynamic society.26

To this end the School was to provide for the program which has been summarized by the writer as follows:

1. Guidance for intelligent problem solving
2. The cultivation of a sensitivity to the crucial problems and significant values of present society
3. The cultivation of a growing ability to examine and interpret beliefs, attitudes, and proposed plans of action with reference to the independent formulation of a consistent, unified pattern


26"The purpose of the School," A Tentative Statement Prepared by the Committee on Integration of the Department of Education and the University School, Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, December 3, 1934.
4. The discovery and cultivation of a wide range of personal interests

5. Provision for continuous participation in cooperative action for the achievement of common purposes.27

It is reported that "the first actual list was compiled in the spring of 1935 when the chairman of the research committee interviewed all members of the faculty and listed the statements of their objectives in order to discover a basis for a research program."28

The experience of the staff during the first few years of the School's operation indicated a need for a comprehensive statement of the purposes of the School. As a result, action looking toward such a statement was started in 1938 by the Purposes Committee. Through group thinking carried on by the Committee and through oral and written suggestions by individual faculty members as well as the entire faculty, there had been several revisions in the statement of purposes from time to time until the final statement was approved by the faculty in 1940.29 The statement begins with the analysis of the meaning of democracy; on this interpretation one of the functions of the School was based. Focal points of emphasis concerning the meaning of democracy discussed in the statement of purposes are summarized by the writer as follows:

1. Democratic way of life is based upon the assumption of respect for human personality.

2. The optimal development of the individual is the basic criterion of value.

27Ibid.

28The Faculty of the School, "University School of The Ohio State University," p. 7.

29Harold Alberty et al., "The Purposes of the Ohio State University School." Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1940.
3. A distinct personality develops only when there is free interplay with other personalities.

4. The development and enrichment of democratic personality, through living and working together for common purposes and ends, imply the use of intelligence as a method.

5. Cooperative social planning for the promotion of the welfare of the group is a responsibility belonging to all in a democratic society.\textsuperscript{30}

On the basis of the statement of the meaning of democracy, the Committee proceeded to state the purposes and plans of the School. Major points of the purposes and plans are paraphrased as follows:

1. The school attempts to provide a program which will help students (a) to understand and to meet their needs; (b) to extend and enrich their interests; (c) to solve their problems in such a way as to contribute to the development of consistent and unified outlook on life; and (d) to grow in sensitivity to the values and ideals of our democratic way of life.

2. The curriculum experiences purport to provide for meeting both the common and special needs of the students maturing in the contemporary culture.

3. The curriculum experiences evolve from continuous student-faculty planning in the light of these significant needs, interests, and problems of young people.

4. Activities are organized so as to promote democratic values among which are (a) cultivation of reflective thinking; (b) establishment of zeal and ability to participate in cooperative living; and (c) development of respect for human personality.

5. An effort is made to provide a variety of experiences which are appropriate for the all-round development of the individual.\textsuperscript{31}

It may be safe to conclude here that, through this statement of purposes, the faculty saw clearly the direction in which the school was to move. The sources for determining the direction were, of course, the philosophy of democracy and a sound understanding of the behavior of

\textsuperscript{30} Ibid., pp. 2-3. \textsuperscript{31} Ibid., pp. 4-6.
adolescents. Even though the statement was a generalization of the be-
liefs and attitudes of the faculty and even though it resulted from
years of experimenting with new ideas, the faculty never considered the
statement to be fixed and final. It was always accepted as an hypo-
thesis to be tested and improved.

This approach to the formulation of the purposes of the School through
the analysis of the meanings of democratic values and of the distinct
personality for democratic living became an accepted approach by the
School during the years that followed. It should be pointed out at this
time that the School's approach to the formulation of purposes based on
the meanings of democratic values parallels in some measure the approach
used by the Committee on the Function of Science in General Education of
Progressive Education Association. The work of the Committee had a
significant influence on the program development of the participating
school of the Eight-Year Study. And it should be recognized that Dr.
Alberty, director of the School from 1937 to 1941, was also involved in
the formulation of the philosophy and purposes of *Science in General Edu-
cation* which is the report of the Committee on the Function of Science
in General Education. 32

In 1944, the purposes formulated in 1940 were revised and further
developed to include more elaborate analyses of (1) "the nature and
meanings of democracy" and (2) "the characteristics of a democratic society
and the democratic personality." 33 This revised statement by the faculty

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32 See The Committee on the Function of Science in General Education, *op. cit.* Chapter II and see also the Chapter IV of the Present Report.

33 The Faculty of the University School, "The University School, Its Philosophy and Purposes," Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1944.
of the School in 1944 remains the statement of philosophy and purposes of the University School today. Through the continued group thinking of the faculty, the philosophy and purposes were further extended and interpreted in terms of "the general and continuing points of emphasis" for organizing continuous curriculum experiences which are directly related to and/or implied by democratic values. The formulation of characteristics of personality by the Committee on the Functions of Science in General Education influenced greatly the formulation of the "continuing points of emphasis" for the School's program. The statement of the extended philosophy and purposes of the School appeared in a printed booklet in 1948 entitled *The Philosophy and Purposes of the University School.* Although there have been ten years since the booklet was published, no formal revision has been made. However, in an interview with the principal of the School, the writer was informed that the faculty was thinking of a possibility of extending the philosophy and purposes to include the "hows" of realizing the purposes through the program.

The major outline of the philosophy and purposes of the School is as follows:

I. The Nature and Meaning of Democracy

1. Respect for human personality
2. Faith in living and working together for the common good
3. Faith in the method of intelligence in all areas of living

II. The Characteristics of a Democratic Society and the Democratic Personality

1. Maintaining personal health and promoting healthful living
2. Achieving and maintaining a sense of security

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34 The Faculty of The Ohio State University School, *The Philosophy and Purposes of the University School.*

35 Information was secured in an interview with the principal of the School on January 19, 1959.
Developing and maintaining a sense of achievement
4. Developing and maintaining ever widening and deepening interests and appreciations
5. Achieving a social outlook on life

III. The General and Continuing Points of Emphasis

A. Continuous curriculum experiences directly related to democratic values
   1. Developing social sensitivity
   2. Developing cooperativeness
   3. Developing the ability and zeal to utilize the method of intelligence in solving all problems of human concern
   4. Developing creativeness
   5. Developing skills in democratic living
   6. Interpreting democracy
   7. Developing self direction

B. Continuous curriculum experiences implied by democratic values
   1. Developing communication skills and appreciations
   2. Developing skills in measurement and the use of quantitative symbols
   3. Developing skills in utilizing goods and services
   4. Promoting social adjustment
   5. Promoting health and safety
   6. Developing vocational adjustments and standards
   7. Developing adequate recreational outlets
   8. Developing standards of personal appearance and grooming

Thus the present statement of philosophy and purposes of the School is the result of continuous group thinking and experimenting for the purpose of developing a definite direction for the School's program which throughout its history has been consistently toward the School's assuming responsibility for creating and developing democratic values.

Evolving Program of the School

From the beginning, the School enjoyed freedom for developing experimental programs of education through the cooperative endeavor of the School

36 For a complete description of the philosophy and purposes, see The Faculty of The Ohio State University School, op. cit.
staff and the faculty of the College of Education. The experimental and
demonstrative functions of the School were desired and encouraged by the
founders of the School; these functions may be said to be the major
factor in providing for freedom in planning the program of the School.
The second factor which encouraged freedom in experimenting with new
ideas of education was the fact that the School was selected as a participating school in the Eight-Year Study. As a result of participation
in the Study, the School was not only freed from the pressure of college
entrance requirements but also was provided with new ideas concerning
new principles and practices of education from the professional leaders
who were active in conducting the Study. Following are several of the
leaders in the Study who were members of the faculties of the School and
of the College of Education: Harold B. Alberty, Boyd H. Bode, Paul B.
Diederich, H. H. Giles, Henry Harap, Ralph W. Tyler, and Wilfred Eberhart.

Because of the freedom provided for educational experimentation,
the abundance of ideas of the faculty members in the College of Education
and of the School, the interests and enthusiasm of the faculty of the
School, and the dedication of the staff to the democratic procedures for
improving school program, the School has experienced and is still experi­
cencing a continuous change and improvement in its program. The writer
will attempt in the following section to trace the major changes in the
program of the School with emphasis on the core-program development.\footnote{For more detailed information concerning the evolving program of
the School, see C. C. Ansley, "A History of the Development of a High
School Curriculum," Unpublished Master's thesis, Columbus, Ohio: The
Ohio State University, 1951; The Faculty of The Ohio State University
School, "A Description of Curricular Experiences--The Upper School, 1938–
1939" and also issues for 1939-1940, 1940-1941, 1941-1942, 1942-1943,
The Ohio State University; and The Faculty of the School, "University
School of the Ohio State University."}
In the early days of the School, its program was characterized as a broad-fields approach of curriculum organization. All students in grades seven through twelve, inclusive, were "exposed" to English, social science, science, mathematics, physical education, and the arts areas. Under this "six year, six area exposure principle," an emphasis was placed on continuity of association with teachers in each of these areas, and, theoretically, the nature of the content to be studied was left to the teacher and the students to determine. In actual practice, however, there was some evidence of the traditional way of thinking concerning subject offerings. For example, during the early period of the School's operation, the mathematics area was frequently offered in separate subjects such as algebra in the ninth grade, advanced algebra in tenth, and solid geometry in the eleventh. Various experiments were undertaken and as the teachers had more experience in working cooperatively for the improvement of the program, there were progressive changes and improvement in the program each year. Until about 1945 at which time the staff took definite steps for developing a core program based on the problems and needs of adolescents, the major part of general education program was carried out through a subject-matter oriented program.

The core program during 1932 and 1936. Even though the "six years, six areas exposure principle" was emphasized from the beginning of the school, much flexibility was provided for organizing learning experiences. The idea of core program was considered part of the experiment from the very beginning of the School in grades seven and eight. The broad fields of English, social science, and science were not taught as separate subjects but were combined into unified studies in these grades. In
these unified studies, the students were encouraged and guided during the first few weeks into an exploration of the possibilities of the various units to determine which appealed to their interests. Immediate communities such as the school community, the city of Columbus, and the state of Ohio have been frequently taken for units of work. Trips, functional writings, creative writing, research in the library, discussion, reporting, making of charts, interpretation of data were some of the specific activities included in these units. Various learning activities were carried out individually as well as in a group situation. As needs demand, teachers from areas other than the combined fields were also invited for help in studies of specific areas.

At least five factors were considered carefully in determining the nature of the curriculum experiences:

1. Present life interests and needs of children
2. Social issues of the moment pressing as they do upon children and in part producing the foregoing interests and needs
3. The peculiar characteristics of the individual teachers who see the educational implications in the activities and problems of children
4. The availability of observable phenomena
5. The availability of instructional materials

This program of unified studies was merely a continuation of that of the Elementary School, which had been successfully carried on there for some time before the Secondary School was opened.

In this unified studies program, one teacher from each of the three fields was assigned to work with other representatives of other fields.

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38 The University School, The Record of the University School; The Program. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, Vol.2, No.1, 1933, pp. 31-34.

39 Department of the University Schools, "Characteristics of the program in the University School--Grade 7-12," Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, March 21, 1933.
These representing teachers from various fields were to determine policy. One faculty member who has been in the school from the very beginning said that, since the term "core" was such an unfamiliar concept in the country at that time and since few core teachers knew very clearly what was appropriate for them, it was a great help to all teachers for them to talk, plan, and evaluate together.

The core program during 1937-1939. The successful experiences of the seventh and eighth grades in the unified studies and the growing popularity of this approach among the participating schools of the Eight-Year Study encouraged the staff of the school to extend the program to the ninth grade in 1937. In these three grades ten to fifteen periods a week were assigned for the unified studies.

The practices in grades seven and eight did not differ greatly from the practices of the previous years. "Community of Columbus" and "Housing in Columbus" were taken as topics for unified studies of seventh and eighth grades respectively in 1938. In the same year, the ninth grade dealt with a more enlarged environment, the topic for which was "Characteristics of a Modern Civilization."\(^4\)

Meanwhile, the twelfth grade had an experimental program of "senior orientation" in 1937. A block of time was set aside for democratic self government and college and vocational study. It should be pointed out that this program of senior orientation was the result of the school's policy of meeting the needs and problems of the students. Even though the orientation program presented problems in scheduling, its successful

\(^4\) The Faculty of The Ohio State University School, op. cit.
operation should be recognized as one of the factors which resulted in
the upward extension of the core program in the later days.

The core program during 1940-1944. While the continued experiments
and the staff's cooperative work for the improvement of the program in
the previous years should be credited for laying foundations for further
growth of the School in the succeeding years, the period between 1940 and
1945 may be considered as the most significant period for the development
of core program. In 1940, the core program was extended to include all
six grades of the Secondary School. A large block of time (two consecu­
tive periods a day) was provided for the tenth grade core as had been the
case with the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades in the previous years.
Two double periods a week were allocated for the eleventh grade and three
hours a week for the twelfth. This time provided for the core programs
of the eleventh and twelfth grade was not at all sufficient, but the time
required to cover the six areas prevented more time for the core. In
addition to the lack of time, the factor of adequate staff for the upper
grades influenced the limited adoption of the core for these grades. It
was reported that most teachers who taught in the upper grades preferred
to continue the work under the "six years, six areas exposure principle."

With a large block of time provided for the core program, grades
seven through ten, inclusive, undertook an experiment with a new core
program. Each class was assigned to one member of the faculty who was
called "grade counselor" or "grade chairman." Thus, at least theoretically,
more functional guidance and counseling activities become integral
part of the core. An additional staff member was assigned to each grade
in order to assist with planning and to discuss problems with the grade
counselor but this extra person was not necessarily to be on hand at all
times. Of course, it was assumed that whenever needs arose the grade
counselor would call upon the teachers of any area for specific assistance.
There was no structured way of carrying out the core program, and, in
theory, the counselor and the students were to plan and develop units
for study. The basic assumption in this regard was that the teacher and
students, through their cooperative planning, are able to identify the
common needs, problems, and interests of the students in the socio-econo-
momic cultural environment.

During this experiment and for a few years prior to this experiment,
Dr. Alberty who was then director of the School had conducted seminars
in secondary education for graduate students in education and new
members of the College faculty. In these seminars, there was emphasis
on the development of core program. Other faculty members also partici­
pated in the seminars, sometimes by request and more often out of interest.
Through these seminars, the participants had opportunity to familiarize
themselves with the program and to assist in the solving of some of the
fundamental problems related to the various aspects of carrying out the
core program.

Because of the limited time for the core in grades eleven and
twelve, the core period was used primarily for class business, school
community projects, and college and vocational studies. Later the
twelfth grade core was increased to cover four periods a week and in
both grades followed the social science periods, with the same teacher
remaining with the students for both the social science and core periods.
This provision made it possible for the teacher and students to plan and
work more flexibly to solve personal and social problems.
At the end of the first year of the experiment with the new core program, teachers of grades seven, eight, and ten felt that the program was highly satisfactory. Accordingly the same program with the addition of certain new ideas gained through experience was followed for a few more years. However, the ninth grade core teacher concluded there was considerable insecurity on the part of both the counselor and students as they tried to work together without specific directions. As the result of this experience in the first year of experiment, the ninth grade core was reduced to five hours a week in 1941 and the fields of social science and science were taught separately. The one-hour period a day for the core was used partly for English teaching and partly for class business, school projects, and social activities. This plan for the ninth grade continued until about 1945.

Moreover, the tenth grade core which was successfully carried out for a few years met difficulty in 1942 when the grade counselor left the School. Thus the tenth grade core was also forced to reduce its number of period per week to three or five. This situation continued until about 1946.

While the core program at the University School was experiencing the pendulum of successes and failures during these years, various important studies were being undertaken. As previously indicated, the statement of the philosophy and purposes of the school based on the democratic values and the characteristics of the democratic society and personality appeared in the mimeographed form in 1940, was revised in 1944, and finally was put into the printed publication in 1948. 41

41See the section on "Evolving Philosophy and Purposes of the School" in this chapter.
The Committee on Problems Study had been making a study of the personal and social problems of students in grades seven to twelve, inclusive. This study, completed in 1940, was a phase of the evaluation program at the School. The Committee stated that they felt the findings were vital to curriculum study at the School and elsewhere. The child development study was a long-term group project of the faculty for several years. The results of the study appeared in a mimeographed form in 1944 and was revised and published in 1949.

On the other hand, in 1943 the faculty appointed a new curriculum committee to study the problems of the core program. Harold Alberty, who had resumed the position of director in 1941 and returned to his former position in the Department of Education, served as a consultant to the Curriculum Committee. A series of suggestions by Dr. Alberty was presented to the Committee and the total School faculty for examination. The newly formulated philosophy and purposes, the findings of the adolescent problems study, and the findings of the child development study were carefully considered and were reflected in the work of the Committee. Questionnaires and interviews were used to determine the opinions and attitudes of the faculty members. A series of preliminary reports were presented to the total faculty for discussion and criticisms.

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42 The Committee on Problems Study, An Inventory Study of the Personal and General Social Problems of 256 Students in Grades Seven to Twelve, Inclusive. Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1940.

43 The Faculty of the University School, "Child Development Study." Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1944.

44 The Faculty of the University School, How Children Develop. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1949.

45 Information was secured from the "Minutes of the Curriculum Committee Meetings for the School Years 1943-1944 and 1944-1945" of the School.
this process of painstaking group thinking and creative efforts the Committee developed and presented "A Proposal for a Core Curriculum in Grades, Seven, Eight, and Nine."\footnote{The Curriculum Committee of the University School, "A Proposal for a Core Curriculum in Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine," Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1945.}

Another important experiment which occurred during this period was the idea of "Resource Files," suggested by one of the faculty members and adopted by them. The idea assumed that such resource files might help new grade counselors conduct their core group with greater security. More detailed discussion concerning this subject will appear later.

Thus the period between 1946 and 1944 may be characterized as the peak of preparatory activities for launching what can be called the "adolescent problems core" which breaks completely with the subject-matter organization.

The core program during 1945-1953. In 1945, in accord with the proposal of the Curriculum Committee, the three hour core was set up as an experimental program for grades seven, eight, and nine. Since the proposed core program, which was actually put into experiment in the school year 1945-1956, was so significant for the later development of core program in the School, some important phases of the proposal are reviewed here briefly.

The Curriculum Committee, using the various studies and sources previously mentioned, was able to identify a number of problems of direct concern to adolescents as well as those problems implied by the philosophy of the School. These problems were classified under three headings—\footnote{The Curriculum Committee of the University School, "A Proposal for a Core Curriculum in Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine," Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1945.} (1) Personal Living Problems; (2) Personal Social Problems; and (3) Social,
Civic, and Economic Problems. The Committee referred to these categories as Areas of Living, and the major groups of problems listed under these headings as Problem Areas, from which the learning units were to be developed by the teacher and students. While this organization of problem areas does not state strict sequence, a few problem areas were "pressed" at specific grade levels. Listed below are the problem areas which the Committee proposed and which were used by the school for the several years since 1945.

Problem Areas—7th, 8th, and 9th Grade Core

A. PERSONAL LIVING (problems related to growing up)
   1. Understanding my body
   2. Beliefs and superstitions
   3. Hobbies
   4. Managing my personal affairs

B. PERSONAL–SOCIAL LIVING (problems related to living with others)
   1. Sports and recreation
   2. Living in University School
   3. Living in the home
   4. Living in the neighborhood
   5. Personality and appearance

C. SOCIAL–CIVIC–ECONOMIC LIVING (problems of living in and understanding society)
   1. Earning a living
   2. Housing
   3. Natural resources
   4. Community agencies and services
      Recreation
      Protection
      Government
      Education
      Welfare
   5. Communication

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47Ibid., p. 2. This classification of the adolescent problems followed the pattern of that of the Committee on the Function of Science in General Education previously mentioned.
The above problem areas, as implied by their names, represent the general scope of problems common to the adolescent, but they do not designate any particular subject matter nor do they dictate particular topics for study or specific questions to be resolved. It is the responsibility of the teacher and the students to determine units of work appropriate to the maturity level and needs and interests of the students in a particular grade. As to the specific responsibilities of the core the Committee recommends following:

The core class will be a three hour period carrying the following responsibilities:

(1) The continuous experiences as stated in the Problem Areas Report (Revised).
(2) LEARNING UNITS derived from the PROBLEM AREAS including reading, writing, and arts experiences related to the unit.
(3) Activities related to school organization.
(4) Immediate problems of group living. (Planning class dances -- class finances -- participating in Red Cross Drive -- etc.)
(5) Free reading and free writing program.
(6) Free choice experiences in other areas (science, arts, physical education, social sciences, and mathematics) to the extent that it is feasible.

One faculty member was assigned to each grade to serve both as core counselor and as grade chairman. It was urged that contributions of the teachers from other areas be made through their direct or indirect participation to the core class as well as through their planning with the core counselor.

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48 Ibid., p. 3. 49 Ibid., p. 4.
In order to make the core program comprehensive in terms of the areas of living, one problem area was to be selected for study from each of the three areas of living for each of the core groups in grades seven, eight, and nine. Because of the past experiences which resulted from a lack of sufficient direction, the committee also recommended the development of resource files. With respect to the development of resource files, the committee stated:

These files should aid the teacher in planning the LEARNING UNIT with the group as well as furnishing valuable material for the study and solutions of sub-problems. The files are not intended to be used as a pre-planned guide for a topic by topic study of the problem selected. The grade faculty and the pupils must define the scope of the problem as they see and understand the problem. The files are to be kept in a central depository in the library and will include:

(1) An introductory statement (for the teacher) setting the PROBLEM AREA in its correct position with regard to the purposes of the school and including the purposes of the PROBLEM AREA.
(2) The scope of the PROBLEM AREA as determined by the nature of the area and its possible uses.
(3) Suggested activities.
(4) Suggestions for evaluating the activities.
(5) Bibliographies and lists of teaching materials and aids:
   a) Books
   b) Magazines and Magazine articles
   c) Pamphlets
   d) Movies
   e) Records
   f) Trips or other first-hand experiences

This resource file is, in a sense, similar to the resource unit which was discussed in the previous chapter, but there is a distinct difference between the meanings of the two terms. The resource file is built up by the core teachers as units are developed in a given problem area and the approach to building a resource file is much more flexible; resource units,

50Ibid., pp. 5–6.
however, are more or less formal in terms of organization and can be more comprehensive than the former. The resource file, if well administered, can easily be kept up-to-date, but resource units are hard to be kept up-to-date.

The first year experience with the "Problem Areas Core" were satisfactory. In addition to other activities in the core, the following units were covered in the order in which they appear by the three core groups during the year 1945-1946:

Seventh Grade:

Personal-Social Area—Problems of Living in University School
Personal Area—Understanding My Body
Social-Civic-Economic Area—How Columbus Protects Its People

Eighth Grade:

Personal Area—What Are My Beliefs and How Are They Formed?
Social-Civic-Economic Area—How Do People Communicate Ideas to One Another?
Personal-Social Area—How Can Recreation Contribute to My Social Growth?

Ninth Grade:

Social-Civic-Economic Area—The Government and Problems of Columbus
Personal Area—Are There Any Hobbies in Which I Could Become Interested or Proficient?
Personal-Social Area—How Can Recreation Contribute to My Social Growth?
Social-Civic-Economic Area—Current National and International Problems

Core counselors, evaluating the core structure, concluded that the structure "enabled the counselor to become thoroughly acquainted with the individual students in the grade group and made it easier to help students

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51 The Curriculum Committee of the University School, "Core Curriculum in Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine," A Statement of the Experience of the First Year in Terms of the Proposal, Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1946.
with their individual and group problems." Many suggestions made by area teachers greatly enriched the core unit. Some of the negative reactions observed among students pertained to the "jisted" problem areas. The students preferred to work on what they might freely choose for their units of work.

This same "Problem Areas Core" as used in 1945 was continued with minor changes until 1948. As the teachers and students gained experience in the core program, all restrictions to specific problem areas were eliminated within the limits of the problem areas prepared for the grades seven, eight, and nine. The core program of these three grades did not change greatly until 1954.

The core program for tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades continued to be rather static until 1946. Three to five periods a week were allocated for core to take care of various school activities and some of the guidance activities. Teaching in the broad fields still had its place in these upper grades. However, a revolutionary change in the program of general education for these students of the upper grades finally came when the faculty accepted in 1947 the proposal of the Curriculum Committee concerning the development of a core program for grades ten, eleven, and twelve. Acceptance of this proposal should be regarded as the result of (1) the successful experiences of the grades seven, eight, and nine with the new core program; (2) the professional growth of the faculty through research, discussions, and experiences; and (3) the increased familiarity of the students as well as the parents with the core program.

Ibid.
In presenting the new proposal, the Committee had the following assumptions:

1. The extension into the upper school of an enlarged core program will make available a large block of time than many teachers have had available for use with a group of students.

2. It will make necessary a greater concern on the part of teachers for a general well-rounded consideration of specific learning units.

3. It will provide a better opportunity for students to learn to see how many logically organized subject matter fields can be used to solve significant problems.

4. It will make necessary a more thorough, careful job of teacher-pupil planning if the completeness of the learning activity is to be maintained while at the same time we give careful consideration to both the needs and interests of a particular group of students and the demands of society.  

The new proposal includes a list of more or less restricted problem areas which any specific grade level or group may study. The problem areas are as follows:

**Tenth Grade**

School Living
- Problems of Healthful Living
- Problems of Living in an Urban Society
- Problems of the Family as a Basic Social Unit
- The Development of the American Scene

**Eleventh Grade**

School Living
- Problems of Living in the Atomic Age
- The Problems of Establishing Beliefs
- The Problems of Making a Living (Exploring Vocations)
- Current World Problems

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53 The Curriculum Committee of the University School, "Tentative Statement of the Core Program for Grades 10, 11, and 12." Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1947, p. 1.
Twelfth Grade

School Living
Problems of Producer-Consumer Economics
Implications of Scientific Advancement
Major Conflicting Ideologies
The Bases for Determining Values by Which to Live

These problem areas were also based on the careful examination of the philosophy and purposes of the School and the results of the child development study and of the adolescent problems study. The Committee also attempted to make the problem areas comprehensive in terms of the areas of living previously used as the problem areas for the lower grades. The main reason for "passing" certain areas at the different grade level was to minimize the possibility of duplicating units or of selecting units similar to those studied by the students as they progressed through the school. Another reason for this restriction of problem areas was undoubtedly to obtain a better balance of the three areas of living.

In order to provide more specific direction for conducting this new core program in these senior grades, the Committee included in the report specific questions under each problem area. The following excerpt is presented to illustrate this procedure:

Problems of Living in an Urban Society—Tenth Grade

1. Why have cities grown so rapidly?
   (a) What stages are particularly urbanized?
   (b) What is the relationship between industrialization and city growth?
   (c) What type of vocations characterize city workers?

2. How can life in an urban society be improved?
   (a) Is group feeling, community spirit, possible?
   (b) What problems are particularly important to city people?
   (c) What are suggested solutions for these problems?
   (d) In what ways is city life better or worse than rural life?

54Ibid., p. 5.
3. What functions and services do cities provide?
   (a) Do we need city 'teen-canteens'?
   (b) Does our city offer adequate protection?
   (c) How is city government organized to provide service to
       its citizens?55

In addition to this listing of specific questions under each of the
problem areas, the Committee also prepared for the core teachers some
suggestions for using the core periods and a reasonable amount of re­
source materials available for use in the core class. In a sense the
Committee had prepared a set of brief outlines of resource units before
the actual core program was put into practice. This was necessary to
aid teachers who lacked sufficient experiences in the new type of core
with the senior grades students.

With the extension of the enlarged core program into grades ten,
eleven, and twelve, the entire Secondary School for the first time had
its general education program centered primarily around the core based
on the problems and needs of adolescents. A large block of time (two
hour periods daily) was assigned to the upper three grades for the core
program which was to include units of work and other activities similar
to those carried out in the past years. Thus the requirements of the
broad fields terminated in the School. However, approximately two-
thirds of the program in the upper three grades remain substantially
unchanged in that students were still free to elect widely among special
interest fields. But as the Committee states: "Instead of holding the
areas of mathematics, science, language arts, related arts, and social
studies responsible for a certain part of a student's required work as
was the case in recent years, an attempt has been made to specify the

55Ibid., p. 8.
problem areas which are to be studied by all students as they pass through the program."  

Since the adoption of the enlarged core for the grades ten, eleven, and twelve in 1947, the adolescent problems core or Albery's Type-Five Core has become a major part of the School's general education program. As the School's experiences in the core program grew, there was increasing recognition of the inadequacy of restricting problem areas for a group of certain grades (7th, 8th, and 9th) or for different grade levels (10th, 11th, and 12th).

The core program since 1953. The growing recognition of the inadequacy of restricting problem areas was taken seriously by the faculty in 1954 at which time the faculty made a careful re-examination of the core program. As a result of the re-examination, the faculty decided to eliminate all the restrictions which had been given to certain problem areas for certain grades or grades group. The faculty of the school states that "the rationale behind the change was that each problem area was sufficiently broad to permit an eighth or eleventh grade, for example, to develop a learning unit which met its needs and interests."  

As an outcome of careful evaluation of the past experiences with the adolescent problems core and of the examination of other studies, fourteen problem areas were determined for use during 1954-55. The problem areas were to be re-evaluated in 1955-1956 in the light of new evidence, but the tentative list of problem areas has continued to be used to the present time without revision. The newly developed problem areas which are to be studied by all students as they pass through the program."

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56 Ibid., p. 3.
57 The University School, "Core in Action," Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, Vol. 1, No. 5, 1955, p. 2.
areas will be presented and discussed in the next chapter in connection
with the discussion of the present core program of the School.

Areas outside the core. The policy of the School from the beginning
has been to provide for a balanced and well-rounded education to meet
both the common and specialized needs, problems, and interests of the
students. Accordingly, an equal emphasis has been given to both the core
program and the educational experiences outside the core.

As was indicated in the previous discussion, the six major areas
(English, social science, science, mathematics, physical education, and
the arts areas) were taught to all students in grades ten, eleven, and
twelve, until the enlarged core program was extended to include all
secondary school grades. For the students in grades seven and eight,
English, social science, and science were not taught as separate subjects
but were combined into the unified studies from the very beginning. How­
ever, mathematics, physical education, and arts electives have been con­
sistently required of all students.

For the students in the ninth grade, all the six areas had been
taught separately until 1937 when the unified studies program was adopted
for that grade. Mathematics, physical education, and arts electives have
consistently been required of all students outside the core. Even though
English was an integrated part of the unified studies, one more period
daily was assigned for English and general language activities until 1945
when the core program was enlarged to include approximately three periods
a day.

The arts elective program with one period a day has been intended
to be exploratory in nature. Students are permitted to elect different
activities each quarter with the exception of typing and instrumental music which are usually elected for a year.

Since 1947 when the new enlarged core was adopted and the six areas requirements were discarded, students in grades ten, eleven, and twelve are permitted to elect courses in the areas including arts, typing and work experience, English, foreign languages, mathematics, science, and social studies. In order to meet the State requirement for high school graduation, the students in these upper grades have been required to take American History for one year. Physical education has been a continuous requirement also for all students in these upper grades. Inter-scholastic athletics are usually scheduled after school hours mainly because of inadequate facilities, personnel, and other scheduling difficulties.

Since the School draws its student body from a wider area than the ordinary public school, it has provided lunch for almost all students at the period set aside for luncheon. Accordingly, all the activities during the luncheon period including selection of food, seating, table manners, and serving lunch are considered as an important part of the School's total program.

As it was indicated throughout the foregoing discussion of the evolving program of the School, evaluation is regarded as a continuous process for improving the school program. Through meetings of the entire faculty, counselors meeting, grade faculty meeting, and other project meetings, evaluation of the total school program, as well as of the specific aspects of the program, is continuously made and through the results of the evaluation ways of improving the situation are continuously sought, planned, and carried out.
A series of the staff meetings each spring is devoted to the school-wide evaluation of the program and new ideas and suggestions for improvement are formulated for the next year's experiment. Another series of meetings is called for a week before the opening of the Autumn Quarter to re-examine the proposals made in the spring meetings in terms of the philosophy and purposes of the School and in terms of the conditions of the School. More concrete plans are made during the fall meetings to incorporate changes proposed during the spring meetings.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE SCHOOL

As previously indicated, the School has an autonomous status functioning as one of the seven divisions of the College of Education. For the school year 1958-59 these divisions were listed as: (1) Department of Education, (2) Department of Psychology, (3) Bureau of Educational Research and Service, (4) Department of Occupational Therapy, (5) School of Fine and Applied Arts, (6) School of Music, and (7) The University School.

However, during the current school year certain organizational changes involving the University School have been effected. As a result of these changes, there has been established a "Center for School Experimentation"; this Center replaces the University School as one of the seven divisions of the College of Education, but the Center includes the School as an integral part of its organization. Under the new plan, there will be a director of the Center and a principal of the School. This change was made in order to increase and facilitate educational experimentation.
Policy-Making Body

In a larger University setting, there are University and College-wide policies formulated by the Board of Trustees, President's office, the University Faculty Council, the Dean's office, and the College Executive Committee. It should be pointed out here that the members of the faculty of the School also participate in University or College-wide policy-making groups such as the University Faculty Council and the College Executive Committee in order to represent the total faculty of the University School. Even though there are some University and College-wide policies which regulate certain activities of the University School, it nevertheless has a great amount of freedom to formulate its own policy within the School.

Policy within the School. There are some standing committees which includes the Executive Committee and the Social Committee. The Executive Committee which is composed with the Director, the Principal, the Coordinator of Instruction, and four other faculty members elected by the total faculty is the basic group of policy making. However, it is even more correct to say that the faculty as a whole determines the policy within the School. The following excerpt was selected to illustrate the procedures of policy making within the School:

Policy within the department is determined by the staff as a whole. Questions of policy may be initiated by any staff member or group of staff members. To come before the staff for action these questions may be given to a member of the Executive Committee to be placed on the agenda for a given faculty meeting, or they may be raised directly in any scheduled faculty meeting.58

58 The University School, "Handbook for Teachers," Submitted to the Staff in Tentative Form for Review and Action at Fall Planning Meetings. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, September, 1956.
Democratic procedures in policy making has been one of the basic practices of the faculty throughout the years of existence of the School.

Staff Personnel

As the School is a department of the College of Education, the faculty member of the School are also members of the college faculty. They have rank and salaries comparable to faculty members of other departments of the College of Education. Accordingly, all the University privileges such as tenure and retirement apply to them.

Staff appointment policy. In order to perform effectively the functions of the School, the high quality of the staff has been consistently maintained in employing new staff members of the School. The director of the School is selected through democratic action with the participation of the staff of the School and other faculty members in the College of Education. Even though the final decision is made in the form of approval by the dean, significantly enough, the decision arrived at by the School's staff has been highly respected and accepted by the dean on each occasion of selecting a new director. An excellent illustration of a mature, democratic approach to the solution of the problem of selecting a director is found in the experience of the University School in selecting a new director when the first director resigned in 1937. A report of this situation was made by Harold Fawcett who then was associate director of the School. The following quotation is from his report:

Now it is probably correct to say that the degree of democracy practiced in the classrooms of any school is pretty largely dependent on the degree of democracy practiced by the administration. If teachers are to work with pupils in such a manner that democratic ideals are fostered and the free play of intelligence encouraged, then it is almost axiomatic that the teachers themselves must assume with their director the responsibility for establishing the purposes of the school, for shaping its policies, and for dealing with the major problems that arise. 6c

The criteria formulated by the Selection Committee in that year, 1937, to evaluate the qualifications of the sixty-two candidates suggested are outlined as follows:

1. It is fundamental that the Director possess a democratic philosophy or attitude.

2. The leadership of the Director should be exercised in ways that are consistent with this philosophy.

3. The Director should regard education as a process extending continuously throughout life.

4. The educational enterprise should be regarded as a means of mobilizing and applying the whole range of experiences appropriate to the development of every phase or aspect of the lives of the persons involved in the enterprise.

5. The Director should be interested and able to establish desirable personal relationships with children and young people, individually and as groups.

6. The Director should have a broad background.

7. His relationships to the education of children, to parents, and to other social groups should be made effective by thorough competence in the field of child growth and development and in the interpretation of this field by word and action.

8. The Director should be intellectually critical of current educational and social practice and knowledge and he should be persistent in the use of all the methods available for discovering and applying new truth.

9. His family relationships should be harmonious and he and his family should be happy in their associations with the school, the University and the community. 61

6c Ibid., p. 402. 61 Ibid., pp. 404-405.
Selection of new teaching staff members is the function of the Executive Committee which uses the combined judgment of as many faculty members as possible within the school. Especially, teachers in the area in which recruitment is needed are always consulted and invited to the interviews with applicants. Backgrounds in preparation and teaching experiences and interests in educational experimentation on the part of the applicants are carefully examined by the selection body.

Working with the students in the Secondary School are: sixteen men teachers, ten women teachers, two women librarians, the director, and the principal, or a total of 30 staff members. All of these 30 staff members for the Secondary School except two have Master's or Doctor's degree. The status of professional training of the staff at the present time is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest degree earned by the staff</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor's degree</td>
<td>2 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's degree</td>
<td>22 (73%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor's degree</td>
<td>6 (20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compared with the national average for academic preparation of the American public secondary schools, the staff of the University Secondary School stands high. The Research Division of the National Education Association, in its study of the status of the American public secondary school teachers for the school year 1955-1956 found that fewer than 43
per cent of the total 6,602 teachers in the study had Master's degree and only 0.2 per cent had Doctor's degree.  

The teaching experiences of the staff members of the school are shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Teaching Experience</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Teachers with Bachelor's degree only:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 years</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 years</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Teachers with Master's degree:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 &quot;</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 &quot;</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 &quot;</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 20 years</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Teachers with Doctor's degree:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10 years</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 10 years</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is only one teacher in the Secondary School who has taught for only two years, and all of the other teachers have taught at least three years. Two teachers, one core counselor and the school librarian, have been in the School since 1932 when the School opened for secondary school students.

**Staff organization.** For purposes of working together effectively the staff is organized into various groups. In addition to the previously

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mentioned standing committees, the following major working groups have been established and are functioning at present time:

1. The staff of the elementary school
2. The staff of the upper school
3. The secondary counselors
4. Grade faculties
6. Faculty work-study groups
7. Temporary work committee for specific projects

All faculty members serve, also, as lunchroom and noon recreation supervisors; and they are responsible for the students' behavior in all parts of the building.

The regular office staff consists of the Director, the Principal, the Coordinator of Instruction, the Administrative Assistant, the Office Clerk, and two stenographers. The definite roles and functions to be assumed by the Director, by the Principal, and by the Coordinator of Instruction have not yet been clearly defined. However, since the recent reorganization in 1958 in actual practice the director is responsible for all affairs of the School, but he is primarily concerned with the research and experimentation functions of the School. On the other hand the principal, in close cooperation with the coordinator of instruction, assumes responsibility for those administrative aspects of the School which have direct relationship with the students, the parents, and the community.

In addition to the responsibilities of the staff members within the School, they are engaged in various activities such as writing, lecturing in colleges and universities, speaking to various groups, (laymen as well as professional), and serving as consultants in other schools. At

present, the education courses 550, 551, 503, 528, 704, and at times even other courses in the College of Education, are taught by members of the staff of the School.

In addition to the staff members discussed thus far, there are also the school physician, the school nurse, the dietitian and lunchroom staff, and the maintenance men.

Student Body:

As previously indicated the School draws students from a wider area than the ordinary community for a public school located in a city. More than fifty per cent of the student body live in the northern section of Columbus, but the remaining students come from all sections of Columbus and its suburbs. This situation creates some of the persistent problems of the School such as transportation, providing lunch to the majority of the students, and keeping close contact with the parents.

Application for admission to the School is open to anyone of school age. The basic policy for selecting students has been to provide for a student body which will represent as wide a variety of background as possible. However, during the "depression thirties," the School had difficulty in securing full enrollments for the classes. Lack of recognition by the parents of the values of the new educational program carried out by the University School might have been another reason for scarcity of applicants during the thirties. However, as the program of the School received wider recognition and as economic prosperity grew during the decade of the forties, a greater number than the capacity of the School applied for admission. In this situation the staff had to
formulate a selection policy. The following is the summary of this policy:

1. An individual student is enrolled in the school if his admission will bring a better balance to the grade group for which he is applying.

2. Names are placed on the enrollment waiting lists strictly in the order of application for any particular grade.

3. Priority is given to brothers and sisters of pupils already enrolled in the school.

4. Priority is given to children of members of the University School staff.

5. Priority is given to pupils who have been withdrawn from the school on doctor's orders and later wish readmission.

6. Provision is made for help with the fees in a certain number of cases.

7. Normally, no applications are accepted for enrollment beyond the tenth grade.

8. Final enrollment decisions rest with the administrators of the school, who are responsible for administering the policies agreed upon by the staff.

During the school year 1958-1959, there are 195 students enrolled in grades seven through twelve, inclusive. The number of boys and the number of girls are approximately equal, because sex of applicants is seriously considered in order to "balance" the grade group. The average class size for grades seven through ten, inclusive, is twenty-eight, while on the average forty-three boys and girls are enrolled in the eleventh and twelfth grades.

The socioeconomic background of the student body is relatively higher than that for an ordinary high school. The percentage of students whose parents are engaged in professional work or in executive positions is

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The Handbook Committee of the University School, op. cit., pp. 9-10.
especially high, being approximately sixty per cent. Among the factors for this high percentage of students from professional and higher income groups are these: (1) the School charges tuition fees, (2) parents from relatively higher socioeconomic groups recognize the educational opportunities provided by the School more readily than do parents of lower socioeconomic groups, and (3) many members of the University faculty send their children to the University School.

Approximately 86 per cent of the University School graduates attend college. Various studies indicate that they have average or better-than-average success in academic achievement at higher institutions of learning as well as in their careers.

School Facilities

The school building, having been designed originally to house only the upper six grades, is now crowded with fourteen grades (two age groups of kindergarten, six elementary grades, and six upper grades). Within the limited space, the School provides for the upper six grades two rooms for science classes; two fine and related arts rooms; two music rooms; one home economics suite comprising four rooms to represent a "house"; a gymnasium; a typing room; and six core classrooms. In addition, the Physical Education Department of the University has made available to the

65 See Dean Chamberlin and Others, Did They Succeed in College?; The Follow-Up Study of the Graduates of the Thirty Schools, New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1942; H. E. Reynard, "A Follow-Up Study of Selected Groups of Graduates of the Ohio State University School." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1954. A follow-up study of the graduates of the class of 1938 has recently been completed by Margaret Willis and the report will be published by the University Press soon.
School playing fields, swimming pools, tennis courts, and locker space in the physical education buildings.

The movable tables and chairs are flexibly arranged to suit the particular needs of the class. The related arts shop is spacious and equipped with tools needed for working with wood, clay, iron, and sheet metal. The fine arts room is small but includes materials needed for various activities in fine arts. However, because of schedule difficulties due to the lack of space, some of the arts activities have to be carried on in the core rooms. Science rooms are designed for various laboratory works.

The library facilities of the School are an important factor in determining the effectiveness of the educational program. Approximately 8,500 volumes are available for use of the Secondary School students; of these, approximately 5,400 are non-fiction. In addition, about sixty different periodicals are available for high school use. Contributions of the library to the core program will be discussed in the next chapter in connection with the present program of general education of the School.

Another service which the School receives from other departments of the College of Education is the use of the Teaching Aids Laboratory, an agency which produces and purchases various teaching aids and organizes them for immediate use. The records library and films library in the Teaching Aids Laboratory provide invaluable help to the University School for planning and carrying out the school program.

Although the over-crowded school building has been contributing to the efficient performance of the functions and purposes of the School, the need for improved physical plant and facilities has long been felt.
by the staff and other faculty members of the College. As a consequence, 
the Building Committee of the College of Education has made a tentative 
proposal for improved school plant and facilities through a careful 
study of the School's physical plant needs. 66

**Parent Organizations**

Parents also are responsible in part for formulating purposes and 
the program of the School and for carrying out the program and evaluating 
it in terms of the purposes of the School set up. Opportunities for 
active participation in the program of improving the School have been 
provided for parents through various organizations. The basic group for 
the parents is called the Parent Council which consists of parents or 
guardians of all students enrolled in the School and all members of the 
School Staff. The Executive Committee is a governing body for carrying 
out the purposes of the Parent Council. The Executive Committee consists 
of thirteen grade representatives and their thirteen alternates, officers 
of the Parent Council and four faculty members including the Director 
and the Principal. Several sub-committees such as the Constitutional 
Committee, Finance Committee, Program Committee, Social Committee, and 
Parent Grade Groups are major groups which are responsible for specific 
activities of the Executive Committee as well as the Parent Council.

Various kinds of social meetings, parent-education programs, parent and

of College of Education Building Committee, Mimeographed, Columbus, Chio: 
The Ohio State University, February, 1957.
teacher conferences for sharing information concerning the student, and policy making meetings are major activities for parents.67

Contributions of parents to the effective development of the educational program will be treated more fully in the next chapter.

In the foregoing chapter, recent developments of the program of the School were briefly mentioned along with the description of the evolving program and general setting of the School. In this chapter, the writer attempts to focus attention on a discussion of the core program as it is operated at the present time.

The purposes of the general education program of the School are best understood by referring to the statement of the general philosophy and purposes of the School. Since there was in the preceding chapter a somewhat detailed discussion of the most recent statement of the philosophy and purposes of the School, in this chapter will be presented only a brief summary which will serve to show the general objectives which the School attempts to achieve through its program. The philosophy of the School is based on the three basic ideals of democracy: (1) respect for human personality, (2) faith in cooperative living, and (3) faith in the method of intelligence. On the basis of this philosophy, the general purposes of the School's program were expressed as "continuing points of emphasis" in curricular experiences directly related to and implied by democratic values. The continuing points of emphasis of the School are the development and promotion of these fifteen aspects: (1) social sensitivity, (2) cooperativeness, (3) ability and zeal to utilize the
method of intelligence, (4) creativeness, (5) skills in democratic living, (6) interpretation of democracy, (7) self-direction, (8) communication skills and appreciation, (9) skills in the use of quantitative symbols, (10) skills in utilizing goods and services, (11) social adjustment, (12) health and safety, (13) vocational adjustment, (14) adequate recreational outlets, and (15) personal appearance and grooming. In addition to these fifteen points of emphasis one more point: "providing opportunities for working in the school and for the school" has recently been included in the list of the continuing points of emphasis.

THE PLACE OF GENERAL EDUCATION IN THE TOTAL PROGRAM OF THE SCHOOL

Since the core program in the School is the major integrating part of the general education program as well as of the total program, it is necessary to look at the core in the large context of general education in the total program of the School. As implied in the statement of the philosophy and purposes of the School, its curriculum is directed toward promotion of the total development of students as responsible citizens of a democratic society. Equal emphasis is given to meeting and developing both common and special interests of all students. The curriculum of the School provides those learning experiences for meeting common needs and solving common problems of adolescents through the program of general education and offers rich opportunities for the students to meet and

1 See The Faculty of The Ohio State University School, The Philosophy and Purposes of the University School.

2 The Faculty of the University School, "A Description of Curricular Experiences, Grades 7-12." Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1956, p. 4.
develop their special interests through the elective program. These two programs are not isolated from each other but, contributing to each other, constitute a well-balanced total educational program. While the general education program is primarily directed toward the development of common democratic citizenship, it provides a broad background for students to identify and develop their special needs and interests. On the other hand, while the elective program is primarily directed toward meeting special needs of the students, it also strives to achieve those democratic purposes of the School which constitute the major concerns of the general education program as they apply to specific phases of the elective program. As will be discussed more fully later, contributions of special areas to the core program of general education are a necessary factor for the successful operation of the School's core program which cuts across all the areas of knowledge and uses them as resources for problem solving.

If we accept one common element in general education program as a criterion for defining general education (i.e., they are concerned with common citizenship education which is required of all students), then the general education program of the School can be said to consist of the core program and a few additional courses which are required of all students in addition to the core. Such required courses outside the core include physical education, mathematics, some activities in the arts area, and American history.

A longer period is allocated for the core program than for any other single course. Approximately three hours daily are scheduled for the core in grades seven, eight, and nine and approximately one and one-half hours in grades ten, eleven, and twelve. A one-hour period of physical
education is scheduled daily for all pupils in grades seven through twelve, inclusive. One hour of mathematics is required daily of all students in grades seven, eight, and nine. A one-hour period for grades seven, eight, and nine and a forty-five minute period for grades ten, eleven, and twelve is scheduled daily for elective activities in arts area. All students in the six upper grades are required to have one arts elective each year. American History is required of all students during either the eleventh or twelfth grade.

In addition to the arts electives, the students in grades ten, eleven, and twelve have the opportunity to choose three elective classes according to their special needs and interests. Accordingly, during the three years, the student could elect a total of nine units of credit through the elective program. Elective offerings for students in grades ten, eleven, and twelve in the school year 1958-1959 include the following:

- Arts Area—related arts, home arts, instrumental music, vocal music, and creative writing
- Foreign Languages Area—French I, II, and III and Spanish I, II, III
- Mathematics Area—intermediate high school mathematics, advanced high school mathematics, and Nature of Proof
- English Area—English workshop and English seminar
- Science Area—biology, chemistry, physics, and advanced science
- Social Science Area—world culture, American history, world history

For additional information regarding the scheduling of the total program of the School, the reader is referred to Appendix A at the end of this report. Since the Wednesday afternoon hours are set aside for faculty meetings, some changes in the regular schedule are made. Appendix B shows the tentative Wednesday morning schedule.

A few eleventh- and twelfth-grade students who are recognized by the faculty to be superior in some area of study are encouraged to take certain college freshman and sophomore courses on The Ohio State University
campus in advance of high school graduation. This, however, is only one aspect of the School's efforts to adapt the program to the divergent needs of individual students. The general education program through the core activities provides ample opportunities for all individual students to identify their special interests and to find ways of developing them. Guidance and counseling activities carried out by core counselors make possible the individualization of the School's program.

Courses Outside the Core Required of All Students

Since the general education program of the School includes more than the core program, the writer will attempt to describe these other aspects of the general education program before a more comprehensive treatment is given to the core program of the general education of the School.

Physical education. The physical education program, required of all students, operates with some specific points of emphasis based upon the philosophy and purposes of the School. These points of emphasis are—

1. The development of neuromuscular skills,
2. The development and maintenance of organic vigor,
3. Contributing to desirable development in social relationships and moral and ethical behavior,
4. Contributing to desirable development in emotional maturity. 3

In general practice, considerable emphasis is placed on team and group activities for students in grades seven, eight, nine, and ten, while students in grades eleven and twelve participate more in individual, dual, and recreational types. 4 Learning experiences are planned and conducted in units such as basketball, softball, bowling, and football. Teacher-pupil cooperation in planning, carrying out, and evaluating units

3Ibid., p. 74. 4Ibid., p. 75.
of activities is a continuous process through which students grow in understanding, attitudes, and skills of democratic living. Boys' interscholastic athletics and girls' extramural athletics programs are offered in addition to the regular physical education classes in order to meet various needs and interests of students in sports.\(^5\)

**Mathematics program.** The mathematics program at the University School serves both general education and special interests education. That part of the mathematics program which is required of all students in grades seven, eight, and nine is primarily designed for general education; that part of mathematics program offered to students in grades ten, eleven, and twelve is designed for meeting special needs of students through the electives program.

The mathematics program for general education is directly based on the "general and continuing points of emphasis" described in the statement of the philosophy and purposes of the School. The development of the following points of emphasis is regarded especially to apply more significantly to the mathematics program of general education than does the development of the other points of emphasis: (1) cooperativeness; (2) ability and zeal to utilize the method of intelligence; (3) self-direction; (4) creativeness; (5) communication skills and appreciations; (6) skills in measurement and the use of quantitative symbols; and (7) vocational adjustments and standards.\(^6\)

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Mathematics classes for grades seven and eight are scheduled five periods per week. In order to provide effective guidance for continuity of student experiences in harmony with the needs, interests, and capacities of students, the same mathematics teacher works with a class for the two year period of time. Concepts which receive the most emphasis in the mathematics program for grades seven and eight are: 

1. **Number**, including whole numbers, common fractions, decimal fractions, percentage, and the operations involving these number concepts;
2. **Measurement**, encompassing linear measurement and the measurement of surfaces and volumes, weights and measures, time and calendar, and other units of measure such as light-year, foot-pound, and calorie;
3. **Relationship** as expressed in tables of data, graphs, and formulas; and
4. **Business concepts** relative to banking, purchasing, selling, and insurance.\(^7\)

Ninth-grade mathematics course, the last mathematics class required of all, attempts to achieve two major objectives: (1) "to extend the mathematical knowledge of the group to include an appreciation of and skill in the powerful techniques of algebra and elementary statistics" and (2) "to sharpen the ability of each student to generalize, to test generalizations, and to express generalizations in language that the students can clearly understand."\(^8\)

Field-work projects, running the school supplies store, operation of a temporary school bank, opportunities for using surveying instruments, and other activities are cooperatively planned, carried out, and evaluated by the teacher and students. These cooperative works and other

\(^7\)Ibid., p. 28.  \(^8\)Ibid., p. 27.
individual projects not only facilitate the functional learning of mathematics but also provide ample opportunities for growth in democratic living.  

**Arts elective program.** The arts program for general education is difficult to define clearly because not all students take the same class or course in arts, since they are permitted to choose one or two activities in the arts electives. More specifically, according to the High School schedule for the school year 1958-1959 (Appendix A), students in grades seven and eight are required to choose among activities in science, related arts, home arts, and music. Students in grades nine through twelve, inclusive, are required to select among activities in instrumental music, vocal music, related arts, and home arts. In addition to these, the School is providing during the school year 1958-59 an experimental program in creative writing for a small group of eight students in grades ten and above who have special permission of the teachers involved. This creative writing program is in addition to the creative writing activities required of all students in the core block of time.

The Arts elective program for grades seven and eight is primarily exploratory in nature. Students in these grades elect one group of activities each quarter but they are required to elect activities in each of the four groups (science, related arts, home arts, and music) in the two-year period. The students thus have opportunity to repeat one or two groups in the remaining two quarters.

After these exploratory experiences in arts electives during their seventh and eighth grades, students choose among more advanced arts

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electives in terms of their special interests and needs as they advance through higher grade levels. It is through the cooperative process of the students working with the core counselor, arts teachers, and parents that the students of the upper four grades decide what to choose as arts electives.

**American history.** One year of American history is required of all students in the eleventh or twelfth grade. This requirement was established because American history is one of the state requirements for high school graduation. The practice utilized for this course in the University School does not differ greatly from that of the traditional teaching of subject matter.

**French.** All students in grade seven during the school year 1958-59 are required to take French, which is scheduled during the second half of the lunch period. For this particular group this is the beginning of an experimental program planned as a six-year sequence; accordingly, this program will not apply to the seventh grade of the next school year. However, several students from the eighth grade of the current school year elected this course.

**THE CORE PROGRAM OF THE SCHOOL**

The core program approach to general education at the University Secondary School is based upon the belief that "a secondary school must deal directly with the common problems adolescents face as they live in the present-day society." Accordingly, the teaching-learning process is characterized as the process of "helping students to identify and meet
their common needs, drawing on whatever fields of knowledge are relevant. This belief and this characteristic of the teaching-learning process of the core program of the School leans heavily toward the experimentalist viewpoints of the general education program and on the organismic theory of learning as discussed in the chapter III.

Although the core program of the School contributes to the achievement of all sixteen "continuing points of emphasis" in varying degrees, the faculty of the School tends to think that the major contributions of the core are in "helping students develop in the following nine areas: (1) use of the method of intelligence, (2) skill in democratic living, (3) communication skills and appreciations, (4) vocational adjustments and standards, (5) social adjustments, (6) self-direction, (7) cooperation, (8) social sensitivity, and (9) creativeness."

Scope—Problem Areas

In order better to serve the purposes of the School as well as the major objectives of the program, the core is designed around the adolescent problem areas which are formulated on the bases of (1) the statement of the philosophy and purposes of the School, (2) findings of the studies of child growth and development, (3) findings of an inventory study of personal and social problems of adolescent boys and girls in the School, and (4) the data collected from the student records. Several problem areas were thus pre-determined by the faculty of the School:

1. Problems of School Living
2. Problems of Healthful Living
3. Problems of Communication

10 Ibid., p. 15. 11 Ibid.
4. Problems of Government
5. Problems of Producer-Consumer Economics
6. Problems of Conservation of Resources
7. Problems of Values and Beliefs
8. Problems of Human Behavior (Understanding Self and Others)
9. Problems of Conflicting Ideologies
10. Problems of Education
11. Problems of Occupations (Selecting and Preparation for)
12. Problems of Developing Cultural Heritage
13. Problems of Social Relationships in a Rapidly Changing Society
14. Problems of Living in the Atomic Age

These fourteen problem areas provide the general scope of the core program and the learning units are developed cooperatively by the teacher and students from these problem areas. However, these problems are suggestive only and greater freedom is given to the teacher and students to select, plan, and develop learning units in terms of the common needs, problems and interests of the particular class group of students. If a learning unit desired by the class does not fit into one of the fourteen problem areas, special approval is secured from the faculty. However, such cases are unusual since the scope covered by the fourteen problem areas is so broad and comprehensive that almost any problem a group of students might choose for study could be interpreted as fitting one of these problem areas.

In practice, these problem areas are not even suggested to students as they cooperate with the teacher in attempting to identify their common problems for their units of work. The problem areas are suggestive only in that the core counselor keeps them in mind as a frame of reference when he guides the students in their selection of units of work. In both theory and practice, it is desirable for all students to cover all fourteen problem areas in their six years in the Secondary School. The

12 Ibid., p. 18.
avoidance of duplication is one of the criteria which most classes have formulated for selecting learning units in order to protect the students from leaving some problem areas untouched.

While the scope indicated in the problem areas apply more appropriately to the unit-study part of the core program, there are other activities which should be considered with respect to the general scope of the core program. These activities which are initiated and carried out by students are as following:

1. Activities related to student government and school organizations
2. Activities associated with immediate problems of class or group living (e.g., planning class social activities, class money-making projects, participating in Red Cross drives, etc.)
3. Individual reading and writing programs

Throughout the unit study and other activities and in some specially planned occasions, guidance and counseling activities are integrated into the on-going core program. These various aspects of the core program will be discussed later in some detail.

Just for reference it may be desirable to point out that the design of the core program at the University School is identified as belonging to Alberty's Type-Five Core or Wright's Type C as discussed previously in Chapter IV of this report if one judges the core program on the basis of the description of the school's curricular experiences. However, if one closely observes the actual operation of the core in the classroom and if one discusses the selection of learning units with the core counselors, he finds that the problem areas do not affect the teacher-pupil planning of the learning units in some core groups. Thus, it may

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be said that some grade groups in the University Secondary School conduct their core classes in accordance with Alberthy's Type-Six Core, or Wright's Type D.

**Sequence of the Core Program**

Although there have been instances in the development of the core program at the School when some of the problem areas have been "pegged" for certain grades or groups of grades, no such sequence has been predetermined by the faculty since 1954. The faculty feels that each of the fourteen problem areas is sufficiently broad to be treated by different grade levels according to the maturity level of each grade.

Accordingly, the problem of determining sequence of the core program is primarily left to the teacher and students as they cooperatively endeavor to plan, execute, and evaluate their living and learning in the classroom. In general practice, a set of criteria established by a class group serves as a guide for determining sequence of experiences. The following items selected from the list of criteria developed and used by the seventh and eighth grades a few years ago are closely related to the determination of the sequence of experiences:

- Will we learn anything new?
- Can we study it in a quarter or will it take a whole year?
- Can this age level handle the problem?  

This reliance upon the functional sequence of adolescent experiences is apparently based on the fact that the core counselors of the School

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14 See Chapter V of this writing.

15 The Faculty of the University School, "A Description of Curricular Experiences, Grade 7-12," p. 82.
understand the maturity level of their students and are competent to
guide their development in accordance to the natural sequence of their
experiences.

Resource Materials

As previously discussed in Chapter IV, the primary purpose of vari-
umous schemes of preparing resource materials related to problem areas is
to aid core teachers in providing better guidance in developing learning
units for their students. The faculty of the School started to develop
and use resource files early in the 1940's for the benefit of the core
teachers who then had had little experiences in core teaching. The re-
source files were given much attention by the faculty during 1945
through 1947 during which time the enlarged core program was extended
to grade ten, eleven, and twelve. However, as the core teachers gained
experiences in core teaching and they grew in confidence, the need for
resource files gradually disappeared. In addition to the growth of
core teachers in confidence which resulted in less use of the files,
the staff began to have difficulty in keeping the files up-to-date if
they were to meet the changing problems of students in the rapidly ad-
vancing technological age. Thus the development of resource files was
discontinued about 1953 or 1954.

Instead, the staff in the spring meeting of 1954 decided to develop
resource guides for three problem areas: "(1) Problems of Communication,
(2) Problems of Social Relationships in a Rapidly Changing Society, and
(3) Problems of Living in the Atomic Age." However, because of the
busy schedule of the staff, the Core Study Group decided to work on
only one, i.e., "Problems of Communication," reserving the other two for later years. In order to understand the role of the resource materials by the staff who use them, it is helpful to consider the four reasons which the staff listed for their selection of the area of "Problems of Communication":

1. Societal concern over the difficulties involved in how to secure effective communication and how to prevent breakdown of communication makes it a timely problem area.

2. Our recent informal re-study of adolescents and their needs and problems leads us to believe that more effective communication looms large as a need.

3. This problem area has been seldom used as such in the school and resources would therefore make a greater contribution to the core program here than at perhaps any other point.

4. A wide variety of subject matter areas could enrich learning units growing from the problem area.

5. Much opportunity for in-service professional growth could be seen in working with developing resources in "Problems of Communication."¹⁶

The resource guide was completed and published in mimeographed booklet in 1956 with the title Problems of Communication, A Resource Guide for use in Junior and Senior High School Core Classes.¹⁷

In addition to the resource guide on "Problems of Communication," there is a resource unit developed by the faculty on "Values and Beliefs," but it has not yet been issued.¹⁸

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¹⁶ The University School, "Core in Action," pp. 2-3. See also A Faculty Study Group of the University School, Problems of Communication: A Resource Guide for Use in Junior and Senior High School Core Classes. Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1956, p. 3.

¹⁷ Ibid.

¹⁸ The manuscript has been completed and will soon be issued in a mimeographed form.
This limited number of resource units, or resource guides as identified by the School is, as previously indicated, due primarily to the competence of most of the core counselors whose need for resource guides are not too great and partly to the lack of time on the part of the staff to develop such resource materials. In order to compensate for the lack of organized resource units, each core counselor keeps a very detailed description of every unit as it is developed by the teacher and students. And when an individual core counselor desires resource materials for his core class, he borrows another teacher's note book in which a detailed description has been made on the development of a similar learning unit.

In addition to the core teacher's sharing their experiences through exchanging note books and through formal and informal meetings, the cooperative planning of the staff for each of the grades provides the core counselor ample opportunities for gathering and organizing new ideas for handling a new learning unit from the teachers of various areas of knowledge.

**Developing Learning Units**

The major stages followed in developing learning units are (1) selecting a unit to be studied, (2) planning and organizing for the study of the selected unit, (3) executing the plan, and (4) culminating activities. First of all, it should be pointed out that the development of a learning unit in the School is characterized as a continuous process of democratic problem solving which involves active participation of all individual students and the teacher.
Selection of a learning unit is regarded of utmost importance by the students as well as by the staff of the School. In general practice, developing a set of criteria for selecting a unit of work is the natural first step. Sometimes such criteria are listed on the blackboard as they are suggested or a list of suggested criteria is mimeographed and distributed to each student for continuous reference as he formulates ideas and suggestions for possible units which are to be presented to the class. And sometimes, especially in the senior high school, the criteria which were used previously are just recalled orally; in fact the core teacher, assuming that his students are all aware of the criteria, may even decide to skip this step.

A commonly accepted set of criteria for selecting learning units is as following:

1. Will we learn anything new?
2. Can all of us find something of interest in this study?
3. Are there enough materials: books, pamphlets, pictures, trips, movies?
4. Can we study it in a quarter or will it take a whole year? Would it be better to study one phase of the problem?
5. Can this age level handle the problem?
6. Can it be done with this size group?
7. Is another group studying it?
8. Will this study make use of some special area teachers: physical education, music, art, science, and mathematics?
9. Can we work sometimes as a whole group, sometimes in committees, and sometimes as individuals?
10. Would we be able to plan a trip relating to this problem?\(^{19}\)

Many possible units are suggested and checked in terms of the criteria. Brief exploratory studies are made of some of the units from which the group will select one for study. Although the total staff recommends that one unit study per quarter be planned, it is not necessary to start a

\(^{19}\)The Faculty of the University School, "A Description of Curricular Experiences, Grade 7-12," p. 82.
unit at the beginning of the quarter or to finish it before the end of
the quarter if special conditions make it more feasible not to do so.
In grades ten and above, though somewhat unusual, one unit may continue
for one and a half or two quarters. And in certain situations, school-
wide projects and guidance activities require so much time that it is
not possible to get started on the learning unit at the beginning of the
quarter. It was also observed that one class developed two short
learning units in one quarter.

For illustration, in the Autumn Quarter of 1958, the core classes
developed the following units:

7th Grade—The United States Presidency
8th Grade—Racial Segregation
9th Grade—Comparative Religions
10th Grade—(1) Political Parties and Election Campaigns
     (2) Driver and Safety Education (This unit was started
         in the middle of the Autumn Quarter and finished
         during the Winter Quarter.)
11th Grade—Man's Creative Achievement
12th Grade: Group A—How Can We Resolve the Cold War?
     Group B—(1) Vocations and Colleges
     (2) Cultures—Literature and Arts

As indicated in criterion 7, which reads "Is another group studying
it?", a close check among classes is made to determine if any two or more
classes are planning to work on the same unit. The reason for this
avoidance of two or more classes working on the same unit is the problem
of using library materials. When one class is working on a certain unit,
the students in the class explore almost all available reference materials
in the library, thus leaving few materials for use by another group. Ac-
cordingly each core group works very closely with the librarians during
the stages of selecting and planning a unit to make certain that enough
materials for the unit study are available in the library and to plan
how best to use these materials.
Once a class of students has selected a unit, planning and organizing the class for the effective solution of the problem take place. Under the intelligent guidance of the core counselor, students plan ways of solving the problem so that they will have experiences in working in the total class group, in committee groups, and on individual projects in terms of individual interests. Included in the activities is the selecting and making of contacts with resource persons within and without the School. Field trips are scheduled whenever the solution of the problem requires them. Planning does not end at any definite point but continues throughout the research since evaluation takes place continuously and may suggest some ideas which requires additional planning.

Research reading, note taking, discussion, film viewing, listening to speakers, surveying, and organizing the findings into a report (oral or written or both) are integral aspects of the learning unit.

Whenever a core group invites, as a resource person for its unit study, a speaker whose topic would be of considerable interest to other core groups, more than one grade group participate in the occasion. For illustration, the tenth grade core group studied "Political Parties and Election Campaigns" in the Autumn Quarter of 1958 when the national election was the center of attention for the American people. The core group appropriately decided to invite a former Ohio representative to the Congress in order to learn about the ways of carrying on an effective election campaign. Since this appeared to be of interest and value to all students in the Secondary School, the faculty decided to have all Secondary School students participate in the occasion. However, the students of the tenth grade core group sponsored this school-wide activity. Other core classes,
of course, had to make a quick change of their plans to take advantage of this opportunity to meet the immediate needs of the students.

A significant aspect involved in the stage of carrying out the plan of problem solving is that individual and group guidance regarding more effective ways of solving the problem is provided to students by the core counselor. The core teachers are continuously alert in order to identify and to make suggestions to students regarding the correction or improvement of study habits and/or skills in the use of the method of intelligence. Student help each other by sharing ideas in formal and informal situations.

Culminating activities include at times such activities as field trips, oral or written reports (committee report or individual report), display of materials collected or constructed during the study, and evaluation of the work done. The evaluation of the class is carried out primarily by students but under the direction of the teacher. It is done by means of writing what they feel about the job that has been done and how it could be further improved. Since this final evaluation comes at the end of the unit study which is usually at the end of quarter, the evaluation is sometimes carried out through a brief discussion of the total class. The comments of the teacher are considered by the students as a valuable check on their own evaluation.

Throughout the learning unit, emphasis is placed on having students develop ability in the use of reflective thinking as well as having them develop attitudes, abilities, and skills for effective democratic group work. The development by students of skills in reading, speaking, listening, and writing is a continuous concern of the core counselor as he guides students through the learning unit.
Other Core Activities

While the unit study occupies the most important place in the core block of time, other activities such as free reading, creative writing, and social activities are also regarded by the faculty as important aspects of the core program for their unique contributions to the realization of the purposes of the School.

Free reading program. Reading activities in the core program consist of two main parts: reading for information in relation to learning units and free reading which is sometimes called "guided reading." The free reading or guided reading program is planned, conducted, and evaluated in close cooperation with the librarians. Students keep a record of what they have read on an official form ("Cumulative Record of Individual Reading"), a copy of which is shown in Appendix C. In this record students indicate the author, title of book, kind of book (such as novel, short stories, science fiction, and biography), and student evaluation of the book. The records are kept in the files of the core counselor.

Standardized tests in reading are administered early each year. In the fall of 1958, the Iowa Silent Reading Tests were used with all students in the upper six grades.

The core counselor provides special help in developing reading skills and habits of students individually and as a group. The assistance provided is based on the results of the annual reading tests, the individual reading records, and observation by the teacher and the librarian of the students' reading activity. Librarians also take responsibility of helping each student widen and deepen his interest in reading and of helping him find challenging reading materials. The period of time given
for the free reading in the core block of time varies from class to class depending on the conditions of each class. More time can be provided for free reading in grades seven, eight, and nine than can be provided for the upper grades since the lower grades have a larger block of time assigned to the core. However, even in these lower grades, the time provided daily for free reading does not average more than twenty minutes out of the total three-hour core period.

Because of the limited time for free reading, students are encouraged to do more reading at home and at any available time during school hours. In addition to the group and individual guidance in reading provided by the core counselor and the librarian during the free reading period in the core, students are encouraged to share what they have read with their classmates. Occasionally a sharing time is scheduled for the entire class in order to provide training in public speaking as well as to share ideas learned through their free reading. The free reading period is not necessarily spent only for recreational reading; some students were observed during this period reading for information related to the unit being studied by the class.

Creative writing program. Because of the importance of writing skills, specially scheduled guidance in creative writing is provided for students in addition to their written reports related to the learning units. It should be pointed out that the development of language skills, especially in reading and writing, is regarded by the staff as one of the important responsibilities of the core program. It is difficult, however, to generalize regarding the creative writing activities of the core classes because there are no rules set up for each core class to follow.
A general practice in guiding creative writing activities has been to require students to submit a piece of creative writing to the core counselors every two or three weeks, or five or six pieces for each quarter. The actual writing is done by students at home as a part of home assignments, and students are asked to prepare a creative writing during the core class only once or twice a quarter. While, in usual practice, students write on whatever topics they wish, there are times when the teacher assigns a specific topic.

Some time is set aside during the core period in which to discuss these writings. Special instruction is given in sentence and paragraph structure, spelling, and vocabulary building as is necessary. This help is provided to the group as well as to an individual according to the nature of the problems students face in their writings. Some outstanding writings are selected and published in the School's student magazine Buckeye Leaves, a yearly publication which is edited by a student committee with the help of the English teachers.

Recently some changes have been made with respect to the creative writing program. While grades seven, nine, and ten continue to carry out the creative writing program as in the past, an experiment is being carried out in the school year 1958-1959 with the language program within the core block of time for grades eight, eleven, and twelve.

Four periods per week were set aside from the eighth-grade core block of time in order to experiment with the idea of applying linguistics to the junior high school language arts program. During the period set aside for the experiment, the English teacher places much emphasis on a detailed descriptive analysis of English grammar and related aspects of
the English language. Students are asked to write a brief paragraph each day using a variety of ways and forms of expression. These student writings are analyzed and evaluated by both the English teacher and the core counselor. In a strict sense, as reported by the core counselor of the class and other staff members this experimental language program is not directly integrated into the core program even though it is scheduled during the core block of time. Whether this program will be continued after this year is not yet known, for this decision depends on the critical evaluation of the program which is being made continuously by the involved staff members and on the evaluation of the entire staff in the future.

A program similar to that of the eighth grade was established in grade twelve in the 1958 Autumn Quarter with three periods per week set aside for instruction by the same English teacher who teaches the eighth grade experimental language program. However, this was carried out in the twelfth grade for only one quarter, and during the Winter Quarter only one period per week in the core is set aside for formal language instruction.

The eleventh grade, comprised of forty-five students assigned to one counselor, was provided in the Autumn Quarter of 1958 an additional teacher to assist the core counselor. The students were divided into two groups, and the groups met alternately with the core counselor and the additional teacher who was assigned to help students develop language skills with special emphasis being placed on creative writing, spelling, sentence structure, and vocabulary. Students spent approximately three periods each week with the language teacher, leaving somewhat more time to be spent under the direction of the core counselor. Almost regularly
one piece of creative writing was required every two weeks in addition to the activities of the students with the language teacher. The language teacher cooperated very closely with the core counselor in relation to the creative writing activities and he actively participated in helping students organize, write, and present orally the conclusions of their unit study. In the Winter Quarter, the English teacher who is directing the experimental language program for the three grades replaced the teacher who assisted the eleventh grade core counselor the previous quarter. The role of the English teacher in the eleventh-grade core continues with little change. There are some reasons for emphasizing the study of English language in the core program of the School.

Because of the fact that most graduates of the School want to go to college the need for maintaining high standards in English language has been continuously felt by the staff of the School. There is a second justification, closely related to the first one, for assigning a language arts teacher to provide instruction in the English language during the core period. Since the School cannot afford to divide the eleventh grade students into two independent groups with one core counselor each as it is done in the twelfth grade, this supplementary help is sought from one of the language experts in the School. The justification for the experimental language program of the eighth grade lies in the increasing emphasis on the experimental function of the School. Initiation of the program in the eighth grade is undoubtedly due to the fact that the eighth-grade core counselor is a language expert and to the fact that such experimentation in the language program has not been conducted in the School.
Miscellaneous activities in the core. Each core class has one hour period per week set aside for class business meetings which are conducted by the students themselves. The business meeting period is considered by the staff as one of the finest opportunities for developing skills in democratic living in the School. Participation of all individual students in decision making is encouraged and guided by the core counselor.

In order to carry out the program of self-government, each class has a chairman, a vice chairman, a treasurer, and two secretaries. These class officers are elected and are frequently rotated so that as many students as possible can have experiences in leadership as well as followership. Various social activities, classroom decoration projects, money making projects, and related activities are discussed and planned during the business meeting period. Democratic procedures in conducting a meeting are followed and whenever the core counselor sees the need he calls the attention of the students to certain principles of democratic group action and leads them in evaluating their procedure in terms of the democratic principles of group work.

In addition to the class officials elected for conducting the business of the class, each class elects some members as representatives to the Student Council. Some of the major functions exercised by the Council are: "the appointing of special sub-committees dealing with specific problems, the handling of the school's social calendar, clearing money-making activities of school organizations, control over athletic events and awards, and administration of a central treasury of student funds to be used for such purposes as Council decides."20 The major standing

committees are the Athletic Committee, School and Community Welfare Committee, and the Lunchroom Committee. The staff representative elected by the staff members serves as a consultant or advisor to the Council.

The Council meets once a week and time is so scheduled that the representatives can attend the Council meeting without missing the opportunity to participate in other group activities of the core. In general practice, when the representatives of the Council and other Committees attend their meetings, the remaining students of the class engage in a free reading or work period. Representatives report to the class the results of the meetings of the Council and its Committees.

Various social activities are conducted by each class and these ranges from sponsoring some school-wide activity to conducting a party for the class only. Time for planning and preparing for the social activities sometimes requires more than the class business meeting period. Resource persons are called upon for any special help needed by the group. Each activity is followed by final evaluation by students and the counselor.

A more specific illustration of the activities of the core class is presented later in this chapter.

Guidance and Counseling in the Core Program

The guidance and counseling services are integrated into the core program at the University School, and the core counselors assume many responsibilities carried out by the guidance specialists in schools which have no core program. This means that the core counselors at the University Secondary School provide group and individual guidance as they live and work with their students. The core counselors keep the various records for guidance of the students up-to-date. Transcript data,
attendance records, health records, home records, progress reports, and test records are the major items included in the student record files.

Teaching services include administration of annual reading tests, intelligence tests, and several kinds of standardized achievement tests. The data from these tests are all carefully interpreted and recorded.

The first one or two weeks of each new school year are devoted to the orientation of new students to the School. The seventh-grade core provides a comprehensive orientation program to junior high school life. This orientation program is sometimes carried out in the form of unit study in the area of "Problems of School Living."

The orientation program in other grades is generally carried out on an individual conference basis. In addition to this orientation program at the beginning of the school year, new students are encouraged to attend the summer session, if possible, prior to the beginning of the new school year.

Educational guidance covers all of the processes of school living of students in close contact with the core counselor and other teachers. In addition, students receive careful guidance from the core counselor in deciding what to choose for special interest elective courses. In helping students in this choice making, the core counselor seeks cooperation from parents as well as from the teachers of special interest areas.

Most of the remedial cases in the academic area are handled by the core counselors with the help of other teachers. However, there are some serious cases which are referred to outside specialists.

Many behavior problem cases are also handled by the core counselor and/or some staff members in the school. But the University Counseling
and Testing Center provides valuable information. One group of twelfth
graders has also studied the unit, "Vocations and Colleges." The other
group of the twelfth grade has not treated the problem in the unit, but
the core counselor says that a considerable amount of time is devoted
outside the unit for group and individual guidance in the problem of
choosing vocations and the colleges.

Evaluation of Student Progress in the Core

Concerning the evaluation of student progress in the total educational
program, the faculty states: "Numerical or letter grades to rate or to
compare one member of a class with other members of that class are not a
regular part of the reporting system at University School."21 This state­
ment applies to the core program. In no case are tests given in order to
measure how much information the student has gained in the core. Some
standard achievement tests are, of course, administered to provide a
basis for guidance but they are not necessarily related directly to the
specific content of activities provided in the core.

The major techniques of evaluating pupil progress are the continuous
observations and note taking of the core counselor. Sometimes, a rating
scale, prepared by the teacher is also used. In this type of rating
scale, such items as the following are included: grooming, emotional
maturity, creativeness, respect for others, responsibility, cooperativeness,
self-direction, leadership, participation, work and study habits,
expression, problem solving ability, initiative, and resourcefulness.
Many of these items appear in the statement of philosophy and purposes
of the School.

21The Handbook Committee of the University School, op. cit., p. 29.
Student self-evaluation and teacher-student cooperative evaluation are going on continuously as students and teacher plan and work together. And this continuous process of evaluation with some periodical evaluation meetings is regarded by core counselors as an imperative aspect of the core program. A number of individual conferences with students alone, or with both the student and his parents, are scheduled for evaluation purpose.

Since the School does not have the traditional grading system, it does not have any numerical or letter grades to report to parents and/or to the colleges and universities to which students apply for admission. Instead the School usually sends one written progress report quarterly to parents. The core is one of the areas included in these reports. Illustrations of such reports have been organized and issued in mimeographed form by the School.

For use both with parents and with educational institutions, the School has prepared a written statement which explains the grading system of the University School. This statement is shown in the Appendix D. As the statement indicates, it is the policy of the school to make as authentic and objective recommendations as possible for students applying for admission to colleges and universities.

The Contributions of the Special-Interest Areas to the Core

In the stage of pre-planning, teachers in the special-interest areas are widely called upon for information in the special areas. Since the University School does not use many resource units, (actually there is

22 The University School, Reporting Student Progress, Grades Seven through Twelve. Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1953.
only one comprehensive resource guide developed by the faculty), some
core counselors strongly feel the need for cooperation of the special-
interest-area teachers in pre-planning the core units. However, when a
core counselor feels confident regarding a certain unit to be developed,
he does not necessarily confer with other teachers for pre-planning
except to the extent that he secures the agreement of these teachers to
help the core group when they are called upon.

When students work on explorations of some possible units, they talk
with and receive help from the special-interest-area teachers in locating
sources of information just as they do with their core counselor and the
school librarians. A science teacher told the writer that there are
occasions when students get an idea for a possible unit from their
science study and, by the same token, they bring problems from their
unit study to the science classes.

As a core group plans and carries out the learning unit, the teachers
in special areas are called on to provide help either to a small group
or the total group. They suggest special study materials and resource
personnel. They suggest possibilities of exploring some specific aspects
of the unit selected or to be chosen. The amount of time spent by those
teachers depends on the nature of the problem under study. There are
times when a special-area-teacher leads the core class for approximately
one hour daily for one week or if necessary for as long as four weeks or
until the core group has solved that aspect of their problem. When such
an extensive use of any special-area-teacher is needed, certain adminis-
trative provisions are necessary.
Since the problem areas of the School are comprehensive enough to cover most of the areas of personal-social living, practically all special-interest areas are involved in the process of developing learning units provided the learning units are carefully and cooperatively selected, planned, and carried out.

The other core activities such as free readings, creative writings, parties, classroom decorations, and special school-wide projects are also planned, carried out, and evaluated in close cooperation with the teachers of various special areas to the extent that these activities demand help from these teachers.

The Contributions of the Library to the Core Program

Since the core classes do not use a textbook but seek information from all available source materials, students draw heavily upon the library. The librarian of the School, who has served the School from the very beginning, told the writer that everyone who plans to develop a core program must at the same time plan for a library.

The participation of a librarian in the selecting and planning of any learning unit is an imperative aspect in developing a unit of work. As previously indicated, among the criteria for choosing a unit is the availability of library materials on the unit and their suitability to the students making the choice. Sometimes small class committees work with the librarian to report to the class concerning the advantages and disadvantages of one unit over another in terms of the availability and suitability of study materials. As often as possible the librarian is brought into the class to participate in the teacher-student planning of
a learning unit or to the student–student planning in small committees. For the convenience of the class, the librarian sometimes sends to the class a library truck with the major study materials selected cooperatively by the students, the core counselor, and the librarian.

From her long experiences, the University School librarian writes:

As librarian, teacher, and pupils plan together, the librarian is able to point out to the class the kinds of library materials needed, the ability of the library to meet the broad needs of the unit under consideration, as well as its individual topics, and the way in which these materials can be used by various students. As the unit progresses and pupils spend much of their time working in the library, she is able to help them more successfully because she knows the reasons underlying a pupil’s choice of his particular topic.  

In order to meet the changing needs and interests of the students, the library does its best to assemble up-to-date materials. The core teacher, special-interest-areas teachers, and students all cooperate with the librarian to keep the library collections as comprehensive and up-to-date as possible.

The librarian and the assistant librarian evaluate their contributions to the students learning. Miss Heller, the librarian, says: "By the time the unit is completed, the librarian has discovered weaknesses of the library as demonstrated by its lack of certain materials which would have been suited best to certain topics and certain pupils. Thus she is able to plan more efficiently for future needs."  

The library also makes unique contributions to the free reading program. The librarians not only help students locate certain reading materials but also provide guidance for students to identify their reading

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24 Ibid.
interests and to make wise selections of reading materials. The librarians and the core teacher work very closely to provide better continuity of reading experiences for students.

Orientation to the use of the library is an important aspect in the core program of the junior high school level. When the core counselor of a certain group desires orientation for his students, the program is scheduled in cooperation with the librarians and other core counselors.

AN ILLUSTRATION OF A CORE CLASS IN ACTION

In order to supplement the foregoing general discussions of the core program of the University School, an illustration of how the core program operates in the eighth grade of the School is presented. The description of the core group is based on the writer's extensive observation of the class during the Autumn Quarter of 1958 and a series of conferences between the writer and the eighth-grade core counselor.

The eighth grade consists of 15 boys and 13 girls, or total of 28 students. All but two students worked with the same core counselor last year when they were in grade seven. Of the two new students, one is completely new to the University School and the other once attended the University Elementary School. Accordingly, the core counselor could easily provide necessary orientation to the two new students on the individual guidance basis.

For the convenience of presentation, the writer classified the eighth grade core program during the Autumn Quarter of the school year 1958-1959 into (1) unit study, (2) free reading, (3) creative writing, (4) class business meeting and participation in high school student activities,
(5) social activities, (6) guidance and counseling and miscellaneous activities. It is not easy to determine the exact amount of time spent in each of these six groups of activities, because the activities are not definitely scheduled in advance but are rather the outcome of the cooperative living and study of the students and the teacher. However, the writer approximates the time distribution as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Total hours for the Autumn Quarter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total hours for the core</td>
<td>165 hours (2 hours and 45 minutes per day)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning unit</td>
<td>65-70 hours (65-70 minutes per day)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free reading</td>
<td>20-24 &quot; (20-25 minutes per day)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative writing (Language Arts)</td>
<td>40-45 &quot; (4 hours a week)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class business</td>
<td>10-12 &quot; (1 hour a week)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Activities</td>
<td>13-17 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Activities</td>
<td>4-6 hours</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These approximated figures concerning the hours spent for each of the eighth grade core activities during the Autumn Quarter should not be considered the standard for time scheduling because other groups may schedule differently according to student needs. The time required for each of the core activities of the eighth grade in the Winter Quarter will not necessarily be the same as that for Autumn Quarter. Moreover, it should be recalled that the eighth grade has an experimental language class scheduled four hours a week during the core block of time.

Developing a Learning Unit

Before the students began to make a selection of a learning unit, the teacher called the attention of the students to the meaning of the core program in order that they might understand what they should learn through
the core program. Five small groups were organized with a chairman and a recorder for each group. The students of each group were asked to list the characteristics of the core as they had experienced it last year. Each group reported its findings and when the reports of all groups were carefully examined and consolidated by the total class group, the following list was made concerning the meaning of core:

1. Core is the most important class.
2. We are all together in core.
3. It is the hub of our schedule.
4. Core is not a special subject but a tie-in of several.
5. When you speak of a grade you are speaking of core.
6. This is a place to improve subject that you can't get anywhere else in the program.
7. Core is the special center of the class.
8. Core is the combination of a number of classes.
9. Where we learn to think for ourselves and be more independent.
10. Where we learn a wide variety of subjects.
11. Where we get a background in world affairs and learn how to express ourselves.
12. Core helps us in choice of good literature, helps in grammar, creative writing, spelling, current affairs.
13. We learn to pursue our own interests.

In addition to this list the students accepted the following characteristics which were suggested by the teacher:

1. A block of time
2. Pupil-teacher planning
3. Problem solving approach
4. Guidance
5. Required of all
6. Evaluation
7. Fundamentals

Following the defining of the meaning of core, the class spent about half an hour in clarifying the meaning of democracy which will govern their group living throughout the quarter. Discussions centered around these principles: (1) democracy means freedom; (2) democracy means self-government; (3) democracy means differences of opinion; (4) democracy means tolerance and patience; and (5) democracy requires training and plenty of practice.
These principles were suggested by the teacher and whenever the class violates any of these principles, the teacher asked the class for self-evaluation in terms of these principles.

The next preparatory step for selecting a learning unit was to re-evaluate the criteria for choosing a unit, which the class had formulated a year ago. Four new ideas were combined with the previous criteria, and the following list of criteria was agreed upon and accepted by the class:

**The core unit should**

1. be what we need, not just what we want.
2. be something we haven't done before.
3. be interesting to all of us.
4. not be too broad or too narrow.
5. have enough resources; books, magazines, trips, films, radio, speakers.
6. not be too difficult or too easy.
7. be chosen from one of the 14 problem areas.
8. be able to use some of the teachers in art, music, science, etc.

With all these preparatory steps completed, the students began to suggest possible problems or units. About twenty possible problems were suggested and evaluated in terms of the criteria. Of these there were eight problems which seemed more promising for study:

1. What are the strengths and weaknesses of a democracy and the Russian form of government?
2. What should be the role of the United States in world affairs?
3. The problems of our city in running the government.
4. How can we build toward peace in "one world"?
5. Should we stop nuclear testing and what are the problems involved?
6. How can we better understand the religions of the world?
7. The problems of racial segregation.
8. How can we learn through international cooperation more about the earth?

Each student selected one of these problems for an exploratory study of its appropriateness as a unit of study. A form designed for recording
the findings of the exploratory study was provided by the core counselor. This form is shown in the Appendix E. The core counselor and the librarians worked very closely with students in their completion of the forms.

After a few days of individual exploratory study, the class was divided into eight groups in terms of the eight problems. Each small group had a series of group discussions as well as individual work. The core teacher and the librarians were frequently called upon by each group whenever their help was needed. As the groups were ready to report to the total group, one or two groups were scheduled each day to report. Each group report was followed by discussion. As the results of these small group reports and the discussions which followed, two problems were favored by the majority of students. They were the "Problems of Religions" and the "Problems of Racial Segregation." However, at this point the class learned that the ninth graders had already chosen a unit on "Comparative Religions." Accordingly, the class decided to study racial segregation and to postpone the unit on religions until the Winter Quarter.

When the class had finally decided on the unit "Problems of Racial Segregation," two and a half weeks time had already passed. During this period, of course, other core activities were also carried out. The description of these and other core activities will be presented later.

Before the class proceeded to plan for the unit study, each student was asked, as a home assignment, to submit a written self-evaluation in terms of the following items:

1. Describe how the process of choosing the unit looked to you. Illustrate your points.

2. What part did you play in the choosing? What do you think about how you operated during these 2.5 weeks?
The very next day after the class had selected the core unit, the librarian brought to class a truck of study materials related to the unit. Each student acted quickly to select materials best suiting to him. The class, at the beginning of the study of the selected unit, agreed that the purpose of the unit was to better understand the problems of segregation and to seek better solutions of them. As the students began to read, each student was to list specific questions and issues to be dealt with in the unit study. A total of 82 questions and issues were gathered, discussed, and classified into eight major aspects of the unit. These were (1) definitions of terms, (2) historical aspect, (3) scientific aspect, (4) educational aspect, (5) employment aspect, (6) social aspect, (7) civil rights aspect, and (8) housing problems. A continuous emphasis was to be placed on the solutions of the problems instead of stopping at the fact-finding activities.

The class decided to work on some of these problems on a total group basis and on others on a small group basis. First of all the class studied the definitions of the terms which frequently appear in the study. Several students served at different times as chairmen of the total class discussions. Whenever certain situations developed, the teacher reminded the students to evaluate their discussion procedures and to make needed changes. Segregation, prejudice, friendship, peace, human rights, freedom, and hatred were the major terms treated through the group discussions. In order to have better discussions, each student prepared a sheet of written definitions he had developed from dictionaries and other reading materials.
When the students agreed to try to symbolize these terms, an art teacher was called in to help the class learn more about symbolization. Two hours were utilized for the art teacher's instruction on symbols and for the symbolical drawings by the students. Meanings and harmony of colors, arrangement of the total picture, and levels of abstraction were the major considerations to be made in the symbolical drawings. The productions were exhibited on the bulletin boards, and each student was asked to make an oral and written explanation of his abstract drawing. As students expressed their interest in more abstract work (or symbolical drawing), a one-hour period was scheduled for each of two groups to work on this problem in the fine arts studio under the guidance of the art teacher. Students were divided into two groups to work at different times because the fine arts room is not large enough for all 28 students to work together.

While the discussion of the terms was being carried out, students had already begun to read about the history of racial segregation in the United States. The need for careful note taking when reading materials was emphasized. The discussion of the historical aspects of the unit followed almost the same pattern of group discussion as that used for the discussions of definitions of terms. Whenever a new word was used by any student he was asked to define the word for the class.

For the study of the scientific aspect of the unit, a science teacher was called upon to lead the class. Major emphasis in this aspect of the unit was on the "evolution of race." The problem of evolution was studied in terms of such causes as (1) overpopulation, (2) variation, (3) struggle for existence, and (4) survival of the best adapted by the natural selection.
The science teacher introduced various books and articles for the study. As the discussion proceeded there emerged a number of possible science projects to be carried out by individuals and in a group. Approximately 10 hour periods were used by the science teacher with this group, and this was the largest participation by a single teacher of special-interest areas. The major conclusions in the study of the scientific aspect of the unit was that genetically the human race is unique, and people do not differ from each other.

When the class realized that about two-thirds of the quarter had already passed and that five more aspects remained to be considered, the teacher and students re-evaluated their procedures and decided to work on the remaining aspects on a committee-work basis. Five committees were organized around the remaining five aspects: education, employment, housing, social, and civil rights.

It should be pointed out here that the librarian was also working on selecting materials as the unit work of the class was being carried out. As the result of the cooperative work with the core group, the librarian was able to make an annotated bibliography on the unit. She also supplemented the bibliography with her personal comments on the authors and the contents of the materials. Students were deeply impressed by the librarian's presentation, and they hastened to the library to get the books they thought would be valuable.

The committees used the work period for committee meetings and individual research, and, as the end of the quarter approached, they planned how to organize their group reports, how to present them and how to utilize their resource personnel. During this period of preparation for the culminating activities, the entire class met together for a few periods to
evaluate the work they had completed and to schedule the core activities for the limited remaining core periods of the quarter. Each student was asked to submit a written outline of the work he had done within the committee, and this was to be counted as a self-evaluation as well as the writing of an individual report.

A variety of methods of committee reporting included (1) panel discussion, (2) model Board of Education meeting, (3) model Senate Committee meeting on Civil Rights, and (4) symposium.

In relation to the housing committee report, the committee invited as a speaker the Executive Head of the Columbus Urban League. Before the speaker came to the class, the committee had prepared a series of 19 questions to be answered by the speaker. Following are three of these questions:

Is there a shortage of housing for negroes in Columbus?
During negro-slum clearance where do the negroes go?
Are there any laws concerning the rights of a negro to own property in a white neighborhood?

Two other speakers were also invited in connection with other committee reports: one is a news editor who has a special interest and experience in studying and reporting on segregation problems; and the other is a negro senior girl in the School who has had experiences in living in a white neighborhood.

The four films which were used in connection with the unit study are listed in Appendix F. In addition, charts were made, and maps were used. Besides the contributions made by the librarians, by a science teacher, and by an art teacher, the eleventh grade core teacher recommended to the class three references which she considered to be excellent. A
student interviewed her mother who is a public school teacher to find out the problems of public schools in dealing with mixed racial groups. More than 150 books and pamphlets were used by these eighth-grade students during the development of the learning unit. This number does not include many articles in various periodicals which were also used by students. For reference, the bibliography of these books and pamphlets is shown in Appendix F.

The final evaluation of the unit study was made after all the committees had completed their reports. The final evaluation period was divided into two aspects: one for written evaluation and the other for oral evaluation. The teacher prepared the evaluation sheet which included the following questions:

1. We planned to cover the history, scientific background, current problems, and solution. Do you think we covered these satisfactorily? Explain your answer.

2. How well do you feel the following topics were covered. Did you learn much about each? How could they have been improved?

   - Housing
   - Employment
   - Education
   - Social discrimination
   - Civil Rights

3. On the back of this sheet answer this question — How well have you performed (reading, speaking, writing, listening,) during this quarter's study?

   The oral evaluation which was made by the total group was initiated by the teacher who raised question about how the students thought they achieved the purpose they had set up at the beginning of the study. The discussion covered their planning, individual work, group work, resource materials and persons, timing, and organization. While favorable comments
were made by the students concerning the resource materials and resource persons and some of the individual group activities, the following represent their suggestions for improvement.

1. Some aspects of the problem received too much time and energy of the class resulting in the sacrifice of other equally important aspects.

2. Each committee was too independent from the others.

3. Even in a given committee each individual played his role separately, and there was little integrating effort as a group.

Following the evaluation, students were required to return all the materials to the library. The following is the core counselor's evaluation of the Autumn Quarter's study of the eighth grade students.

EVALUATION OF AUTUMN QUARTER'S STUDY

Strengths in Planning:

1. Taking time to re-define core. It helped new students adjust and re-emphasized for those who were still a bit vague the purposes of core.

2. Using and revising last year's criteria resulted in economy of time and evaluation of criteria.

3. A more direct approach in helping students understand the difference between a problem and an issue.

4. Working in groups to investigate possible unit studies without regard to a special interest in the study was good self-discipline. Most of the class thought it challenging to try to put forth much effort in investigating a study they weren't initially attracted to.

5. Increasingly able to think for themselves and 'stand up and be counted' when a controversial issue was involved.

25Reported by Jane Stewart, the eighth grade core counselor of The Ohio State University School, Columbus, Ohio. She also provided valuable information for the writer to use in his description of the core activities of the eighth grade.
6. The final struggle to set up the whole year's work resulted in students' better understanding of when and how to compromise. They became more insightful as to the difference between compromising in order to move ahead and compromising when a principle is involved.

7. They had many opportunities to struggle with the problem of choosing between good and good and how different this is from choosing between good and bad.

Strengths in the Development of the Study:

1. Scope was identified and modified as the study developed.

2. Art experiences helped students state their emotional reaction to problems of segregation.

3. Work with the art teacher helped students understand the principles involved in good bulletin board display.

4. Speakers and resource persons were carefully prepared for in advance.

5. Real involvement in the problem was shown by group reports such as the one presented by the education committee when they simulated a school board meeting in a small southern town, created the type of community, presented the problems in such a situation and possible solutions. The audience found themselves, too, involved in role playing during the discussion period.

6. Intelligent use of visual aids during reports—made charts, used maps, board, films.

7. Much evidence of individual growth, social sensitivity on the part of the total group, and an increased desire to learn. Learning really became respectable.

8. Increased depth to the thinking of specific individuals and the group generally.

Weaknesses in Autumn Quarter's Study:

1. Boys too vocal; tended to dominate discussions.

2. Scope rather unrealistic but in spite of this they covered an amazing amount of material and plumbed the depths.

3. Frequent repetition of the same points.

4. The distinction between arguing and discussing not clear to many, especially the girls who would often label a heated defense of a position as an argument.
5. A number of the group felt it was a mistake to modify our basic plan as conceived in the beginning of the study. They revealed a rather inflexible attitude.

6. Teaching use of the Reader's Guide would be better placed in the seventh year. A few individuals had been instructed by the librarian or the teacher prior to this year.

General Comments:

1. Intellectual curiosity increased amazingly in this group.

2. They became increasingly able to share materials intelligently instead of hoarding good books.

3. There was general improvement in moving quickly and quietly to a new activity.

4. They were introduced to and handled very well the "buzz" session technique.

Social Activities

Another important activity that the eighth grade core group and the core counselor planned, carried out, and evaluated was a party for the seventh graders. This party was held for the purpose of orienting the seventh graders to the junior high school. The project was suggested during one of the class business meetings in the middle of October. Some of the planning took place during the class business meeting periods, but most of the work was carried on outside the business meeting periods.

The students wanted to have a theme for the party which could be followed in decorating the party room and in carrying out all activities. Six possible themes were suggested by the students and the teacher; these were examined in terms of possibilities of visualizing them in the decorations. Through democratic procedures the class decided to have the theme "Two Thousand Leagues under the Sea," which was the title of a book by Jules Verne. Since all students had read this book, they knew what
they could do with this theme. The stage was designed as an underwater
cave and the surrounding scene portrayed a typical underwater scene. The
entrance to the party room was designed to resemble a bookcover for the
book and the program also was tied in with the theme.

For the party, six committees were organized: (1) Entertainment, (2)
Name Tags and Invitations, (3) Lighting, (4) Records (music), (5) Refresh­
ments, and (6) Decorations. Each committee had its own responsibility
for that aspect of the party, but practically all students contributed to
all committees by suggesting new ideas to other committees and by making
articles to be used by the Decorations Committee.

The Entertainment Committee worked closely with the Music Committee
in order to have a well-organized entertainment program. A twenty-minute
"floor show" was planned and carried out by the committee under the
guidance of the core counselor. Obviously, the show was closely related
to the theme. The Committee for Name Tags and Invitations made the name
tags in various shapes which were appropriate to the theme; they prepared
and delivered an invitation to the seventh graders. At the party, this
Committee also served as a reception committee. The class president and
the social chairman, who served as host and hostess of the party respective­
ly, also greeted the members of the class and their guests at the door.
The committee invited the parents of four students to serve as "chaperons." It was the responsibility of the committee to make sure that the chaperons
were having an enjoyable evening. In addition to the chaperons, other
parents attended the party. The students appeared to enjoy having them.
The Lighting Committee worked with a related arts teacher in selecting
for and placing the spotlights. The work of putting up the lights had
to be done after school because the room used for the party was scheduled for use by other classes during the school day. The Music Committee consulted a music teacher concerning the selection of music appropriate to the theme. The Music Committee also worked with a related arts teacher in learning how to operate the record player which is in charge of this teacher. Since this record player is very sensitive and expensive, students need to be specially trained for using it. The Refreshments Committee worked closely with a home economics teacher in planning the menu and in preparing the refreshments. The Decorations Committee worked closely with a fine arts teacher in planning and executing the decorations for the party room. Various kinds of model fish and undersea plants were made by the entire class with some work being done in the classroom, but with most of it being done at home.

The whole class carried out a research project in science in order to learn about the characteristics of the underwater world. Some of the model fish made by the students were so well done that a science teacher requested the class to exhibit them in the science class.

Preparation for the party continued for slightly more than three weeks although only about 13 hours were actually spent in preparation. They party was held in the evening, and, in the writer's judgment, it was very successful.

On the day after the party, the class met for an evaluation. Special emphasis was placed on finding out what was good or bad, why it was good or bad, how to correct or further improve social activities. Each committee led the evaluation discussion on the part of the event for which the committee had taken responsibility for both the preparing and conducting of the party.
As an indication of appreciation for the party, the seventh grade sent a "Thank You" note to the eighth grade and the seventh graders planned a return party for the eighth graders during the Winter Quarter.

As their part in the Thanksgiving Day celebration the class participated in the High School Assembly. The Christmas season is usually a big event for all classes, but the eighth grade of 1958-1959 school year realised that their unit study was under time pressure because of the nearness of the end of the quarter, and they decided to have a simple party lest the unit study be interfered with unduly.

**Free Reading**

Free reading in the eighth grade is usually scheduled at the beginning of each core period which follows the physical education class. As each student arrives in the core room from the physical education class, he begins to read immediately. As students read books of their own choosing, the teacher spends the time in individual guidance. Sometimes this period is only a few minutes long, at other times it may be more than an hour long depending on the teacher's judgment. On the average 20 to 25 minutes daily are devoted for free reading.

Although the core teacher and the librarians play significant roles in guiding the reading of the students, great emphasis is placed on the mutual assistance provided to students by other students when desired. In one of the written self-evaluations, a student wrote, "I have broadened my reading experience quite a lot, with the help of other boys."

An analysis of the reading records of the eighth graders for the Autumn Quarter of 1958 indicates that the number of books read by
individual students ranges from four to a maximum of 35 books. An average student read about eight books during the quarter. More than 90 per cent of the books read were fiction. According to the core teacher and the librarian, most of these students can read at the average level of the eighth grade or higher, but there are a few who read at a level lower than the eighth grade.

**Creative Writing**

As indicated earlier, four hours a week are scheduled for the language program at the eighth grade. In this language program, the creative writing aspect of the core program is included. Since the nature of the experimental language program was explained previously in this chapter, it will not be repeated here.

**Class Business and Assembly Meetings**

The class spends a one hour period weekly for class business. The primary purpose of this meeting is for self-government by the use of democratic procedures. The following outline illustrates the typical process of the class business meeting:

1. Call to order
2. Reading of the minutes of the previous meeting
3. Treasurer's report
4. Old business
   - Evaluation
   - Proposals and decision making
5. New business
   - Proposals
   - Discussions
   - Decision making
6. Adjournment
During the Autumn Quarter, the major problems discussed and acted upon during this business session were the planning of parties and money-making projects, discussions of self-discipline, and discussions of the problems related to the Student Council. Several students were elected by the class either as representatives to the Student Council or to some subcommittees of the Council.

The eighth-grade core counselor participates in the business meetings, and she structures the meeting somewhat whenever it becomes desirable because of students violating some democratic principles. However, there was one time when a more structured meeting was held. In this structured meeting, the ninth grade core teacher who also served as a faculty representative to the Student Council during the quarter was invited to participate and to give his expert guidance in conducting a democratic business meeting.

The eighth grade students also participated in three high school assembly meetings. The first one was in relation to United Nations week, the second dealt with election, and the third was concerned with science. On each occasion, different persons spoke to the entire student body of the Secondary School.

**Guidance and Counseling and Miscellaneous Activities**

As far as informal and incidental guidance is concerned, the entire period devoted to the core is a continuous process of guidance. However, in this section the more or less formal and organized guidance and counseling activities will be described.
The core period of the first day of the Autumn Quarter was entirely devoted to orientation and to the selection of electives. The core counselor announced the appointment of the new Director of the School, and students were informed that in relation to this they were going to be involved in some experiments. Two new students were introduced to the class. Procedures for reporting tardiness and absence were explained.

Making choices among the arts electives was an important problem and took more than an hour. Four teachers representing the courses of related arts, home arts, vocal music, and science came to the class and each of these teachers gave a brief explanation of the nature of the course, its schedule for the school year, and the limitation of the number of students to be enrolled in the course. The explanation was followed by questions and discussion. Special attention was given to securing a balanced grouping of students among these four courses in so far as the balancing could be achieved without disregarding the interests and needs of any student. Moreover, each student was asked to secure the agreement of his parents to his choice.

The library orientation activity was also a significant experience for the eighth grade core group. A two-hour period was set aside for this activity. The assistant librarian showed the class a film strip concerning the methods of effective use of the library. Along with the showing of the film strip, the assistant librarian made supplementary illustrations and answered the questions of the students. Following the instruction, the class moved to the library in order to gain experience in the actual use of the library. The head librarian also joined the group during this period which lasted for an hour. During this time the library
was closed to students in other grades. Procedures in using the Reader's Guide and in locating books, articles, stories, poems, movies, and plays were practiced by each student.

In order better to guide students in their selection for free reading, the Iowa Silent Reading Tests were administered. On the basis of the results of the tests, interviews were held by the core counselor with most of the students. Helping students understand their own strengths and weaknesses in reading and providing for means of improvement were the consistent purposes of the counseling during the free reading period.

During the Autumn Quarter there were three special behavior problem cases, and for each case a comprehensive parent-teacher conference was called. One student who had manifested aggressive behavior was referred to a staff member whom the staff considered to be well qualified for handling such problem students. Another student was referred to an expert in the University Counseling Center. In these two referral cases, the two students continued their work in the normal classroom situation. There was no feeling of “being singled out” as problem cases on the part of the two students as they were living and learning together with other students. The establishment of very close cooperation among the core teacher, parents, and the professional counselor in helping these students, is regarded chiefly as the responsibility of the core counselor.

In an attempt to help students develop self-understanding and in order for that the core counselor better to understand her students, an hour period in the quarter was devoted to having each student write what he thought about himself. These writings served as important data for guidance and counseling of individual students.
RESEARCH AND EVALUATION

The awareness in recent years on the part of the University School faculty and other College of Education staff members of the need for re-emphasizing the experimental function of the School may be said to have given a new impetus to the vitalizing of research and evaluation activities of the School. The research and evaluation activities are cooperatively planned and carried out by the total faculty as well as by various study groups. In all of these staff study groups the Director of the School serves as an executive head for directing the studies. The total faculty, which meets regularly once a week on Wednesday afternoon, deals with planning and evaluation of the whole School, including the kindergarten through grade twelve. To this faculty meeting committees or study groups report their findings, comments, or recommendations for further examinations by the total faculty.

There are various studies being carried out by the staff study groups during the school year 1958-1959. A research specialist from the Bureau of Educational Research and Service in the College of Education serves as a consultant to some of the study groups.

The Committee on Creative Learning is now conducting a study of creativity for the purpose of determining the nature and process of creative learning and eventually to propose a program conducive to the development of creativity.

The study group on values is working (1) to find out values held by the students as well as by the teachers; (2) to determine value conflicts in the changing culture; (3) to determine the process of value-development; and (4) to determine what works best in helping students develop the values on which the School is based.
The Committee on Evaluation of the Secondary Program is primarily seeking ways of providing both a wide variety and depth of learning experiences. Careful examination of economy of time and methods of guiding the learning of the students is expected to result in a proposal for curricular reorganization of the Secondary School.

Additional studies being carried out by other study groups include (1) improving individualized reading; (2) a study of sex differences of boys and girls in their adjustment to the School; (3) an experimental language program; and (4) a study of the gifted in science.

In addition to the studies carried out by the staff study groups, one member of the School staff works as the chief investigator of a study called "The Identification and Development of Talent in Heterogeneously-Grouped Students in a General Education Program at the Secondary Level." This study is cosponsored by the United States Office of Education and The Ohio State University. The primary purposes of the study is (1) to develop a more adequate concept of talent and (2) to develop a general education program designed to further the identification and development of talents.

While all these studies are directly or indirectly related to the evaluation of the core program, a significant group for evaluating the core program is that of core counselors which meets regularly once every two weeks. In evaluation and planning, the group of core counselors uses all available data collected by each counselor such as counselor's observations, various student records, counselor's individual note book for guiding core activities, and problems encountered by each counselor. The grade staff for each of the six secondary school levels meets at least
once a quarter. This group is responsible for evaluating the core program in its relation to the total program of that grade.

ASPECTS OF THE SCHOOL'S PROGRAM NEEDING FURTHER CLARIFICATION

In reviewing the program of the School, the writer was impressed with the high quality of the program as a whole in terms of a democratic philosophy and modern principles of learning. However, as is likely to occur in any school situation, there are certain practices which appear to be somewhat contradictory to the stated philosophy; these practices should be reexamined by the faculty in terms of the theoretical bases for the program. The practices concerning which the writer raises some questions follow:

1. Is the School justified in continuing the use of the statement of the philosophy and purposes of the School which was made in 1944?

2. Does the monograph entitled How Children Develop published in 1949 by the faculty provide satisfactory information concerning student growth and development for planning the curriculum?

3. Is it consistent with the philosophy of the School to adopt the practice of having a language arts specialist use three or four hour periods per week of the core block of time for teaching language arts in little relationship with the on-going learning unit?

4. Is it consistent with the philosophy of the School to continue to require American history outside the core rather than integrating it into the core?

5. Is it necessary to offer such elective courses as World Cultures and World History rather than integrating them into the core?
6. Is it adequate to allot only one and one-half hours for the core in grades ten, eleven, and twelve?

7. Does a single mathematics course required of all students in the ninth grade provide adequately for individual differences?

8. Is it consistent with the philosophy of the School to require a course in French for the seventh grade students; moreover is it desirable to schedule such a course during the last half of the lunch period?

9. Is it consistent with the philosophy of the School to permit superior students to enroll in University courses in advance of high school graduation if they so desire?

10. Is it desirable for any core teacher to ignore the problem areas which were set up by the faculty?

11. Is the School justified in having so few pre-planned materials for the core?

**PRINCIPLES TO BE EMPHASIZED IN DEVELOPING A CORE PROGRAM**

On the basis of the discussions and the findings which have been presented in Chapters III, IV, V, and the present one, the writer has been able to draw out what seemed to him to be the principles which are in use in the University School for developing a core program. These principles will serve as the continuing points of emphasis in the plan which will be proposed in the following chapter for programs in the campus laboratory secondary schools of Korea. These principles are as follows:

1. The core program strives directly for the attainment of democratic values and of the purposes of the school which were cooperatively arrived at and formulated by the total staff.
2. The core program recognizes that adolescent needs and problems are personal-social in character and strives to identify them and make them the bases for curriculum development through a carefully conducted study of adolescents.

3. The general scope of the core program is indicated by the problem areas which are formulated on the bases of (1) the identified common, persistent needs and problems of adolescents, (2) the democratic philosophy and purposes of the school, and (3) the modern concept of human growth and development.

4. The core program transcends subject-matter boundaries and is organized so as to utilize all fields of knowledge necessary to solve a particular problem.

5. The core program provides for close cooperation among the members of the faculty in different areas through their planning and working together.

6. The core program facilitates integration of various learning in the students.

7. The core program provides a sufficiently large block of time for a variety of activities such as group discussions, library activities, field trips, laboratory experiences, social activities, free readings, creative writing, home-room activities.

8. The core program is so organized that individual and group guidance become an integral part of the core.

9. The core program provides for cooperative teacher-student purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating in developing learning units in order to enable students to grow in the democratic way of life.
10. The core units provide intrinsic motivation for learning on the part of the learner by making possible a direct attack upon the problems of his own concerns.

11. The core program helps each individual to identify, create, and extend his own interests.

12. The core program is not isolated from the special-interest areas but is the unifying center of the total school program.

13. Contributions of special interest area teachers are an essential factor in the successful development of the core program.

14. The core program utilizes a comprehensive evaluation program which is consistent with the purposes of the program.

15. The core program requires sufficient space, facilities, equipment, resource materials, and teaching aids for effective achievement of the purposes of the program.

16. The core program requires competent teachers who have sufficient training and experience for assuming those responsibilities required in carrying out the program successfully.

17. The core program requires administrative provisions for continuous research and evaluation activities as well as appropriate in-service training of the teachers for continuous improvement of the program to meet the needs of the society and of the adolescents in this rapidly changing world.

18. Interest and initiative of administrators are essential factors in carrying out a successful program of core-program development.

19. Awareness by the whole faculty of the need for development of a new curriculum is the starting point for initiating a program for developing the core program.
20. Establishment of a free flow of ideas regarding proposed change cannot be overemphasized in developing the core curriculum.

21. The planning of the core curriculum should involve participation of the entire group of faculty members, students, and parents.

22. A small-group approach to the problem with proper consultant help from experts seems to be more satisfactory than involving the entire group in the early stages of the development of a core program.

23. Leadership assumed by the administrators should be such that it will facilitate a sense of security, belonging, and achievement in all those who participate in or are concerned with program development.

24. Reducing the college entrance requirements to the minimum is highly desirable for experimenting with a new curriculum.

25. Development of the core program in a school should be in harmony with the improvement of total conditions of the school.
CHAPTER VII

A PROPOSED PLAN FOR DEVELOPING CORE PROGRAMS
IN THE CAMPUS LABORATORY SCHOOLS OF KOREA

In this chapter the writer proposes a plan for developing core programs in the campus laboratory secondary schools of Korea, using as the basis for the proposed plan the discussions presented in the preceding chapters which dealt with the present situation of Korean laboratory secondary schools, the theoretical foundations of general education, the principles of developing a core program, and an analysis of the core program of The Ohio State University Secondary School. As indicated in Chapter I, this proposal is not intended to be a complete plan for such schools, but should be regarded as a promising hypothesis to be tried out in the real situation.

In the discussion regarding the Korean laboratory schools it was pointed out that the programs of the several schools are rather similar. Accordingly, the writer will not attempt to present a detailed proposal for each of the laboratory schools, although schools will be referred to for illustration. Instead, the writer will present rather general ideas and suggestions on the assumption that each individual school will adopt these ideas and suggestions, will interpret them, and will implement them in terms of the school's unique situation.

The goal of this proposal is the development of the core program based on structured adolescent problems, or a Type-V Core as defined by
Alberty. This type of core, the writer assumes, could be very helpful in promoting education for citizenship in a democracy.

A PROPOSED PLAN FOR DEVELOPING THE CORE PROGRAM BASED ON STRUCTURED ADOLESCENT PROBLEMS

An essential assumption in initiating a program involving the changing of a curriculum is that the school administrators and teachers can be made aware of the need for such a curriculum change. Therefore, if one is desirous of effecting curriculum changes, a logical first step would be to provide opportunities for administrators and teachers to increase their professional visions to such extent that they will see new challenges and possibilities for curriculum changes.

Providing In-Service Teacher Education

A rigid, traditional, subject-centered curriculum has long been rooted deeply in the thinking and practice of most Korean secondary school teachers and administrators. This tradition has prevented them from recognizing a need for any drastic curriculum change which would eliminate subject-matter boundaries. It was pointed out in Chapter II that, except for a few teachers in the Ewha Women's University Secondary Schools, teachers in the Korean laboratory secondary schools are much like the teachers in other Korean schools in that they all are somewhat content with highly specialized subject teaching. This means that one may not even be able to find in any of the secondary laboratory schools a single administrator or teacher who has adequate understanding of the nature of the core program or is sufficiently stimulated to initiate a program for
developing such a curriculum in his school. If this is the case, it may be necessary for faculty members of the colleges of education to participate in providing the needed motivation for laboratory school teachers and administrators to organize themselves for a purposeful and continuing in-service program of curriculum study.

As a concrete first step, a college faculty member who is a curriculum expert might visit the leaders of a laboratory school for the purpose of arousing their interest and helping them understand new approaches to curriculum organization. Appropriate persons to contact would include the principal, the vice principal, curriculum coordinator, and teachers who are especially interested in a study of curriculum. The curriculum expert might hold a seminar in core curriculum development for seniors and graduate students in his college of education and specifically invite the school officials and interested teachers to participate in the seminar.

When through the seminar and other personal contacts these key officials of the school have broadened their professional visions and have created an interest in this new educational venture, they can plan purposefully to provide for the other staff members appropriate experiences to stimulate their interest in a study of curriculum. It should be re-emphasized at this point that interest and activity on the part of the administrator are basic requirements in any project involving curriculum change. For it is the administrator on whom will fall the responsibility of providing suitable reference materials, ample time for the study, an adequate place in which to meet, and most important, moral support to teachers as they undertake such a study and follow through on changes which appear to be needed.
In order to help teachers arrive at certain basic ideas and principles involved in modern curriculum theory, the following activities might be found to be helpful: listening to lectures; taking part in workshops; participating in discussion groups involving at times the entire faculty and at other times only a small group of staff members; and viewing films or film strips which illustrate procedures followed in some core programs. At the beginning, films and film strips might be imported and used in a translated form until such time as it is possible to produce appropriate materials using the Korean language.

These in-service activities should provide for staff members opportunities to familiarize themselves with (1) current theories of and issues in secondary-school curriculum; (2) principles and practices in core programs; (3) democratic values and purposes of education; (4) democratic group procedures; (5) current theories of adolescent development and learning with emphasis on the findings of research studies in adolescent psychology; (6) principles and practices of guidance and counseling; (7) general method of classroom teaching with special emphasis on problem-solving techniques; and (8) principles and practices of educational evaluation.

The learning experiences of the staff members in these areas may become more meaningful if the in-service education activities are closely tied with and enriched by proper practicums in terms of the staff members' readiness and interest. For instance, individual teachers may be encouraged to make a limited number of case studies in their classrooms as a project in connection with a study in guidance, adolescent psychology, or evaluation. Another practicum might be centered around developing a
set of criteria for evaluation of the present curriculum practice of the school, with the expectation that the criteria be used for actual evaluation of the school's program as a step toward curriculum reorganization.

The in-service education activities during the earliest stage should be planned to serve two distinctive purposes: (1) to promote professional growth of the staff members and (2) to create awareness of the need for curriculum change.

As soon as the staff of a school has passed through this introductory stage of in-service education, the administrators and teachers should be encouraged to enrich further their learnings by using their knowledge in cooperative planning, executing, and evaluating activities which are appropriate to ultimate adoption of the core program. Great opportunities for professional growth are inherent in such cooperative activities as (1) evaluating the educational program of the school; (2) conducting a study for the purpose of formulating a democratic philosophy and the purposes of the school; (3) conducting a study of adolescent needs and problems; (4) formulating problem areas; (5) developing resource materials; (6) planning for and developing learning units; (7) developing an evaluation program; (8) making provisions for integrating guidance, home-room, extra-curricular activities, and other related activities into a well-organized core program, and (9) providing programs of orientation to the new curriculum for students, parents, and general public as well as for teachers in other schools. Thus in-service teacher education should be a dynamic, purposeful, and continuing process of self-education on the part of the staff members as they strive cooperatively and creatively for continuous improvement of the educational program of the school.
It should be remembered, in launching a program of curriculum change in a school, that consultation with curriculum experts is highly desirable for efficiently carrying out such an enterprise; however, the consultants should always serve as consultants and should not be allowed to direct this enterprise. Direction by experts is likely to result in loss of interest, initiative, and creativity with consequent loss of a sense of responsibility on the part of the school staff. Curriculum workers generally agree upon the principle that a curriculum change should emerge from within the school instead of being imposed from outside.

The same principle applies to the administrators of the school in establishing working relationships among the staff members within the school. The administrator needs to be skilled in motivating each individual teacher to take active part in the various in-service programs as well as in the program for curriculum change. Teachers cannot be forced to move in the direction of change with as much speed as the administrator may sometimes wish. This is true because teachers are human beings who need to receive recognition and respect, need to have a sense of belonging in the school environment, and need to feel secure in the school situation; and moreover, teachers, like pupils, are different in regard to interests, aptitudes, and capacities.

Unless the administrators recognize these needs and differences and make provisions to meet them, it will be almost impossible to create the harmonious and constructive working relationship so necessary for the effective operation of a cooperative enterprise for improving the school program.
In connection with the in-service teacher education of the Korean laboratory school teachers, the writer strongly recommends that the Graduate Schools in Korea should provide increased opportunities for teachers to pursue their graduate study in education toward advanced degrees. As indicated in Chapter II, the present policy of the Ministry of Education is merely to require for promotion that teachers accumulate the required number of hours of participation in any kind of official in-service education program. This type of plan does not provide for the individual teacher a program which is as integrated as if he were working on a graduate course in education designed for an advanced degree. Since the in-service programs are segmented and do not carry any academic credit, it will never be possible for such programs to satisfy the needs of career teachers for advanced study.

Encouraging teachers to enroll in a graduate school is especially important for teachers in laboratory schools. They should be given the opportunities to continue working for advanced degrees as long as the on-going program of the laboratory school is maintained. By increasing the number of teachers with advanced degrees, the status of the Korean laboratory school teachers can be changed from that of high school teacher to a status parallel to that of the college faculty member. In addition, by providing the laboratory school personnel the same privileges enjoyed by the university faculty, it might be possible to bring about temporary assignment of laboratory school members to the college of education and of college staff members to the laboratory school. Such assignment of faculty members from college teaching to laboratory school teaching and vice versa would provide benefits to both the laboratory school program and the programs of
teacher education in the college of education. In schools in which such a policy exists, it is possible to do a much better job of integrating ideas, research, principles, and practice than can occur where there are separate policies for the teachers of the laboratory school and for the college staff. Only thus, can the laboratory school rightfully function as a research and experimentation center, as a demonstration school, and as an exceptionally good secondary school.

In addition to the in-service education program which is primarily designed for the purpose of familiarizing the entire staff with the principles and practices used in developing a core program, provisions should be made for those teachers who are specially interested in teaching core classes to broaden and deepen their knowledge in various subject areas which have a bearing on the contemporary problems of living. The core program which is based on adolescent problems does not follow any subject-matter lines but cuts across all areas of knowledge through use of the problem solving approach. Therefore, it is very important for a teacher of a core class to have a broad background. In the study of literature concerning core program and in a case study of the core program of The Ohio State University Secondary School, the writer found that the competency of the core teacher is the most important factor in determining the success of the core program of any school. The writer recommends that, in selecting teachers to be assigned for teaching core classes, schools give consideration to the characteristics of a good core teacher as described in Chapter IV.

While many of the suggestions the writer has presented in the preceding pages require a long period of time to carry out, there are many
things which the staff of a school can undertake as they work toward the development of a core program.

Surveying the Present Situation

When, through in-service programs, the staff members have reached a point where they are able to develop an acceptable list of evaluative criteria for a school program, they are ready to proceed to a program of curriculum reorganization. In order better to clarify what needs to be changed and how it is to be changed, an over-all evaluation of the school's program becomes a necessary step. Such an evaluation is usually done satisfactorily by a small group of teachers aided by the contributions of each individual teacher. A listing of the criteria supplemented by specific questions may be effectively utilized as a questionnaire to be filled out by each teacher.\(^1\) The results of such a study can effectively be used as a basis for a meeting of the entire faculty for the purpose of evaluation.

If staff members can already see the obvious inadequacies or lacks in their present program in terms of modern principles and practices of secondary-school curriculum, it may be unnecessary to spend the time and effort necessary to make a complete evaluation of the educational program. Instead, a few faculty meetings may serve the purpose satisfactorily. In either case, it is advisable to make a list of major changes to be made. It is also advisable to list possible blocks or difficulties which appear likely to be encountered by the staff engaged in introducing a core program. Such lists of needed changes and blocks are helpful for the staff in planning for insightful and realistic solutions of the problems.

\(^1\) For an excellent example of the criteria for evaluating a school program see Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing The High-School Curriculum*, pp. 529-536.
One of the most important purposes of an evaluation of the present program is to highlight for the staff members an awareness of the need for curriculum change, a need which has already been created through other forms of in-service education. With the broadening of the professional vision of the staff and with the results of the evaluation of the program, the administrators and the staff members are well prepared to take steps to help parents, students, and the public recognize the need for taking positive action to improve the school program.

In connection with the evaluation of the present program of the school, the staff should make a comprehensive survey of the school's situation. Such a survey should cover the adequacy and availability of facilities, equipment, and reference materials for use in operating a core program. A committee of a few teachers may be able to carry out this survey of equipment and materials if they are aided by contributions of all other faculty members. The same group, or another group, may be assigned to make a similar type of survey of the community to find out available resources for use by core classes.

On the basis of the results of these investigations of resources in the school and in the community, individual teachers should be encouraged to suggest additional resources which must be sought and additional facilities and equipment which must be purchased. In Korea, it is the responsibility of the principal to present to officials of the college the budget needed for developing an experimental program. If a laboratory school does not secure additional funds immediately, the faculty should then decide what steps can be taken immediately and what has to be postponed until money is available. Since the staff cannot foresee in advance
all materials which will be needed, a reserve fund should be set aside for the meeting of unanticipated needs as the school operates the core program.

Reconstructing the Philosophy and Purposes of the School

While one or two committees are working on the investigation of school and community resources, another committee may be assigned for reconstruction of the school's philosophy and purposes. And it is entirely possible that a group of teachers might have already started to formulate a new philosophy and purposes for the school during the period of introductory in-service education. If such is the case, re-assigning these staff members with necessary addition of other members is advisable. In either case, the work of the committee on purposes should be supplemented and enriched by the participation of the entire faculty through both individual and group situations. Since each individual staff member is to assume the responsibility for implementing the philosophy and purposes of the school in his unique role of carrying out the educational program, involvement of all members of the staff is of utmost importance in formulating the philosophy and purposes of the school.

Since, at the present time, all Korean laboratory schools have their own statement of the philosophy and purposes, each school may well begin to reconstruct the existing statement by evaluating it with criteria which will have been developed by the faculty. Criteria for this purpose may be developed from educational literature and from statements of purposes developed by other schools. In the statement of the philosophy and purposes of The Ohio State University School and of other schools and in professional literature appear valuable suggestions which could be
utilized by Korean schools in developing criteria of evaluating the
purposes of a school. As an example, the writer presents the following
criteria drawn from the statement of the philosophy and purposes of The
Ohio State University School: 2

A statement of philosophy and purposes of a school should include
or reflect

1. the ideals and values of democracy interpreted and arrived
at cooperatively by the entire faculty.

2. the characteristics of a democratic society and the democratic
personality based on the comprehensive analyses made co­
operatively by the faculty.

3. the interpretation of the democratic ideals, of the character­
istics of a democratic society, and of the democratic person­
ality into the general and continuing points of emphasis to
be made in all aspects of the school program.

If the staff desires to draw upon statements of other schools, it is
advisable to use several such statements so that objective comparisons
would be possible and so that important factors might not be omitted.

Since several procedures of formulating philosophy and purposes were
presented in Chapter IV, it is not necessary to repeat them here. However,
it should be pointed out that the writer has indicated in that chapter
that to him the most promising procedure is the one based on the study of
democracy, its basic ideals and values, and the characteristics of personal­
ality desired for a democratic citizen. The writer also indicated in
Chapters IV and V that this procedure was originated by the Committee on
the Function of Science in General Education of the Progressive Education
Association and was later used extensively by the faculty of The Ohio State
University School in developing the School's philosophy and purposes.

2 The Faculty of The Ohio State University School, The Philosophy and
Purposes of the University School.
Whichever procedure may be adopted by the Korean laboratory schools, it is strongly advised that each staff member be given opportunity to study the procedure to get a clear meaning of the philosophy and purposes the entire faculty has formulated and their implications for curriculum development. Through the experience of participating in the formulation of the philosophy and purposes of the school, each staff member should feel that he himself is responsible for the completed statement and that he is dedicated to realizing the purposes through his guidance of students' learning. It is also recommended that the statement of philosophy and purposes formulated cooperatively by the entire faculty be expressed in simple terms. But it should include suggestions for specific learning activities to be carried out by each teacher as he works at implementing the purposes of the school.

Such statement of philosophy and purposes of the school should not be regarded as final, but it should be subject to further revisions as the faculty sees the needs for this. The revision of a statement of philosophy and purposes should be based upon the evaluation of it in terms of its comprehensiveness, its practicability for conducting a school program, and its validity in the rapidly changing contemporary world.

**Determining the Curriculum Structure**

Even though a laboratory school decides to adopt a Type-V Core, still there are other things which have to be decided upon in organizing a general education program in the total school curriculum. The first principle to be remembered in this instance is that the secondary school is responsible for providing common democratic citizenship education for
all students as well as special interest education according to the special needs, interests, and abilities of students. It should also be remembered that the core program is not isolated from the special-interest areas but is the unifying center of the total school program.

The core program should be given major consideration in planning the total program, because the core is, by its distinct nature as explained in Chapter IV, the basic area for providing common democratic citizenship education which is the primary purpose of secondary education. A survey of literature and the study of the core program of The Ohio State University Secondary School revealed that in practice a block of time ranging from one-third to one-half of the school day is allotted to the core program, with a three-hour block of time usually allowed for junior high school grades and a two-hour block of time for senior high school grades. The difference in length of core period between junior and senior high schools is often explained by a generalization that students in the senior high school grades need more electives in special interest areas than is the case in the junior high school grades.

In this large block of time allotted for the core should be integrated the activities including unit study, free reading, creative writing, class business, and social activities. Guidance and counseling program should be an integral part of the core program throughout these activities.

It is doubtful that Korean laboratory secondary schools could allot a two-hour block of time per day for the core program in the senior high school grades under the present college entrance requirements. A series of experimental studies would be needed before the Korean laboratory senior high schools can determine the amount of time which could be safely
scheduled for the core in the senior high school grades without jeopardizing the students' admission to colleges. Sympathetic cooperation of colleges and universities will be necessary in order to carry out even a small-scale experiment relating to the use of a large block of time for the core program.

In the junior high school level, however, the situation can be easily improved. First of all, the barrier of entrance examinations to senior high school can be removed by accepting most, if not all, junior-high school graduates to the senior high schools in the system without requiring any traditional entrance examination. At the present time, the majority of new students accepted by each of the laboratory senior high schools in the Korean colleges of education are from the junior high school in the same large system in which the senior high school is also one unit.

When this barrier of entrance examinations is removed and when the competency of the core teachers is improved, the laboratory junior high schools should be able to allot a three-hour block of time to the core. Since the schools would be operating on an experimental basis, they would not be required to conform to the national curriculum standards. In fact, the schools should be able to explain, if such explanation is necessary, that the core program plus other required or elective courses meets the standard time schedules for separate subject matters and that while the subject matter is presented in a different form it is in essence equal to or better than the traditional organization.

Since, at junior high school level, at least a total of 34 hours per week are required for the prescribed subjects, allotting 15 hours per week still leaves 19 hours per week for other required or elective courses.
The writer attempted to make a tentative weekly schedule for junior high schools on the basis of the Seoul National University Junior High School program of 1958 presented in Table IX in Chapter II. The tentative schedule is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Courses</th>
<th>Hours per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Core program</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required mathematics</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required English</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required physical education</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts electives</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>35</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the tentative schedule, the writer assumed that five hours for national language, five hours for social studies, four hours for natural science, and two hours for extra activities can be given to the block of time for the core. A total of seven hours for separate subjects of music, fine arts, and vocational subjects can be reduced to five hours per week for an arts elective. Three hours can be added to the present two hours per week for physical education to strengthen physical education so as to make it an integral part of the general education program. Mathematics will remain as it is now with five hours per week time allotment. Justifications for having a five hours per week time allotment for English required of all students are as follows:

1. At the present time, practically all high schools require students to take English language five hours per week on an average.

2. English language is becoming the predominant language in the international scene.

3. Most of the western cultural influences on the lives of the Koreans are through English language.
4. Most of the laboratory secondary school students desire to enter colleges in which mastery of English is essential to read professional books written in English. Since professional books written in the Korean language are scarce, students who lack the ability to read English are seriously handicapped in receiving full benefits from a college education. However, in the future when more and more professional writings in Korean language will have appeared, this situation may be somewhat changed.

For the senior high schools, a total of ten hours to be allotted to the core may be secured by combining hours scheduled for Korean language (five hours), general science (two hours), ethics (one hour), and extracurricular activities (two hours). Korean history may be required at the tenth grade for four hours per week instead of spreading it over two years for two hours per week in both eleventh and twelfth grades. This would leave 25 hours for the tenth grade students and 29 hours for each of the other two grades to be used for electives. The remaining courses may be organized as elective courses with more emphasis on those courses which are closely related to college entrance examinations in so far as the elective emphasis does not seriously destroy the balanced program of the school. It is also recommended that most of the elective courses be offered to students from three senior high school grades according to the interests, abilities, and special needs of students instead of offering certain subject matter electives for each grade. Thus the electives program can become a meaningful tool in providing for individual differences.

The proposal for time allotment for courses in laboratory senior high schools was with reference to the program of the Kyung Book University Senior High School as presented in Table X in Chapter II.
Developing Problem Areas

Procedures utilized for developing problem areas are various and by no means simple. However, there is a common element among various practices, i.e., any procedure of developing problem areas must discover common problems or needs of the adolescent in the school and classify them into broad categories of human living.

Studying the common problems of adolescents. As indicated in Chapter IV, adolescent problems or needs are personal-social in nature. Accordingly a study of adolescent problems must include a combination of these two approaches: an approach to determine the needs felt and expressed by adolescents themselves and an approach to determine those needs which many adolescents are not yet aware of but which are considered by the mature persons to be persistent in society.

A survey of the literature concerning adolescent growth and development is considered as a commendable start in determining common problems or needs of adolescents. On the basis of such a study, a check list or questionnaire may be constructed for use to determine common problems of the adolescents in a particular school or community. Or check lists developed for use in many communities may be used by schools.

However, the teachers in Korean secondary schools may lack adequate reference materials on check lists based on Korean youth. But it is the opinion of the writer that, even though there are significant differences between problems of the American adolescents and the Korean adolescents, there are more similarities than differences in problems faced by adolescents of both countries in the contemporary world crisis. Accordingly, the literature of adolescent studies and instruments produced in the
United States for use in making studies of adolescent problems offer invaluable guidance to the Korean teacher if he is making a similar study. At least, the literature and available instruments should provide suggestions concerning the methodology of conducting such studies and concerning the development of appropriate instruments.

The writer recommends that many reference books be provided for the Korean secondary school teachers to be used for their studies of adolescent problems. Since the majority of teachers cannot comprehend books written in English, it is advisable that such books be published in translated form or that digests of them be provided in the Korean language. These books are included among those listed in the bibliography of this report.

For constructing instruments for surveying adolescent problems by Korean educators, the writer recommends that the following be used for reference:


Even if such instruments are not available, teachers can secure valuable information from students, parents, and other faculty members through the use of open-ended questionnaires. A group of students under the direction of a teacher may well be able to identify their common problems through a series of group discussions. The same procedure may be used for groups of parents and for groups of teachers. In any procedure, it is necessary for the participants to understand clearly adolescent problems and needs.
The findings of such a study as "An Analysis of Disciplinary Cases in Secondary Schools" conducted by the members of the Central Education Research Institute of Korea has certain contributions to the study of adolescent problems. Teachers, themselves, may also desire to make case studies for this purpose. It is highly recommended that faculty study groups on adolescent problems use available consultant services of experts in the field.

**Formulating problem areas.** When the common problems of adolescents have been determined, the staff may proceed to establish and organize the problems into areas. Since the problem areas, by their nature, provide the general scope for the learning experiences of students in the core, the first criterion to be met in formulating problem areas is that they should be in harmony with the philosophy and purposes of the school. Other desirable criteria to be applied are those of Lurry and Marani which were presented in Chapter IV. It seems to the writer that a promising procedure to use in classifying the problems of adolescents is that of adopting the major categories of living originally used by the Committee on the Functions of Science in General Education. These major categories are (1) Personal Living, (2) Immediate Personal-Social Relationships, (3) Social-Civic Relationships, and (4) Economic Relationships.\(^4\) The adoption of these major categories of living for the classification and organization of problem areas proved to be successful in the core program of The Ohio State University Secondary School.\(^5\) A careful examination of

\(^4\)The Committee on the Function of Science in General Education, op. cit., p. 27 and also V. T. Thayer, C. B. Zachry, and Ruth Kotinsky, op. cit.

\(^5\)See Chapter V and VI.
The Ohio State University Schools 14 problem areas by the faculty group may provide helpful suggestions. However, as has been consistently emphasized by the writer, professional growth of the faculty members through the process involved in formulating problem areas is essential if the established problem areas are to be used effectively in selecting learning units. In the early stages of developing a core program, the learning experience gained by the faculty members are more important than the final statement of the established problem areas.

**Determining Sequence in the Core**

Serious problems will be met in determining the sequence for the core program because of these two facts: (1) teachers in Korean laboratory secondary schools have been entirely conditioned by the deep-rooted traditional teaching of specific subjects which provide a definite sequence to follow and (2) students in these schools have had no experience in active participation in determining the content of the learning experiences to take place in the classroom. Therefore, it is suggested that the problem areas be allocated among the several grades so as to give teachers a feeling of security which might not result if this were not done. This step was taken early in The Ohio State University School when it was developing a Type-V Core. However, it is recommended that, as soon as the students and the core teachers have gained enough experience to be able to select learning units with confidence, the classes be given freedom to choose learning units from any problem area as long as the units meet the basic criteria of unit selection. These basic criteria of unit selection,

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6 See Chapter V.
it is hoped, would be somewhat similar to the ones used by the core classes of The Ohio State University Secondary School.

Procedures which might be effectively utilized in determining sequence were discussed in Chapter IV. A promising procedure for Korea is to determine the sequence by the frequencies of responses of students in different grade levels to the common adolescent problems.

While the "pegging" of problem areas for different grade levels does not in itself provide a definite sequence in terms of specific learning activities in core classes, experienced teachers are usually well aware of the maturity levels of students and may be able to assist in determining the sequence for activities selected from the resource units.

However, the consideration of the problem of sequence should not be so extensive as to hinder the creativity, emerging needs, and initiative of the learners and the core teachers. This is true because the core program assumes and emphasizes that intelligent teacher-student planning can direct learning according to the natural sequence of adolescent development and experiences. Before this assumption can be safely accepted by the Korean laboratory schools, a great amount of time and effort must be devoted to familiarizing both the students and the teachers with the basic principles, procedures, and skills in democratic group work. Among the essential conditions of intelligent teacher-student planning are a permissive classroom atmosphere which will be conducive to a free flow of communication, respect for the opinions of others, the scientific or problem solving attitude, the ability to express one's ideas clearly, the skills needed in making group decisions.
Developing Resources for Use in the Core Program

The problem of determining direction and content of activities from a simple list of problem areas might be a crucial source of insecurity for the Korean teachers who are only familiar with subject teaching, just as might be the problem of determining sequence in the core program. This is likely to occur because the core deals with broad and comprehensive problems which cannot be solved by the use of a single source or subject matter area, but which require a vast reservoir of information involving as many aspects of human living as the problem area represents. In this sense, provision of resource materials becomes a crucial problem to be faced at the very beginning of the core program in Korea. The problem of resource materials is usually met by securing the cooperation of the entire faculty in the development of resource units or resource files.

There are two major benefits which the teachers in Korean laboratory schools may expect to get from developing resources for their own use in the core program. One is the help the core teachers will receive from the resources themselves as teachers guide students in the development of learning units, and the other is the professional growth of the teachers which results from the process of working together in the development of resources. Accordingly, an effective program of developing resources would be one which would maximize these two anticipated benefits.

The nature of resource units and resource files and the procedures used in developing these resources have already been discussed in Chapter IV and VI. Since the resource files are usually developed as the core teachers go through the experiences of guiding units of study, the resource files in the Korean laboratory secondary schools will not be
very extensive for use until their core programs have operated for a few years. Since this is true, a possible approach to the preparation of resources in the early stage of the core program development would be the construction of resource units.

Since there are no resource units available for use by the Korean laboratory schools in the core program, it will be necessary for the teachers to develop the resource units they will need. This is highly desirable for in-service education purposes, since teachers, being directly involved in the construction of resource units, will be better able to understand the educational possibilities involved in each of the problem areas and become familiar with what might best be done in the core classes. Developing a well-organized resource unit, however, is not a simple job for teachers who have never had such experiences. Therefore, it is desirable to secure consultant help in preparation of resource units. Moreover, developing a resource unit is properly the task of more than one teacher and should involve the cooperative efforts of teachers representing several areas of knowledge.

The writer indicated in Chapter IV that a formal resource unit should include (1) introduction, (2) philosophy and purposes of the school as well as the objectives of the particular unit, (3) scope of the unit, (4) suggested activities, (5) bibliography and teaching aids, (6) suggestions for evaluating pupil progress, (7) implications for units to follow, and (8) suggestions for the use of the unit. These sections and the order in which they are listed are only a suggestion and will not need to be followed exactly by Korean laboratory school teachers. Until teachers have had sufficient experience in working with the core program so that they
are able to publish well-organized resource units for use by teachers in other schools, informal resource units may well be used to meet immediate needs. Such informal resource units need to include only (1) objectives of the particular unit, (2) scope of the unit, (3) suggested activities, (4) bibliography and teaching aids, and (5) suggestions for evaluating pupil progress.

It is likely that the teachers will have worked on the formulation of the philosophy and objectives of the school, on adolescent problems study, and on the development of problem areas before they start on the development of resource units. If this is the case, they should already have examined and become familiar with many materials which can be used in developing resource units. For example, the philosophy and purposes of the school (expanded to include its continuing points of emphasis) provides a basis for determining the objectives of a problem area. If the problem areas are well-organized with specific problems of adolescents included under each problem area, these will provide valuable information for determining the objectives and the scope of the particular unit. The results of the surveys of the school facilities and community resources must be fully utilized in determining reference materials and teaching aids appropriate to the unit. Thus, it is highly desirable that the faculty work through the entire procedures of preplanning for the proposed core program carefully utilizing for the next task the materials which resulted from previous aspects. In this connection, it is desirable to organize and keep all worksheets for each step so that they may be used as resources for the next step in pre-planning for the core and they may be used as resources for evaluating and revising the core program in the future.
In organizing a faculty for the purpose of developing resource units, it has been found effective to assign a few teachers to assume leadership in developing a resource unit but instructing them to call upon other members of the faculty for whatever type of participation is needed. Since a faculty cannot develop many resource units in a short period of time, those resource units which are needed first should be developed first. Furthermore, it would be desirable at the outset for the faculties of the four Korean laboratory secondary schools to provide mutual help in developing resource units which are appropriate to two or more schools. However, the writer recommends that eventually each faculty develop resource units for all of the problem areas for the school's core program.

The administrators of the schools have the responsibility of providing materials for teacher use and consultant help when needed. It is highly recommended that samples of resource units be imported and translated so that the teachers become familiar with the nature of resource units and thus secure ideas for developing their own resource units. In addition, reference books dealing with resource units should be made available for use by the Korean teachers. Such reference books are included in the bibliography at the end of this report.

Since the Korean laboratory schools do not have sufficient materials for effective operation of the core program, it is likely that the instructional materials suggested in a given resource unit used in America may include items which are not available for the Korean school. Accordingly it is advised that the administrators of the school make all available arrangements with the University to which the school belongs and with agencies of the community for obtaining the needed materials. If it
appears to be necessary, the administrators should attempt to secure those materials and teaching aids, including films and world-wide magazines, from outside the country through various foreign agencies.

Each group assigned to develop resource units should be composed of a core teacher(s) and teachers representing special-interest areas. The importance of including special area teachers in development of resource units was discussed in Chapters IV and VI. The faculty members outside the resource unit committee may be asked to comment in general on the work of the committee and in addition they may be asked to prepare for the committee a list of suggested activities and teaching aids which they think would be appropriate for the particular unit.

Any resource unit cannot be considered complete but must be revised as the world changes and as the teachers gain experience. Accordingly, it is advisable to reserve spaces in each major section of a resource unit for possible revisions.

In using resource units in the core program, the teachers should be well aware of the fact that resource units do not prescribe the exact content or procedures to be followed by the teachers in guiding learning units. They should understand that the function of a resource unit is to serve as a vast reservoir of information. Core teachers will use this information to clarify the problems and issues involved in a given problem area and from it they can also obtain suggestions for a variety of activities, of techniques for evaluation, and of instructional materials to be used in developing a learning unit within the broad problem area. Accordingly, the core teachers should be advised not to rely on the resource units to such an extent that creative endeavor of the teacher-student planning is lost. Resource units can provide suggestions for creative
teacher-student planning but should not replace it, because the activity of teacher-student planning in the core program provides very important learning situations for developing democratic citizenship.

If resource units are to be used effectively, the units must be well organized and administered. The school library is an appropriate place for locating all resource units. The librarian, alone, or in cooperation with the core teachers, should be responsible for organizing and indexing all available resource units—those developed by the school's faculty and those secured from outside sources.

**Developing Learning Units**

It was pointed out in Chapter IV that learning units are not like a lesson plan and that they cannot be developed in advance of teaching. Rather, they are descriptions of the process in which the teacher and students plan, execute, and evaluate cooperatively to solve the common problems of the students in the particular class. In Chapter IV was presented a discussion of the superiority of learning units over the traditional recitation method in providing rich experiences for learning. Because of this and because of the nature of the problem areas and resource units, schools using the Type-V Core have deemed it desirable to adopt the learning unit approach as the method of conducting classroom activities.

Introducing into the traditional classroom the learning unit approach is not an easy task. Even with the help of resource units, teachers who have never had experiences in such a unit study may experience a lack of direction. Moreover, students who have never been given the responsibility of participating in planning their own work in school will undoubtedly be perplexed and might even resist such a classroom procedure. Parents,
too, may indicate their disapproval. All of these probabilities indicate that the launching of learning units in the classroom situation should be preceded by a solid pre-planning of the core program, by adequate prepa-
ration of the core teachers, by suitable orientation of students and parents to the core program. Therefore, it is desirable to determine the readiness of a school or a class for this type of program before undertak­ing it. The following twelve criteria are but a few of the important ones which could be applied before undertaking a core program:

1. Does the core teacher understand clearly the purposes of the core program in relation to the philosophy and purposes of the school?

2. Does the core teacher understand clearly the meaning of the problem areas?

3. Is the core teacher able to visualize the educational possibilities involved in the problem areas?

4. Is the core teacher well aware of the content of resource units and of intelligent ways of using these unit?

5. Does the school provide the minimum essential resource materials suggested in the resource units?

6. Does the core teacher have a broad background of knowledge in the several subject areas which have a bearing on the contemporary problems of living?

7. Does the core teacher have a sound understanding of adolescent growth and development, and, especially, of the problems, needs, and interests of his students?

8. Does the core teacher show a genuine interest in the core program and does he have confidence in this general method of classroom procedures?

9. Through the programs of in-service training, did the core teacher become familiar with the procedures of teacher-student cooperation in developing learning units?

10. Do the special area teachers recognize the importance of the core program, and are they willing to cooperate with the core teachers in helping students solve their problems?
11. Are the students interested in experimenting with the idea of democratizing their learning activities in the classroom using all the available materials including several textbooks as references instead of using a single textbook?

12. Do the parents generally agree with the school in experimenting with certain promising ideas of improving education of their children, and are they interested in cooperating with the teacher in guiding students to become responsible democratic citizens?

These criteria obviously presuppose favorable administrative provision for carrying out various activities which will promote the readiness of the school as a whole for the effective operation of the core program.

As previously indicated in this chapter in connection with the proposed in-service education program for Korea, films which demonstrate successful democratic procedures of developing a learning unit may be a helpful aid for orienting students and parents as well as teachers to this type of educational program. However, oral and visual demonstrations do not solve the problem. The core teacher and his students are responsible for improving their competency through planning, working, and evaluating together in order to solve common problems of the student.

In the early stages of the core program development, the classroom procedures may be desirably structured by the teacher in the direction of democratic procedure more frequently than after the students have gained considerable experience with learning units. The teacher may need to organize the class for discussion of democratic ways of working and help students develop democratic principles of group work. Such activities as selecting a topic for a unit study, deciding on a class project, and discussions of controversial issues provide excellent situations for learning the principles and techniques of democratic group procedures. The following
generalizations as presented by Alberty may help teachers in guiding students in group discussion:

1. The issues should grow out of the evolving learning situation.

2. The discussion should be so planned and organized as to bring out as many differing points of view as possible.

3. Good discussion requires that problems, words, and terms be clearly defined.

4. Good discussion requires that pertinent data bearing upon the issues be available and utilized in arriving at decisions.

5. The discussion leader should try to secure the widest possible student contributions to the discussion.

6. Good discussion requires that decisions of individuals and groups be respected.7

It should also be remembered in adopting for a regular class the learning unit approach that students need fundamental orientation to the method of self-study in which a variety of reference materials are used for solving certain problems. For those students whose method of study has been to master knowledge in the various subject-matter areas, it is not an easy task to define a problem and attempt to solve it by oneself. A well-trained librarian should be available to cooperate with the core teachers in helping students make wise use of library materials.

Much participation of the special area teachers should be secured in developing learning units because relating special area teaching with the core class is of utmost importance in integrating learning of students in the total school program. Since much of the authentic information concerning world affairs appears in magazines written in the English language, a core class might require help from an English teacher in order first to translate the information into Korean so it could be used in solving

certain problems. This could effectively be done by inviting the English teacher to the core class for the purpose of helping the students translate and discuss an article in English which contains valuable information related to a problem on which the class is working. If there is evidence of a need, the schedule of an English class might be altered in order that students' work be related to the core for a few extra periods. The same procedures obviously apply to other special interest classes.

Other Activities in the Core Block of Time

If one assumes that the core program is responsible, among other things, for facilitating communication skills including reading, writing, speaking, listening, it follows that guidance in these aspects is an indispensable part of the core program. A major part of guidance in developing these communication skills is provided as part of the on-going process of a learning unit. When a student presents his point of view on a controversial issue, when he listen carefully to others, when he reads for information pertinent to his purposes, and when he write a report, he finds excellent opportunities to improve his language skills under the wise guidance of the core teacher.

In addition, students' learning in these skills is further enriched by their free reading, creative writing, and sharing with other students what they have read or written. The core teachers should seek the co-operation of Korean language teachers whenever it appears to be necessary. Because of the fact that all classes in the Korean laboratory schools are twice as large as is considered desirable by most of the core program experts, it is recommended that Korean language teachers be assigned to collaborate with the core teacher in the language activity aspect of the core program.
Community service projects such as a school-community "clean-up" campaign, a money raising drive for helping orphanages, and field trips to help busy farmers are all socially valued student activities in Korea and provide opportunities of learning if carried out by students under the guidance of the teacher. Educational values are to be found in recreational activities such as a class party, inter-class party, a party for parents, and other gatherings on special occasions. Such recreational activities in heterogeneous groups should contribute greatly to the students' growth in better human relationships. This is especially desirable for the Korean students since their relationships with teachers, students in other grades, parents, and other adults are lacking in permissiveness.

**Integrating Guidance and Counseling into the Core Program**

As has been discussed in Chapters IV and VI, the core program based on adolescent problems is largely concerned with personal and social adjustment of adolescent students, and many of the guidance activities are carried out by the core counselors as part of the core program.

As was pointed out in Chapter II, the Ewha Women's University Secondary School is the only school which during the school year 1958-1959 had a professionally trained counselor. While the Ewha Women's University Secondary Schools may best use the contributions of the counselor for promoting the guidance function of the core program through cooperative planning and working on the proposed core program, it does not follow that the core teachers do not need to have additional training in the principles and techniques of guidance. Because of the unique function of the core teacher to help each student make satisfactory personal-social
development in the large core block of time, the core teacher's competence in techniques of counseling and group guidance is an important factor in qualifying him as a core counselor.

Since, as indicated in Chapter II, a new guidance movement in Korea is beginning to be recognized by both teachers and administrators, opportunities for orienting the teachers to modern principles and techniques of guidance activities are numerous. In the opinion of the writer, the laboratory schools may better compensate for the lack of guidance specialists by training their core teachers intensively for guidance work through in-service programs than by trying to secure a specialist from a field which has a very limited supply. This is not to say that the core program does not have a place for a guidance specialist but rather to emphasize that the core teachers cannot perform their job satisfactorily unless they are able to handle the group and individual guidance situations which occur in the core classes.

Many of the guidance activities may be carried out by the core counselors through the on-going process of core activities. Some learning units may be directly related to the educational and vocational guidance activities. Among the common problems which face Korean adolescents are those of (1) adjusting to the school, (2) selecting vocations and colleges, (3) making available themselves for compulsory military services, (4) understanding oneself and others, and (5) adjusting to the family living. Thus, activities to solve these problems constitute excellent learning units in which well-planned guidance in both group and individual situations becomes the center. In every learning unit, there exists a need for skilled guidance conceived broadly as long as the unit study involves problem solving situations for students, individually or as a group.
Even though core counselors are able to assume major responsibilities related to guidance and counseling in the core program, it is not likely that they would have the time or the ability to function as competently as professional counselors or psychiatrists in dealing with serious problem cases. Accordingly, it is advisable that the laboratory schools establish a functional relationship with the professional psychologists and psychiatrists in the universities to which the schools belong, so that the core counselors may refer special cases to them. In such relationships, it might be possible for the core counselors to learn more about theories and techniques of guidance and counseling.

Providing for Evaluating Pupil Progress in the Core Program

In Chapter IV, a general discussion concerning principles and procedures of evaluating pupil progress in the core program was presented. These general principles and procedures are applicable to the Korean laboratory secondary schools. Teachers and students in the laboratory schools as well as those in other Korean schools are not familiar with the measurement and appraisal of such intangible aspects of growth as attitudes, appreciations, ability to use the method of intelligence, and personal-social adjustment. All of these aspects of pupil growth are important and need to be included in the evaluation of the core program.

Student self-evaluation. Student self-evaluation of their work in terms of its objectives is not only considered to be important but is also considered to be an integral part of the core program. The objectives are established cooperatively by the teacher and students and these objectives for a learning unit or for a class project then serve as criteria for evaluating both the procedures and the outcomes of the work.
Discussions regarding evaluation by small groups of students as well as by the total group and various forms of written evaluation are techniques of student self-evaluation which are as available to Korean teachers as to American teachers. Discussions for the purpose of evaluating the work of the group may well be conducted by students, but the core teacher should be alert to sensitize students to the objectives they have established and to keep before them their major questions to be answered in such group evaluation procedures. The following questions illustrate the type which should be emphasized in a student group evaluation of its core program:

1. What were the objectives of the work?

2. Has the group done the work well in terms of the objectives?

3. Were the plans comprehensive and realistic?

4. Did the group employ appropriate procedures for solving the problem?

5. Did the group work democratically?

6. What was unsatisfactory in the work, and why and how could this have been improved?

For written self-evaluation, students may be asked to write freely about the work carried out with each student doing this as he sees fit. Or it can also be handled by having the entire class of students decide on questions which each individual student should answer in giving his own reactions and comments concerning the effectiveness of the work done by the core class. Such individual evaluation should include both over-all evaluation of group work as well as an evaluation of his own contributions and growth. A more structured technique than the two just described is the use of a self-evaluation rating scale which might be developed by the core teacher or by a group of core teachers.
Teacher evaluation of student progress. Comprehensive resource units include specific suggestions for evaluating student progress in that particular broad unit or in the specific problem area. Techniques which may be used by teachers can be classified into two major groups, the administration and use of (1) informal techniques and (2) formal instruments.

Among the informal techniques of evaluation of student progress are (1) analysis and appraisal of creative writing and written reports, (2) teacher observations of student behavior in both formal and informal situations, (3) use of sociometric devices, and (4) use of simple forms of teacher-made tests.

Through an analysis of a student's paper or creative writing, the teacher can collect data for evaluating the student's progress in writing skills, in values, and in ideas. If a teacher keeps a cumulative record of his observations of student behavior, he will find that such a record contains invaluable data for evaluating changes in student behavior. Teachers are able to appraise the social status of individual students by analyzing student reactions to such questions as "With whom would you like best to be on a committee?," "With whom do you like best to play?," and "Who is your most trusted friend?" If such devices are used at regular intervals, changes in social status of students may be assessed.

In order to secure some measure of the ability of the students to generalize, the teacher might ask them to list a number of generalizations which can be drawn from their unit study. Through setting up hypothetical problem situations, the teacher can obtain information about such characteristics of students as attitudes, values, beliefs, and ability to solve problems. Traditional type pencil and paper tests may be used to determine
the gain made by students in information, understandings and skills.

Additional information to use in evaluating the progress of students may be sought by asking students to evaluate or comment on books, articles, films, and other materials used in their study.

There are at the present time only two formal instruments of evaluation which could be used by Korean schools in the core program. As indicated in Chapter II, these are one intelligence test and one interest inventory. Obviously additional standardized achievement tests need to be constructed for use in all schools. Such standardized tests should be developed to cover not only traditional subject areas but also such aspects as beliefs, values, interests, problem solving, and appreciation. These aspects, often referred to as intangibles, are not confined to any single subject area but are especially appropriate to core program.

Grading system and reports to parents. When a school adopts the core program, questions related to the problems of marking (grading) and reporting to parents are bound to arise. Schools having a traditional subject-centered curriculum generally use the traditional marking system (numerical or letter grades) for each subject area. Since the core program cuts across several subject areas, this causes difficulties for schools desiring to maintain the traditional grading system. This problem of grading may be even more serious in the Korean schools than in the schools of United States, because Korean high schools and colleges require separate grades for the different subjects and in addition very often require that the class rank of a student be included in an application for entrance to these schools and colleges.

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8 For illustrations of such instruments designed for evaluating intangible aspects of human development, see E. R. Smith, R. W. Tyler and the Evaluation Staff, op. cit.
It was pointed out that The Ohio State University School does not assign a mark (grade) for any subject but instead sends letters to parents and arranges for teacher-parent conferences for the purpose of reporting to parents. A statement explaining the School's grading system accompanies the School's evaluation data of a student who applies for admission to a college or university. This reporting system could appropriately be applied to the Korean laboratory schools provided the cooperation of other high schools and colleges is secured for the laboratory schools as they adopt these experimental programs. In the writer's judgment, such cooperation may not be very difficult to secure as long as the experimental schools evaluate the progress of their students in the core program as objectively as possible and maintain the traditional grading system for the special-interest areas. In practice, most high schools and colleges regard the results of entrance examination tests given by individual high schools and colleges as the most important factor for selecting students and the schools tend to give only minor consideration to the student records submitted with the application blanks.

Regardless of the attitude of other institutions to this type of marking and reporting, core teachers should be encouraged to write informal letters to parents reporting the progress being made by the students. Such informal letters, provided they are carefully written, can convey much more meaningful information than mere marks or grades. Through informal letters, a teacher can easily indicate the specific things on which he desires special cooperation of parents. Letters to parents are especially helpful in encouraging parents to come to the school to talk with the teacher about their children.
It is also advisable that the core teacher arrange at least one teacher-parent conference a year with the parent(s) of each student. Such a teacher-parent conference provides excellent opportunities for two-way communication between the teacher and parents and enables the teacher and parents to develop realistic understanding of the student in order to provide better guidance for the student. In a teacher-parent conference, the core teacher might be able to secure participation of the student's special area teachers; if this is not possible he could at least gather information in advance about the student from these teachers to use as needed in the conference.

Continuous Evaluation of the Program of Developing the Core Curriculum

The same principles which are basic to cooperative evaluation by the teacher and students of their learning units apply to the evaluation of the over-all program of the school's core curriculum development. Of course the total faculty endeavor in the establishment, carrying out, and evaluating of the core program throughout a total school is much broader than the efforts involved in a single classroom. However, in the sense that both situations use the problem-solving approach which requires continuous reconstruction of experiences, the evaluative procedures employed in both situations are essentially the same. Evaluation of both procedures and outcomes of the core curriculum in terms of the cooperatively established philosophy and purposes of the school is an essential part of the program. This continuous evaluation implies the dual necessity for seeing the goals clearly and then gathering evidence concerning the extent to which the goals are being achieved.
The criteria for appraising the procedures of developing the core program and the criteria for evaluating the existing core program were discussed in Chapter IV in some detail. These criteria are applicable also to evaluation programs for the Korean laboratory schools.

IMPLEMENTING THE PROPOSED PROGRAM

In the preceding section of this chapter were described the steps which need to be taken if the Korean laboratory secondary schools are to develop eventually the core program based on structured adolescent problems, or the Type-V Core. However, many of these steps may not be undertaken immediately and many of those which may be started will require considerable time for realization. For instance, a series of in-service education programs for orienting all faculty members to the principles and procedures of developing the core program may not be done satisfactorily in one year without interrupting the on-going process of the programs of the schools which now exist. Developing adequate resource units for a dozen problem areas may require several years. Collecting a large amount of resource materials requires both money and time. Implementation of the proposed program described in the preceding section may be considered in two ways: (1) the immediate and intermediary steps to be taken to initiate the program and to get it under way and (2) the long-range plan for ultimate development and strengthening of the program.

Launching the Core Program

Changes in points of view and attitudes of school personnel must come before any change in school program is attempted. In this sense, in-service education programs for both administrators and teachers of the
Korean laboratory schools should be the first step in the program of developing core programs in these schools. And such in-service programs should be continued even after the school has successfully developed the core program. Much time is needed for professional growth of the faculty members and verbal learning and opportunity for practice should be provided in an actual situation. Accordingly, as soon as the faculty members have become aware of the need for reorganizing the curriculum and begin to show interest in wanting to reorganize, they should start with re-constructing the philosophy and the purposes of the school. At the same time that they are involved in formulating a philosophy and purposes of the school, the faculty may begin to determine contemporary problems of adolescents. The period from the very beginning of the reorganization of the school, to the approval by the total faculty of a statement of the school's philosophy and purposes can be as short as one semester. It should, of course, be understood that the speed with which the Korean laboratory schools achieve these beginning steps may vary from school to school according to the unique situation of each school.

After a semester or two of general preparation, the faculty of a school might test its convictions by experimenting with the Type-III Core which retains subject lines. For this experiment an overarching theme for a given grade will need to be decided upon through the cooperative planning of the staff members for that grade. Then the unit should be organized in terms of Korean language, history, geography, general science, etc., and taught by subject-matter area teachers. Through this intermediary program, teachers may learn how to cooperate with teachers from other areas, and they will have the opportunity to teach students without following the
organization of a given textbook. At the same time students might also be encouraged to take more responsibility to use the problem solving approach rather than to follow strictly the organization of textbooks.

The faculty of another school, possibly one of the Ewha Women's University Secondary Schools which have already adopted a broad field approach for social studies and science, might want to experiment with the Type-IV Core. If this is the case, Korean language and social studies and/or science might be combined into a long block of time for the core, and such a course might be organized around a central theme or a unifying theme based on the major problems of adolescents or on a sequence of social studies. In this type of core a coordinating teacher would teach the course in cooperation with the other teachers who represent the subject areas combined in the core.

This proposal for adopting a policy of "gradualism" is made for the purpose of helping teachers and students achieve a smoother transition from the traditional subject-centered curriculum to the Type-V Core. During the transition period the faculty will have time to carry out an overall plan for developing the proposed core program based on structured problem areas. However, the writer recommends that as soon as they have developed the problem areas and resource units, the new core program should be put into operation without delay because unnecessarily prolonged intermediary steps have in some cases resulted in the abandonment of the ultimate plan even before it was put into operation.

When beginning to experiment with the Type-III or Type-IV Core it would be desirable to select only one or two classes of a certain grade to be used as experimental group(s) while the other classes of the same
grade level serve as control groups. After one or two years of experimentation, the faculty will need to compare the development of students of the two groups (experimental and control) through the use of various evaluative techniques.

Provided that the faculty has completed developing the school's purposes, problem areas, and resource units and provided that the core teachers and the students in the experimental group(s) have indicated their readiness for experimenting with the ultimate plan, the faculty might want to put the Type-V Core into operation for the class(es) which served as an experimental group(s) during the intermediary period. Or, at the junior high school level, a faculty might want to adopt the core program for the whole school. The faculty of a school (junior or senior high school) might well decide to maintain both experimental and control groups during the period when the school is experimenting with the Type-V Core in all three grades. Still another school might first adopt the new core program for its first grade (the seventh or tenth) extend this to include all three grades as the students progressed to the third grade of the school (ninth or twelfth).

Whichever implementing process a school might adopt, the entire faculty should continue to emphasize the principles of developing the core program and of the democratic group procedures which were presented in Chapter IV.

Long-Range Plan for Training Teachers for the Core Program

In the first section of this chapter, the writer emphasized the need for improving competency of the laboratory secondary school personnel for
effective operation of the core program as well as for satisfactory performance of the experimental and leadership functions of the laboratory secondary schools. For this purpose the writer has proposed that the university authorities provide opportunities for the staff members of the laboratory secondary schools to pursue work for advanced degrees in education and should provide the opportunity for these instructors to raise their professional status so that they will have equal status with the university faculty. The writer, of course, realizes that there would of necessity be a period of debating and planning before even the first step could be taken toward the fulfillment of these proposals.

In connection with the problem of improving the qualifications of the laboratory school teachers, the present programs of the Korean colleges of education must also be improved. As indicated in Chapter II, not a single college of education in Korea at the present time has a program for preparing core teachers. If the core program should be adopted not only by the laboratory secondary schools but also by the ordinary secondary schools of Korea, it is inescapable that the faculties of the Korean colleges of education would have to reorganize their teacher-education program to meet this need. Competencies needed for successful core teachers were described in Chapter IV, and from such a description of competencies the scope of a program for preparing core teachers may be inferred.

The following generalizations concerning the current programs of preparation for core teachers in selected American teacher-education institutions might be a help for the planners of teacher education in Korea:

1. Most of the programs have been organized to provide preparation for the wide variety of types of core program in current use in the secondary schools, e.g., correlation, unified studies, contemporary problems, and adolescent problems and needs.
2. All of the programs assume that the prospective core teacher should have help in securing special competencies not ordinarily associated with the teaching of separate subjects.

3. All of the programs provide for broad preparation in the major fields of knowledge commonly drawn upon in the core.

4. All of the programs provide for some professional instruction which is directed specifically toward core teaching.

5. Most of the programs assume that it is necessary to be more highly selective among students who wish to prepare for core teaching, than it is among those who expect to teach in conventional programs.

6. Most, if not all, of the programs for preparing core teachers are transitional in nature. That is, they are organized within the general pattern of teacher education utilizing existing resources that are not always particularly well adapted to the preparation of core teachers.

7. Most of the programs for preparing core teachers are adversely influenced by rigid state certification requirements.

8. All of the programs aim to prepare prospective teachers for service in core programs and usually in at least one subject field.

9. About half of the programs are organized at the graduate level and lead to an advanced degree.

10. There is among those reporting a general recognition of the need for a basic reorganization of teacher education offerings to meet the need for thorough preparation for core teaching.

In establishing programs of preparing core teachers in the Korean colleges of education, the most serious problem will doubtless be the lack of professional instructors in the core curriculum. In order to solve this problem, the writer recommends that a group of people selected from faculty members of the colleges of education and of secondary schools be sent to those American teacher-education institutions which have outstanding programs of preparing core teachers. Upon their return to Korea

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9The Committee on Preparation of Core Teachers, op. cit., p. 71. For illustrations of selected programs for preparing core teachers, see Ibid., pp. 51-71.
after successfully completing their study in the United States, they
should be assigned to work in the programs of preparing core teachers in
the colleges of education. Since at the present time, Korea invites a
group of American professional educators to Korea every year, it would be
even more desirable than sending Korean teachers to the United States to
arrange for a group of core curriculum specialists from the United States
to teach the selected educators in Korea where they could have ample oppor-
tunities for conducting practicums. Such a program would enable the
American team of core curriculum specialists to serve also as consultants
for Korean schools in their development of the core program.

Even if it is not possible to work out an arrangement for bringing
specialists from outside the country or for sending a selected group of
Korean educators abroad, there should nevertheless be some provision to
train specialists in the field of core curriculum. This may be done by
encouraging the present college instructors in the field of curriculum to
organize seminar groups for self-improvement.

In view of the fact that the graduate schools of Korea provide very
limited programs for only a highly selected few educators, most of the
programs of preparing core teachers might need to be carried out at the
undergraduate level. If this is the case, it is desirable to select promis-
ing students at the end of their sophomore year and encourage them to
pursue the remaining two years the programs of core-teacher education. How-
ever, the writer strongly recommends that graduate schools be expanded to
enroll more students so as to allow teachers already in service the
opportunity to advance their academic status. In an ideal situation, the
programs of preparing core teachers should be provided at the graduate
school level in order for the prospective core teacher to have opportunity to build a broad background in areas of knowledge and to acquire the professional competencies needed in core teaching.

Along with the programs of core teacher preparation, the colleges of education should be responsible for orienting the prospective special area teachers, administrators, and librarians to the core and for preparing them for making the effective contributions which are needed for successful operation of the core program.

In this chapter, the writer presented a proposal for developing core programs in the campus laboratory secondary schools of Korea. As an integral part of this proposal the writer made specific recommendations which he believes will help the Korean campus secondary schools in developing effective core programs. A summary of these recommendations is presented in the following chapter.
CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY

This study was undertaken to determine the basic philosophy, principles and practices of a promising general education program as accomplished through the core at the secondary school level and to formulate a plan for developing a core program for the campus laboratory secondary schools of Korea.

In order to achieve this purpose these steps were taken: (1) the literature pertinent to the various aspects of the problem of this study was studied; (2) information concerning the background of the Korean campus laboratory schools was secured and examined; and (3) a case study of the general education program of The Ohio State University School was made with special emphasis on the operation of the core program. A documentary analysis, interviews with the key personnel of the School and the College of Education, and observations of student learning activities in the core classes were major techniques used for the case study.

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

From the examination of the data obtained from the above procedures and sources, the writer was able to make certain generalizations. The following are presented as the major conclusions of this study.
Major Generalizations Related to the Foundations of General Education

1. General education is concerned with the development of common ideals, attitudes, understandings, and skills necessary for every individual to become a responsible citizen of a democratic society.

2. General education and special-interest education are not in conflict but enrich each other, forming a continuum in which general education provides the background and the sense of direction for special-interest education which, in turn, contributes to general education.

3. General education should be provided for all youth regardless of intellectual, social, and economic level.

4. Planning for general education should be based on a thorough understanding of sound philosophical, psychological, and social principles of education.

5. Respect for individual personality, use of the method of intelligence, and cooperative living are the major ideals of democracy which provide the direction for general education in a democratic society.

6. A sound philosophy of general education should be consistent with valid and reliable findings of studies of the nature of human growth and behavior and the nature of social process.

7. A sound program of general education regards learning as a dynamic process in which the whole individual interacts with his total environment.

8. The final test of a program of general education is the changes which have occurred in the behavior of the learner in terms of the characteristics of democratic personality.
9. A sound program of general education regards the purposes and needs of the learner as the most important factors in effective learning.

10. Characteristics of behavior for democratic living are best developed by democratic group experience in solving common problems.

11. A sound program of general education regards social change as a continuous process of interaction between the individual and society.

12. A sound program of general education in a democratic society accepts its responsibility for effective direction of social change.

Major Generalizations Related to the Development of the Core Program

1. The core program based on adolescent problem areas is a most promising program of general education.

2. The core program strives directly for the attainment of the democratic philosophy and purposes of the school which were cooperatively arrived at and formulated by the total faculty.

3. The core program recognizes that adolescent needs and problems are personal-social in character and strives to identify them and make them the basis for planning the program through a carefully conducted study of adolescents.

4. The general scope of the core program is indicated in the form of problem areas which are formulated on the basis of (1) the identified common, persistent problems of adolescents, (2) the democratic philosophy and purposes of the school, and (3) modern concepts of human development.

5. The core program transcends subject-matter boundaries and is organized so as to utilize all fields of knowledge necessary to solve problems.
6. The core program requires close cooperation among the members of
the faculty in different areas through their planning and working together.
In fact, contributions of special-interest area teachers are an essential
factor in the successful development of the core program.

7. Resource units or guides provide important aid for a core teacher
in guiding learning units. Construction of such resource materials
through cooperative efforts of the core teachers who will use them and the
special-interest area teachers has proved to be of utmost significance for
successful operation of the core program and for the professional growth
of the teachers.

8. The core program facilitates integration of various learnings in
the students.

9. The core program provides a sufficiently large block of time for
a variety of activities such as group discussions, library activities,
field trips, laboratory experiences, social activities, free reading,
creative writing, and guidance activities.

10. The core program is so organized that individual and group
guidance become an integral part of the core.

11. The core program provides for cooperative teacher-student
purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating in developing learning units
in order to enable students to grow in the democratic way of life.

12. The learning units provide intrinsic motivation for learning on
the part of the learner by making possible a direct attack upon the
problems of his own concern.

13. The problem solving approach characterizes the process of the
learning units.
14. The core program is not isolated from the special-interest areas but is the unifying center of the total school program; the core program helps each individual to identify, create, and extend his own interests.

15. The core program requires sufficient space, facilities, equipment, resource materials, and teaching aids for effective achievement of the purposes of the program. Sufficient library facilities and services of a competent librarian are imperative conditions for developing an effective core program.

16. A maximum of 30 students in one core class is considered to be desirable for effective guidance of all students in the core.

17. The core program utilizes a comprehensive evaluation program which is consistent with the purposes of the program. Among the procedures in the evaluation program, self-evaluation made by students themselves in both individual and group situations under the guidance of the teacher has proved to be of great educational value.

18. The core program requires competent teachers who have sufficient training and experience to assume the responsibilities required to carry out the program successfully.

19. The core program requires administrative provisions for continuous research and evaluation activities as well as appropriate in-service education of the teachers for continuous improvement of the program to meet the changing needs of society and of adolescents in this rapidly changing world.

20. Interest and initiative of administrators are essential factors in carrying out a successful program of core development.
21. Awareness on the part of the entire faculty of the need for development of a new curriculum is the starting point for undertaking a program of developing the core program.

22. Establishment of a free flow of ideas regarding proposed change cannot be overemphasized in developing the core curriculum.

23. The involvement of the entire faculty, students, parents, and the community is regarded as a desirable procedure in planning the core program.

24. In the early stages of development of a core program, a small-group approach to the problem with proper consultant help from experts seems to be more satisfactory than involving the entire group of teachers.

25. Leadership assumed by the administrators should be such that it will facilitate a sense of security, belonging, and achievement in all those who participate in or are concerned with program development.

26. Reducing the college entrance requirements to the minimum is highly desirable for experimenting with a new curriculum.

27. Development of the core program in a school should be in harmony with the improvement of the total conditions of the school.

Major Generalizations Related to the Practices of General Education in the Korean Laboratory Secondary Schools

1. The lack of training in the democratic way of life on the part of the Korean people is a serious weakness and has interfered with the people arriving at solutions to their problems and with the growth of democracy in the country. Accordingly, the training for democratic citizenship is the inescapable responsibility of the Korean schools.
2. Because of the highly selective admission policy of the Korean secondary schools and the failure of the government to provide free education for all Korean youth beyond the six-year elementary education, approximately two-thirds of the Korean youth are deprived of the benefits expected from attending secondary schools.

3. The campus laboratory secondary schools of Korea do not differ in any significant degree from the typical Korean secondary schools in their operation and curriculum practices.

4. Examination of the statement of philosophy and purposes of education made in the Education Law of Korea and the statements of philosophy and purposes of the Korean laboratory secondary schools indicates a noticeable shift in the last ten years from Confucianistic philosophy to that of democracy.

5. Little opportunity is provided for lay teachers to participate in the formulation of school philosophy and purposes and to understand the meaning and educational implications of the superimposed statement of philosophy and purposes of education. Furthermore, there is a general lack of opportunity provided for the teachers to participate in the democratic process of policy making, curriculum planning, carrying out instructional programs, and evaluating the work.

6. In the implementation of their purposes, there is a big gap between the philosophy and purposes of the Korean secondary schools and their practices.

7. Inadequate school buildings and facilities, inadequately trained teachers, crowded classroom situations, strictly subject-centered curriculum and classroom procedures, and the highly competitive entrance
examinations for the next school step are major causes of unsatisfactory
development of general education in the Korean secondary schools.

8. The lack of elective programs in the Korean secondary schools results in failure to meet the special needs and interests of students.

9. Because of the lack of professionally trained counselors and inadequate instruments for evaluating student growth and development, the schools are failing to provide adequate guidance services for many students who need such services.

10. Teacher-education programs of the colleges of education of Korea do not provide for preparation of core teachers.

11. In-service education programs of Korea are not geared to the needs and interests of the Korean teachers.

12. There is some evidence of satisfactory growth of the Central Education Research Institute of Korea and of its significant contributions to the advancement of Korean education. However, in the local school system, research activities are seriously hampered by the lack of trained research workers.

13. The Korean laboratory secondary schools are failing to play their roles as centers of educational experimentation, leadership, and demonstration with undue emphasis being placed on the student-teaching programs.

14. There appears to be a lack of the professional cooperation between the Korean laboratory schools and the colleges of education.
To promote the successful development of the core program in the campus laboratory secondary schools and eventually in the other secondary schools of Korea, the following major recommendations are made on the basis of the findings of this study:

1. In light of the importance of the freedom of experimenting with new ideas for the advancement of education, it is recommended that at least the laboratory secondary schools of Korea be freed from the curriculum prescriptions of the Ministry of Education.

2. It is recommended that the Ministry of Education and the colleges of education work cooperatively to provide an in-service education program for the administrators and teachers of the laboratory secondary schools so as to increase their professional visions to such extents that they will see clearly new challenges and possibilities for curriculum changes in their schools.

3. In connection with Recommendation 2, it is also recommended that an orientation in-service program directed from outside the schools, be followed as soon as possible by self-directed in-service programs in each school, and that such self-directed in-service programs be continuous in character as the faculty members of a school work together toward developing the new curriculum designed for the basic democratic citizenship training of the young.

4. Since general education in a democratic country is directly concerned with the development of common values, understandings, attitudes, and skills needed for democratic citizenship, the understanding of the
meaning and ideals of democracy on the part of the faculty of a school is imperative for developing a sound general education in that school. Accordingly, it is recommended that the entire faculty of the school engage in the study of democracy and its implications for education.

5. It is further recommended that, out of such a study of democracy and its educational implications, the faculty formulate the philosophy and purposes of the school and state them in such terms that are indicative of learning experiences to be emphasized throughout the program.

6. It is recommended that the laboratory schools of Korea take positive action to develop experimental programs for reorganizing their strictly subject-centered curriculum of general education into the core program, based on adolescent problem areas, which cut across the subject boundaries.

7. For the formulation of problem areas, it is recommended that the faculty base the problem areas upon the results of a comprehensive study of common problems of their students and the philosophy and purposes of the school which were cooperatively formulated by the entire faculty.

8. In connection with making a study of adolescent problems, it is recommended that the faculty deliberately seek the cooperation of students, parents, and experts in the field in identifying common problems of adolescents.

9. It is recommended that the faculty of each school attempt to develop resource units for its established problem areas and use them as guides for instructional activities. In such a faculty attempt to develop resource units, contributions of teachers representing various fields of knowledge should be utilized to the greatest possible extent.
10. It is recommended that the core classes be organized and conducted around learning units which are characterized by teacher-student cooperative purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating of the work directed toward the solution of the common problems identified by each particular class group.

11. It is recommended that, in addition to the learning unit, the schools make provision in the core program for such activities as creative writing, free reading, student self-government activities, and social activities.

12. It is recommended that guidance and counseling activities be integrated into the core program.

13. It is recommended that an evaluation program be organized which will be consistent with the philosophy and purposes of the school. For an effective evaluation program the following specific recommendations are made:
   a. That the purposes of the core program be clearly defined and stated.
   b. That valid and reliable instruments be constructed and utilized in evaluating student learning in such aspects as values, attitudes, interests, critical thinking.
   c. That student self-evaluation in both individual and group situations be emphasized.

14. It is recommended that the core program be evaluated continuously by the entire faculty and frequent revisions be made on the basis of evidences for such needed revisions.
15. Considering the special responsibilities of a campus laboratory school for the advancement of education, the following are recommended:

a. That provisions be made to raise the status of the faculty members of the laboratory schools to the same level as that of other faculty members of the colleges of education.

b. That such functions as experimentation, leadership, and demonstration be especially emphasized rather than student teaching which can be shared by other secondary schools.

c. That an agreement between the laboratory schools and colleges or universities be made to minimize the college entrance requirements for the students in these schools.

16. In order to insure a successful development of the new experimental program, it is recommended that the administrators of the schools assume following responsibilities:

a. Demonstrate democratic leadership in various activities of curriculum reorganization.

b. Provide time, money, materials, and facilities for teachers to participate in continuous research and evaluation activities as well as in in-service programs.

17. In the light of the importance of the competency of a core teacher in a successful operation of the core program, it is recommended that the colleges of education make special provisions for preparing future core teachers.

18. In connection with the improvement of teacher-education program for preparing core teachers, it is further recommended that the Ministry
of Education and the administrative authorities of the colleges of education seek cooperatively for possible solutions to the problems of preparing secondary curriculum experts who will work for the core-teacher education program and provide professional assistance to the schools.

19. In implementing the proposed plan of developing core programs in the laboratory schools of Korea, it is recommended that each individual school give serious attention to its particular conditions and adapt to such conditions the program proposed in this study.
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The Committee on Problems Study. An Inventory Study of the Personal and General Social Problems of 256 Students in Grades Seven to Twelve, Inclusive. Mimeographed, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1940.

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APPENDIX
### THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY - UNIVERSITY SCHOOL
#### High School Schedule, 1958-59

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade 7 (212)</th>
<th>Grade 8 (210)</th>
<th>Grade 9 (234-5)</th>
<th>Grade 10 (314)</th>
<th>Grade 11 (303, 313)</th>
<th>Grade 12 (311, Home Arts)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>8:10</strong></td>
<td>Mathematics -</td>
<td>Mathematics -</td>
<td>Core -</td>
<td>Core -</td>
<td>Core -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rm. 212</td>
<td>Rm. 210</td>
<td>Rm. 210</td>
<td>Rn. 303, 313</td>
<td>Rn. 311, Home Arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Brumfield)</td>
<td>(Humberd)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>9:10</strong></td>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>10:10</strong></td>
<td>Core - Rm. 212</td>
<td>Core - Rm. 210</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Schmeller)</td>
<td>(Stewart)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>10:15</strong></td>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td></td>
<td>Work Experience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>11:15</strong></td>
<td>Work Experience</td>
<td>Typing</td>
<td></td>
<td>Instrumental Music</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rm. 204-5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Vocal Music - Room</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>12:00</strong></td>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td></td>
<td>Related Arts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td>Related Arts</td>
<td></td>
<td>Spanish I - Allen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Home Arts</td>
<td></td>
<td>303</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1:00</strong></td>
<td>Core</td>
<td>Core</td>
<td></td>
<td>Intermediate H.S. Math - Brumfield</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>World Cultures - Paul - Home Arts</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>French I - Woodruff - 203</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2:00</strong></td>
<td>Core</td>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td></td>
<td>French II - Allen - 203</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Spanish III - 311</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3:00</strong></td>
<td>Science - Mikolaj - 315</td>
<td>Mathematics - Humberd 303</td>
<td></td>
<td>Chemistry - Mikolaj - 315</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Related Arts (Staff) - Rec. Arts</td>
<td>Related Arts</td>
<td></td>
<td>Adv. H.S. Math - Humberd - 311</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Home Arts - Taylor - Home Arts</td>
<td>French I - Woodruff - 203</td>
<td></td>
<td>Spanish II - 311</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4:00</strong></td>
<td>Music (Staff) - 100</td>
<td>Music (Staff) - 100</td>
<td></td>
<td>World History - Willis</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Adv. H.S. Science - Mikolaj - 315</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Recreation Room</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Creative Writing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subject Notes:**
- Intermediate H.S. Math - Brumfield
- World Cultures - Paul - Home Arts
- French I - Woodruff
- Spanish I - Allen
- American History - Buchanan - 303
- Nature of Proof - Humberd - 311
- English Seminar - Buchanan - 400
- Work Experience
- Instrumental Music
- Vocal Music - Room 100
- Related Arts
- Spanish I
- Intermediate H.S. Math - Brumfield
- World History - Willis
- Advance H.S. Math - Humberd
### APPENDIX 3

**TENTATIVE WEDNESDAY MORNING SCHEDULE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6:40</td>
<td>MATH</td>
<td>MATH</td>
<td></td>
<td>9:30</td>
<td>CORE</td>
<td>CORE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9:30</td>
<td>CORE</td>
<td>CORE</td>
<td>MATH</td>
<td>9:35</td>
<td>10:30 ELECTIVES</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9:30</td>
<td>10:25</td>
<td>10:30</td>
<td>1:00 ELECTIVES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:20</td>
<td>11:25</td>
<td></td>
<td>2:00 ELECTIVES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:00</td>
<td>12:15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Wednesday Lunch Schedule**

- 8th Grade: 11:50
- 7th Grade: 11:55
- American History: 12:00
- World History: 12:00
- Typing: 12:05
- Advanced Science: 12:10
- Advanced Math: 12:10
- Chemistry and Junior Band: 12:15
- Biology: 12:20
## APPENDIX C

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY
UNIVERSITY SCHOOL

CUMULATIVE RECORD OF INDIVIDUAL READING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(Name)</th>
<th>(Grade)</th>
<th>(Quarter and Year)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AUTHOR</th>
<th>TITLE OF BOOK</th>
<th>KIND OF BOOK</th>
<th>HOW WOULD YOU EVALUATE THE BOOK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Such as novel, short stories, biography, science fiction, travel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Form 6006
APPENDIX D

EXPLANATION OF GRADING SYSTEM

UNIVERSITY SCHOOL

The Ohio State University

The University School does not give grades. Rather, the work of students is analyzed periodically by all teachers. Comprehensive reports are written on each student's progress and level of achievement after having considered his capacities, skill and performance. Suggestions are made to each student as to directions in which his effort might best be applied.

A student with exceptional ability and outstanding skills, as indicated by intelligence or scholastic aptitude tests and by reading and other test scores, is expected at University School to do outstanding work. Those who have less ability are also expected to work up to capacity. It is not our policy to recommend to a particular college a student who, to the best of our knowledge and belief, is unlikely to succeed in it, either because of bad attitudes, inadequate skills, or insufficient academic ability. Where students about whom there is some question insist upon applying, it is our policy to make quite clear to the college the nature of the student's weaknesses and handicaps so that admissions officials may make intelligent decisions. Unless otherwise indicated on the transcripts, the work of the student is of such quality that the faculty has recommended application to this college.
APPENDIX E

A FORM USED BY THE EIGHTH GRADERS FOR EXPLORATION OF SOME POSSIBLE UNIT

PROBLEM AREA:
UNIT STUDY:
PURPOSE:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identify Issues</th>
<th>Raise Questions</th>
<th>List Books</th>
<th>Suggest Speakers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Movies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX F

ILLUSTRATIVE BIBLIOGRAPHY OF REFERENCES USED BY THE EIGHTH GRADE STUDENTS OF THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY SCHOOL IN THEIR UNIT STUDY ON RACIAL SEGREGATION

CURRENT PROBLEMS—RACIAL AND SEGREGATION


Stewart, Marguerite. *We, the American People.* New York: John Day, 1951.


PAMPHLETS


Alston, J. C. Negro Housing in Columbus, Ohio. Columbus, Ohio: The Columbus Urban League, 1946.


________________. *Abraham Lincoln and the Union*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1918.

LITERATURE USED


FILMS USED


AUTOBIOGRAPHY

I, Yung Dug Lee, was born at Kang Su, Pyung An Nam Do, Korea, on March 6, 1926. I completed my elementary-school education in the Chin Nam Po Kadug Elementary School in 1940. I graduated from Pyung Yang The Second High School in 1945. Following my graduation from the high school, I took a two-month short term elementary school teacher training course in Pyung Yang and taught in an elementary school in Kang Su for two years. In 1947, I entered Seoul National University, from which institution I received a B.A. degree in September 1952. During this period, I worked as a part-time high school instructor in social studies and psychology except for the period between November, 1950, and February, 1952, during which period I served in the Korean armed forces.

From April, 1953, to July, 1955, I was enrolled in the Graduate School of Seoul National University, during which time I worked as a research associate in the Central Education Research Institute and taught two courses in education at the College of Education, Seoul National University.

I enrolled at The Ohio State University in September, 1955, and in August, 1956, received an M. A. degree in guidance. Since October, 1956, I have been employed as a research assistant in the Bureau of Educational Research and Service, The Ohio State University, while working toward completing the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.