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AN ANALYSIS OF THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIAL FACTORS
ON SELECTED CURRICULUM DISCOURSE

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By
Richard Cornel Dean Yu, B.A., M.A.

The Ohio State University
1973

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Education, public or otherwise, is of great concern to our society because we place a positive value on the "educated man." American society has witnessed the benefits of numerous educational accomplishments and has developed increasing interest in educational concerns. The public's growing concern about the quality of education has made it more and more a public enterprise. It is evident that social factors have broad and sweeping influences on education in general, and on curriculum development in particular. Even a cursory review of educational and social scientific literature can demonstrate this.

Political, religious, and economic factors most surely cannot be divorced from the educational context. Each has affected and will affect the course of education. Curriculum discourse has become more and more cognizant of the fact that before new decisions about curricular changes can be made, a closer examination of these social factors as they influence the curriculum is necessary. It may prove to be a fruitful endeavor to identify some of the specific
ways in which these social factors influence the curriculum, and also to critically examine the manner in which curriculum writers view these factors as they see them affecting the curriculum.

It is not by accident that recent attention has been focused on the future of education in the American society. We are becoming more aware that the best education today must be always mindful of the needs of tomorrow. Thus, it is imperative that we thoughtfully consider the implications of the political, religious, and economic factors as they impinge upon the curriculums of the future. It is not a lure to fantasy that prompts us to make projections of the future, but rather the understanding that a practical and realistic assessment of the present is in fact a pre-vision of the necessary changes to be made in coping with the impending future.

1. The Problem

The writers of curriculum discourse have long since realized the necessity of taking into consideration the social factors which influence curriculum development. Historically, it was evident that educational writers were aware of the fact that any serious educational endeavor required a thoughtful examination of these social factors.
In 1900, John Dewey made explicit this vital requirement. He stated that,

Whenever we have in mind the discussion of a new movement in education, it is especially necessary to take the broader, or social view. Otherwise, changes in the school institution and tradition will be looked at as the arbitrary inventions of particular teachers, at the worst transitory fads, and at the best merely improvements in certain details . . . 1

In the early 1900's increasing awareness of the continual interaction between education and other societal institutions made educational leaders more sensitive to the need for viewing education in the broader social context. Franklin Bobbitt saw the school as an institution responsible for keeping with the times. He said that, "Education must take a pace set, not by itself, but by social progress." 2 Bobbitt was mindful that the activities in the schools could not be divorced from the contemporary social activities of the society. Along these same lines W. W. Charters stated that, "...education is the social agency which trains youth so that it may secure satisfaction through activities which are governed by the ideals


that society thinks are valuable." Charters pointed to the close relationship of education and society and the practicality of viewing education in its societal context.

Moving along a chronological timeline, we note in the 1930's, the well-known Eight Year Study. This Study was the sincere effort on the part of educators toward a reconstruction of the country's secondary school curriculums. The Commission on the Relations of School and College which was to spearhead this Study again reiterated and reemphasized the idea that, "Only as society's demands and student concerns were united in school objectives could education become an experience of vital significance." Also in the 1930's, Caswell and Campbell published an influential and well-read textbook which emphasized the need for serious considerations of the social ideals as they affected the curriculum. They claimed that the school was a major agent of socialization and thus had a definite

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role to play in helping its students achieve the ideals of society. The writings of the 1930's indeed stressed the need for curriculum specialists and educators to be cognizant of the social arena and its demands made upon the schools.

The war-torn years of the 1940's presented the curriculum and the schools with countless demands. These demands were focused on the "needs" of society. The war situation brought to light some of the deficiencies of the educational system. The 1943 publication of the National Society for the Study of Education directed its attention to these deficiencies and made an appeal to the schools to better prepare their students for the working world and to provide a program of general education. An immense effort was made to prepare students for the world of work and to equip them with the needed skills and knowledge to help alleviate the manpower shortage of the period. The school curriculums were instrumental in restructuring the educational system thus enabling it to respond to the needs and demands of the times. The report of the Harvard Committee

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entitled, *General Education in a Free Society*, was one example of the effort to meet the above demands for preparedness for future occupations and exposure to a general education. This reputed document is still widely read and discussed in educational circles.

The war years made manifest other political and economic needs. The growing tension brought about by the threat of a totalitarian ideology on the democratic ideals of the nation led curriculum specialists and educators to focus their publications on strengthening the commitment to American democracy. The Educational Policies Commission developed a series of publications which were a concentrated effort in expounding the ideals of the democratic way of life. The economic situation of the times pointed to the need of revision in the curriculum of the schools. Again the Educational Policies Commission responded with a report which stressed greater productivity, employability and efficient consumer activity.

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The various demands and needs of the 1940's compelled educators to develop curriculums which adequately responded to the effects of the war and the consequent changes it brought. It is quite evident that curriculum discourse was indeed a response to the problems which originated from the immediate needs of the existing social situation.

The tensions of the forties did not altogether dissipate as the decade of the fifties approached. There was continued concern over the responsibility of the nation's schools to include within their programs an awareness of the values inherent in the American way of life. This concern was reinforced as tremendous amounts of resources and energies were spent in the development and advancement of science and technology, perhaps at the expense of other aspects of life.

The benefits of scientific and technological advancement are all too obvious. At no time in history had man enjoyed such conveniences and comforts that resulted from this advancement. However, these benefits were not experienced without accompanying drawbacks. American society was confronted with the phenomenon which William Ogburn termed "cultural lag." Ogburn noted that, "...material or technological aspects of culture tend to soar ahead in their rate of change, while norms, beliefs, values, and
patterns of social organization change much more slowly."\textsuperscript{10}
This cultural lag posed a threat to the value system of our society. Smith, Stanley and Shores claimed that, "The acids generated by these twin elements have trickled down into the American system of values, dissolving fundamental ideals and leaving the entire system in an extreme state of corrosion."\textsuperscript{11} The consequences of science and technology permeated every aspect of American life and hence could not be ignored. The school curriculums needed to confront this situation. Smith, Stanley and Shores went so far as to say that,

\begin{quote}
It is perhaps not too much to say that every significant curriculum problem of today is rooted in one way or another in the general problem of cultural reintegration created by the increasing advancement of science and technology.\textsuperscript{12}
\end{quote}

A great part of the responsibility for preserving the American way of life and its value system fell into the hands of the nation's schools. In a publication by the Educational

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\textsuperscript{12}Ibid., p. 28.
\end{flushright}
Policies Commission\textsuperscript{13} attention was given to the need for a common set of values in education. It was suggested that this common set of values be the stated aims of the entire educational process.

In the midst of the rapid advancement of science and technology and the changes in the 1950's, uncertainty arose about the purposes of formal education and the nature of the content and methods of teaching. Ralph W. Tyler's syllabus\textsuperscript{14} for a curriculum course at the University of Chicago in 1950 seemed to be directed at coping with this uncertainty and confusion concerning the purposes and objectives of education. Tyler listed the following three sources of data for deriving educational objectives: (a) Considerations of the needs of the learner; (b) Studies of contemporary needs of society; and (c) Demands and needs for knowledge. These sources of data facilitated the establishment of guidelines for the development of objectives which helped to indicate the direction that education might take in meeting the demands of the period. Tyler's work is

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{14}Ralph W. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction (Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press, 1950).
\end{itemize}
just one example of the numerous attempts of curriculum discourse to respond to the felt social needs.

A cursory review of the history of the concerns of curriculum discourse is ample testimony to the fact that social factors and the demands of society have a definite impact on educational curriculum. This research study will be concerned primarily with the problem of examining the ways in which selected social factors influence curriculum discourse and the possible ramifications that this influence may have for future theorizing in the field. A brief review of curriculum discourse from the 1900's to the 1950's has been presented. A further and more intensive review will concentrate on the curriculum discourse of the latter 1950's and the 1960's. A serious attempt will be made to critically assess the influence of social factors on the curriculums of the future.

2. **Purpose of the Research**

The purposes of this study are:

1. To explore ways in which social factors have affected the discourse about curriculum as reflected in the writings of selected writers at work in the field.

2. To examine future-oriented theorizing about curriculum.

3. To utilize the knowledge gained in the analysis of (1) and the direction identified in (2) to project future directions for curriculum theorizing.
3. **Definition of Terms**

The task of defining the social factors of politics, religion, and economics is almost self-defeating. The terms have been used so loosely and in a variety of ways that there is perhaps no one universally agreed-upon definition for each of these terms. While it is evident that there are no completely agreed-upon definitions of these social factors, this research study will, in a general way, adhere to the following definitions.

(1) **politics**: The process of creating public policy through influencing or controlling the sources of power and authority.

(2) **religion**: A system of beliefs, practices, and philosophical values concerned with the definition of the sacred, the comprehension of life, and salvation from the problems of human existence.

(3) **economics**: The scientific study of the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services. Here we are interested in studying economic behavior, thus emphasizing the social and cultural framework within which economic activity occurs.\(^{15}\)

4. **Methodology**

The general methodological approach will be philosophical and logical in nature. This will involve an

identification of the social factors and a delineation of the ways in which these selected social factors (politics, religion, and economics) have affected the language of the curriculum field as reflected (1) in the five works of selected theorists; and (2) in selected historical "platform" statements issued in professional Yearbooks and by influential professional agencies in the field. A content analysis of these selected works will be made.

5. **Source of the Data**

The tremendous amount of literature in the field requires that there be some delimitation. The wealth of information contained in books, journals, magazines and other literary works is too numerous to be reviewed in detail. Hence, the following literary works will be taken into consideration in this research study.


3. Selected "future-oriented" literature from the educational and social scientific fields.

4. Five influential textbooks in the curriculum field:
   
6. Limitations of the Study

This research study is an analysis of selected social factors as they have influenced curriculum theorizing and the implications that these factors may have for the future of the field. The study does not attempt to actually develop a particular curriculum which can then be implemented in order to ascertain its effectiveness. In discussing the future, this study will attempt an imaginative and insightful assessment of future needs and the means to meet them. Any projection or discussion concerning the future will of necessity be tentative in nature. The validity of the research depends upon the logic of the
analysis and the consequent projection and the quality of the questions raised.
CHAPTER II
IDENTIFICATION OF THE SOCIAL FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE CURRICULUM

1. Introduction

The influence of social factors has weighed heavily upon the development and concerns of curriculum discourse. This has been so in the past and will continue to be so in the future. A firm grasp and understanding of the manner in which social factors have affected curriculum discourse is crucial to a realistic preparation for the curriculums to meet the challenge of the future. An examination of the past provides us with materials to build upon. Kaplan suggested that,

Science is no miraculous creation out of nothing, no spontaneous generation of knowledge from ignorance. . . . The task is not to move from wholesale ignorance to knowledge, but from less knowledge to more, from knowledge of some things to knowledge of others, from the vague and uncertain to what is clear and warranted.1

With this in mind, we turn to an investigation of the ways

in which selected social factors have influenced curriculum discourse especially in the latter fifties and in the sixties.

The social factors which will be examined include politics, religion, and economics. It is important to be cognizant of the relationships that each of these have with education and the interrelations of all of them. If we are mindful of this seemingly simple idea, then an analysis of the influence of social factors on selected curriculum discourse becomes meaningful. It is easy to ignore the affects of these social factors and concentrate on the development or study of curriculum per se. While studying only the curriculum per se is suitable for some purposes of research, a more comprehensive examination of curriculum discourse in the social context of the times is necessary to bring about general or sweeping curricular changes in preparation for the future. Keeping this in mind, an attempt towards a macro analysis of the social factors as they affect curriculum discourse will be made.

Finally, there will be a summary of the pertinent aspects of this chapter.

2. Background - 1957 through the 1960's

Education during the late 1950's was faced with the
awesome task of reorganizing the curriculum. The shock of the Russian success with Sputnik I created tremendous reverberations in American society. Questioning about the quality of American education and attacks on the nation's schools ensued. The deluge of criticisms from influential individuals and interest groups was directed especially towards the curriculums of the American schools. John I. Goodlad, in his publication The Changing School Curriculum, stated that, "... the launching of the first Russian satellite must be acknowledged as a direct cause of vastly accelerated curriculum revision, notably in mathematics and the physical sciences."²

There was increasing preoccupation with curriculum revision. This led to a reform movement which marked the beginning of the development of numerous curriculum projects aimed at improving school programs. The concern for quality education was not something which suddenly arose in 1957. As far back as 1951, the University of Illinois was involved in a curriculum project which sought to improve the mathematics programs on the college, secondary, and

elementary levels. There was an awareness of deficiencies, among other things, in the mathematics programs. Even before this, the large scale testing of soldiers during the Second World War revealed a high failure rate on certain sections of the Armed Forces Qualifications Test.

The beginnings of the current curriculum reform movement, now well along in its second decade, were clearly evident in the years immediately following World War II. The recruitment of young men for the armed services had revealed shocking inadequacies in the science and mathematics backgrounds of high school graduates.  

This pointed to the need for improving school curriculums. However, the drive for improving the quality of education in the nation's schools proceeded at a very slow pace. Sputnik I provided the potent catalyst needed to spark a sense of urgency for more and better school programs. Specific emphasis was placed on the areas of mathematics and the physical and biological sciences.

The cry for "quality education" from both the American public and educational leaders became the main theme of this period. One of the more influential works stemming from this rallying effort for quality education was the treatise of James B. Conant. Conant made twenty-one recommendations which focused on the development of a "compre-

3Ibid., pp. 11-12.

hensive" high school. The recommendations called for a heavy concentration of mathematics, science, and foreign language for the academically talented. These recommendations clearly reflected the demands of the mid 1950's.

There was a collaborative effort in 1959 to improve the curriculum and instruction in the nation's schools. The results of this effort were made public in 1960 in a work by Jerome S. Bruner entitled *The Process of Education*. This now famous Woods Hole Conference was concerned with placing new emphasis on both content and process. The group of scholars and educators who took part in this conference concluded that content and the orderly arrangement of material in progressive degrees of difficulty were only part of a good curriculum design. An even more essential part included good teaching which was "...bound to the teaching of thought processes." The Conference in effect helped to sensitize teachers to the dual concerns for subject matter on the one hand and the activities of the learner on the other hand.


The late fifties and the early sixties witnessed the rise of a series of educational innovations. The projects mentioned above were just a few examples of the numerous innovative undertakings of that period. The forces that "powered" the reform movement were strongly aided by the work of academic scholars from institutions of higher learning. An intensive effort was made on the part of these scholars to introduce new knowledge into the curricula and to "...reorganize the conceptual structure of a discipline for presentation to boys and girls."  

The federal government provided a momentum to the emerging reform movement in the form of federal funds for the various projects undertaken. The federal government's support and commitment to the reform movement were instrumental in the development of organizations and legislation designed to improve American education. The federal agency, the National Science Foundation, was established in 1950 in order to further education and research in the sciences. Eight years later there was the passage of the National Defense Education Act of 1958. An outgrowth of this Act was the United States Office of Education. This

newly created agency was responsible for sponsoring much research and encouraging innovation in the areas of mathematics, science, foreign languages, English and social studies. In 1964, the United States Congress extended the NDEA Act for a three year period and provided funds under Title III of the Act for the purpose of improving instruction in the areas of reading, English, and social studies. In 1965, Congress passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act\textsuperscript{8} which provided grants for programs designed to assist children from low-income families. These grants were made available for children attending both private and public schools. During this same year, Congress passed the Higher Education Act.\textsuperscript{9} This Act released funds approved for "Educational Opportunity Grants." These scholarships provided low interest, government insured loans to qualified students. The federal government was responsible for providing assistance in many forms. The federal support helped to provide funds for research and innovative projects throughout the reform movement.


\textsuperscript{9} V. T. Thayer and Martin Levit, The Role of the School in American Society (New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, 1966), pp. 332 and 568.
Influential parents and dissatisfied citizens furnished an added force which pushed forward the effort for improvement in the quality of our schools. Citizen groups accused the schools of not doing all they should or could do in educating their children. Interested parents were concerned about having college preparatory programs for able students. Demands were made for more emphasis on the sciences, mathematics, and foreign languages. Improved education and equal educational opportunity for its children became the central concerns of a dissatisfied citizenry.10

The challenge of developing and proposing new curricula for the country's schools required a coordinated effort. If the innovations of the reform movement were to affect the curricula of the schools, there had to be participation and cooperation of all involved. The joint efforts of university scholars, classroom teachers, and other professional educators were necessary for any successful curriculum reform to take place. Besides the more theoretical development of new curricula, there needed to be some way of arousing enthusiasm among classroom teachers.

New avenues for re-educating classroom teachers to accept new ideas and to change some of their old ideas had to be developed.

Some of the curriculum discourse at this time centered on the idea of change. In a publication by the National Society for the Study of Education dealing with in-service education, stress was placed on the notion of change. Also at this time J. Lloyd Trump and Dorsey Baynham published a noted work entitled Focus on Change: Guide to Better Schools. A new concept in school organization called team teaching was proposed in this publication. This work was a report of the experimentation on team teaching at Harvard University conducted by Trump and Baynham in 1957. Popularly known as the Trump Plan, this innovation recommended that as much as one third of the high school pupil's time be left free to allow for its flexible use in engaging in those activities that the individual not only needed but was also interested in.


13 Ibid., pp. 53-57.
The implementation of this plan called for changes both in the presentation of subject matter and school construction. Liberal grants from the Educational Facilities Laboratories (established by the Ford Foundation in 1958) helped to develop widespread enthusiasm and acceptance of this new innovation. By the mid 1960's new school buildings, as designated by the Trump Plan, were constructed and being used in states like Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Wisconsin, Michigan and others.

The impetus for better education which Sputnik I generated and the vast amount of federal support made possible numerous other curriculum projects. It is the purpose of the following section to present in brief a few of the successful projects which were conducted during the surge of innovations in the 1960's. Perhaps this will make explicit the preoccupation of educators with improving the quality of education for the American youth.

In the area of mathematics the School Mathematics Study Group program was initiated. This project is perhaps the best known and most widely used of all the fairly recent mathematics programs. It was the brainchild of the American Mathematical Society which was founded in 1958. The aim of this Society was the development of new courses, teaching materials, and methods of instruction for the mathematics field. Financial support for the School
Mathematics Study Group program came from the National Science Foundation. The main hypothesis advanced by the project was that, "...concepts and their relationships—the structure of mathematics—are central to all mathematics teaching." This hypothesis seemed to prevail in other innovative mathematics projects of this period. Textbooks and courses developed for grades K through 12 treated relatively conventional topics in a new light. A central idea was the notion of moving from basic principles to progressively higher levels of abstraction.

The physical sciences were no less caught up in the movement for creating improved school programs. The Physical Science Study Committee (PSSC), organized at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1957, conducted a pioneer effort in improving the study of physics. First hand experience with discovering and verifying physical phenomena in the laboratory was a central aim of this project. In addition to special textbooks, classroom discussions, and laboratory work, greater utilization of audio-visual materials was made. Teachers began to use films in introducing the students to different topics in

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physics. Intense interest in the project led numerous teachers and students to elect to participate in the program. "Approximately 5,000 teachers and 200,000 students, or 50 per cent of all secondary students enrolled in physics classes in the U.S., participated during 1965-66.\textsuperscript{15}

The success and popularity of the PSSC program led to the translation of its textbook and laboratory guide into twelve foreign languages.

Although the main emphasis of the reform movement was and continued to be directed towards the areas of mathematics and the physical sciences, there were drives to improve other areas of education. In 1962, the United States Office of Education initiated the Social Studies Program which was designed to help improve instruction, research, and teacher education in the social sciences. Numerous centers housed on university campuses throughout the United States were established and headed by noted educators. These centers have been involved in the following: (1) identifying the structure of social science disciplines; (2) employing the inductive method or inquiry approach; (3) emphasizing the importance of critical thinking; and (4) developing new materials to be used in a multi-media

\textsuperscript{15}Ibid., p. 49.
approach. This project instigated the rise of many other social studies programs. These programs dealt with specific social studies areas such as geography, anthropology, sociology, and economics. A good synopsis of the relevant issues dealt with in these areas can be found in a work published in this same period (1962) by the American Council of Learned Societies and the National Council for the Social Studies.¹⁶

Little or no attention was given to curricular improvement in the area of English in the earlier part of the reform movement. The concentration of concern over the improvement in the areas of mathematics and the sciences inadvertently created an imbalance of emphasis thus leaving the area of English relatively underdeveloped. It was not until the latter part of 1961 that the United States Office of Education instituted the English Program. This program was geared at improving instruction on all levels and in all areas of the English field. Project centers were established at the Carnegie Institute of Technology, Northwestern University, University of Nebraska, Hunter College, University of Minnesota, and the University of Oregon. Research revolved around the areas of reading, composition,

and literature. These curriculum centers have played an important role in redefining English as a subject of study in the schools, in introducing new and improved pre- and in-service education programs for English teachers, and in bringing to the fore the attention needed in this field.

Another field that was receiving very little serious consideration was health education. The School Health Education Study (SHES), under the leadership of Elena M. Sliepcevich, initiated research in this area in 1961. With the support of the Samuel Bronfman Foundation and the Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing Company, this project focused its examination on the status and curriculum of health education in grade levels K through 12. Since its inception in 1961, this project has developed numerous experimental materials which were sequential in nature. Teaching guides for four academic levels were developed: 

"...lower elementary (K-3); upper elementary (4-6); junior high (7-9); and senior high (10-12)."\(^\text{17}\) Health education classes were finally considered as an independent branch of physical education within many school curriculums and began receiving the attention they needed.

The programs just considered are but a few of the many innovative projects which were initiated, and are in many cases, still being carried out. Hopefully the advances made from these endeavors will be effective and long-lasting.

Despite the diversity of content of the many projects which were undertaken, there remained among all of them certain similarities. For one thing, there was the active involvement of the "best minds" from various disciplines. This typically included university professors who were considered scholars within their respective fields. The joining of the "minds" of both educational specialists and scholars from the different disciplines brought to fruition the necessary alliance which was instrumental in giving the reform movement the thrust it needed to move in a positive direction. Edwin Fenton, a well-known writer and lecturer on curriculum development in the social studies, expressed this view by saying that,

It is this involvement of first-rate scholars—and their commitment to their task—that is perhaps the single most striking feature of the new programs. For far too many years in the recent history of education, at least in this country, there has been a wide breach between the university scholars and the men and women who teach the subjects in school.18

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Fenton called the long breach between the scholars and educational professionals an "unnatural separation." He credited the reform movement for bringing together these minds and bridging many of the differences among them.

There were also critics of the reform movement. These critics were not opposed to the reform movement in totality, but rather directed their criticisms toward the almost exclusive attention to improving the secondary school curriculums. Foshay and Beilin commented that,

Much of the curriculum reform during the 1950's and 1960's originated in college departments which sought to improve secondary-school offerings. This "top down" approach has been challenged by Taba (1962) and Goodlad (1964), among others, who would build the curriculum up from the elementary grades. They point out that every change at the secondary level presumes some state of affairs at the elementary level and that the hazard of discontinuity is always present.  

Although there were criticisms of certain aspects of the reform movement, it was apparent that the alliance of minds did much to bring about productive innovations and changes.

A second similarity among the various projects was the interest and enthusiasm in developing effective

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instructional methods and materials. The methods and materials were designed to foster independent discovery and the ability to think clearly. Clark, Klein and Burks attested to this by stating that,

Although curriculum innovators feel the necessity for pupils to know essential academic background, their desire to develop pupils' rational powers has caused them to place their major efforts on teaching methods that encourage transfer from one context to another and the ability to think clearly.  

Closely aligned with the ideas of transfer and critical thinking was the notion of discovery learning or the inquiry method. Teaching strategies were such that, "... the materials and methods have been designed so as to stress discovery of generalizations by the pupils."  

A third similarity among the various projects was found in the area of teacher education. To insure successful implementation, all of the projects had to consider conducting training sessions to prepare teachers to be effective in the new programs. Summer workshops and in-service institutes were two means that were utilized in the


training of teachers. There was also a vigorous effort on the part of many departments of education within colleges and universities to introduce to prospective teachers the various methods and strategies devised by different projects. Fenton stressed the importance of both pre- and in-service training for the successful implementation of the new innovations. In reference to this teacher preparation, Fenton contended that, "...unless this task is carried out, nothing of any real consequence is going to happen. In fact, it could be said that this is by far the most crucial part of any curriculum revision program." The active involvement of scholars, the development of new instructional methods and materials, and the effort toward teacher preparation were three similarities of the many different projects instigated by the "curriculum reform movement."

Hopefully this sketch of the period from 1957 through the 1960's provides some background of the major occurrences during the reform movement. It is further hoped that this resume will put into context and help clarify part three of this chapter.

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3. **The Social Factors: Politics, Religion, and Economics**

Throughout the reform movement it was evident that surrounding social factors had significant effects upon educational discourse. An examination of relevant Yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education and selected publications of the Educational Policies Commission will be made in an attempt to identify the effects of the social factors of politics, religion, and economics on curriculum discourse. It is relatively easy to note the influence which politics and economics have on curriculum discourse and more difficult to illustrate the influence which religion has on curriculum discourse. However indirect or latent the effect of religion is on curriculum discourse, it cannot be dismissed as an important social factor. Hence, where possible, the religious factor will be taken into consideration. For organizational purposes, a primarily chronological examination of the various publications will be employed.

Beginning in 1956 there was a considerable amount of attention focused on national security and the manpower shortage. The literature of this period reflected both the political and economic pressures for educators to develop some means which would aid in alleviating the manpower shortage. The increasing intensity of these pressures
forced educators to confront the problem of manpower shortage; the pressures could not be ignored. In a 1956 publication of the Educational Policies Commission entitled *Manpower and Education*, it was recognized that, "...the fullest possible education of all Americans is the key to meeting manpower needs."\(^{23}\) Underlying the stress for more and better education to meet the needs of the manpower shortage was the concern for national security. National security required men with certain qualifications and training. The security of the nation, in essence, depended on the capabilities of these men. Technological changes and advancement required able men to "...carry on the specialized technical activities in the Armed Forces."\(^{24}\) Schools were encouraged to reexamine their programs and to make the necessary changes in order to keep pace with the demands of the times.

The economic situation of the times made its demands on education. There was a growing need for trained manpower in industry.\(^{25}\) Technological advancements in the

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\(^{24}\)Ibid., p. 18.

\(^{25}\)Ibid., p. 67.
industrial realm called for increasingly better trained personnel. In the same 1956 report of the Educational Policies Commission, it was recognized that schools had to be instrumental in providing the manpower needed to serve the economy. Due to the rapid technological changes and the accompanying demands for better trained personnel, the schools were compelled to update their programs in order to comply with the labor market requirements. Vocational, on-the-job, and college education programs were encouraged by the Commission to help provide the needed training to meet the manpower needs.

The political and economic pressures for better education led the National Society for the Study of Education in its Fifty-Seventh Yearbook, Part II, to deal with Education for the Gifted. The demands of technology and the political concern for quality education brought about mainly by the success of the Russian Sputnik I led to the reaction of educators. Educational literature dealt with

26 Ibid., p. 125.

the demands for intellectual rigor and attention to the gifted. The focus and concern for the academically gifted were a response also to the economic pressures calling for qualified manpower and scientific expertise. \(^{28}\) In his article in *Education for the Gifted*, Robert J. Havighurst claimed that, "A good society cultivates its members, and by their fruits society is made better."\(^{29}\) Havighurst's astute conjecture pointed to the need for tapping the nation's wealth of talent in its young students.

The continued preoccupation with Russia's success with the satellites and the challenges of science and technology seemed to have created an imbalance of effort. The Educational Policies Commission's 1958 report, *The Contemporary Challenge to American Education*, emphasized the fact that "...the future of nations rests in considerable measure upon progress in science and technology."\(^{30}\) However, the Commission cautioned against misplacing or overlooking other priorities that should be of equal concern to society. "But scientific education is not the only need of America today. Fully as important as progress in


science are the promotion of American democracy and the preservation of peace." The dual commitments to science and technology on the one hand and the preservation of peace and democracy on the other hand had to be balanced. Both had to be seen in proper perspective. The ensuing discussion in this report on the "purposes of American education" carried strong overtones of promoting democracy and preserving the peace. It represented, in part, the political influence on the educational discourse of the period.

The strong emphasis on intellectual rigor for the gifted and the concentration on preserving peace and democracy had caused educators to be almost totally oblivious to the needs of the less gifted. In a 1959 statement by the Educational Policies Commission entitled An Essay on Quality in Public Education, educators and the public were reminded that the central value of democracy was respect for the individual. This meant that,

31Ibid., p. 5.

If the schools are to serve the needs both of individuals and of society, they must take account of human diversity and of the multiplicity of society's needs. To be universal, education must be diversified.33

The Commission further stated that in keeping with the democratic ideals of freedom and universal education, the public schools were obliged to "...help the individual recognize the social consequences of his actions and to fulfill his domestic, civic, ethical, and economic roles."34

The political, moral, and economic influence on the educational literature of the period are clearly revealed in the ready acceptance of educators in assuming responsibilities which were civic, ethical, and economic in nature. A natural outcome of this report was the Commission's suggestions for a high quality elementary and secondary curriculum.

Throughout the decade of the fifties, stress was placed on improving the subject matter within the curricula of the schools. A manifestation of this stress was the tremendous amount of attention that was given to the area of science education. As was mentioned, this attention was due in part to the political pressures brought on

33Ibid., p. 7.
34Ibid., p. 6.
by the awareness of Russian advances in the sciences. Both scientists and educators began to reevaluate the subject matter of science and how it was being taught in the schools. The Fifty-Ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education was one endeavor towards reevaluating the area of science education. Besides attempting to arrive at an acceptable definition of science, there was also a considerable amount of concern directed at raising the "intellectual standards" in the area of science education. This report encouraged the teaching of the basics of science to everyone on a mass basis through competent science specialists. Stress was placed on having students conduct experiments and verifying for themselves the practices of scientists rather than merely learning about the theoretical content of scientific experiments. This renewed interest in science education brought about a new understanding and appreciation of science as both a discipline and a challenging enterprise.

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37 Ibid., pp. 23 and 34.
Serious consideration was given to the designing of a well balanced elementary science curriculum.  

During this decade, the pressures for curriculum reform spread from the secondary school level to the elementary school level. The same demands that were made of the secondary schools were likewise emphasized on the elementary school level. At this time, America's political activities and relations with other countries of the world brought to light the need and interest for the learning of foreign languages in the elementary schools. "The growth of America's international activities and responsibilities, both public and private, has led to increasing interest in the development of the linguistic abilities of Americans." Emphasis was also placed in developing stronger programs in the areas of reading, mathematics, social studies, and science on the elementary school level.

The realization of the importance of the elementary school came to fore. The primacy of the elementary school

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38 Ibid., pp. 120-121.


40 Ibid., p. 12.
was recognized in its "...universality and intensity of influence. Virtually all Americans attend this school, and at a period when the school can make a larger difference in their lives than at any later time."\textsuperscript{41} Acknowledgement of the fact that, "...of all educational institutions, the elementary school reaches the greatest number of Americans for the longest time,"\textsuperscript{42} and that all later learning builds on the learning of the elementary school suggested the great potential of the elementary school in influencing the minds of American youths. So much of the attention in the literature of the reform movement was concerned with the secondary school that unfortunately educators seemed to overlook an important period of the child's entire learning experience in the schools. Nevertheless, the same emphasis that was exerted on secondary curriculum reform was now being channeled to improving educational programs on the elementary school level.

In addition to clarifying the necessity for improving elementary education, the Educational Policies Commission\textsuperscript{43} went so far as to specify the need for fostering

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{41}Ibid., p. 3.
  \item \textsuperscript{42}Ibid., p. 5.
\end{itemize}
early childhood education. It was suggested that all children should begin school as early as age four. The focus of this early schooling would be substantively different from the first grade course of study. Instead of the first grade concentration on reading, writing, and arithmetic, the instruction would center around "...four major areas--intellectual, emotional, social, and physical."  

The goals of the intellectual area included the promotion of curiosity, growth of language, and generation of readiness for the intellectual activities that will come in later years. The development of the ability to handle concepts, to perceive and meet problems, and to observe and listen. 

The concerns of the emotional area included the development of a sense of security and self respect. The aims of the social realm involved the development of the child's relationships with other people. Consideration of the physical needs of the child might well entail the school's provision for medical, dental, and visual examinations if these crucial health provisions were not provided by the child's family. Also included in this area would be the

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44 Ibid., p. 8.
allowance for physical activity (play) and rest periods. The Commission highly recommended that these early childhood programs be supported by public funds from all levels of government.

The growing interest in early childhood education led to active attempts to better elementary education. One of the first great steps taken in the improvement of the elementary school curriculum was in the area of reading. In its Sixtieth Yearbook, the National Society for the Study of Education explicitly acknowledged the foundational importance of reading in the elementary school. Educators were called upon to improve reading programs on all levels of education and to be conscious of the needs for "...well-designed reading programs for all elementary- and secondary-school pupils and to promote the extension of reading instruction in colleges and in organized programs of adult education." 47

Technological developments and the advances made through scientific discoveries had an impact upon the


47 Ibid., p. 11.
reading habits of Americans. People were reading more and more in order to keep pace with the rapid increase in knowledge. It was imperative that they be able to read and comprehend fairly sophisticated materials. These surrounding factors and the public pressures for improvement in reading instruction in the schools placed the responsibility of cultivating and strengthening reading abilities on educators. It was hoped that emphasis on reading would promote the personal and social growth of individuals and lead to the development of better informed and more effective citizens.\textsuperscript{48} The \textit{Sixtieth Yearbook} reflected the clamors for developing the abilities necessary for full and effective participation in civic life.

Part II of this Yearbook discussed the effects of social influences on American education.\textsuperscript{49} The complexity and variety of social factors that influenced the schools, especially the curriculums, required that there be some orderly examination and exposition of the effects of these factors. Discussion about political influences did not

\textsuperscript{48} \textit{Ibid.}, p. 13.

emphasize any detrimental effects but rather pointed to a close interrelationship and interdependence between the political realm and the educational enterprise. Just as the political system is "...dependent upon an educational system to provide basic communication of knowledge which can serve as intelligence and skills for those who participate within the political system,"\(^{50}\) the educational system is dependent upon public policy for financial support through taxation.

Although political influences were seen as mainly economic in nature, there remained the basic controversy of local versus federal control over education. The tensions that accompanied this controversy were somewhat relieved when it was publicly established that the federal government had "...no legal authorization to control public education."\(^{51}\) The reciprocal relationships among politics, economics, and education could not be denied or ignored. Cooperation rather than conflict was needed to insure the full effectiveness of each.

\(^{50}\textit{Ibid.}, \text{p. 20.}\)

\(^{51}\textit{Ibid.}, \text{p. 3.}\)
In the early sixties a highly significant statement by the Educational Policies Commission entitled The Central Purpose of American Education was published. An essential message of this work was an appeal to the schools to be committed to the objectives of "...self-realization, human relationship, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility." This publication stressed the idea that the schools were designed first and foremost to serve society's needs. Society's needs were multifaceted and reflected the intricate interrelationships of its institutions. The relationships of education with political, economical, and in a sense religious concerns were clearly evident in the following statement:

The political order depends on responsible participation of individual citizens; hence the schools have been concerned with good citizenship. The economic order depends on ability and willingness to work; hence the schools have taught vocational skills. The general morality depends on choices made by individuals; hence the schools have cultivated moral habits and upright character.

In this same publication the Commission also noted

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53 Ibid., p. 2.

54 Ibid., p. 1.
a "central" purpose to which the school must be oriented, that is, the development of rational powers or the ability to think. The Commission was quick to make explicit that the term "central" was not to be construed as meaning the sole purpose or in all circumstances, the most important purpose. Rather, it should be viewed as a "...pervasive concern in the work of the school." 55

While the development of rational powers in youth was a central purpose of the school, individual differences and needs were not overlooked. In fact, in order to accomplish this purpose special attention had to be given to specific circumstances. The Commission urged that the school meet "...the needs of those who are handicapped in their rational powers by cultural deprivation, low levels of family aspiration, or severely limited endowment." 56  The special needs which were brought to light could not be ignored without serious consequences. The Educational Policies Commission's acknowledgement of the need for the development of rational powers in all youth was stressed in the educational discourse of the reform movement.

55 Ibid., p. 12.
56 Ibid., p. 16.
The Sixty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education made reference to this need. In the chapter entitled "The Relation of Testing Programs to Educational Goals," Robert L. Ebel reaffirmed the Commission's stand that the intellectual development of youth was a primary goal of the school. Ebel directly acknowledged this goal in one of his eleven recommendations for the improvement of school testing programs. He emphasized the importance of cognitive outcomes of education. However, Ebel cautioned against an overemphasis of intellectual goals especially if they were striven for at the expense of other important goals. Contributors to this Yearbook advocated universal education for the slow as well as for the intellectually capable and they suggested adopting educational goals which would serve as means and not ends.

In its 1962 publication, Education and the Disadvantaged American, the Educational Policies Commission

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58 Ibid., p. 40.

specifically dealt with the educational needs of the disadvantaged segments of society. Political, ethical, and economic overtones appeared in this work. The civic demands for universal education and equal economic opportunity as well influenced educators to confront the needs of the disadvantaged. The disadvantaged Americans were identified as

...the sharecropping and tenant farmers, mainly Negro, who worked the better soils of the deep South; the independent subsistence farmers, mainly white, of the Appalachian uplands; the landless Puerto Rican and Spanish-American farm workers; and the reservation Indians. 60

The disadvantaged Americans, geographically isolated and socially bound by the class structure of society, were denied opportunities for equal education and employment. These circumstances have resulted in severe handicaps and a shameful waste of human resources. A tremendous drawback of the disadvantaged American was the inability to effectively compete for decent jobs. This was due, among other things, to the lack of formal education.

The Commission's response to the plight of the disadvantaged American included an appeal to other societal institutions besides education to share in the responsibility of meeting the needs of the disadvantaged. "In

60Ibid., p. 4.
developing the potentials of disadvantaged children, efforts within the school alone are insufficient.\textsuperscript{61} Concern for eliminating this problem had to be extended to the home and the community. In the home, parental hostility towards education had to be overcome. Too often the home reinforced attitudes and habits which were at variance with the goals of the school. The community also had to be involved in the drive for the development of human potentials. Cooperative efforts of the school, the home, and various community agencies had to be established. The Commission claimed that only through such joint efforts would there be a chance of eradicating the educational and economic inequalities which confronted the disadvantaged American.

In 1967, the National Society for the Study of Education similarly published a Yearbook\textsuperscript{62} which dealt with the topic of the disadvantaged American. The Committee of the Society which was charged with the task of preparing this work claimed that the long and persistent ideal held by American leaders that \textquoteleft\textquoteleft . . .education should be looked upon as a process in which the greatest development of

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{61}Ibid., p. 15.
\end{itemize}
each child and youth is sought" was not being realized. Schools were accused of failing to make distinctions between the educationally retarded on the one hand and the culturally disadvantaged on the other hand. In too many cases the culturally disadvantaged students were treated as though they were mentally deficient. Charges were also brought against the schools' failure to provide adequate facilities for the disadvantaged youth.

The Committee claimed that the almost exclusive attention given to the academically gifted and the preoccupation with intellectual development had created an imbalance in emphasis which unfortunately had serious drawbacks in the planning of programs for the disadvantaged. "There is evidence...that programs for those students who are not college bound are often inadequately planned and poorly taught." This situation went hand in hand with the serious economic problem faced by the disadvantaged. Common to practically all these students was the problem of poverty. "Probably the common denominator of the heterogeneous disadvantaged population is poverty--

63 Ibid., p. 1.
64 Ibid., p. 1.
economic poverty with its related social, cultural, and psychological concomitants."  

The Committee pointed out that there was no panacea for the problems of the disadvantaged which were so pervasive in their effects. However, it was recommended that an intensive drive be made to provide reading instruction in the elementary as well as in the secondary schools within the poverty areas. Reference was made to the Economic Opportunity Act and its provisions to prepare young individuals from the low-income areas for the responsibilities of citizenship, to increase their employability, and to provide instruction in reading and writing.  

Much of the educational discourse shifted from an almost total emphasis on "intellectual" development to a comparable concern for vocational education. Perhaps the pressures to provide for economic as well as educational opportunities for the disadvantaged helped to create some concern and draw some attention to the area of vocational education. In another Yearbook of the National Society for

65 Ibid., p. 21.
66 Ibid., p. 129.
the Study of Education entitled *Vocational Education*, proponents of this field responded to both the attacks on the field and the needs for improved vocational education programs. Economic and political reasons were given as justifications for the existence of vocational education.

Economic improvement leads toward a better standard of living for the individual, and this in turn becomes a gain for society as a whole. Vocational education has, therefore, been thought of as a "wise business investment" both for the nation and for the individual.68

The political justification involved the concern for national security. According to the proponents of the field, vocational education provided the manpower which produced the needed materials for national security.69 For the disadvantaged Americans, vocational education provided the training which would suitably prepare them for the job market. Opportunities to learn appropriate job skills were considered a valuable asset, especially to


68 Ibid., p. 5.

non-college bound students. The benefits of well planned vocational education programs would be enjoyed by the individual and the society alike.

So enthusiastic was the interest and concern for vocational education during this period that the federal government passed the Vocational Education Act in 1963 (Public Law 88-210). The Yearbook, Vocational Education, mentioned this Act. The Act provided funds to enable the diagnosis of the ills of vocational education and "... to strengthen and improve the quality of vocational education and to expand the vocational education opportunities of the nation." Provisions were also made to introduce vocational education programs where they had not previously been offered and to conduct teacher training programs, evaluation, experimental programs and so forth.

It should be evident by now that the social factors of politics, religion, and economics exerted influence upon some of the educational discourse of the times. The educational discourse in turn affected the curriculums of the nation's schools.

\[70\text{Ibid.}, p. 199.\]
The intense concern for evaluating and improving American education, generated in large part by the Soviet Union's success with Sputnik I, was not quickly abandoned. This concern directed attention away from more traditional interests towards matters like academic and vocational education and the problems of the disadvantaged American. However, the traditional interests were still important, and thus the Educational Policies Commission's publication, Social Responsibility in a Free Society, concentrated on discussing the traditional and salient topic of social responsibility. Social responsibility entailed the concern for the development of a strong character in each and every American citizen whose responsibilities would be "...not only toward his own affairs but also toward those of others." The Commission considered the school as a primary instrument in the shaping of such individuals for "...it reaches them during those periods of their lives when they are most susceptible to influence."
The elementary school years were seen as especially crucial ones for they were the child's first extended experience with society outside of the confines of the home. Besides cultivating good citizenship and strong character, the school exposed the child to the art of human or social relationships. Implicit in the civic ideal of good citizenship and strong character was the fear of and struggle against the threat of communism and communist imperialism.\textsuperscript{74}

In order to guard against such threats, the Commission stressed the need for Americans to be conscious of their social responsibilities to their fellow men and to their country.\textsuperscript{75}

Curriculum change during the reform movement was made possible in large part by federal government funding. Although the financial support from the government was welcomed, there were those who questioned the position of the federal government as far as education was concerned. There was a fear of government intervention and control. In 1964, the Educational Policies Commission cogently

\textsuperscript{74}Ibid., p. 4.
\textsuperscript{75}Ibid., p. 35.
pointed to the responsibilities of the federal government to education. It was clearly stated that the main responsibility of the federal government was to provide funds necessary for the adequate functioning of the educational system. Decisions about curriculum matters, staffing, the appropriation and use of funds and similar concerns were to be left to the individual states. The Commission contended that the federal government's principle responsibility was one of finance and not control.

The controversies over state versus federal control of education, more federal financial support for educational needs, a stronger voice for education within the federal government and similar matters created an awareness of the close relationship between education and government. Many educators and politicians alike saw the necessity of keeping both in proper perspective and maintaining some sort of equilibrium between the two institutions.

Despite the disagreements over the role of the federal government in education, it could not be denied that


77 Ibid., pp. 10-11.
federal funds "...has placed the federal government squarely in the mainstream of educational affairs, inescapably affecting what is taught and learned in the nation's schools." Goodlad pointed to the fact that the federal government had become involved in determining what takes place in the schools because

..., curriculum change has not been inspired and led at the grass roots local and state levels by teaching, supervising, and administrative personnel in the schools, neither has it been financed by the state or its school districts.

The federal government had taken the initiative of leading the move for curriculum change and also for providing the financial support which was needed to bring about such change. However it should be stressed that federal support did not automatically imply federal control. Many people immediately drew this erroneous conclusion. While some guidelines were set by the federal government, the production of curriculum materials and the actual implementation of the programs were left in the hands of state or local officials.

The issue of the federal government's financial aid


79 Ibid., p. 33.
to numerous innovative educational programs in the states and in the local districts received much attention. The Educational Policies Commission's 1967 statement on this issue, Federal Financial Relationships to Education, discussed categorical and general aid and made some recommendations in regard to the financial relationships between the federal, state, and local governments. The Commission cited some of the weak points of categorical aid and commented that,

Categorical aid hinders the unity of the educational enterprise not only because of the discreteness of its elements, but also because it is administered by many different agencies of the federal government. Categorical aid also tends to be crisis-oriented, based on crash programs with sporadic funding. Moreover, categorical aids tend to be short term, with little assurance of their continuity.

Although it was pointed out that categorical aid was a potential means of federal control over education, the Commission emphasized that this was not to suggest that federal categorical aid had been "...nefarious or ineffective." In order to reduce the threat of political control

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81 Ibid., p. 5.
82 Ibid., p. 7.
over education via federal aid in the form of categorical grants, the Commission supported the idea of general aid. General aid provided for educational programs "...unearmarked funds which lose their identity as federal dollars when mixed with state and local funds..."\textsuperscript{83} The overriding advantage of general aid was that it strengthened the decision making capacity of state and local educational officials. These officials would have the authority to thoroughly study, plan, execute, and evaluate state and local educational programs. Federal guidelines and the use of complex accounting procedures which were stipulated under categorical aid would be eliminated. In this way state and local officials could exercise an autonomy which guaranteed against federal intervention.

In brief, some of the recommendations of the Commission in regard to the financial relationships among federal, state, and local governments were that:

(1) The federal government should guarantee a minimum level of educational opportunity for all students by helping to finance education. This financial support should be allocated to the states in the form of general aids.

(2) The state governments should exercise their authority over education creatively and

\textsuperscript{83}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 9.
responsibly. Weak and indecisive state departments are the surest invitation to federal incursions into state prerogatives.

(3) Local governments should be charged with the operational responsibility for schools within local school districts. Local school faculties and boards of education possess creative potentials that need to be exercised in fruitful educational endeavors. 84

Government aid was extended to support programs for international education. Among other things, the advancements in the areas of transportation and communication intensified international relations. International involvement brought about an awareness of the need for international education. Funds were made available for this educational need when the Congress of the United States passed Title VI of the National Defense Education Act which

...broke new ground in providing federal funds to stimulate colleges and universities to enlarge and deepen their instruction in the languages, culture, society, and thought of the emerging countries of the non-Western world. 85

For a time the emphasis on international education was centered only in the colleges and universities. The push for such programs had not reached the elementary and

84 Ibid., pp. 14-18.

secondary schools. Only much later was attention given to the provisions for international education in the elementary and secondary school curriculums. Harold G. Shane attributed this "curriculum lag" in international education in the elementary and secondary schools to five factors. These were:

1. **Historical**—The strong tradition of isolationism extending from President Washington's warning against entangling alliances, the suspicion and degradation of European immigrants, the rejection of a League of Nations to the opposition against the United States' role in international affairs all have created a kind of "tunnel vision" with regard to international education.

2. **Psychosocial**—"Always sensitive to the possibility of being labeled "un American" by certain pressure groups, the schools have generally sought to escape criticism by avoiding anything that might jeopardize their "neutral" or "impartial" role in controversial matters."

3. **Methodological**—"Methods of teaching that are more or less limited to stereotyping at the elementary-school level have, by their nature, blocked more sophisticated approaches to the development of international understandings."

4. **Materials**—"Books and teaching aids are prepared in response to the market that exists for teaching materials. There has not been a major market for internationally oriented materials... In the absence of good materials, teachers who were not aware of the importance of international education simply were not stimulated or motivated to change what they were doing."

5. **Curriculum**—"...the curriculum itself has posed problems inhibiting any massive infusion of international education. The school day is
already crowded and could become more so.\textsuperscript{86}

Shane's exposition of these factors was a realistic assessment of the obstacles which stood in the way of the inclusion of international education in the curriculums of the elementary and secondary schools. These obstacles could not long be overlooked by educators. Public concern over quality education and federal support through the passage of the National Defense Education Act (Title VI) and the International Education Act of 1966 created pressures to include international education in the school curriculums.

The drive for improving the school curriculums by instigating changes and introducing innovative programs could not be successful without serious consideration of the "...role of the central professional person in the educational enterprise--the teacher."\textsuperscript{87} The Educational Policies Commission recommended the careful examination of the role of the teacher in view of the changing times and circumstances. The National Society for the Study of

\textsuperscript{86}Ibid., pp. 280-282.

Education reexamined the role of the teacher, emphasizing the role of change in the professional preparation of teachers, especially in the evolutionary mathematics field. These professional organizations pointed to the importance of preparing the future teacher for the role he or she would eventually assume. Consideration had to be given to current and anticipated emphases and demands. Many of the traditional courses of study for teachers had become obsolete; they no longer satisfied the needs of the times.

In bringing the discussion about the influence of social factors on curriculum discourse to a close, a consideration of the National Society for the Study of Education's work entitled The Curriculum: Retrospect and Prospect seems particularly appropriate. This publication presented in capsule form the state of the curriculum field—where it was, where it is, and where it is most likely to be in the future. Such an analysis provided a professional reflection on the state of the field.


Particularly apropos to the concerns of this chapter was James B. Macdonald's article "Curriculum Development in Relation to Social and Intellectual Systems." Macdonald informatively declared that curriculum development "... is a very complex and dynamic process..." which "... has not been a simple rational one, but a complex political and ethical phenomena..." The complexity of curriculum development mirrored the numerous factors which influenced it. It was immersed in the social tides of the times. Macdonald noted that,

... our curriculum development projects were at least partially made possible by our role in the world and perhaps most specifically by our competition with Russia, symbolized by the American response to Sputnik. The political overtones of the success of the Russian Sputnik was made clear. The federal government responded with vast amounts of federal funding which was to be used in improving the quality of American education. In this respect, curriculum development was a response to political pressures.

It seemed as though curriculum revision was often, if not always, a response to social pressures. Macdonald

90 Ibid., p. 97.
91 Ibid., p. 99.
explicitly acknowledged this situation when he noted that "...as pressures have grown, the adoption of new curricula, new organizational schemes, etc., have taken on almost a "fad" characteristic." This observation was a caution to all curriculum developers and other educators to be wary of piecemeal curriculum development which was the blind response to the whims of social influences and pressures. However, Macdonald concluded that,

The challenge thus becomes one of taking curriculum development out of the "accidental" category and introducing some form of general rational input into planning, but maintaining the participation and integrity of the persons and groups involved.  

4. Summary

In the view of this investigator a number of important ideas grow out of this review of the literature. The following is a summary of the most significant of these ideas.

Curriculum discourse has been in large part a response to the pressures and demands of the American society. The social factors of politics, religion, and economics

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92 Ibíd., p. 101.
93 Ibíd., pp. 111-112.
have weighed heavily upon the course of curriculum development. It has been recognized that these social factors are intricately intertwined and none can be viewed realistically apart from the other. While it has been somewhat easier to point to the direct effects of politics and economics on curriculum endeavors, it cannot be denied that religion has had influence on curriculum development.

Religion was defined as a system of beliefs, practices, and philosophical values concerned with the definition of the sacred, the comprehension of life, and salvation from the problems of human existence. What are considered as religious concerns surely are not entirely different or at variance with the social concerns of society. It has been pointed out that religious influences have typically taken the form of moral or ethical pressures exerted on education. In many ways, perhaps not so noticeable or easy to recognize, religion has influenced the nature of curriculum discourse.

Curriculum discourse is wholly comprehensible only if it is viewed in its social context. This has become clearer as we traced its course from the late fifties through the sixties. The success of the Russian Sputnik shook American education out of its complacency and created a stir for educational reforms. Had it not been for the occurrence of Sputnik I, there is no telling how long it
would have taken American educators to recognize the urgent need for improved education. The ideological threats advanced by the Russian success created increasing concern for the strengthening of American society via education.

A partial answer to the needs of improved education was the development of an educational reform movement. Educators were encouraged to answer the cry for quality education. Curriculum programs in the nation's schools needed to be revised to suit the changing times. Through improving the quality of education America could keep pace with her fellow nations.

The efforts to enhance school programs were channelled to the development of numerous innovative curriculum projects. These projects were generously supported by the federal government. Political and public demands for quality education spurred the attempts to develop new and innovative curriculums which would satisfy the academic needs of American youth. The collaborative efforts of the finest minds in the education field produced noteworthy achievements in curriculum programs in the areas of science and mathematics, foreign language, social studies, English, and Health Education.

Curriculum development was not always smooth and uniform. Curriculum discourse made evident the almost total emphasis on science and mathematics education in the early
stages of the reform movement. This situation was a clear example of the response to the Soviet Union's success precisely in those areas. Only after this situation was openly acknowledged was equal attention paid to the needs of other academic areas.

For a time attention was focused on the full development of the potentials of the academically gifted. However, the needs of the less gifted and the disadvantaged Americans could not be ignored. The future of America lay as much, if not more, in the development of previously untapped resources. In partial recognition of the immediate needs of disadvantaged Americans, and in response to the needs of national security and the shortage of manpower, attention was directed to the area of vocational education.

In a conscious effort to pursue one of the central purposes of education, that of developing the rational powers of American youth, emphasis was largely placed on the development of cognitive or intellectual capacities, often at the expense of the development of vocational skills. However, attention was soon given to the expansion and improvement of vocational education programs in the nation's schools.

The push for curriculum reform reached down to the elementary school level. Educators began to acknowledge
the tremendous significance of a proper elementary education. The foundations of all later learning rested in the accomplishments of the elementary school years. It was recognized that curriculum improvement needed to be extended to all levels of education.

Curriculum discourse did not fail to investigate the nature and structure of federal support for curriculum innovations. The concern over federal control of the educational system led to many discussions over this issue. It was recognized that education was closely related to politics and a relationship that was advantageous to both should be sought. The reciprocal rights and responsibilities of these institutions had to be respected.

Perhaps central to all the concerns of curriculum revision was the consideration of the role of the teacher. The success of many a curriculum project, in the final analysis, rested on the shoulders of the classroom teacher. Attention was given to the adequate preparation of teachers who could successfully function in the midst of continual change.

The notion of change was considered crucial. Even curriculum development was viewed as a process and not an outcome. The state of the field--where it was, where it is, and where it is most likely to be in the future--implicitly implies the notion of change. It is not
difficult to see that the state of the field at any particular time is influenced by the surrounding and impinging social factors which we have distinguished as politics, religion, and economics. The needs and pressures brought to light by these factors forever keep educators aware of the changing times and this is an asset to all Americans. Identification of these social factors which affect curriculum discourse is necessary if there is to be a conscious rather than a haphazard response to the educational needs of our country.
CHAPTER III

THE EFFECTS OF SOCIAL FACTORS ON THE CURRICULUM
AS VIEWED BY SELECTED WRITERS

1. Introduction

Now that the task of identifying the social factors that influence the curriculum has been accomplished, it is hoped that there is no doubt of the dynamic roles that these social factors play in shaping American education. An understanding of how these factors have affected the growth and concerns of curriculum development within the educational field is crucial and thus warrants further investigation.

From the broad sampling of the educational discourse, as presented in Chapter II, we now turn to an examination of selected textbooks by notable curriculum theorists. Five major works in the field of curriculum have been chosen for content analysis. They are:


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These works were selected on the bases of their influence in and contributions to the curriculum field and their rather recent origins. The appearance of these curriculum textbooks during and immediately following the curriculum reform movement made them particularly appropriate for examination. Perhaps in light of this investigation we may be able to ascertain the positions of these selected curriculum writers and their specific views of the effects of the social factors on the curriculum.

A special effort was made to point out where the various authors considered the social factors of politics, religion, and economics in their works and how they viewed the effects of these social factors on the educational curriculum. However, it should be noted that not all of the social factors were specifically referred to as political, religious, or economic influences. In fact, some of the writers did not address themselves directly to all three factors. Nevertheless, it will be evident that each of the writers in some way considered the effects of the social factors on the curriculum and thus we turn to an examination of their works.
Before doing so, however, it should be noted that because the intensive examination of the five curriculum textbooks led to the necessity of quoting at length in parts, permission from the five different publishers to quote extensively from the respective manuscripts was requested and granted.

2. Selected Writers and Their Works

Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice
By Hilda Taba

Hilda Taba, in Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice, discussed the term "curriculum" in light of what it consisted of rather than circumscribing it in definitional form. She did not attempt to formulate one broad definition of curriculum because she felt that no one definition could adequately convey the meaning and dynamics of curriculum. To her, many definitions of the term were too all encompassing and vague. Much was lost in trying to define curriculum. Hilda Taba offered the following descriptive type interpretation of curriculum:

All curricula, no matter what their particular design, are composed of certain elements. A curriculum usually contains a statement of aims and of specific objectives; it indicates some selection and organization of content; it either implies or manifests certain patterns of learning and teaching, whether because the objectives demand them or because the content organization require them. Finally, it includes a program of evaluation of the outcomes. . . .Curriculum is, after all, a way of preparing young people
to participate as productive members of our culture. . . . A curriculum is a plan for learning; therefore, what is known about the learning process and the development of the individual has bearing on the shaping of a curriculum.¹

In developing a curriculum, as Taba suggested, many considerations must be taken before final decisions are made. While Taba did not specifically address herself to the political, religious, and economic factors per se that influence the curriculum, she was cognizant of these factors and dealt with their effects throughout her work. An attempt will be made to delineate Taba's consideration of the effects of the social factors on the curriculum.

Much of what any school's educational curriculum consists of is determined by the society in which it exists. It is largely what society deems important or what society stipulates as the function of the school that is incorporated into the curriculum. While this seems to be simple enough, deciding just what the central function of the school should be in a democratic society is a much more difficult task than it first appears to be. Unlike a totalitarian society where only a small group makes all of the major decisions, in a democratic society the task of delineating what the schools should be and what they should do is complicated by the fact that different strataums of

society take part in the decision-making processes. Taba commented on this by stating that,

Society's concept of the function of the public school determines to a great extent what kind of curriculum schools will have. In a democratic society these formulations are further complicated by the fact that different layers of society participate in the process of determining what education in general and public schools specifically should be and do.²

An anticipated consequence of multi-group participation is disagreement in some areas of concern. It is not surprising that American society " has by no means agreed about what the central function of the school should be."³

It is obvious that the democratic ideology of equal participation and rights is reflected in the process of determining the nature of education in the American society. The political belief and practice of public involvement in institutional concerns have enabled the various factions in society to influence what transpires in the nation's schools. Even with the divergent viewpoints in regard to the central function of the public schools, there is little disagreement about the importance of the role that education has in the American society. The American people have great faith in the "powers" of education.

²Ibid., p. 16.
³Ibid., p. 16.
Historically the American people have assumed that education has the power to reduce poverty and distress, to prevent child delinquency and crime, and to promote the well-being of the individual, the intelligent use of suffrage, and the welfare and stability of the state. Indeed, even today education, if not the public school, is considered an antidote against evils in the minds of men and an ally in achieving all good causes.\textsuperscript{4}

It is assumed that education is the remedy of the many social ills which plague the well-being of our society. It is a primary means through which society accomplishes those tasks which are necessary for its survival. It is a fact that "...schools function on behalf of the culture in which they exist."\textsuperscript{5}

As already mentioned, there is no unanimous agreement about what the main function of the school is. There have been divided opinions over this matter. Taba presented the competing viewpoints of what the function of education should be of three major groups concerned with this matter.

The first major group emphasized the "preserving" function of education. The advocates of this group were especially interested in the preservation of Western cultural heritage. The main argument of this group revolved

\textsuperscript{4}Ibid., pp. 16-17.
\textsuperscript{5}Ibid., p. 17.
around the statement that,

"...since all cultural traditions have roots, cultural continuity is possible only if education preserves this heritage by passing on the truths worked out in the past to the new generation, thus developing a common cultural background and loyalties."\(^6\)

Intellectual development was seen as essential in preserving Western cultural heritage. Stress was placed on the understanding of basic principles, the ability to cope with complex ideas and to utilize the knowledge gained through learning, and the strong command over effective communication. According to this group, these goals can only be accomplished "...by centering the educational effort on basic skills and disciplines: reading, writing, and arithmetic on the lower level, and logic, history, philosophy, mathematics, science, art, and philosophy on the higher levels."\(^7\)

This basic educational approach carried with it a rejection of the schools performing certain functions in society. Among these were "...education for democratic citizenship, for moral values, and for ability to deal with

\(^6\)Ibid., pp. 18-19.
\(^7\)Ibid., p. 21.
social problems, and the concern for the "whole child" or any form of "life adjustment," including education for vocations. The source of this rejection rested in the belief that modern education was extending its functions to areas which were not of its concern. It was pointed out, for example, that job training was a problem for industry to cope with and thus should not be a responsibility of the school; training in ethical systems, mores, and cultural traits was a responsibility that belonged to the family and the church and thus was not within the province of the school.

It should be noted that such an approach which holds sacred the "preserving" function of education over and above other important functions which are rejected as beyond its realm does not appear to be viable. Social responsibilities cannot be so neatly delegated; there is apt to be some overlapping of responsibilities. While it is accepted that intellectual development is a main area of concern for education, the exclusion of other vital aspects such as vocational training and value orientation cannot be tolerated. The advocates of this basic approach cannot be so limiting in their views.

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8Ibid., p. 21.
The second major group stressed a belief in the idea that,

...education can and does play a creative role in modifying and even reshaping the culture in which it functions, that education and public policy are intimately related, and that progress in one is limited without progress in the other. They maintain that education must deal with the needs of current culture and even help to shape the future.9

According to Taba, this view was promulgated through the works and writings of men like John Dewey and his followers. Their main proposition was that the school was "...not merely a residual institution to maintain things as they are: education has a creative function to play in the shaping of individuals and through them in the shaping of the culture."10 There were political and economic overtones attached to this creative role of education. For example, Dewey saw in his concept of democracy a progressive society that was dedicated to change. Education's role in such a society would be to instill habits that would help individuals "...control their surroundings rather than submitting to them."11 It was insisted that this could be done only in a milieu conducive to cultivating intellectual growth. Consideration of vocational subjects as well as

9Ibid., p. 22.
10Ibid., p. 23.
11Ibid., p. 24.
academic ones was needed in developing the school's curriculum. Taba emphasized that the inclusion of vocational subjects in the educational curriculum was made "...not merely to build utilitarian skills but as "points of departure" for increasingly intellectualized ventures into the life and meaning of industrial society."  

A strong economic influence seems to bear upon this approach. It is evident in large part in the insistence upon including vocational education subjects in the school's curriculum. Advocates of the second group stressed that the prime responsibility of the school was to meet current social needs. Taba viewed this responsibility in two different ways.

The deeper interpretation of this responsibility involves shaping the school program according to a long-term perspective on the realities of the changing society, and an adequate study of a whole range of social needs. A shallower interpretation makes demands on the school on behalf of immediate difficulties and problems.  

An illustration given by Taba of the shallower interpretation was the strong emphasis placed on mathematics and physical science during the curriculum reform movement previously mentioned in Chapter II. The serious concern

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12 Ibid., p. 24.
13 Ibid., p. 24.
over these subjects resulted in a neglect of other vital aspects of public education. Taba attributed this overemphasis on mathematics and physical science in part to "...the "somewhat adolescent feeling of national humiliation" at Soviet advances in missile technology and in part out of temporary anxieties regarding manpower needs in these fields. ..."\textsuperscript{14} This statement aptly demonstrates Taba's awareness of the political and economic influences on the school curriculum.

It should be noted that while the motivations for instigating curriculum reforms may have been somewhat of a shallow nature, the advances made in the mathematics and the physical science curricula were notable. In diagnosing the needs of the students it was found that American students were deficient in these two fields, and so attempts were made to close the gaps which supposedly existed in these areas between American and Russian students. The move for reform in these two fields was not made on impulse. Perhaps the initial reaction to the Soviet space advances and to the manpower needs in the fields of mathematics and physical science may have been shallow, but the curriculum reform that was to follow certainly was not a series of rash or shallow endeavors.

\textsuperscript{14}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 24.
Although there were variations in the elaboration of the second group's belief in the central function of the school, certain common or fundamental ideas were evident. One of the common factors was the imperative for education to work in a cultural setting of a particular society. All of the decisions made in the educational realm, especially in the area of curriculum, were to be suited to the particular cultural needs of the society.

A second common element was the acknowledgement given to the fact that society and culture are constantly changing. The school's challenge in this changing society and culture is to keep abreast of these changes. In order to do so, a "continual reorientation" of the school's aim and curriculum is needed. Without continual adjustments to the surrounding changes, education would become unrealistic. According to the proponents of the second group, this would render the school programs useless because in effect they would not be preparing pupils for the problems and responsibilities of life.

A third common element was the belief "...that education is a moral undertaking." \(^{15}\) This moral undertaking involves value decisions. The decisions made

regarding educational aims or curricular affairs should always involve value judgments. It was further stated that education was a moral enterprise in that it would be responsible for selecting "...which parts of the culture, what wisdom, which values, what ideals to transmit."\(^{16}\)

This view reflects the religious or moral influence that has permeated the nation's schools and their curriculums. Although this may not be regarded as a direct religious influence, the moral implications for the schools seem to have roots extending directly from our country's religious commitments since colonial days.

A variant of the second group, known as the "reconstructionists," viewed education as a means of reconstructing society and as a manager and controller of social change. The reconstructionists advocated that a massive adult education program be implemented that would win both political and educational support for the type of curriculum that they proposed. Essentially the curriculum would be designed with the reconstruction of the society in mind. It was further proposed that there be a reorientation in professional education. An important part of this would be alerting professionals to the current social issues which

\(^{16}\)Ibid., p. 26.
were pressing. The central thesis of the reconstructionists revolved around the notion that "...the transformation of society by technological and scientific revolution is so radical as to require a new moral and intellectual consensus capable of molding and directing this transformation."\(^{17}\) This proposition had serious implications for educators. Educators were challenged with the task and responsibility of analyzing social trends, investigating current social problems, surmising what might be the consequences of these social trends and problems, and projecting certain values and goals which were essential in keeping pace with the changing times. In view of all of this, the core of the curriculum should be focused on current and changing social ideas, beliefs, and institutions rather than on the traditional aspects which aimed at preserving the status quo.

The third major group held the belief that the central function of education should be focused on individual development. Taba referred to the Progressive Education Movement as having emphasized the same goal of the development of creative individuals. Educational effort in this movement centered on developing all the powers and

\(^{17}\)Ibid., p. 26.
potentials of an individual. Special emphasis was placed on the individual's "...creative imagination, freedom, independence, right to self discovery, and physical and emotional powers---in other words, on the 'whole child.'" One outcome of this movement was the establishment of child-centered schools.

Taba claimed that the ideas of this third group have perhaps influenced school programs and practices more than the ideas of the previously mentioned groups. Evidence of this influence can be found in the emphasis on emotional development and the introduction of guidance programs in the schools.

This individual development philosophy is strongly adhered to presently, perhaps extending itself to include even more responsibilities in the concerns for individual development. Individual development today concerns itself with individual differences in backgrounds and capacities, and with equalizing educational opportunity for the benefit of all youth. Education is optimistically considered one of the gateways to social mobility---an equalization factor. Inherent in this tenet is the democratic or political ideology of universal education. This orientation towards education has had a definite effect on the

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18 Ibid., p. 28.
curriculum of the schools which in turn is manifested in the performance of vital functions in society.

Regardless of the variations in the conceptions as to what the central function of the schools should be, it is evident that the arguments advanced were not sterile. All three of the major groups' positions have definite implications for curriculum development. These variations, as seen by Taba, define the needs that are to be served; they bring to light controversial issues which involve and affect curriculum development; they furnish the necessary theoretical basis for making crucial curricular decisions; they affect the concern of individualizing curricular content and methods of instruction.

Taba also discussed the advances of science and technology and their impact on American society and education. The progress made via science and technology transformed human living and, as Taba noted, dazzled Americans. People accepted the advances as social progress. The numerous new inventions, machines, medicine, processes, and other benefits helped to raise the standards of living and health in America. The rapid speed at which such incredible gains were made was enough to bewilder the American people. Taba cautiously pointed out, however, that,

Each step in human advance seems to introduce new problems and perils along with the
benefits. While technical advance emancipates men in many ways which would enable them to live more wisely, more fully, and more freely, it does not automatically ennoble life. It only removes certain disabilities.19

There was a need to temper unprecedented gains with realistic appraisals and yet, there was no denying that the advances of science and technology had revamped human living. The vast changes brought about new benefits and conveniences, but at the same time new requirements were made of the people. Economic demands for more literate and technically skilled individuals pressured the educational system with the responsibility for adequately preparing young men and women to productively participate in the working world. Technological advances brought demands for more technical education, especially in the fields of mathematics and science. The federal government has been instrumental in providing much of the necessary financial support for innovative programs in these two particular fields. Changes in the school curriculums followed experimentation and innovative trial programs.

Taba considered the exaggerated concern over mathematics and science as a confining factor. She viewed the "specialization" training perspective as limiting the possibilities for curriculum development. She felt that

19Ibid., p. 35.
education in general, and the curriculum in particular should focus their efforts toward creating "...a balanced over-all orientation and a perspective toward the whole culture and whole man." This could possibly be accomplished through general rather than specialized education. However, Taba did not elaborate on just how this could be done.

Taba felt that there was an acute need to prepare individuals to adequately cope with the problems of our rapidly changing world. She recommended that a reexamination of past wisdom be an essential part of any individual's education. According to Taba, without this background, it would be impossible to envisage the future.

Schools were faced with the task of providing for another vital need, namely, some direction in value orientation. The rapid social changes confronting society were bound to result in some confusion and conflict in values. Taba suggested that the overemphasis on mathematics and physical science had cultivated a sense of irresponsibility toward self and neighbor. There was an urgent need for reflective thought and definitive action concerning values. Instead of giving so much attention to factual knowledge, it was necessary to pay heed to the

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\(^{20}\)Ibid., p. 42.
need for value orientation. Taba was committed to the idea that education should be a conscious force in providing direction in value acquisition. Education should be receptive to "...experimentation with the ways of developing a more cosmopolitan sensitivity, and with techniques that can produce consensus out of disagreement and common purpose out of conflict of values."\(^{21}\)

Principles and Procedures of Curriculum Improvement
By Vernon E. Anderson

In the text, Principles and Procedures of Curriculum Improvement, the term "curriculum" was viewed as always encompassing a point of view. The author, Vernon E. Anderson, claimed that,

It is impossible to attempt to define curriculum without exhibiting a point of view. However, one's concepts about it will determine the way he goes about developing or revising it. The values that are inherent in the definition will in a measure control actions in curriculum study.\(^{22}\)

Anderson's point of view regarding the curriculum was that it was a series of experiences that a pupil underwent in school.

In this book, the curriculum is defined in terms of the quality of pupil experiences in the school.

\(^{21}\)Ibid., p. 46.

The pupil's experiences are planned, organized, and guided by the school as a social system to serve the purpose of the society in which it exists. The curriculum includes not only classroom experiences but also the extra-class activities: all of these are deliberately planned by the school to serve social purposes.23

In the planning of these experiences, educators are bombarded by the surrounding social pressures or factors that influence the decisions made regarding curriculum design.

The politics involved in curriculum development or revision were discussed as factors directly emanating from state and federal levels. Anderson acknowledged the states' influence upon curriculum planning as a legitimate concern. "The state is the legal curriculum maker."24 He cited the recent enactment of laws by state legislatures requiring schools to provide driver training and education as an example of the states' political influence on the curriculum of the schools. Another example of the demonstrative political influence of the state on school curriculums was the enactment of laws calling for mandatory state-wide testing programs. Many states were requiring that their school districts "...administer an achievement test related to the course of study approved by the

23 Ibid., p. 6.
24 Ibid., p. 69.
State Board of Education."\(^{25}\)

Closely allied with the influence of the state legislatures was the influence of the state agencies such as the state departments of education and state boards of education. State departments of education have traditionally been endowed with the authority of specifying the areas of the elementary school program, stipulating graduation requirements for the secondary school level, enforcing state laws regarding education, planning in conjunction with the schools for curriculum improvement, producing curriculum guides, and so forth. Anderson mentioned a newer service of the state departments of education which was the establishment of "...research departments that collect and disseminate data, conduct statewide research projects, and consult with schools concerning local research projects."\(^{26}\) Many of the responsibilities of the state departments of education are shared by the state boards of education. The recommendations and directives issued from the state departments and boards of education and subsequently carried out by the schools are clear illustrations of the political influence on the curriculum of the schools.

\(^{25}\)Ibid., p. 70.

\(^{26}\)Ibid., p. 71.
The power of the state departments and boards of education over the local public school curriculums has not met with serious opposition because, "Traditionally, the United States has had a decentralized system of education. Curriculum development has been the function of local and state school systems." Thus, the political influence exerted on the schools from the state level was and remains quite acceptable to local communities and educators.

The federal government's role in curriculum improvement has increasingly expanded over the years. Anderson made reference to the fact that ever since the federal government entered the curriculum-making field, its influence has become pointed. "When the federal government entered the field of curriculum-making in vocational education in 1917, its influence became more direct than mere suggestion-making." Anderson likewise noted that, "This influence was considerably increased when the federal government also entered curriculum-making in the fields of science, mathematics, English, social studies, and languages." Although Anderson acknowledged the benefits

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27 Ibid., p. 72.
28 Ibid., p. 73.
29 Ibid., p. 73.
of federal aid to curriculum development and revision, he did not make judgments for or against such aid. With federal aid obviously came some federal intervention. Anderson, however, commented on the role of the federal government in curriculum planning by prudently stating that the "... desirability of its involvement is a question for debate."30

The political influence on elementary and secondary school curriculums is evidenced in the course of study followed by the schools. The governmental pressure for improved mathematics and science programs following Russia's success with Sputnik I, was perhaps one of the clearest examples of political concern over the school curriculums. The ensuing race in space programs, coupled with the advances in science and technology, created serious political ramifications which were felt especially by the nation's schools. The political, economic, and religious or moral consequences experienced by the American people as a result of the Russian feat were enough to change the course of American education.

Anderson pointed out that relatively little attention was given to science education in the elementary schools prior to Sputnik I. This situation was rectified through pressures exerted from the public and through the

30 Ibid., p. 73.
funds distributed via federal aid programs.

The passage of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 by the 85th Congress has been a real incentive for educators to re-examine the place of science in the educational program and to plan and provide new educational experiences for children. The availability of funds has made possible an increase in materials for use in science instruction and a variety of programs directed toward the improvement of science education.31

Many other areas besides science education received the benefits of federal support. The elementary school curriculums were improved in a variety of ways. In the area of physical education, the elementary school accepted "...the responsibility of helping each individual maintain and improve his physical fitness."32 The National Physical Fitness Program which was generously supported by the federal government has been a major impetus for improving the physical education programs in many elementary schools.

Federal funds made available through the National Defense Education Act were instrumental in establishing programs for world understanding and foreign languages on the elementary school level.33 The advances in communication and travel made it imperative for such programs to

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31 Ibid., p. 254.
32 Ibid., p. 260.
33 Ibid., p. 265.
be established.

The secondary school curriculums have undergone drastic changes during the last decade. Anderson called this series of changes a "renaissance." The technological revolution and the explosion of knowledge had created tremendous demands upon the secondary school curriculums.

During the last decade we have been witnessing a world-wide renaissance in secondary education. Demands are being made on the secondary school curriculum as a result of the technological revolution and explosion of knowledge. They are the manifestations of an age of specialization, in which it becomes more important for a person to be truly cultured; of an age of mass production, in which it becomes increasingly difficult to be an individual; of an age of social revolution, in which social stability is a prominent goal; of an age of uncertainty, in which a person has more need than ever for security.34

Anderson noted that the demands which were made on the schools during the sixties covered a wide range. An overriding demand was the pressure for better quality secondary school curriculums. At this time, the term "excellence" seemed to have been synonymous with the interest in quality education. The proponents of "excellence" in the schools realized and "...emphasized that it takes excellence in teachers, excellence in materials,

34Ibid., p. 307.
excellence in facilities, and excellence in method and content to have a high quality product." Anderson maintained that quality education did not mean better programs for select groups of students but rather better programs for all students. "Concern for quality education should be mindful of the quality of experience that every pupil has in secondary school—the slow learner as well as the fast learner, the disadvantaged as well as the advantaged." The democratic ideal of universal education is clearly evident in the concern for quality education for all and the public and political support for this ideal had serious ramifications for the secondary school curriculums.

Attention was directed at developing new programs to accommodate both the intellectually able and talented students who excelled in school and the less gifted students who did poorly in school or very often dropped out of school. Both political and economic factors were reflected in this concern. An increasingly sophisticated economy demanded highly trained personnel and any loss of

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35 Ibid., p. 308.
36 Ibid., p. 308.
potentially productive and skillful manpower due to dropping out of school was a hindrance to the progress of modern technology.

There is no doubt that the modern technological age evidences a vastly increased need for high intellectual attainment, the use of the mind for both general and specific knowledge. . . . The advancement of knowledge in different fields requires more highly trained personnel. . . . The total loss of trained manpower is reflected in the fact that one of three of the nation's youth drop out before they finish high school. 37

In order to combat the loss of manpower and to meet the demands of modern technology, the federal government provided funds for the explicit purpose of improving the curriculums of the nation's schools. During the curriculum reform movement of the sixties, the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 38 released federal funds which were instrumental in the development, revision, and advancement of vocational education programs. The economic demands for highly trained manpower and the political aid in federal funds clearly demonstrated the effects of the economy and politics on the curriculum of American schools.

Anderson pointed to international understanding as another area subject to recent critical concern. In the

37 Ibid., pp. 308 and 310.

38 Ibid., pp. 317-318.
past, international understanding was largely confined to discussions at conferences and little attention was given to it in the schools. "Until a few years ago, the objective of international understanding was still largely a subject for discussion at conferences." The recent attention given to international understanding brought about considerable changes in the school curriculums. Anderson made note of these changes and commented that,

The world, rather than America and Europe, has become the source for content to be studied. World literature holds a larger place in English classes. The Russian, Arabic, Chinese, and Japanese languages have been added to the traditional languages studied in high school or college.

Although Anderson does not explicitly attribute these changes to political influences, implicit in his discussion is the political concern over the cultivation of knowledge and skills in foreign languages and world understanding. The American government's involvement with foreign countries of the world has brought about an awareness of the necessity for international understanding. It would not be presumptuous to say that curriculum planning

39 Ibid., p. 316.
40 Ibid., p. 316.
in the area of international understanding can be indirectly attributed to the American involvement in world affairs and directly ascribed to federal financial support, through various Acts, for numerous curricular projects.

Anderson explicitly referred to the salient role of the federal government in curriculum development in one of his other publications by acknowledging the fact that,

The most potent of these forces is the federal government. . . . It is important to note that every one of these acts providing federal aid to education makes funds for equipment, buildings, fellowships, programs, research, or teacher education available either in specified fields or within specified conditions that tend to control what emphasis will be given in curriculum or research. Consequently, there has been a shift of power from local and state agencies to federal agencies.41

Anderson discussed the role of religious factors in curriculum development more in the light of values and moral commitments. He saw that it was imperative for the curriculums of the nation's schools to fulfill a responsibility of better preparing students to live in a society whose values were changing. "A curriculum that prepares youth to deal with change recognizes that cultural values also are in the process of change and that the resulting

conflicts make examination of values a necessity."\textsuperscript{42} The changing value system in American society creates conflicts in the lives of people and these conflicts must be resolved in some way, if only in acknowledging that crucial values are changing and tenuous. The schools can better prepare students to face this situation by requiring them, in the course of their education, to examine personal and social values crucial to human life. This can be done through structuring such experiences via the school curriculums. A reconciliation of changing values and the need for stable convictions must be attempted, and the school curriculums can be instrumental in resolving this impinging need.

Other social factors that have affected the public schools and their curriculums have found expression in the articulations of organized groups and individuals within the community. "The public school is subject to a variety of criticisms and pressures from organized groups and individuals within the community."\textsuperscript{43} Anderson confirmed the rights of these groups to criticize, question, and become


\textsuperscript{43}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 62.
involved in the concerns of the school, but he also cau-

tioned against some of the dubious motives of such groups.

Some of the concerns of pressure groups are valid; some are smokescreens for concealed purposes. Some represent the sincere conviction of a group of thoughtful people; other are matchsticks for rable-rousers and fuel for the maladjusted and malcontent.  

Typical examples of organized groups, which in one way or another have influenced public education, include the National Association of Manufacturers, the American Association of Railroads, other industrial organizations, business groups, and labor unions. Also included are parent-teacher associations (P.T.A.), school community councils, and citizen groups.  

In the past and more recently, regional accrediting agencies have been influential in curriculum planning in the secondary schools. Standards in education have been raised or maintained as a result of evaluations and constructive criticism by these agencies. They have specified course requirements for graduation, made recommendations regarding facilities, staff members, instructional materials, and so on. 

Influence on the curriculum has been exerted by the regional accrediting agencies through regu-

\[^{44}\text{Ibid.}, \text{p. 63.}\]

\[^{45}\text{Ibid.}, \text{pp. 63-64.}\]
lations for secondary schools and through certification that graduates of accredited schools are eligible for admission to colleges. Mainly the externals have been specified, in the form of course requirements or the number of credits or units required for graduation. ⁴⁶

Institutions of higher education have had an influence on the curriculums of the nation's schools. This was made evident by the leadership they provided for curricular innovations during the curriculum reform movement. Anderson attested to this influence by claiming that,

No doubt colleges and universities have had an influence on the American public school curriculum, not only through teacher education, but also through research, curriculum centers and laboratories, consultation by faculty, conferences, and publication. ⁴⁷

Anderson mentioned that these colleges and universities also had an indirect influence on the secondary school curriculums through their entrance requirements. Completion of specific courses of study were required before students would be eligible for admission into these colleges and universities. This sort of minimum requirement policy set essential criteria which the secondary schools had to meet before their graduates could continue with their education.

⁴⁶ Ibid., p. 71.
⁴⁷ Ibid., p. 72.
Another source of influence on the curriculum emanated from textbook publishers, testing programs, and authors of these various publications. The influence they exerted was far reaching.

In the same sense that state courses of study influence the nature of the curriculum on a state-wide basis, textbooks, testing programs, and the authors of these publications affect the curriculum on a nation-wide basis. For the textbook is often the only curriculum guide that the teacher follows, or chooses to follow.\(^48\)

Anderson noted that the production companies which prepare instructional materials, equipment, and various programs on a variety of audio-visual mediums, wielded a similar influence on the school curriculum.

Numerous philanthropic foundations have had considerable influence upon the curriculums of America's colleges, and elementary and secondary schools. These foundations have emerged and grown in numbers since 1950. The financial support received from these foundations have brought to fruition many school programs which would otherwise never have been developed or implemented.

Beginning in the 1950's, the foundations began to exert a substantive influence on the American college and public elementary and secondary school curriculum.\dots There were in 1963 more

\(^{48}\textit{Ibid.}, \text{ p. 76.}\)
than 15,000 private philanthropic foundations with assets of about $12 billion.\textsuperscript{49}

Anderson, however, pointed to some drawbacks which accompanied the philanthropic funds. He noted that foundation funds were often made available only for certain kinds of programs, usually stipulated by the donors. This resulted in a neglect of other areas that were perhaps more in need of financial backing. Anderson critically observed that those programs that were funded were often "... without enough objective evaluation of results."\textsuperscript{50}

In view of all of these pressing influences upon the school curriculum, Anderson cautioned against the inordinate attention given to immediate needs and influences without regard for long-range planning and the almost exclusive concern over specialized training as opposed to a general education. With respect to long-range planning, Anderson maintained that,

Most thoughtful persons today would say that the curriculum should change to meet the needs of a technological age. However, the tough question is how any school program can prepare for needs that change so constantly....It may well be that when the children now in

\textsuperscript{49}\textit{Ibid.}, pp. 76-77.
\textsuperscript{50}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 77.
school go through college and into civic and professional life some skills will no longer be as essential as they are now. Continuous assessment of the trends and changes in American life as related to the world-wide situation needs to be made in order to develop long-range aims for the school program.51

Anderson seemed to be wary of curricular planning which ignored the constant change in human needs and focused only on the immediate needs of the time. Such short-range planning could never adequately prepare students to be ready for the future. Today's influences and demands upon the school curriculum may become antiquated within a relatively short time, thus possibly creating gaps in the education of the youth. Those individuals who are involved in curriculum planning for the schools must be mindful of not only the present needs but also the future needs of education. One thing is certain and that is that change is inevitable and thus must be structured into curriculum planning.

Anderson was also critical of the lingering preoccupation with specialized education necessary to meet the requirement for a technically trained work force. He contended that this preoccupation had led to a neglect of the school's concern for a general education. "It is disturbing to find some who interpret the need for technically

51Ibid., pp. 329-330.
trained individuals, such as engineers and scientists, as providing a license for neglecting the matter of general education. Anderson acknowledged the need for technical or specialized know-how, but at the same time he saw even greater needs for insight into how people might cope with the constantly changing world and for competence in human relation skills.

...the problems of the future lie not only in keeping up with or surpassing other nations in technical know-how, but even more so in surpassing them in insight in adjusting people's ways of living to rapid technological expansion and in insight into the skills of human relations.

Anderson felt that a general education could meet the many needs of a complex world.

General education that stresses values, attitudes, and understanding necessary to deal with complex issues of the world today is a solid base of secondary education from which specialized learning stems in order to provide for individual interest and skills.

Anderson seemed to be well aware of the social factors which impinge upon the curriculum. Despite these pressures, he saw that it was crucial for curriculum planning to be kept in proper perspective. In the final analysis, the success or failure of the educational curriculum would be manifested in the successes or failures

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52 Ibid., p. 330.
53 Ibid., p. 330.
54 Ibid., p. 330.
of its products, the students of American schools. Of this, Anderson seemed to be convinced.

Curriculum Planning for Modern Schools
By J. Galen Saylor and William M. Alexander

In the textbook, Curriculum Planning for Modern Schools, J. Galen Saylor and William M. Alexander defined the term "curriculum" as encompassing "...all learning opportunities provided by the school." The terms "curriculum" and "program" were thought of and treated as synonymous by the authors. The direction and emphasis in the planning for learning opportunities were seen as susceptible to various social influences.

Prominent among the factors which influenced the planning and execution of school curriculums was the political element. Saylor and Alexander acknowledged the political influence exerted on the school curriculums by the federal, state, and local levels of government. Traditionally and by law the responsibility for the administration of schools has been assumed by the individual states. The authors attested to this fact by asserting

that, "Statutory provisions and tradition have perpetuated in the United States the legal responsibility of a state to establish and maintain an educational system." This historic precedent in no way suggests that the state alone has the power to determine the course of the educational system.

In fact, the federal government has instigated and controlled much of curriculum planning within the states and this has been a source of some uniformity among the curriculums of the schools of America. The mere fact that there is no federal system of education does not imply that the federal government has no authority over curriculum planning. Federal influence is exerted mainly through its large grants for educational projects and innovations. Saylor and Alexander recognized this and emphasized that,

... the absence of a federal system of education does not mean that the federal government exerts no influence on curriculum planning.... The federal government has more directly influenced curriculum planning through its various grants for educational purposes.  

Technically, the states could reduce the federal government's influence or control over the curriculums of state schools by refusing the financial grants extended by

56 Ibid., p. 8.
57 Ibid., pp. 26-27.
the federal government. However, Saylor and Alexander observed that,

...the states and districts have usually been eager to take advantage of any financial aid possible, so that to the extent requirements are stipulated and met there are forces on curriculum planning emanating from the federal governmental structure.58

The authors also noted that the specifications which accompanied the federal government's funds were generally not unreasonable. However, one of the foremost objections of many educators was that the federal government supported programs only in certain curriculum areas. This almost exclusive financial aid to particular programs neglected the needs of other important areas of study. Federal support generally came in the form of special or categorical grants and many educators considered this a renunciation of local control over curriculum planning.

Many educators consider the system of special or categorical grants to favor certain curriculum areas a repudiation of local curriculum control, and urge that federal grants be general in nature with the decisions as to their allocation among curriculum and other needs to be made at state and local levels.59

The arguments, pro and con, over federal versus state and local control over curriculum planning were

58Ibid., p. 27.
59Ibid., p. 27.
lucidly presented by the authors. Although they recognized the need for stronger national efforts in educational endeavors and the inadequacies of state and local control over curriculum planning, Saylor and Alexander adhered to the position that state and local regulation should take precedence over federal control.

We strongly affirm the nature of curriculum change as a local, broken-front, people-involved phenomenon. To summarize our point of view, we believe curriculum decisions should be made by those most directly involved in the planning and carrying out of learning activities for pupils: teachers, school administrators, boards of education, and parents.60

This position taken by the authors does not infer that there should be a total separation of federal from state and local governmental interests in curriculum planning. In fact, Saylor and Alexander recommended that state and local curriculum responsibility should be maintained "...with full use of national resources and leadership."61

Saylor and Alexander did not directly address the issue of religious influence on the curriculum, but they discussed it indirectly, perhaps, when they referred to the

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60 Ibid., p. 13.
"...values, ideals, beliefs, traditions, and mores of the social group." The school is an agency established by society to serve its needs and purposes. Society has certain "ends-in-view" to which the school is obligated to strive for. These "ends-in-view" include the transmission of values, ideals, beliefs, traditions and mores of that particular society.

Hence the fundamental obligation of the school as a social instrumentality is to achieve the goals that the citizens have in mind as they establish and operate the schools. These aims, in general terms, comprehend the transmission of the culture of the society and its values, beliefs, ideals, traditions, aspirations, and modes of behavior so that not only will these unique characteristics of a social group as well as the integrity of the society itself be perpetuated, but the conditions of life of the social group will be improved.

Although the emphasis upon values, ideals, beliefs, traditions, aspirations, and modes of behavior does not refer to a specific religious influence upon curriculum planning, it does point to the responsibility that educators have to consider the moral development of individuals. Such a responsibility cannot be taken lightly without serious consequences.

Technological advances of the twentieth century

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62 Ibid., p. 85.
63 Ibid., p. 84.
have brought about significant changes in the economic realm. There was a decreasing need for unskilled workers and at the same time an increasing demand for more technically skilled workers. This economic situation brought pressures to bear upon the nation's schools. The educational systems were challenged with the task of training individuals to enter a rapidly changing and an increasingly sophisticated working world. The changing manpower requirements called for the reexamination and redesigning of school curriculums.

One of the most significant results of all these technological advances in recent years is the change in the nature of employment in this country. . . . The shift in occupational patterns, of course, sets essential conditions for the planning of pre-vocational, vocational and technical education. . . . Because of the marked changes occurring in both job requirements and employment opportunities, American workers must have as high a degree of adaptability as possible and must possess the basic knowledge, understandings, attitudes, and character traits that will enable them to adapt to employment dynamics.64

The schools were inevitably forced to reexamine their curricular offerings and to attempt to bridge the gap between academic preparation of youth and the occupational needs of the economic realm.

64 Ibid., pp. 114, 115, and 116.
Coupled with the growing demand for highly skilled workers was the serious problem of unemployment. High school dropouts represented a large proportion of the young unemployed. This disturbing fact reflected a weakness in the school curriculum. Saylor and Alexander expressed concern over this situation when they maintained that,

Unemployment is a serious problem for many Americans. On the average, during 1964, 3.9 million Americans seeking work were unemployed. ... But the educator is particularly disturbed by the fact that unemployment, which is exceedingly high among young people, is highest of all among school dropouts.65

Educators were confronted with a glaring indicator of a weakness in the educational system. Effective measures to combat this situation were sought. The headway made in the area of vocational education seemed to show the way. Saylor and Alexander observed the improvements that were being made in the vocational education area. They cited some of the critical reasons why improvement was drastically needed in this area.

Many reasons underlined the needs accumulated by 1960 for substantial curriculum study and improvement in the field of vocational and technical education. The persistence of unemployment in an affluent economy was evidence

65 Ibid., p. 116.
of the need for additional vocational training of many early school dropouts and also of youth who fail to secure vocational preparation in their secondary and early college years. . . . Furthermore, training programs in many secondary schools had little if any relevance for the job opportunities available. 66

The authors cited the Vocational Education Act of 1963 as a prelude to the even greater awareness needed to instigate changes in the curriculum of vocational education. "What may prove to be a monumental step forward in vocational education is the federal Vocational Education Act of 1963." 67 A growing interest in vocational education paved the way to needed reform.

The economic demands for specially trained individuals made by business and industry and the political financial support for vocational education generated by the federal government demonstrated the economic and political interests in the curriculum planning of the nation's schools. Many of the changes and innovations in the school curriculums were instigated by these forces. Besides these rather obvious influences on curriculum planning, Saylor and Alexander discussed several other social factors which exerted influence on the school curriculum.

The population growth of the United States has

66 Ibid., pp. 324-325.
67 Ibid., p. 326.
created and will create urgent demands upon the nation's schools. The school systems would have to be prepared to accommodate the needs of every generation of students. The population growth was and will be sure to affect curriculum planning. The authors commented on this by saying that,

The implications of the population boom for curriculum planning are many. Of immediate and pressing concern is the responsibility of providing adequate facilities for the schooling of children and youth who will enroll in the years ahead. The new buildings that must be planned and constructed provide opportunities for the educator to design school plants that will enable the teaching staff to develop an imaginative and forward-looking educational program.68

The circumstances attending population growth suggested that attention be given to the "...problems of international cooperation and relationships, to the methods whereby peace among nations may be maintained in spite of rivalries for more space and for a greater share of the world's resources and products."69 Saylor and Alexander recommended that the schools be instrumental in providing students with the insight, knowledge, attitudes, and understanding necessary to live cooperatively not only among themselves but also with the peoples of the world.

68 Ibid., pp. 105-106.
69 Ibid., p. 106.
The "knowledge explosion" or expansion created as many demands upon the school curriculum as did the population explosion. The prolific amounts of knowledge accumulated by scholars, inventors, and researchers presented a problem to curriculum planners. The most efficient means of handling and transmitting knowledge and the specification of what knowledge was most worth conveying were problems which curriculum planners needed to address themselves.

The dilemma facing the curriculum planner is apparent. What knowledge out of this vast reservoir should be selected for students to study? What knowledge is of most worth? To what extent should a common program of studies be required of all pupils and to what extent should specialization be encouraged in the common school?70

The answers to these questions posed by the authors are crucial, for they will, in large part, determine the course of curriculum planning for the nation's schools.

A third kind of "explosion" that had implications for curriculum planners was in the realm of communications. Progress in communications had changed local, national, and international living. Some of the changes and advancements made included the following.

70Ibid., p. 107.
Television, instantaneous intercontinental voice and television communication by satellite, simple reproduction of written, typed, or printed materials, new techniques of visual presentation, the storage and organization of data and information by electronic methods, and high-speed solution of all sorts of problems and analysis of research data are examples of trends in communication and storage of knowledge.\(^7^1\)

The curriculum planners were encouraged "...to incorporate in the curriculum plans suggestions and recommendations for the use of all sorts of material."\(^7^2\) The progress in communications held unlimited possibilities for improving knowledge and fostering the quest for new knowledge.

The population growth, knowledge explosion, and communications expansion are but three of the many social factors which have influenced curriculum planning. Curriculum planners must be ever mindful of the changing forces in human society. These forces have created certain strains for curriculum planners. Curriculum planners are always faced with the problem of maintaining a balance of emphasis among all of the educational areas. It is not surprising that increasing demands and pressures upon the schools to pay closer attention to certain fields have had

\(^{71}\text{Ibid.}, \text{p. 111.}\)

\(^{72}\text{Ibid.}, \text{p. 111.}\)
detrimental effects on other areas. The gains in some educational fields seem to be made at the expense of others.

The perennial problem of maintaining balance among the subjects which compete for their place in the curriculum has not thus far been solved by the ferment in the subjects. In fact, the problem has been sharply accentuated by the great pressures to increase enrollments in certain fields, naturally at the expense of others at the secondary and college levels, and to subsidize certain fields but not others.73

The problem of maintaining a balance in the curriculum was complicated by the situation that government funds from the federal level were being channeled to support programs and innovations in certain areas and not in others. While the funds were supposedly used to correct deficiencies in some educational areas, there seemed to be weaknesses developing in other areas. The political implications and financial support favoring the areas of science, mathematics, and foreign languages led many to interpret this situation in contrasting ways. Saylor and Alexander were aware of this situation and presented their views on the matter by contending that,

Comparisons of the figure on pupils' programs in the 1958 graduating class and federal expenditures for support of programs four years later could be interpreted as an effort by the

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73 Ibid., p. 328.
federal government to correct an imbalance in the secondary school curriculum. However, many also interpret the situation as support of a new imbalance favoring science, mathematics and foreign languages over other subjects. One thing is certain: the competition continues. We also believe it certain that basic decisions as to appropriate emphases on respective subject fields need to be reached locally within a framework of minimum expectations, probably set at the state level, and of agreed-upon criteria for determining balance in the curriculum provided.74

It was evident that the "imbalance" in the school curriculum was not the sole issue in question. Inherent in this argument was the accompanying fear and disapproval, on the part of many educators, of the control of the federal government over the state and local governments in the curriculum planning area. Saylor and Alexander saw the problem of imbalance in the school curriculums as one that had to be resolved through local decision-making processes rather than from pressures exerted from the federal level. Federal funding did not necessarily justify federal control.

On the other hand, Saylor and Alexander could not deny that the national curriculum studies, which were in large part supported by federal funds, were beneficial in many ways.

On the favorable side, many of the national curriculum studies seem to be effectively breaking

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74 Ibid., p. 329.
away from long-standing patterns of organization which encourage poor learning experiences and fail to develop basic learning skills. . . . The great investment made in the national projects and the cooperative effort involving representatives of the disciplines and the schools may well be producing better-defined and better-learned concepts as well as insights into their continuing definition and learning. These projects have also given welcomed attention to the development of learning skills and interests for continued learning. 75

The authors commented upon the prolific amounts of new instructional materials that were products of the many national curriculum projects. Special recognition was given to the efforts of these projects for including studies of the processes of development and evaluation and for establishing extensive in-service programs for teachers. There was no denying that these curriculum projects spurred needed improvements.

Despite Saylor and Alexander's acknowledgement of the benefits of federal financial aid and the national curriculum studies, they strongly adhered to the idea of local responsibility in curriculum planning. They suggested that the state should lend a helping hand to local curricular endeavors. "Although we have adhered in this book to the principle of local initiative in the curriculum field, we do hold that the state agency should give strong

75 Ibid., p. 331.
leadership and support to local curriculum planning activities."  

The authors advocated autonomous local curriculum planning, but they did not reject state or federal financial aid and counseling. However, they were totally against direct federal control over curriculum planning.

Saylor and Alexander suggested that the local schools and state education agencies should work together in curriculum planning. They expressed concern over what the nature of the relationship between the local schools and state education agencies should be. They proposed the following criteria for evaluating this relationship.

1. The state education agency should organize and assist some suitable representative group to serve as a curriculum evaluation commission.

2. Local districts should be aided in maintaining continuing organizations for curriculum improvement, each such organization being planned locally to fit the particular situation.

3. Each state program directed toward improving instruction in a particular division or divisions of the school system should provide means of facilitating local study, innovation, and evaluation.

4. State educational support should include allocations of funds for curriculum research, experimentation, innovation, and evaluation.

5. The state department of education should periodically make systematic evaluation of its services to school districts, and modify its

76Ibid., p. 434.
program in the light of evidence received.77

It is obvious that the authors took rather firm stands on the issue of political control over curriculum planning. Particularly evident was their support for local initiative in the curriculum field. However, they did not hesitate to delineate the responsibilities which local, state, and federal levels of government had in relation to each other.

Perhaps most important in their work was the authors' insight into the various factors which affect curriculum planning. Saylor and Alexander were well aware of the fact that curriculum planning does not occur in any social vacuum.

Curriculum Principles and Social Trends
By J. Minor Gwynn and John B. Chase, Jr.

The technical vocabulary associated with the field of curriculum has sometimes made it difficult for both educators and lay people alike to go beyond the troublesome veneer of jargon to acquire the meanings intrinsic to the field. Gwynn and Chase attempted to dispel the ambiguity associated with the term "curriculum." They offered the following definition of the term.

77Ibid., p. 435.
It is the trend among thoughtful educators and laymen to consider the curriculum as being made up of all the experiences, both curricular and extracurricular, that children have under the administration of the school. Interpreted in the light of this definition, the program of studies of the school would also be the curriculum. 

This broad interpretation of the curriculum avoided the danger of setting limits as to what the curriculum entailed. The school curriculum determined all the learning experiences of students and it was likewise determined by a number of factors. The curriculum was not planned independently of social influences. Some educators have thought of these influences as "motives." Gwynn and Chase saw these motives as emanating from five areas.

Five outstanding motives have dominated the development of the curriculum of the schools in the United States: (1) the religious; (2) the political; (3) the utilitarian; (4) the mass education motive; and (5) the motive for excellence in education.

These motives have been crucial in determining the course of education in American schools. They have been manifested in the process of curriculum planning and implementation. From these motives stemmed demands and expectations which were to be satisfied.

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79 Ibid., p. 1.
From the motives that have dominated the development of American education came demands, pressures, and dreams to be fulfilled. Whether the motive was religious, political, or excellence for all, the American school has been expected to provide courses, activities, and experiences in response to the cultural demands and cries of a rapidly growing and changing society.80

These motives have not remained the same over the years. Although change came very slowly in some instances, there has been modification of these motives. The relatively static society which was controlled largely by religious motives was replaced by a dynamic society subject to diverse influences and pressures. The changes which have occurred were not free from objection, question, and debate. Gwynn and Chase observed that,

As the cultural motives changed, so did the expectations of the school. But change was often slow and was not without fear. Growing from a static society dominated by religious motives to a changing society influenced by political motives, mass education, and excellence has not been without confusion, contradiction, and debate.81

An examination of the political, religious, and economic influences as viewed by Gwynn and Chase will be attempted.

The political influence or "motive" grew in importance especially in the period following World War II.

80 Ibid., p. 35.
81 Ibid., p. 35.
Gwynn and Chase pointed out that this influence was in the form of federal school and social legislation, the "... (4) pressing need for more highly trained personnel to keep abreast of national defense needs in the very expensive "cold war"; and (5) the elevation of the United States to the leadership of the free world." Federal school and social legislation have significantly changed the role of the federal government in education. The federal government seemed to have assumed more responsibilities in the educational realm. The numerous educational acts and laws passed by Congress during the years 1963 to 1966 were evidence of the increasingly important role played by the federal government in education. The wonderment and fear of federal control led many educators to be concerned over "...whether the local school district curricular pattern that has been traditional in American education will be replaced by a nationwide one, primarily set and controlled by the Federal government."  

Gwynn and Chase seemed more concerned over the lack of professionally trained staff members in the area of "schoolwork" in the federal agencies designed to implement

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82 Ibid., p. 104.
83 Ibid., pp. 104-105.
or enforce federal legislation concerning education than
the prospect of federal control per se.

It may be that these many separate Federal laws
will all eventually be held to be constitutional;
if so, a large amount of the control that the 50
states and their subdivisions now exercise over
their schools' administration and curriculum will
certainly revert to the Federal authorities; and
the governmental agencies established or designed
to carry out these laws all too often are sadly
lacking in officers and personnel professionally
trained for schoolwork.84

Despite the attending drawbacks of federal involvement, the
benefits accrued from the various federal laws and acts
have been innumerable. The authors briefly discussed ten
federal acts which have provided financial help for the
development of certain curricular areas. Because some of
these acts have already been covered in this dissertation,
attention will be given to those acts which were not pre­
viously reviewed. An account of the curricular impli­
cations of these acts, as viewed by Gwynn and Chase, will
be attempted.

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 which forbade discrim­
ination on the bases of sex, race, color, religion, or
national origin had tremendous ramifications for education.
The legal stipulation for equal employment opportunity
affected the participation of minority group members,

84Ibid., p. 105.
including women, in the labor market. This situation in turn influenced the course of vocational training. Gwynn and Chase were sensitive to the implications which this held for the vocational training curriculum. They claimed that,

Vocational training and retraining practices, including part-time school work programs and internships, will be vitally affected in the long run for more and more work opportunities will open wide for females in various fields of employment.85

The Act also concerned itself "...with interpretations in the guidelines to eliminate segregation in public schools all over the country."86 Such a task was sure to affect the school curriculum. Manifested in this Act were the political motive or influence in the forms of financial support and guidelines, the mass education motive for universal education, the economic motive for more and better trained manpower, and the motive of excellence in education which was responsible for numerous curriculum improvements.

The Federal Communications Act of 1963 provided funds for the development of educational audio-visual facilities and ways of effectively utilizing these facilities. As an amendment to the National Defense Education Act of

85 Ibid., p. 105.
86 Ibid., p. 105.
1958, this Act, under Title VII, has been instrumental in promoting ". . . research and experimentation in the communication arts of television, motion pictures, and radio, and for preparing new teaching materials and methods through audio-visual devices." The production of television programs for classroom viewing has done much to broaden the scope of the curriculum in many of the nation's schools. In some respects, educational television has revolutionized teaching. However, Gwynn and Chase cautiously commented that educational television and similar audiovisual aids can broaden the curriculum in the schools significantly only "...if these provisions are well planned and handled with adequate scope and sequence." Political support has been noticeable in this area.

The Library Services and Construction Act of 1964 was another amendment to the National Defense Education Act of 1958 which made available federal funds for education. "This amendment to the act makes it possible for school and community to cooperate in establishing a public

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87 Ibid., p. 108.  
88 Ibid., p. 108.
library if a community does not now have one." The National Defense Education Act provided funds to equip the public libraries with audio-visual facilities and materials. The public libraries would act as resource centers serving local schools that had no libraries or limited services in this area. It was assumed that the schools could expand their curricular offerings by taking advantage of the facilities of the public libraries. The political motive or influence of the federal government was obviously present, but the extent of its direct power over curriculum planning cannot be ascertained. Economically, the federal government provided funds for equipment, materials, and services which may otherwise not have been possible just through state or local support.

The Manpower Development and Training Acts of 1962, 1963, and 1965 provided financial aid for the training and retraining of youths to enable them to qualify for employment.

These acts provide financial aid in training youths 16 years of age and older. MDTA works under the Labor Department through the community and local offices of the Bureau of Employment Security. Through individual guidance testing procedures unemployed youth and those needing retraining are identified.

89Ibid., p. 108.
90Ibid., p. 109.
Under these Acts, the responsibilities of training and retraining youths are undertaken by two agencies. The Bureau of Employment Services Division of the United States Department of Labor has the task of identifying those youths who are in need of employment and vocational training or retraining. This Division also searches for available jobs, specifies the training requirements for these jobs, and then contacts the state vocational education departments which are responsible for providing the needed training to fulfill the requirements for the job openings. The state schools act as an agent of the United States Department of Labor by providing the necessary training or retraining programs for youths. Gwynn and Chase considered this method of training and retraining youths to be "cumbersome." They expressed a valid concern over this situation by asking a poignant question. "Will this cumbersome plan of labor training eventually result in removing responsibility from the local school and its community for part-time work programs that fit rapidly changing local job needs?"

This plan has not excused local schools and their communities of the responsibility for part-time work programs. What it has done is to assume charge over a task that should obviously be performed by local school

91Ibid., p. 109.
districts. The truth is that many local school districts are unwilling to provide the necessary funds for such programs or simply do not have the funds to provide for such services. Although this plan appears to be ponderous and seemingly assumes responsibilities which belong to local school districts, it nevertheless helps to fulfill the employment needs of youths. The Manpower Development and Training Acts enabled schools to respond to pressing economic needs.

Other social motives or factors weighed heavily upon curriculum planning. Large increases in population coupled with intra- and intermigration within and between the states created tremendous impacts upon the nation's schools and their curriculums. Gwynn and Chase defined intra- and intermigration in the following way.

Intramigration means the movement of people from one part of a state to another part, usually an urban center, of the same state. Intermigration is defined as the movement of people from within the boundaries of one state into the boundaries of a different state.92

There were several important reasons for this migratory movement. The first reason was the decline in the number of agricultural jobs available due to the tremendous advancements in automation. Many workers who were involved

92 Ibid., p. 116.
in the farming industry were forced to find new ways of making a living. They were compelled, in many instances, to be "...retrained and absorbed into other occupations in a new world of automation, or they remain untrained and jobless." 93 The inventions of the cotton picking, tobacco planting, grain planting, and harvesting machines replaced many unskilled farm laborers. Automation reduced the need for thousands of farm workers who were then dependent on making a living in other occupations which demanded skilled labor. Very often the only alternative left open to these workers and their families was to migrate to other counties or states in search of employment.

A second reason for the migration movement was the entrance of large numbers of women into the labor force. Gwynn and Chase pointed to the fact that "...women are now a major factor in the labor force, and they are here to stay." 94 During World War II, the labor shortage was responsible for introducing many women into the labor force. The end of the labor shortage did not mark the end of female participation in the working world. According to the authors, "A majority of women are retrainable, and they travel to where the jobs are, mostly in urban and suburban

93 Ibid., p. 116.
94 Ibid., p. 117.
areas or in industrial centers."^{95}

A third reason for the increase in the migration movement was the exodus of certain groups from the cities. Because of the slum-like conditions, crime and poverty, racial conflict, and similar social problems many people have left the cities. "A marked result of this complicated city situation has been the flight of all kinds of upper income-level groups to suburbia or urban-fringe areas for both residence and schooling."^{96} This selective migration has left certain low income level groups with very little hope and financial support for the improvement of city schools. Urban renewal programs have affected some of the social conditions in American cities, but an evaluation of the success of these programs remains to be undertaken. City zoning laws which have played havoc with the schools, have many implications for the school curriculum. Zoning clearly tends to spatially group people from similar income levels. This means that children whose parents are ranked in the same social classes inevitably will attend the same public schools. Gwynn and Chase felt that this situation confined children to very narrow social and economic worlds. They were being robbed of the social

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^{95}Ibid., p. 117.
^{96}Ibid., p. 117.
stimulation that variety had to offer. Such conditions in the cities were compounded with the problems of transient school staffs, inadequate educational materials and equipment, run-down school buildings and facilities, and similar problems.

The changing conditions in society which stimulated intra- and intermigration of American people have certainly affected the curriculums of American schools. Provisions had to be made to accommodate the educational needs of a geographically mobile population. In some cases, people were not only displaced from homes they had known all their lives, but were forced to seek employment in areas in which they had no training. Curriculum planning helped to make possible programs of study in the areas of vocational and technical education in the hope of cultivating needed knowledge and skills. Children whose parents had moved as well as children whose parents had remained behind were victims of the educational situations and conditions confronting them. As can be expected, society looked to the schools as a healer of the social ills and problems plaguing it. With the help of the federal government, local school districts have taken steps to alleviate some of the pressing problems confronting the schools. However, much more remains to be done.
In the attempt to answer the educational needs of the American populace, local school districts have been dependent upon the financial aid and guidance of the federal government. The political influence or motive is again easily visible in the federal government's involvement in the situation. The economic influence or motive is clearly manifested in the demands made of the schools to develop adequately skilled workers for the job market. In many ways curriculum planning has been a response to the occupational needs of a growing economy.

Gwynn and Chase discerningly observed that the religious motive or influence has again assumed a position of relative importance in American society. They contended that "... the religious motive is the only one that was almost entirely inoperative for many years, but has today again become a major factor." The role of religion in modern society cannot be underestimated. The influence it exerts upon the American people cannot be denied or ignored. Gwynn and Chase noted that,

More than 250 denominations in the United States exert a large influence upon the homes and the children in the homes of the nation. Each of twenty-four of these denominations has as many as 200,000 members or more; fifteen have more than 1 million members each. More than 118

97Ibid., p. 29.
million Americans are members of one religious denomination or another.  

Serious implications for the curriculum and the teacher exist. The classroom teacher must be sensitive and understanding of the influence of religion upon children and "...be prepared to help the child in those adjustments that relate to the church and its moral and ethical standards." Similarly, the curriculum has been affected by the religious motive. Many secondary schools have adopted programs which are called "character" education. As an adjunct to religious education, "...character education has been sandwiched in, or made a unit in the course in social living, or in home and family relationships, or in human relations."  

Because of its controversial nature, religious education has had to remain in the school curriculum under the guise of moral or character education. The continuing controversy over religious teaching, including the reading of the Bible and the topic of spiritual values, has perhaps been an indication of the increasing importance of the religious motive rather than an indication of its decline. 

The issue of religious education has been the 

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98 Ibid., p. 81.
99 Ibid., p. 82.
100 Ibid., p. 343.
subject of various Supreme Court rulings. In the Schempp Case in 1963, the Supreme Court ruled that Bible reading programs in the Pennsylvania public school curriculums were a violation of the First Amendment of the Constitution and in the Engel Case in 1962, the Supreme Court ruled against New York's optional prayer programs. These decisions of the Supreme Court have not marked the demise of the religious motive in the school curriculum. Various states have approved release-time for students to attend classes in religious instruction. This acknowledgement of the importance of religious instruction and the development of programs for moral and character education in the public schools are evidence of the religious influence on the school curriculums.

Gwynn and Chase's consideration of the influence of the social factors on the curriculum has pointed to the dynamic aspects of curriculum planning. They have aptly suggested that the curriculum is a process and not a product of continuous planning.

Curriculum Improvement: Decision-Making and Process
By Ronald C. Doll

In Curriculum Improvement: Decision-Making and

101 Ibid., p. 638.
Process, Ronald C. Doll defined the term "curriculum" in rather broad terms. He maintained that,

The commonly-accepted definition of curriculum has changed from content of courses of study and lists of subjects and courses to all the experiences which are offered to learners under the auspices or direction of the school.102

Doll clarified the notion of "all experiences" by stating that,

The curriculum involves what happens in classrooms, auditoriums, gymnasiums, hallways, cafeterias, school activities—anywhere the children are under the direction and guidance of the school. It includes informal experiences as well as formal ones. It is as big, broad, and all-inclusive as the lives of people in any major American institution.103

Doll's broad definition of curriculum suggested that the boundaries of the province of curriculum had been enlarged. This meant that there was likewise an extension of the responsibilities of the curriculum developer, because now all of the experiences of the learner and not just a few were to be subjects for study and improvement.

This expansion of the entire educational, as well as the curricular enterprise, has magnified the position of the school in society. It has also compelled educators to be more sensitive to the surrounding social factors.


103 Ibid., p. 232.
which affect curriculum planning. According to Doll, the pressures from these social factors on curriculum improvement emanate from the society at large in four major ways.

The society at large affects curriculum improvement in four major ways: by inhibiting change through the power of tradition; by speeding change which stems in turn from broader social and cultural changes; by creating problems which result from value conflicts within our society, and by applying pressures that originate in major segments of American society and culture.104

In his discussion of the forces of tradition, social and cultural changes, value conflicts, and social and cultural pressures, Doll made evident the political, religious, and economic influences exerted upon curriculum development.

Doll noted the existence of societal forces which supported tradition and inhibited change. Legal authority, in the form of laws, was cited as one example. It is not uncommon for laws which have long lost their applicability and meaning to be needlessly perpetuated. Doll claimed that,

Society has at its disposal several forces that support tradition and inhibit change. The first of these is legal authority. Laws are frequently more easily enacted than they are repealed. Hence, a law that establishes a day a year for the planting of certain trees as an exercise in conservation education may have outgrown its usefulness, but the law is likely to remain on the books anyway.105

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104 Ibid., p. 67.

105 Ibid., p. 68.
Such antiquated laws, which are not easily rescinded, present obstacles to change. They can effectively conceal the need for revising outdated modes of thought and behavior. In such cases, the dictates of tradition can only result in the stifling of progress. Such laws which hinder educational and curricular improvements need to be re-evaluated and reexamined, for they not only pitifully cling to outdated forms of teaching and learning, but they also, perhaps unwittingly, prevent the development of new ways of thinking and acting.

A second force which supported tradition and inhibited change was the social acceptance of the principles of right and wrong. The American adherence to the Judeo-Christian tradition had implications for the school curriculum.

A second force, which is of enduring consequences and which exercises desirable restraint, is generally agreed-upon principles of right and wrong. From our Judeo-Christian tradition we have inherited notions of property rights and individual rights which are virtually immutable. Thus, education in the decent treatment of other people has become, and remains, an objective of the school.

This second force exercised what Doll called a "desirable restraint." The Judeo-Christian belief in the respect of property and individual rights was influential in the

\[106\] Ibid., p. 68.
educational realm. Such a belief, the roots of which were
eMBEDded in religious conviction and tradition, safeguarded
against educational changes which were planned without
proper regard for the rights of individuals.

A third force which supported tradition and inhib­
ited change was the psychological resistance to change.
Human resistance to change has often stood in the way of
educational innovation and progress. Skepticism concern­
ing the new and untried has prevented the acceptance of
many potentially worthwhile changes. Teachers have often
resisted change even when they have been unable to prove
that their curriculum and methods of teaching were effect­
ive in the process of educating youths. The security
found in the familiar is not easily traded for the uncer­
tainty that accompanies change. Doll noted that,

Human beings resist change so energetically that,
in some areas of their lives, they would rather
die than shift their positions. Many a teacher
cannot prove that his curriculum and methods of
teaching are actually functioning for improved
learning, but he will resist to the death any
effort to move him away from them.107

In addition to tradition, social and cultural changes
influence the course of curriculum improvement. American
society and culture are constantly changing, despite the
strongholds and oppositions of cherished tradition.

107Ibid., p. 68.
Society influences action for curriculum improvement in a second way: by bringing to bear upon the curriculum those changes that occur in the wider society and culture. Despite the influence of tradition in holding social forces in check, society is constantly changing.108

Doll discussed, in brief, three changes in American society which appeared significant and deserving of attention because of the implications they had for the school curriculum. The first of these changes was the "...continuing development and communication of knowledge."109

The growth and change in this area seemed to have been economically dominated by the nation's big businesses and by the government. Some of the changes which have occurred over the past forty years as a result of the continuing development and communication of knowledge were the following.

1. Discovering new knowledge and putting it to use have increased fifteenfold.
2. Education in old knowledge and in ways of finding new knowledge has increased fourfold.
3. Publishing and printing have grown tenfold.
4. Information machines, from typewriters to computers, have increased fourteenfold.
5. Professional services have increased threefold.
6. Entertainment has grown threefold.110

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Some of the ramifications of these changes affect the kind of education that is provided in the public schools. The curriculum developers have to find a trustworthy means of deciding what knowledge should be chosen for study and how this knowledge can best be imparted. This rapid increase in knowledge has changed the course of everyday living and the schools have been instrumental in preparing individuals in coping with the change. A major goal of the school has been to produce individuals knowledgeable in various aspects of human living, thus enabling them to live productive lives.

A second significant change in American society was described by Doll as "...a shift from political and social passivity to intense feeling about political and social concerns." Doll suggested that such a shift could be attributed to the following factors.

One of these is the shift of viewpoints from conservative to liberal and from liberal to conservative concerning hot social issues. Another is the rise of a psychology of youth which exalts as heroes political figures who excite the imagination of those who "think young," regardless of their chronological ages.

Doll felt that the nation's schools were presently "ill-equipped" to teach students how to meet and handle these

111 Ibid., p. 71.
112 Ibid., p. 71.
changes. He did suggest that attention should be given to the affective domain of learning as a possible means of helping students to cope with the intense feelings about personal and social issues. However, he did not explicate or expand upon just how this could be done.

A third significant change in American society was an increase in the movement of people. For numerous reasons, families in the United States frequently move from one geographic region to another. This situation has created numerous problems for both students and schools. The students were very often faced with adjustment problems and the schools were faced with the responsibility for educating transient students. After completing their high school education, the total curriculum of these students appear to be a hodge-podge of courses. Doll referred to this total curriculum as a "crazy quilt."

The population movement has not only been within the borders of the United States. A large number of migrants from Puerto Rico have entered the United States. This movement has had tremendous effects upon American schools. Doll observed that,

Movement from south to north and from Puerto Rico to the mainland has been especially marked in recent years. Schools in our larger cities have been forced into curriculum reform by the influx of culturally deprived children to whom standardized tests are not applicable and to whom American middle-class
experiences are foreign.\textsuperscript{113}

Migrant parents and children have been confronted with the problem of cultural adjustment. The changes in the way of life posed numerous problems for these migrants. Very often, cultural misunderstandings created unnecessary tensions and conflicts between the established and the migrant groups. Doll highly recommended that cultural understanding be a primary objective of the school.

Children in school, as well as their parents, will have real difficulty in understanding and accepting values and ways of life of some of the people around them. Accordingly, education for cultural understanding must become one of the most prized goals of the school.\textsuperscript{114}

The school curriculum is forced to take into account the necessity for cultural understanding. Cultural understanding can be cultivated in the classroom. Students can be taught to accept and appreciate cultural differences.

Besides tradition and social and cultural changes, value conflicts exert an influence upon curriculum planning. The rapid changes in society, the complexity and diversity of people and things, and the existence of competing ideas, beliefs, and ideologies all affect human values. It is not surprising that value conflicts exist in American society.

\textsuperscript{113}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 70.
\textsuperscript{114}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 72.
Such a situation, however, complicates the process of education.

Conflicts in values are inevitable in a society as diverse and complex as ours. As conditions change so do the people, objects, and ideas we value. . . . By diversity, our society has fostered value conflicts which complicate schooling. Nominally, for instance, we value bilingualism, but we discourage "foreignism" in speech and writing. As teachers, we value grammatical structure at the expense of experimentation with the living, growing English language.115

Doll pointed to a contradiction of the American belief in the "propagation" of democracy. He accused Americans of conveniently propounding to believe in the value of a democracy when in actuality their actions were quite to the contrary.

Nearly all Americans give lip service to democracy as a fundamental value. However, few of us behave consistently in accordance with democratic principles; this is especially true with reference to race and social class.116

The inconsistency between accepted beliefs and actual behavior of adult role models negatively affects the values and actions of children. Such a dilemma places much of the responsibility of remedying this situation in the hands of the schools. Doll commented on this by saying that,

115Ibid., p. 73.
116Ibid., p. 73.
Fortunately, the values of individual pupils change as the pupils are exposed to value-changing experiences. The schools have a special responsibility for helping learners change values which are dangerous and negative.\textsuperscript{117}

Doll briefly but specifically cited three sources of value conflicts which have affected the work of the school and community agencies. One of the sources was the increasing social control exercised by major institutions over the destinies of individuals.

One of these is the degree of social control which has been exercised over the destinies of individuals. Big government, big business, and big labor are chief offenders in molding the attitudes and regulating the lives of individual citizens.\textsuperscript{118}

These political and economic factors have exerted tremendous influence upon the curriculum development process. The effects of these factors on the curriculum field and its discourse have been noted.

A second source of value conflict was the so-called "new morality," popular among the young. "Another source of value conflict is the so-called "new morality," which is really a level of morality as old as man himself, now practiced in an environment of newly-increased freedom."\textsuperscript{119}

The "new morality" was a cause of confusion and uncertainty in American society.

\textsuperscript{117}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 74.
\textsuperscript{118}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 74.
\textsuperscript{119}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 74.
A third source of value conflict involved the value effects of the mass media. The profound effects of the mass media, both desirable and undesirable, should not be underestimated. "The third source is a conveyor of social effects, the mass media, (television and paperback books, etc.) which communicate at will either diverse and unselected values or planned, prepackaged value systems." This tremendous influence of the mass media directed educators to critically study and evaluate their impact upon values.

It is imperative that curriculum developers be sensitive to the changes in values and the implications that these changes might have for education. Teachers too must be conscious of the critical importance of changing values and they must have clear values of their own. Doll noted the important role of the school in relation to the shift in values.

Each serious shift in values requires curriculum leaders to consider the meaning which the shift has for education. At the same time, all teachers need clear values of their own, especially with reference to the role of the school in society. If the school's role is to be large and omnibus, nearly every change in values must mean something to teaching and learning. If it is to be small and limited, many changes in values may be ignored.

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120 Ibid., p. 74.
121 Ibid., pp. 74-75.
Besides tradition, social and cultural changes, and value conflicts, social and cultural pressures affect curriculum improvement. Societal pressures have always weighed heavily upon the schools. Very often individuals and groups having no formal ties with the school press for certain changes. Generally they have directed their efforts at speeding the process of educational reform.

Lately, a major charge against educators has been their conservatism in failing to promote certain reforms in education rapidly enough. The pressure for reform has come, in many instances, from persons and organizations having no official connection with the schools. For whatever the fact implies, ideas and movements in both elementary and secondary education have originated to some extent with individuals and groups who have never taught in or administered a school.122

It should be emphasized that without these external pressures for reform, the conservatism of many educators would override the drive for change. In such a situation, the schools would be acting as staunch agents of the status quo, which is not always for the good of the society. Regardless of the professional objections to these non-school group pressures for reform, it must be acknowledged that many worthwhile changes have been instigated through the persistent efforts of these non-school groups.

Of course, educators should not be easily swayed by

122 Ibid., pp. 76-77.
popular opinion just for the sake of appearing liberal or satisfying dissenting voices. The utility and value of the proposals and demands made by non-school groups should be subject to study and evaluation. There can be no blind acceptance of useless or even harmful practices under the guise of reform measures. Doll observed that,

Curriculum personnel may well take an openminded attitude toward proposals for educational change. Some of these personnel are insisting, however, that these proposals be tested whenever they can be, lest inferior innovations be allowed to affix themselves to educational systems which are already overburdened with unjustified practices.123

Doll further recommended that a clarification of the tasks of professional educators and laymen should be undertaken. "Surely educators must help to clarify further the distinction between tasks for laymen, a distinction which still remains partially unclear."124 Perhaps such a clarification might help in clearing up the confused notions of what the roles of both parties should be.

Societal pressures on the schools also appear in the area of educational funding. During the relatively recent curriculum reform movement, educators have witnessed the funding of numerous curriculum projects and innovations.

123 Ibid., p. 77.
124 Ibid., p. 77.
Huge amounts of federal money were poured into educational programs. Many educators have interpreted this support as an intervening threat involving the competitive loyalties of state grantees to federal grantors of financial support. Many school officials resented the fact that federal funds were made available only for limited and specific purposes. Doll acknowledged this situation and claimed that,

> As an intruder in the field of large-scale funding of public education, the federal government, especially as represented by the United States Office of Education, has become a threat to those school officials who resent the fact that federal grants are customarily made for limited and specific purposes which are determined by a few persons at a central place. . . . Many persons in local communities fear the growth of a federal colossus whose agents allegedly wheel and deal with friendly state officials in the interest of destroying local control and developing a national curriculum.\(^{125}\)

The political pressures exerted by the federal government, through funds for curricular innovations, were resented by many professionals. While the financial support was certainly beneficial, the attending threat of federal control always hung over local school officials. This precarious situation well illustrates the nature of societal pressures on the school curriculum. While it appears that the positive aspects arising from federal financial support outweigh the negative aspects, the pros and cons of federal funding

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\(^{125}\)Ibid., p. 78.
still remain a controversial issue subject to debate.

Doll's analysis of the influence of the social factors upon the school curriculum has suggested that a global rather than a provincial perspective should be taken in curriculum development and improvement. Such a perspective would safeguard against premature decisions concerning the curriculum.

3. Summary

The sampling of curriculum discourse in this chapter presented the views of several curriculum theorists concerning the effects of the social factors of politics, religion, and economics on the curriculum. Although there were variations in the definitions of the term "curriculum" which the authors offered, a common thread ran throughout their definitions. It was generally agreed that the curriculum was a series of all the experiences of a child under the guidance or administration of the school. A particular society or culture decided what the necessary experiences should be for an individual to successfully participate in the life of that society or culture. Curricular decisions about what experiences were necessary in the education of youth were influenced by several salient social factors. The influence of the political, religious, and economic
factors were discussed in detail.

It was evident that the curriculum development and improvement processes could not be oblivious to the pressures emanating from the American society. A curriculum which ignored the realistic needs and demands of the social forces in society was nothing more than a "paper curriculum." Such a curriculum was destined for failure, for in the actual practical situation, it was dysfunctional.

One of the greatest challenges of curriculum developers was meeting the needs of a constantly changing world. Values change, knowledge increases, the whole way of life becomes more complicated and still, it is the task and responsibility of educators to prepare individuals for productive lives in society. Such a grave responsibility could not be taken so lightly, for the consequences of failure were often irreparable. A constantly and rapidly changing society suggested a need for a dynamic curriculum. It is quite likely that a successful curriculum would be a truly dynamic one.

In the process of curriculum improvement, the influence of the political, religious, and economic factors were evident. Each of these factors brought to bear influences and pressures which were generally accounted for in the school curriculum. There were both desirable and
undesirable, valid and invalid, creditable and questionable demands made upon the nation's school. Curriculum developers are constantly bombarded by social pressures, some for change and some against, some positive and some negative. The curriculum must answer to the demands of all these social forces, which are often contradictory, and strike a wholesome balance in the educational experiences of youth.

In this challenging and sometimes threatening process of curriculum development, there is always the striving for excellence. There is no place for mediocrity in the curriculum endeavor. This is not to suggest that curriculum decisions are always the right ones or that the American educational system is free from flaw, rather it is to emphasize the importance of always struggling to achieve excellence. Americans have long displayed an unflinching faith in its educational process and it is a credit to curriculum developers that "...America's faith in universal public education is its greatest asset."126

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1. Introduction

After having examined the influence of the social factors of politics, religion, and economics on educational literature in general, and as viewed by several selected curriculum theorists in particular, it seems appropriate to consider the implications for future educational and curricular processes. Perhaps it would be more proper to ask and to investigate how our conceptions of what the future holds affect the educational and curricular processes in the present. At any rate, we can neither sever the past from the present nor the present from the future, for time has bestowed upon us a grand continuity which lends meaning to human life.

While men have generally cherished the past and have been absorbed in the present, the future seems to have always held a particular fascination which has attracted the minds of the best of men. The science fiction of yesterday has become the scientific reality of today, and
we have the creative and insightful minds of future looking men to thank for that. It is a mere step further to realize that today's dreams and fears may be tomorrow's truths. We should, however, derive a tremendous satisfaction from the fact that man alone has the power to fashion his own future, for he is not totally a creature of fate or destiny.

Especially in the present age of uncertainty and constant change, we seem to orient ourselves more and more to the future with the intention of better comprehending and coping with it. Edward T. Hall asserted that,

Not only do we Americans segment and schedule time, but we look ahead and are oriented almost entirely toward the future. We like new things and are preoccupied with change. We want to know how to overcome resistance to change. In fact, scientific theories and even some pseudo-scientific ones, which incorporate a striking theory of change, are often given special attention.\(^1\)

Hall realistically added that,

While we look to the future, our view of it is limited. The future to us is the foreseeable future, . . . Indeed, our perspective is so short as to inhibit the operation of a good many practical projects, . . . For us a "long time" can be almost anything—ten or twenty years, two or three months, a few weeks, or even a couple of days.\(^2\)

While we have inquiringly focused upon the future, there is


\(^2\) Ibid., p. 20.
little doubt that a mere superficial curiosity or interest in the future will not suffice in preparing ourselves for something as inevitable and as real as the present. Yet, however limited our views of the future may be, we must not be discouraged in our attempts to cope with and prepare for the future.

Educators in particular must give serious attention and thought to the future, for their decisions always involve some goals in the future. Educators must endeavor to make knowledgeable projections of the future so as to have some direction in educational planning, especially in the area of curriculum. Shane felt that the field of education was now sophisticated enough to give serious thought to a continuum of educational experiences for the future. In essence he said that,

...education now has reached a level of sophistication at which serious thought can and should be given to the development of a carefully reasoned and well-designed continuum of experiences for the learner, one which can replace the disjointed divisions of the past and present.3

We turn now to the thoughtful analyses of some future looking individuals who have concerned themselves with the

educational and curricular processes of the future, keeping in mind the influence of the social factors of politics, religion, and economics.

2. A Look at the Future

One conception of the future is that it is not some obscure reality in the far distance but that it is entrenched in the present. The future is so overwhelmingly pervasive that it reaches into the present. Margaret Mead suggested that the future is now occurring.¹ One thing that is certain is that we must take an interest in and give careful attention to the future because it is every man's inheritance from both the past and present.

The future should be of special concern to educators, for it appears that more than others, educators are responsible for building the future. Loy emphasized the fact that, "The process of education can no longer be geared to helping man cope with the static realities of the nineteenth century, but must instead become the means whereby

man can creatively construct the future." Despite the fact that some educators and some other professional people are skeptical about the "crystal ball" look into the future, most educators and professional people now realize that a serious concern for the future is more than fanciful speculation or wishful thinking. Although the future is not determinative, it can be the subject of valid and fruitful study. McLuhan and Leonard poignantly asked and wisely answered the following question.

Can we view this future, the hard and fast of it? Never, for it will always come around a corner we never noticed, take us by surprise. But studying the future helps us toward understanding the present. And the present offers us glimpses, just glimpses. . .

These glimpses of the future are an improvement over the blind speculations of men who lack the vision and foresight of seriously contemplating the future. Such perceptive glimpses of the future, which come only through intensive and sincere study, are valuable in helping educators deal with the future.

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In order to develop a systematic and conscientious treatment of the future perspective of the educational and curricular processes we will address ourselves to questions which may possibly shed light on the inevitable future. These questions were among the several posed by Shane in an illuminating article.\(^7\) They are not novel, but they do represent the educator's persistent quest for possible guidelines in planning for the future. The answers, of course, are only tentative in nature, but they do represent an attempt at educated projections. Where appropriate, a discussion of the influence or implications of the political, religious, and economic factors upon the curriculum of the future will be presented.

**What Shall Be the Objectives of Education in the Future?**

Toffler looked upon the future world as an era of machines---a tomorrow that required a "super-industrial education system." Machines would deal with the routine physical tasks while men would be involved with the intellectual and creative endeavors. Because of the continuous and rapid rate of change, future man would be compelled to

invent ways of regulating this accelerating change. Individuals would have to learn how to cope with rapid changes that will be even greater and will come even faster than present changes. While there would be the potential for men to accomplish great things, there would also be the challenge of having to adapt to sudden, and very often, traumatic changes. With this in mind, Toffler addressed the question of educational objectives in the future by asserting that,

> For education the lesson is clear; its prime objective must be to increase the individual's "cope-ability"—the speed and economy with which he can adapt to continual change. And the faster the rate of change, the more attention must be devoted to discerning the pattern of future events.⁸

This educational objective could be fulfilled only through the creation and maintenance of a super-industrial type education. Toffler suggested that the materialization of this kind of education would come about only if educators first conceptualized and considered alternative images or assumptions of the future.

> . . . assumptions about the kinds of jobs, professions, and vocations that may be needed twenty to fifty years in the future; assumptions about the kind of family forms and human relationships that will prevail; the kinds of ethical and moral problems that will arise; the kind of technology that

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will surround us and the organizational structures with which we must mesh.\textsuperscript{9} Only after this initial step has been taken will educators be able to derive what cognitive, behavioral, and affective skills individuals will need to be able to survive in the precarious future. Toffler recommended that the task of delineating the skills necessary for successful future living should reside in the hands of capable and concerned people. He referred to such a group of individuals as a Council of the Future. Every community and school would have such a council. It would be composed of teams of men, women and students whose main task would be to probe the future in the interest of the present.

The work of these councils would have serious implications for the curriculum of the future. The Councils of the Future would function around the premise that "Nothing should be included in a required curriculum unless it can be strongly justified in terms of the future."\textsuperscript{10} This would mean that careful study of the utility and relevance of present curricular trends would have to be made and practices useless or unrelated to future needs would have to be eliminated.

\textsuperscript{9}Ibid., p. 403.
\textsuperscript{10}Ibid., p. 409.
Toffler was critical of the existing curriculum because in many ways it was outdated and merely a mindless perpetuation of the past. The present curriculum was not only obsolete, it was also too compartmentalized. Toffler contended that the rigid college and university entrance requirements were partly to blame for this unfortunate curricular situation. He further felt that not only the entrance requirements but also the social and vocational requirements reflected the already discarded needs of a vanishing society. Measures had to be taken in order to correct this situation. Toffler recommended that revolutionary review boards be charged with the responsibility for inventing "sets of temporary curricula" with guidelines for constructive evaluation and revision of present practices. Policies and procedures would have to be developed which would prevent a "bloody intramural conflict" every time changes were necessary.

For Toffler, the curriculum of the future would be temporary, flexible, and subject to constant review and revision. The main objective of the future curriculum would emphasize the idea of "cope-ability," the means whereby an individual would be able to successfully adapt to continual change.

Shane viewed the question of future educational
objectives as a problem requiring immediate and concentrated attention. He felt that issues concerning educational goals or objectives were especially frustrating because "...schools—like mirrors—nearly always reflect rather than create or reform the culture."\textsuperscript{11} Shane emphasized the fact that it was generally societal demands which brought about changes in the schools and not school reforms which brought about changes in the society. Two educational examples of this were the black demands for relevance which eventually led to the development of black studies and the ecologists' and public concern for better surroundings which eventually led to the development of environmental education. Shane suggested that these circumstances "forced" educators to look to society when making curricular decisions for the schools. He maintained that,

\begin{quote}
Under the circumstances, one major objective for educators should be to press society for decisions. We need a clearer social consensus as to what the "good life" is. Lacking such an understanding, it is difficult in the extreme to guide children.\textsuperscript{12}
\end{quote}

Shane also emphasized that educators needed to be more explicit about educational objectives. If we are lacking in

\begin{footnotes}
\item[12] \textit{Ibid.}, p. 328.
\end{footnotes}
clear cut objectives, there will be no way of comparing the virtues of the present and the future with those which have been accepted in the past.

The goals of educators as professionals and as citizens should involve solid investments in the children of today who will be the productive adults of tomorrow. Educators should be responsible for satisfying certain basic human requirements of children and youth. These include the needs "...to learn, to find acceptance, to empathize, to feel satisfaction, to discover dignity and take pride in one's self-concept, and to develop skill and thus wisdom in coping with personal and group problems."13

The youth of the present and the future must be taught to understand that although they will be the heirs to phenomenal technological advances, these advances will not automatically assure greater individual security or economic abundance for all. The educational process must encourage young individuals to be as committed to the needs and well-being of others as they are to their own survival. The goals of the educator, then, should include the development of leadership in the areas of equity among humankind and the concern for "...protecting the biosphere so that the

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13 Ibid., p. 329.
planet retains its capacity for supporting equity among us."

Besides these goals, Shane mentioned that perhaps above all, youth should be schooled in the understanding of the crisis of transition and change. Like Toffler, Shane suggested that the school curriculum should begin to cope with the changes in society by being more receptive to new ideas and practices in education and by making available more alternative experiences. Thus, for Shane the curriculum of the future would be directed toward making decisions which would help to ensure the "good life" for all. Such a curriculum, sensitive to the changing needs of society, would help to guarantee the right of each child to a promising future.

Goodlad forcefully and knowledgeably addressed the question of the future objectives of education by pointing to the dynamic aspects of education. He advised that educators should not envision the school of tomorrow in terms of the present concepts of the role of the school. The school of the future would assume an even more important role in socializing the young and probably would not be as

14 Ibid., p. 329.
circumscribed by the existing limited views of education. Goodlad suggested that,

Our immediate goal as educators should be to increase the intensity of the school so that it can again play a major role in educating the young. We must look to the possibilities of the future in order to provide responsible leadership in planning the kind of education that is to come.15

According to Goodlad, the era with which we must be concerned with is an embryonic one. It is an era which is only dimly visible, but nevertheless demands attention.

For Goodlad, projections into the future objectives of education would not involve undue concern for relatively trivial matters such as the size and style of school buildings or the teacher-student ratios. As far as Goodlad was concerned, the construction of school buildings of the future was inconsequential. He contended that,

A school is not necessary to teaching and learning. We do not need a school to guide children and youth in grasping their culture. And, certainly, we do not need a school to teach the fundamentals of reading, writing, and arithmetic.16

What we do need and will definitely require in the future will be a

...formal process of instruction with the most able members of our society giving their time to


16 Ibid., p. 232.
it in planning and programming instructional ma-
terials, in computerizing varied programs for
learning, and in interacting with other humans
in the delightful business of learning from one
another.17

As far as student-teacher ratios were concerned, new in-
ventions would probably make such a problem obsolete.
Computers will probably be better utilized to instruct
pupils in certain cognitive and psycho-motor skills.
Teachers would then be released to plan more effectively
for classes in other areas. Goodlad emphasized that com-
puters have already demonstrated their usefulness in the
teaching of reading, mathematics, spelling, and other
subjects.

Much more important than school construction, or
teacher-student ratios, or other such concerns will be
the question of the human side of education. Goodlad ack-
nowledged this by saying that,

The most controversial issues of the 21st century
will be the issues that face us today: What are
the goals of human behavior and the means of modi-
fying it? And who shall determine these goals and
means? The first educational question will not be
what knowledge is of most worth, but what kind of
human beings do we wish to produce.18

The educational objectives of the future, then, will have

17Ibid., p. 232.

(August, 1968), 21-22.
to include the concern for developing human beings who will be successful in all aspects of human living and especially in interpersonal relationships. Careful consideration must be given to the extent to which youths will be coming into possession of their culture, to the opportunities that each individual will be provided to become a unique self, and to the opportunities that each individual will be provided to develop a sense of personal worth.

For Goodlad, the curriculum of the future would focus on human needs and human living. The educational objectives of such a curriculum would be synonymous with human aspirations and goals.

McLuhan and Leonard saw the schools of the future as institutions concerned with "...unlearning the old, unacknowledged taboos on true originality."19 Such schools would stimulate new ideas and encourage novel practices. Students of these future schools would be better able to fashion their own educational experiences and would be helped and encouraged in developing their own curriculums.

McLuhan and Leonard emphasized the objective of training students in the use of their senses and in the development of keener perceptions. They felt that Western civili-

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zation had placed too much emphasis upon the visual sense and upon "stuffing brains" with information. As a result, students were actually handicapped in the development of their other senses. The present experimentation of teaching written composition via tape recorders is one example of retraining the auditory sense of students. The use of such a technique and similar ones involving the other senses may well become widespread in the future.

Another objective cited by McLuhan and Leonard was that of life-long learning. "Already it is becoming clear that the main "work" of the future will be education, that people will not so much earn a living as learn a living."20 The millions of people in the United States enrolled in adult education schools are evidence of the growing trend toward life-long learning. The educational objectives of the future will probably include more concern for the curricular needs of adults as well as for students in elementary and secondary schools. Fewer and fewer people and eventually no one should be denied the opportunity of enriching their personal as well as their occupational lives through education. The educational objectives of the future will be committed to this right.

20 Ibid., p. 25.
Brickman viewed the objectives of the education of the future as an enterprise based on the fundamental principles of human rights and responsibilities. That is to say, teachers and administrators on all levels of education, formal and informal, will exert every effort to form generations of human beings who would be kind, considerate, patient, and understanding in their attitude to, and dealings with, others.\textsuperscript{21}

Brickman felt that the efforts to achieve such a goal would be instrumental in fostering peace and harmony in the communities of the world. Of course this would not mean the elimination of all conflict or imply the presence of a stilted peace. Brickman was well aware that differences will always exist, but attitudes toward these differences may change. In the political, religious, economic, and social realms as well as the educational realm, differences could be resolved through dialogues, debate, and "conference table" discussions without resorting to any destructive means.

Brickman optimistically looked forward to a world of peace brought about by educating individuals to be truly humane. Brickman considered this human relations aspect of the educational process essential in the construction

of an educational blueprint for the future.

In his consideration of the question of the educational objectives of the future, Loy concentrated on the attributes of the "educated man." He believed that a future oriented education would focus upon the development of individuals who possessed attributes which were of value in creating an even better future. These attributes suggest a set of objectives to which schools may be committed.

The educated man of the future will continuously and consciously be involved in the "...process of deciding where he is going to invest his life."22 Such an individual will feel an obligation to find meaning and purpose in his own life. He will be instilled with a deep sense of direction and conviction. The schools of the future will have to offer opportunities for students to undergo experiences which help them to mature in the processes of decision-making and personal development.

The educated man of the future will have a comprehensive and knowledgeable view of the world. His conception of reality will be optimistic and candid. In his relations

with his fellow men he will display an appreciation of differences and an understanding of his own and his fellow men's shortcomings. The school of tomorrow must create and support a learning environment which will allow students to put to use all they have learned from the various academic disciplines to assist them in accurately perceiving reality and in making decisions which reflect their knowledge of human living.

The educated man of the future will be "...very self-conscious about his own values." He will always seek to know what he truly believes in and why, and yet, he will not hesitate to question the validity of his own beliefs and convictions. Such an individual will be positively influenced by religious or moral values. He will be cognizant of the ways in which the values he holds affect the decisions he makes and the life he leads.

The educated man of the future will be oriented to the needs of tomorrow. Unlike contemporary man, he will possess a sense of "...responsibility to use his knowledge to create the future." Loy was critical of the present educational structure and its lack of a future oriented

perspective. He claimed that a great many people view formal education as an unavoidable necessity in the preparation for life. Unfortunately, the educational process seemingly comes to an abrupt end at graduation. What the future educated man will clearly understand is "...that the process of education is the process of living and thus a never-ending process where the only value of yesterday is in creating tomorrow."25

The educated man of the future will be a man of "intentional action," according to Loy. He will not simply know a lot, but rather will put whatever knowledge that he does have to practical use to benefit mankind. Loy observed how our present educational system confers degrees and credentials on individuals who are then considered experts in their fields. Unfortunately, however, these experts seldom give any thought as to how their specialized knowledge fits into a comprehensive world view or what implications their knowledge might have for the way in which they lead their lives. The man of the future will be prompted to action by a genuine concern for mankind rather than a selfish search for political, economic, or social gain.

25Ibid., p. 25.
For Loy, the curriculum of the future should be one which will be concerned with developing noble qualities in people and less concerned with manipulating things. The main concern of such a curriculum will be the shaping of truly educated men.

In attempting to answer the question of what shall be the objectives of education in the future, several points of view were considered. While each was unique in its specific orientation, all were similar in their basic concern. This concern was not for subject matter or content in the curriculum, or school buildings and facilities, or student-teacher ratios, or similar matters. This crucial concern was for the "human" aspects of education, specifically the student—satisfying his human needs, developing a positive self-concept, strengthening his ability to cope with change, teaching him about himself, his fellow men, and his world, and similar human matters. The emphasis of such a concern seems to be well placed.

Who Will Control the School in the Future?

This fundamental question is one which many educators and citizens express concern over, seemingly because the answer to it will directly affect the nature of American education. The course which public education takes will
largely be determined by the individuals or groups wielding the most power and authority in the educational arena.

Shane maintained that who will control the school in the future depends largely upon where the leadership will reside. He was quite critical of the present educational authority structure, especially of the fact that, "Often there just doesn't seem to be anyone in the control tower—or too many are fighting over the controls." Shane called for new educational authority structures which would have the strength to produce effective and worthwhile results and not dehumanize educators in the process of doing so. This suggested that educational leadership in the future would have "... the power to lead, including the "control" which resides in the power to coerce when enforcing an uncoerced group decision." Educational leaders would have to understand the nature of power and authority and be skillful in their use of them. If not, the outstanding features of democracy, cooperative social action, equity in educational opportunities, and so forth would appear to be absent in the seemingly coercive actions of educational leaders in control of the schools.


27 Ibid., p. 331.
Cunningham observed that educational leadership has always been diffuse and implied that it will probably remain so in the future. He commented on the issue of educational control by saying that,

The control of American education historically has been diffuse. It has never for long rested with singular sets of interests. National interests have been served prominently from time to time; the states have responded differentially to their own needs but by and large effectively enough to carry the welfare of the states; the local units—prosperous in ideas and wealth in some cases, impoverished in others—have stood the test of time and continue to be useful vehicles for the expression of local public interests.\(^{28}\)

Cunningham claimed that the future would hold unlimited possibilities for professional and lay participation in educational leadership and control of the schools.

Teachers are beginning to take an active part in determining the course of American education. Cunningham stated that,

The emergence of teachers as determined power wielders is a new element in the control of education. . . . We can expect even greater press for participation in more and more areas of educational decision from teachers as well as from other professional groups.\(^{29}\)

The teachers' thrust for more influence over educational policy, rules, and decision-making in general will probably

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\(^{29}\) Ibid., p. 191.
become more aggressive in the future. School boards and higher authorities will be compelled to acknowledge this growing influence. They will be quicker to consider and act upon teachers' recommendations. Among the pressing concerns of teachers as a group may be the drive for greater societal recognition of their professional status and the drive for more collective bargaining privileges on matters dealing with salaries and fringe benefits. Also, in the future, teachers may well have greater "political" influence over such pertinent matters as the curriculum.

Students and citizens will also demand a greater voice in the control of the school in the future. "Citizen and student disquiet will not abate unless and until our schools can provide more adequately for the satisfaction of present and future educational needs." School officials will be forced to give more attention to the relationship between the schools and their "clients." The needs and wants of citizen and student groups will have to be given more serious consideration. The citizens and students of the future will probably be more instrumental in the planning and provision of more and better educational opportunities.

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30 Ibid., p. 192.
It appears that control over the schools in the future will reside less in the hands of local school boards and more in the hands of the public. Cunningham emphasized the fact that external forces that are "...impinging upon the schools will be directed with increasing intensity on the men and women serving on local boards."³¹ Official educational decision-making bodies will be pressured into giving more attention to public involvement in school affairs. Cunningham, however, did not suggest that local school boards would lose their power; rather than losing their power, they would more likely be sharing it with other concerned groups.

Cunningham seemed to think that the major responsibility for education would continue to be with the states. The states would be obliged to establish and maintain school systems. However, he did say that "...it appears that there will be a contest over this obligation involving the large cities and the federal government."³² It was also stressed that this "contest" will become increasingly severe in the future unless the states make serious attempts to improve their ability to satisfy the educational needs of their residents. In other words, unless the states are able to meet the educational demands for better curriculums and

³¹Ibid., p. 193.
³²Ibid., pp. 194-195.
better quality education in general, the federal government will be sure to intervene.

Although it has been a practice of the federal government to participate in the state and local educational planning and projects, especially in the areas which were neglected or in need of improvement, it appears that in the future the federal government may possibly extend its leadership and influence through large grants, to include responsibilities over certain functions presently carried on by the states. This possibility has already been demonstrated during the curriculum reform movement.

Doll referred to the question of control over the school in the future when he discussed some of the permanent forces affecting curriculum change. These forces were sure to have some influence over who would control the school. The first of these forces was the drive for power over the curriculum. Numerous and varied individuals have sought control over the curriculum. Power over the curriculum in the 1960's has resided in the hands of groups other than teachers, administrators, and local school boards. During the sixties, control over the curriculum, in part, shifted to

...scholars in the subject fields, conductors of summer in-service institutes, people who complain most loudly, those who have special programs to promote, the inner councils of teachers'

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unions and associations, self-appointed community leaders, paraprofessionals and other climbers on career ladders, designers and reviewers of project proposals, bureaucrats at state and federal levels of government, and specialists at sitting-in, impeding, and taking over meetings for decision making.  

This shift in power has definite implications for the future. It appears that control over curricular and educational decisions may fall more and more into the hands of individuals and groups who will not be directly or professionally trained to deal with the curriculum. However, this may not necessarily have negative consequences. For one thing, with increasing experience these individuals and groups may learn to participate in the curricular and educational processes in a more professional capacity. Besides this, pressures from these individuals and groups may also help to make those who are immediately involved with, and professionally trained to deal with the curriculum, more conscious of their responsibilities. Control over the curriculum will not lie solely in the hands of any particular group. It will be shared by individuals who are members of citizen groups, political groups,

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religious groups, economic interest groups, and just about every kind of group which has an interest in fashioning the curriculum of the future.

A second force which has affected curriculum change in America has been the federal government. Through financial funding, the federal government has increased its involvement and influence over curriculum affairs. This growing federal control has stimulated concern, on the part of many educators, over the issue of federal versus local control over the curriculum and other educational matters. It appears that this vying for control will become even more intense in the future. Perhaps the threat of governmental interference will incite local officials to be more aware of the need to constantly improve the curriculum. In the future, local officials may well be more assertive in vying for leadership positions over educational affairs. On the other hand, it seems equally likely that the federal government will continue to financially support local schools and thus maintain its influence over local educational concerns. At any rate, it seems that in the future, neither federal nor local authorities will be in total control over the schools. Control appears to be a matter of degree.

A third force which has affected and continually will affect curriculum change is the drive to consider and
satisfy "... the needs and concerns of pupils, teachers, administrators, parents, and other persons who work together to provide the best education for children."\(^3\)

This force suggests that in the future, control over the schools may be more diffuse. The main criterion for participation in decision-making concerning the schools may well be a sincere interest in quality education for all children.

Although these various forces affecting curriculum change were discussed separately, they are not so neatly compartmentalized, and neither do they necessarily work in isolation. Doll claimed that these forces "... sometimes become merged and blurred because human motivation is almost never single or pure."\(^3\)\(^5\) The strength of these forces will be instrumental in determining who will control the school in the future.

Ryan indicated that tomorrow's teacher will be the decision point for what transpires in the schools. He claimed that "computer-assisted instruction" will revolutionize the present school curriculums. Since the future

\(^3\)Ibid., p. 199.
\(^3\)Ibid., p. 200.
teacher will be in control of this large system of instructional aids, it will follow that he will probably be most instrumental in determining exactly what goes on in the schools. Ryan claimed that,

Tomorrow's teacher will be a skilled diagnostician aware of the abilities of the students and the potential contributions of each component in his system. Since different students have different learning styles, the teacher's main task will be to apply the system with intelligence and sensitivity. In doing this, he will be supported by many specialists and paraprofessionals who will be working directly with children.36

Ryan maintained that teachers as well as students will be differentiated on the bases of abilities and interests. In order to utilize all talents to the fullest, teachers will be given more opportunity to specialize and excel in certain areas. He suggested that, "The establishment of a teacher hierarchy 'will lead to teachers having a greater share in decision making'."37 It seems that teachers will have more control over what transpires in the schools of the future.

Eurich suggested that educators need to recognize the fact that not all learning takes place in the schools. He contended that, "The entire community provides a learn-

37 Ibid., p. 457.
ing situation."38 Because of this, Eurich emphasized the necessity of formulating a commission on education in the communities. This commission would keep a watchful look over the functioning of the schools in order to ensure that full use would be made of educational resources in the community and that educational programs needed in the community would be established. The specific functions of the commission would be to make an inventory of all the educational resources in the community; to develop a "master plan" for the use of these resources and to guarantee the availability of these resources to all individuals, young and old; to encourage the innovation and development of new kinds of educational programs for the improvement of the entire pattern of programs already in existence; to instigate and coordinate research concerned with the usefulness of various types of educational programs; and to develop a strong defense, showing the need for certain educational programs and urging community-wide support for the total program.

Eurich seemed to think that community groups, such as the commission on education, would have control over the

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schools in the future. This would mean that the public would probably have a greater say in what took place in the learning situation.

In considering the various viewpoints on the question of who will control the school in the future, it is plain to see that most likely no one single group will be in complete control of the schools. It also appears likely that even more interested groups will participate in educational and curricular decision-making in the future. The past trend of a diffuse leadership will probably be extended into the future. Political, religious, economic, and other social forces will continue to ensure a multiple rather than a single system of control over American schools.

What Should the Curriculum Include and How Shall It Be Organized in the Future?

When one projects to the future in the area of curriculum, he inevitably will be confronted with the concern over curriculum content and organization. An attempt will be made to explore the views of various educators who have expounded on the future of curriculum content and organization.

As far as curriculum content was concerned, Shane
felt that in the future, attention would be focused on a few crucial topics. Curriculum developers would be involved in creating effective programs dealing with these important topics. Shane strongly suggested that these programs should "...be phased into the curriculum beginning no later than during the primary school years." The topics warranting intense study would include "...the dangers that ruthless exploitation of resources, pollution, warfare, and waste are creating for mankind."

Knowledge of these areas of human living will be necessary if there is to be any future to be concerned about. Schools will become more instrumental in serving very practical and critical ends which ensure the survival of human society. Curriculums dealing with issues determining future human living will be introduced very early in the education of all students and they will remain a vital part of their entire learning experiences both inside and outside of the classrooms. Students in tomorrow's


40Ibid., p. 332.
schools will have to learn that serious political, eco-
nomic, and moral ramifications will materialize if at-
tention is not given to these crucial concerns.

Curricular concern should also be given to the role
of the mass media in the future. The mass media will have
an increasing influence over students, many of whom are
very impressionable. This influence may very well be in-
dependent of any sort of logical or moral scrutiny on the
part of more knowledgeable and experienced individuals.
Hence students will have to be taught to be constructively
critical of the materials which come from the mass media.
They must learn to develop a healthy skepticism about what
they see, read, or hear.

Finally, the curriculum content of the future should
provide for educational experiences and opportunities which
help students "...to build the personal inner strength,
discipline, and self-control that enable a human being to
live effectively in a climate of mutual trust and respect
with his fellows."41 Careful thought should be given to
developing individuals with a "future-focused role image;"
that is, a projected self-concept of what the individual
might become in the near or far future.

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41 Ibid., p. 332.
According to Shane, curriculum organization in the future will have to be more cognizant of the knowledge gained in the area of human development. Some of the points that he emphasized in regards to the issue of curriculum organization include the following.

1. Since children learn all of the time, curricular experiences will extend throughout the year rather than for the present September-June academic year.

2. Since each human is unique, arbitrary comparative measures of social, physical, and academic performance will be abandoned in favor of evaluating personalized growth patterns.

3. Because education is a lifelong process, schooling and its inevitable concomitant, the curriculum, will provide opportunities for mature learners in their 30s, 50s, and 70s. Curriculum organization would involve a lifelong curriculum "continuum" which would allow individuals to leave and re-enter the schools at will. Individuals would be able to move freely between the school learning environment and the non-school learning environments in order to obtain the best educational experiences which these various worlds have to offer. In essence, Shane was propounding a future

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\(^{42}\)Ibid., pp. 332-333.
curriculum organization which would revolve around the idea of lifelong educational experiences.

Muller's consideration of the curriculum had implications for the curriculum content and organization of the future. He was aware of the shortcomings of the present curriculum of the nation's schools. He claimed that,

Certainly our curriculum has not focused enough on the most relevant use of the past, a better understanding of the extraordinary present, or of who we are, where we are, how we got this way, and where we may be going.  

Muller felt that the curriculum of the future should include materials of relevance and importance to students. He recommended that the curriculum of the future be involved in making youngsters aware of the major scientific and technological developments and their social and cultural consequences. Curriculum content should include opportunities for alerting students to the immediate threats of such things as pollution, the urban crisis, and other ecological and biological trends that will certainly make human survival a problem. Students will have to learn to survive in what looks like precarious times. Muller emphasized that,

...young people have more need of being flexible,
adaptable and resourceful than any generation before them. Education should accordingly help to make them so, immediately through a fuller awareness of their fast-changing world, and then by developing their powers of choice.44

Muller was especially optimistic about the contributions which the humanities could make in the education of youth. He expressed the view that although the social and behavioral sciences have contributed a great deal to ensure a better future education, the humanities have as much and perhaps even more to offer. Muller was critical of the accusations directed against the humanities charging that they were not equipped with the necessary "technical" knowledge and skills to prepare students for the future. He felt that,


...the most important contribution the humanities could make to education for the future is a basic study of the problems of human values and value judgments—judgments that students are not trained to make in the social or behavioral sciences, whose approved methodologies do not lend themselves to such purposes, but rather support the common illusion that true science is "value-free"; and judgments that call for more knowledge of the past than these up-to-date scientists usually have.45

As far as curriculum organization was concerned, Muller believed that educational experiences should always
allow for numerous and varied alternatives and options. Curriculum organization should include opportunities for lifelong education.

Anderson viewed the whole issue of curriculum content and organization for the future from the standpoint that technological advances and their concomitant effects on values will revolutionize human living and will require radical educational revisions. It was an inevitable fact that students would need different skills, knowledge, and insights in order to keep pace with the changes in human living.

Anderson believed that specialization will be even more common in the future. The accumulation of vast stores of knowledge will make it imperative for the educational system to prepare specialists, not only in the scientific and technological fields, but in all fields. Anderson, however, cautioned against the danger of succumbing to a narrowness of vision which very often accompanied specialization. He maintained that, "The more specialization we have, the more need we will have for a general education common to all in order to counteract atomization and narrowness of vision."46

Like many other perceptive men, Anderson saw that individuals, especially young people, will need to learn "...to cope with change and eventualities." In order to fulfill this need, future education must rid itself of any antiquated ideas and practices that would restrict the development of this "cope-ability." The curriculum content of the future must include the possibilities for unlimited opportunities and experiences in cultivating the personal growth and development of students. Students must develop the abilities to question, interpret, and evaluate life problems and situations. Stress must be placed on independent, objective, and mature thinking. The whole issue of values must be studied and made a vital part of the school curriculum. In the future, curriculum content may well include anything that is vital to the mature development of individual potential.

In his discussion of the curriculum for the future, Frymier held that curriculum content would be of a different nature than it is today. He stated that,

If one begins with the premise that man is the end, it follows logically that subject matter is the means... There is nothing sacred or even worthwhile about subject matter, except as a means for answering human needs... the cur-

\[47\text{Ibid.}, \text{p. 58.}\]
riculum in a school for tomorrow will have a different character and be based on a different set of considerations than the curriculum in the school today. 48

According to Frymier, if one takes the disciplines or social concerns as the point of departure, then the decision as to what to include as essential in the curriculum would be a relatively easy one. The particular discipline or social concern would set guidelines for the choice of subject matter. However, if one begins with an interest in individual concerns, then the decision as to what to include as essential in the curriculum would be a difficult one. Working with human beings and human differences is no easy task. The infinite diversity of human needs and wants should be matched by a curriculum which is unlimited and adaptable. Frymier projected that,

In the school of the future, curriculum content will occur in a large number of small pieces, the sequences possible will be infinitely varied, and the number of possible combinations or permutations will be extremely large. 49

The prolificness and flexibility of curriculum content will allow for creativity and originality on the parts of teachers and students. Teachers will be free to develop

49 Ibid., p. 22.
new approaches to teaching and not be stifled with conventional or out-dated teaching patterns and arrangements. Students, likewise, will have more opportunities to learn in ways that are conducive to their particular interests and needs.

Frymier claimed that the curriculum of the school for tomorrow would not be organized in the traditional or conventional sense of merely storing knowledge and information to be used by a select group of scholars, but rather it would be organized so that this knowledge and information may be easily retrieved and used by all teachers and students. This type of organizational arrangement would help to promote "personalized instruction and individualized learning"—aims which will definitely be relevant in the schools for tomorrow.

Dale contributed an imaginative perspective which was pertinent in answering the questions, what should the curriculum include and how shall it be organized in the future? His discussion focused upon the elaboration of the idea of creating and shaping a learning environment for the future. Dale firmly believed that "...a central aim of all education is to develop an independent learner; hence that learning is most valuable which helps us develop independence."

It would be necessary for educators to pool their resources in building a learning environment conducive to fostering independence.

In the process of building such a learning environment for the future, attention would have to be given to the question, "What knowledge is of most worth?" In essence, this is very similar to asking what should the curriculum include in the future? Dale presented a serious and thoughtful response to the question. The following is a brief synopsis of his ideas. Knowledge that is of most worth:

1. Enables us to work efficiently and effectively in the organization and application of ideas.

2. Enables us to see the wholeness of our life—the system which is at work whether we realize it or not.

3. Can be learned.

4. Enables us to tell the difference between fact and opinion, evidence and propaganda, and the logical and the illogical.

5. Enables students to communicate effectively in reading and writing, speaking and listening, and visualizing and observing.

6. Enables us to share ideas with others. The ability to speak well and to listen thoughtfully is paramount in this society.

7. Contributes a sense of joy, exhilaration, and poignancy to the life of the learner.

8. Enhances the mutuality of human beings and develops a sense of community, the doing of important things together.
9. Enables an individual to see the cause-and-effect relationships between his choices and their consequences, a characteristic of a moral man.

10. Helps individuals recognize knowledge that is of most worth. This means learning to judge values, and to recognize the difference between the permanent and the ephemeral, the important and the trivial, and the rational and the irrational.\(^5\)

These ideas are representative of Dale's position on what the curriculum of the future should include. Dale realized that such a future curriculum would be truly ideal. He was very realistic in his outlook, however, and readily admitted that it was easy to conceive of such a curriculum, "... but to translate it into reality is today's great challenge."\(^5\)

The implications which Dale's ideas have for curriculum organization are practical. For one thing, there should be no room for a rigid arrangement of the curriculum. The curriculum of the future should be flexibly coordinated. Also, in order to develop independent learners, curriculum organization must be an on-going process. Knowledge that is of most worth will not remain constant and so neither should its organization be a static thing. Learning is a continuous process and so the organization of educational experiences must span the life of any individual. Dale

\(^{51}\) Ibid., pp. 44-50.

\(^{52}\) Ibid., p. 50.
wisely commented that, "In an unpredictable world, all of us must learn to learn and to develop a taste for learning." 53

In considering the various perspectives regarding the questions of what should the curriculum include and how shall it be organized in the future, it is illuminating that many men knowledgeable on these topics predicted some radical changes in these areas for the future. It appears that the future holds the promise of great things to come. For the present, the challenge lies in actualizing the creative and productive ideas concerning curriculum content and organization for the future.

3. Summary

An attempt was made to look at the future in terms of what it held for the educational and curricular processes. Several questions concerning educational objectives, control over the school, and curriculum content and organization for the future were posed and an effort was made to respond to these questions. The ideas and guidelines of some future looking individuals who have concerned themselves with the educational and curricular processes of the future were

53 Ibid., p. 51.
given consideration. Where appropriate, attention was given to the influence of the social factors of politics, religion, and economics in relation to the future.

It was noted that although the American people are very much oriented to the future, we have a limited view of it. However, this should not discourage the attempts to study the future so that we may be better prepared to meet its challenges. Educators in particular have made herculean efforts to deal with the future and this is as it should be since they are so instrumental in building the future. The insightful and educated projections of the future seem to suggest that the educational and curricular processes of today may be in store for a number of drastic changes. These changes, however, hold promises of a future that may be better than the present.

It is possible to note, in retrospect, some of the recurrent themes which have been cited in this chapter. It is clear that different individuals had similar hopes and made similar projections for educational and curricular trends or changes for the future. One recurrent theme suggested that a very significant change will be the increasing emphasis placed on the humanistic as opposed to the mechanistic aspects of education. It appears that more
consideration may be given to human needs and wants and probably less fuss will be made over the manipulation and control of things and objects. Machines, computers, and other such material oriented things will perhaps not be the ends or the products of education, but rather the means to achieving human ends. The satisfaction of individual requirements for human living and the mature development of human potential will probably be extremely important in the future. Attention will likely be given to the cultivation and understanding of values, the development of positive self-concepts, the appreciation of individual and group differences, and similar human concerns. These may be the points of departure for all educational and curricular endeavors. In short, perhaps a most crucial question which the educational and curriculum leaders will have to address themselves to will be, "What kind of human beings do we want to produce?"

Another recurrent theme emphasized the future need for "cope-ability." With the tremendous and rapid changes which are constantly brought about by the advances of science and technology, there will be an urgent need to teach young people how to cope with change. Nothing is as certain about the future than the fact that there inevitably
will be changes of all kinds and degrees affecting every aspect and phase of human life. The sooner and the better young people are able to cope with change and uncertainty, the greater chances they will have to develop the potentials they have for leading successful and productive lives. The notion of change in educational and curricular processes will likely point to the need for educational and curricular flexibility. The whole notion of education will hopefully be seen as a dynamic process and not a static entity.

Still another recurrent theme emphasized that a likely change in the future may be that more people will be involved in the educational and curricular decision-making processes. It seems likely that the federal, state, and local levels of government will continue to exert their influence over educational and curricular matters, but leadership in these spheres may become even more diffuse. Teachers, students, citizens, and all individuals and groups which are sincerely interested in the educational and curricular processes may have a chance, through such practical yet creative means as community commissions and review boards, and so forth, to actively participate in controlling their schools. Such diverse interests which they represent may help to develop the alternatives and options in education which so many deem so important in the curriculum.
Finally, the recurrent theme of lifelong learning pointed to a significant shift in the concept of education. In the future, education will not likely terminate upon graduation from some formal institution of learning. Hopefully, education will be conceived of and treated as a lifelong process. Learning environments, including schools and numerous community resources, will probably extend educational opportunities and experiences to individuals of all ages. Perhaps people will learn to learn and in the process become independent learners. Education may well be for all people and learning may indeed be a lifelong process.

There is one last question that should be raised and that is, "How realistic are these "visions" of the future?" If there is seemingly so much presently lacking in the educational and curricular fields, perhaps it is unrealistic to expect all of these grand changes to occur. The truth of the matter is that we cannot say for certain whether all of these projections of the future will in fact materialize. There is one thing for certain though, and that is that these projections and hopes for the future will never become reality if we do not expect them to. In anticipating the great educational and curricular changes which the future
may hold in store for us, it may be well to keep in mind a very promising fact, and that is, "What men define as real is real in its consequences." 54

CHAPTER V

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

I. Implications for Further Research

In keeping with the future oriented perspective that has been established, we look now to some possible areas for further research. That there is a vital need for intensive and continual theoretical and empirical studies concerning changes which affect society, especially those which have ramifications for the future, should be apparent by now. American education can become more effective if it is cognizant of and works together with societal changes which affect human living. Etzioni forcefully claimed that, "Education will become more effective when it works together with other societal changes—which, of course, means that, by itself, it is not half so powerful as we often assume."¹

In order to work together with societal changes, education, or more specifically, educators, must be knowledge—

¹Amital Etzioni, "Human Beings Are Not Very Easy To Change After All," Saturday Review, (June 3, 1972), 47.
able about just what changes are taking place in society. There is a definite need for educators to investigate the on-going changes in society. These changes and the implications which they have for education are possible areas for further research.

Lee Rainwater, a sociologist, pointed to two areas of change which will definitely have an impact upon the schools of the future. One of these areas concerns the trends toward urbanization and suburbanization. Rainwater observed that,

The nation is now heavily urban in its pattern of settlement; by the mid-1980's it will be slightly more urban, the proportion of the population in metropolitan areas having increased from 68 percent to 71 percent. But there is another side to this increased urbanization. . . . the proportion of the population living in suburban areas will have increased from 39 percent to 45 percent.  

The effects which the high urban and suburban patterns of population density have on the schools of the future will require further study. The implications which the changes in the concentration of people have for educational and curriculum development and improvement are important and require careful examination. By studying these trends in urbanization and suburbanization and the implications

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which they have for the educational and curricular processes, we may be better able to satisfy the needs of the future generations of students.

The second area of change concerns the impact of modern communications. The advances of modern communications will have revolutionary effects upon human living. Rainwater foresaw that urbanization and the impact of modern communications would work in combination in producing significant results. He stated that,

The continuing urbanization of the population and the impact of modern communications have the effect of exposing the average citizen to a much wider range of information, and a much wider range of perspectives for interpreting that information, than has ever been true in the past. The citizen in the 1980's is therefore likely to be less insulated from national and worldwide trends in taste, style and innovation than has ever been true.3

There is an urgent need to study the effects of modern communications and the implications which the impact of modern communications has for educational and curriculum development and improvement. Perhaps special attention should be paid to how modern communications can be effectively utilized in the educational and curriculum fields.

Other possible areas for further research may include in-depth studies of the social factors of politics,

3Ibid., p. 20.
religion, and economics, in relation to specific topics of educational concern. For example, further investigation should be made of the role which politics should play in regards to the control of the school in the future. Also, inquiry into how political funding implies or determines political control of the schools should be made.

The role of religion in the schools of the future should be examined. Throughout this work, religion has been seen rather broadly as being a system of beliefs, practices, and philosophical values concerned with the definition of the sacred, the comprehension of life, and salvation from the problems of human existence. Just what place religion should have in the schools of the future, whether in the forms of "character education," internalization of values, "cope-ability" for the problems of human living, or similar concerns, should be seriously studied.

A study of economic needs, in terms of occupational or vocational training for the future, should be made. Educators must be capable of anticipating such needs as what the employment qualifications of the future will be so that curriculums can be developed or improved in order to prepare students for positions in the economic world. Studies of such economic needs may prove valuable in setting
some guidelines for educational and curricular planning.

The implications for further research are many. Only a few were suggested above. It was not by accident that they were all future oriented. It is very possible that an earnest concern for the future is a direct and positive means of fostering relevance in the present.

2. Concluding Remarks

The social factors that influence the curriculum were identified specifically as politics, religion, and economics. It was noted that serious attention must be given to these social factors as they impinge upon educational and curriculum development and improvement. The ways in which politics, religion, and economics influence American education in general, and curriculum discourse in particular, were explored. The views of several leading curriculum theorists concerning the effects of the social factors on the curriculum were examined. Attention was given to the implications which all of this had on the educational and curricular processes of the future. Several questions regarding future educational and curricular concerns were raised and an attempt was made to respond to these questions. A few suggestions for possible areas of further research were considered.
It is hoped that by now there is no doubt about the fact that social forces such as politics, religion, and economics do directly and indirectly influence the course of American education. They bring outright and subtle pressures to bear upon curriculum development and revision. Educators must not only be mentally informed about this situation, but they must also act upon their knowledge of these matters. It is relatively easy to acknowledge that this is the case, that politics, religion, and economics do influence education and that they do so in complex ways, not only in and by themselves, but in interaction with other social forces and changes. The more difficult task is to uncover the specific ways in which they do influence the ideological and practical aspects of American education and to make certain that they are not instrumental in producing subtly negative or glaringly harmful consequences.

It is also hoped that continuing and growing concern about the future of educational and curriculum endeavors be fostered among those individuals, educators and otherwise, who wield the power and authority in the educational and curricular decision-making processes. While it is necessary to respond to the immediately pressing needs of the times, it is perhaps even more important to keep an eye on the needs of the future. Such a concern for the needs and wants of future generations of students may help to set
right the efforts to satisfy the demands of present day.

And finally, it is sincerely hoped that this writer has exercised, in a small way, the "autonomy of inquiry" which Kaplan⁴ so earnestly recommends.

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Books


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