

*THE ORGANIZATION AND TEACHING
OF
SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC STUDIES
IN CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS*

GLENN M. KENDALL

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Gene M. Kendall

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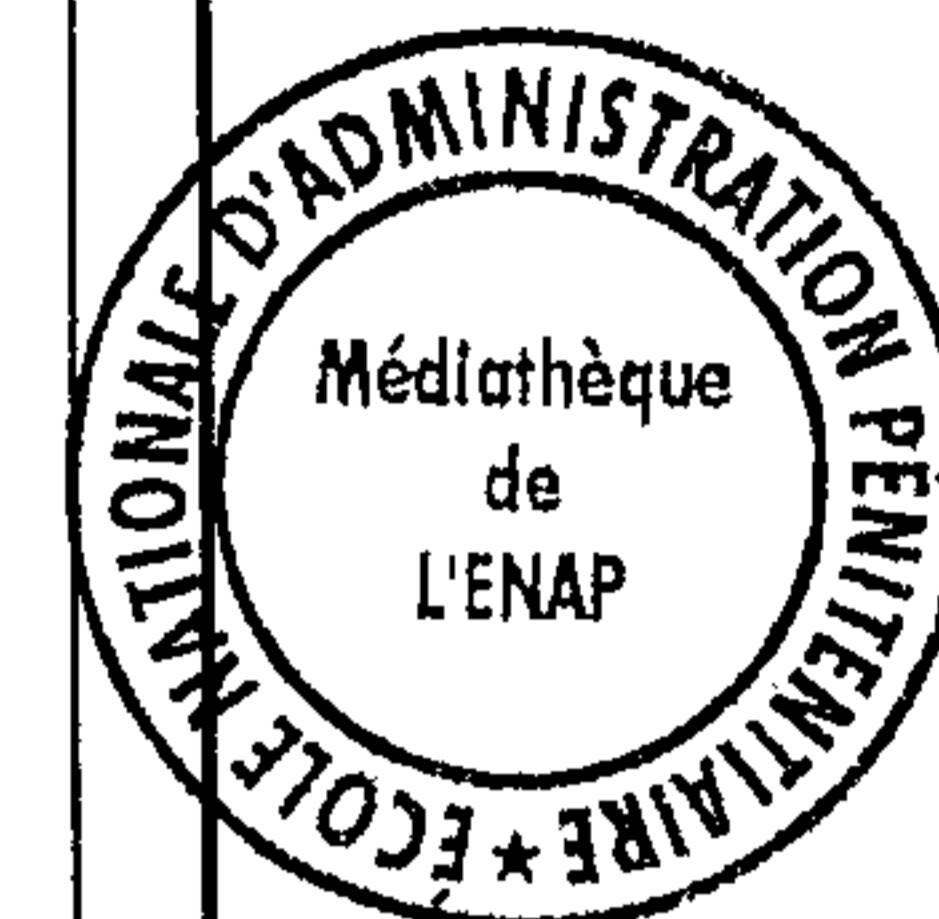
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The Organization and Teaching
of
Social and Economic Studies
in Correctional Institutions

by

GLENN M. KENDALL, ED.D.

ASSISTANT DIRECTOR IN CHARGE OF GENERAL EDUCATION
DIVISION OF EDUCATION, DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTION,
STATE OF NEW YORK



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FOREWORD

IN THE reorganization of educational programs in the institutions under the jurisdiction of the New York State Department of Correction our teachers are placing emphasis upon what we have called "social education." Our conception of social education embraces all those educational activities, the major purposes of which are to revise attitudes toward social institutions and the individual's relationship to them, and to develop interests and skills needed in acceptable, social living. Social education therefore involves the effect of the whole of institutional life upon the attitudes of inmates.

Our experience indicates that the development of procedures for putting emphasis on situations and attitudes rather than on the simple acquisition of skills and facts must continue if we are to get maximally beneficial results from the educational process in the treatment of offenders. The education of prisoners must be in terms of solving their own individual problems and in changing their attitudes in order that they as individuals may be better able to make good.

Dr. Kendall deals here with the study of social and economic problems. This constitutes only one phase of social education, but one which is receiving more and more attention both in and out of correctional institutions.

This book is unique in the correctional field in that on the basis of experience in several different types of correctional institutions, it sets forth procedures, materials, and methods which emphasize attitude-changing in one field of social education. There is need for similar concrete and practical studies in all specific phases of the educational program.

On the other hand, Dr. Kendall is not a narrow specialist. Throughout the book the integration of all education is stressed. Furthermore, the principles and procedures of curriculum development are applicable to all correctional education.

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Dr. Kendall's book further illustrates how the experiment sponsored by the Commission to Study the Problems of Education in Penal Institutions for Youth and the American Association for Adult Education has stimulated the improvement of teaching techniques in all of our institutions.

It is my belief that what has been presented in the following pages will be of great value to teachers in correctional institutions and interesting to any student of educational problems.

WALTER M. WALLACK
*Director of Education,
 New York State Department of Correction*

January, 1939

PREFACE

THIS book grew out of one phase of the experimental project sponsored by the Engelhardt Commission¹ at Wallkill Prison in 1935-36. Source materials for the Wallkill project were prepared by the Curriculum Laboratory at Teachers College, Columbia University. During the year a part of this source material was organized into teaching units and taught to ninety-two men in eight different classes. A Committee on Socio-economic Teaching, composed of Wallkill staff members and teachers, assisted in organizing and developing the plans. Class procedure, results obtained, and inmate attitudes and reactions were recorded immediately following each class meeting.

The experience of other institutions in the socio-economic teaching field both before and since the Wallkill experiment has also been recorded herein. Excellent teaching of this type has been done at Elmira, the New York State Vocational Institution, and Westfield State Farm.

Since the Engelhardt Commission project at Wallkill Prison ended, there has been considerable expansion of social studies teaching in the correctional institutions of New York State. A committee of teachers is continuing the work at Wallkill with much enthusiasm and success. Social studies teachers have been employed for the first time at Great Meadow, Sing Sing, Auburn, and Woodbourne Prisons.

The suggestions and teaching units in this book are not presented as the last word in social studies teaching in correctional institutions. The main purpose in preparing this material is to encourage further experimentation in this field. Correctional education, in spite of recent improvement, is just beginning to

¹This Commission was appointed by Governor Lehman in 1933. Its title has been changed recently to the Commission on Education in Correctional Institutions in the State of New York. Dr. N. L. Engelhardt is chairman of the Commission. It is therefore commonly referred to as the Engelhardt Commission and will be so designated throughout this book.

develop. Experimentation with new materials and methods is the only road to progress. The suggestions made here will, it is hoped, stimulate teachers to try similar methods and to improve upon them.

The eight units vary in form, content, and excellence. This is a hopeful sign. Rigid standardization has no place in the social studies field. On the other hand, organization and planning are necessary to efficient teaching. This book presents certain lines of development and suggestions as to how to proceed. It does not attempt to fix a pattern which should be followed without deviation. Methods and materials must always be altered and adapted in the light of the situation in which they are to be used. This is particularly true in correctional institutions, where administrative policies, inmate populations, educational personnel, and physical provisions for education vary widely.

The development of social studies teachings in the correctional institutions of New York State is the result of the counsel, cooperation, and work of many persons to whom the writer acknowledges his debt.

The encouragement and suggestions given by Dr. Walter M. Wallack during the preparation of this book were invaluable. His keen insight and vigorous leadership were important factors in this project as they are in the development of all other phases of correctional education.

Dr. N. L. Engelhardt, not only in his official capacity as Chairman of the Commission but more especially in his personal interest, encouraged the Wallkill project with never-failing inspiration, guidance, and criticism.

Dr. H. B. Bruner provided expert and interested guidance for the Wallkill experiment, secured teaching personnel as well as the services of D.P.W. workers, and made available the resources of the Curriculum Laboratory, Teachers College, Columbia University, where source materials were prepared.

Mr. C. M. Wieting deserves high commendation for carrying through the classroom teaching at Wallkill Prison. The success achieved in the social studies experiment was in large part due to his ingenuity and hard work.

Mr. Edward P. Mulrooney, Commissioner of Correction, has given full co-operation in the development of social education in the State correctional institutions.

Dr. Leo J. Palmer and Mr. N. J. Henzel, and the Wallkill Prison staff, contributed advice and assistance from their experience with prison inmates. Their practical suggestions were invaluable.

The writer also wishes to thank the following persons for their contributions to the development of social studies teaching and the preparation of this book: The members of the Commission on Education in Correctional Institutions in the State of New York, especially Dr. Austin H. MacCormick and Dr. William E. Grady; F. E. Averill, W. J. Brozy, Charles Johnson, C. A. Spencer, Thomas Partlan, J. MacEntee, William Rogers, Herman R. Rudolph, Charles G. Scanlan, John J. Sheehy, of the Wallkill teaching staff; Howard L. Briggs; Peter M. Calabrese; Emma J. Bohlman; Beatrice Cramer; John McKeon and Joseph Caggiano; George Drojarski; Thomas Murtaugh; Robert N. Robinson; Benjamin Weinberg; Helen A. Thau; and workers on the D.P.W. project No. 65-97-295, sub-project No. 77.

G. M. K.

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The Organization and Teaching
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

THE DEVELOPMENT OF CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION

MACCORMICK stated in 1931, after a nation-wide survey, that "not a single complete and well-rounded educational program adequately financed and staffed, was encountered in all the prisons of the country."¹ Few, if any, voices were raised in contradiction or denial. Since that time considerable progress has been made in both the quality and the quantity of education in correctional institutions.

Speaking before the American Prison Congress in October, 1937, MacCormick declared that: "The last decade has been the most significant period of progress in the history of educational work in American prisons and reformatories. In 1927-28, when I made a nation-wide survey of prison education, I was forced to draw a very black picture of the situation. Today, it is possible to point to a number of prison systems and individual institutions whose educational program has reached a notably high level and to others where the first necessary steps have definitely been taken in the direction of well-rounded programs."²

The Federal Bureau of Prisons has installed modern educational programs in practically all of the Federal penal institutions. The surveys of the Federal Prison Industries Reorganization Administration have stressed rehabilitation and education as an essential part of a modern penal program. The Works Progress Administration has provided additional teachers and thereby enabled a number of institutions throughout the United States to

¹ MacCormick, Austin H., *Education of Adult Prisoners* (National Society of Penal Information, New York, 1931), p. 38.

² MacCormick, Austin H., "Present Status of Penal Education," *Proceedings of Sixty-seventh Annual Congress of the American Prison Association*, New York, 1937, p. 189.

expand their programs of education.³ One of the latest developments, in which education is scheduled to play an important part, is the reorganization in the Georgia penal system.⁴ Since Austin H. MacCormick became Commissioner of Correction of the City of New York in 1934, a comprehensive program of education has been organized in the institutions under the jurisdiction of his Department.

The Annual Report for 1936-37 of the Division of Education of the New York State Department of Correction reviews the changes in legal provisions for education in penal institutions in New York State from 1822 to 1935. A great difference is revealed between what was conceived to be education in correctional institutions in the early nineteenth century and now. The Report states that "it is also noticeable that, except for the new ideas connected with the establishment of Elmira Reformatory, no great change in the legal concept of correctional education took place between 1847 and 1925. In other words, that concept changed more in the 10 years between 1925 and 1935 than during the 78 years prior to 1925."⁵

As a matter of fact, real changes in New York State correctional education date from 1932. The Commission to Investigate Prison Administration and Construction began the educational development with the rejuvenation and reorganization of the program at Elmira Reformatory under the leadership of Dr. Walter M. Wallack. The Engelhardt Commission sponsored experiments at Wallkill and Clinton Prisons, and has encouraged the expansion of education in all institutions in the Department of Correction. Since July 1, 1935, educational development in New York State correctional institutions has been guided by a Division of Education headed by a Director of Education. Two assistant directors were added on July 1, 1936. In the State correctional institutions new educational positions have been estab-

³ For a description of these projects, see "WPA Prison Education Projects," in *News Bulletin*, The Osborne Association, Vol. IX, No. 2, April, 1938.

⁴ *Ibid.* "Prison Reform in Georgia."

⁵ "First Annual Report to the Commissioner of Correction, Division of Education, Department of Correction, State of New York." (Typewritten.) 1937. This report, considerably revised, will be published in the near future under the title, "Education Within Prison Walls."

lished, additional teachers employed, curricula revised, new school buildings erected, and educational budgets increased.⁶

PRESENT TRENDS IN CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION

According to MacCormick's survey, many of the materials and most of the teaching methods in use in prisons and reformatories in 1927-28 were antiquated. With a few outstanding exceptions, the education in prisons and reformatories consisted of training in the three R's with the use of materials and methods which were either very old or childish in content.

Perhaps the most significant features of recent developments in correctional education are increased emphasis on changing the attitudes of prisoners, and the attempts to make all education useful in assisting inmates to solve the problems they will meet after release. The study of social and economic problems, dealing as it does with community and personal situations, is one way of meeting the new demands on correctional education. The need for new materials and methods which will make social studies teaching effective with adults is felt not only in correctional education, but also in other areas of adult education. It is to assist prison educators and workers in adult education generally in the development of social studies materials and methods that this book has been prepared.

A PROGRAM OF CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION REQUIRES A SOUND FOUNDATION

It would not be appropriate to include a lengthy discussion of crime, criminals, and penology in a book such as this. It is taken for granted that the prison educator will have secured an adequate background in the philosophy, literature, and practice of the penal field before making an attempt to develop part or all of an institutional program of education. Modern curriculum

⁶ For a description of the work of the Engelhardt Commission and developments in New York State Correctional Institutions in recent years, see *Report of the Commission for the Study of the Educational Problems of Penal Institutions for Youth*, Legislative Document No. 71, State of New York, Albany, N. Y., 1937. See also "New York State Correctional Education Moves Ahead," *Correctional Education*, Vol. 1, No. 1, American Prison Association Committee on Education, 135 E. 15th Street, New York, N. Y., October, 1937.

development in public schools usually begins with a consideration of American society and the place of the school in it. Similarly, the prison educator should formulate clear concepts of the place and functions of the penal institution in modern society. This should be based on a survey of the best thought and practice available.

Few experienced penologists claim to have final answers to the problems involved in the treatment of the criminal. Though many books have been written about crime, criminals, and institutions, little is known about the causes of crime, the characteristics of criminals, or the best ways of making law-abiding citizens out of law-breakers. The scientific approach to the problem is comparatively recent. Progress to date has consisted more in clearing away prejudices and mistaken beliefs than in positive definition and solution. The attempt to isolate a single cause of crime and the search for a panacea for crime appear to be, like astrology and alchemy, well on the way to the discard.

While positive knowledge is not extensive in the penal field, enough is known to provide a base for the application of the best educational techniques available. Every program of prison education should have a platform carefully worked out so that the purposes, aims, and objectives of the program, and each part thereof, are clearly defined and understood. A good illustration of such a platform is the Credo of the Board of Visitors of Westfield State Farm.⁷ This Credo, in thirty-one articles, presents the ideas and purposes on which the program of the institution is based; it sets forth the influences which bring people to the institution and suggests ways in which the institution can best proceed to return inmates to free life as assets to society; it also includes modern viewpoints concerning individual treatment and the various agencies which should be utilized in the treatment program of the institution.

Until such basic policies and concepts have been clearly thought through, no institutional program of education can be

⁷ *Report of the Commission for the Study of the Educational Problems of Penal Institutions for Youth*, Legislative Document No. 71, Albany, N. Y., 1937, pp. 50-55.

expected to function effectively. Such a step should be a preliminary to any educational development, be it social studies, vocational training, or the teaching of the three R's. The background material, included in Chapters II, III, and IV, dealing with American society and the institution, inmate attitudes, and psychology has been reduced to those elements which seem essential to the understanding of the teaching materials and methods described. Philosophy, concepts, and aims must always go hand in hand with procedures for organizing classes, planning materials, and guiding learning.

CHAPTER II

THE FUNCTION OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN
CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS

THE value of teaching illiterate prisoners to read and write has for many years found general acceptance with practical penologists, educators, and the public. Likewise, there is now general agreement that prisoners should be prepared by vocational training to support themselves and their dependents. Recently, a third type or area of education has been receiving increasing attention, namely, courses and activities which will improve the inmate's attitudes toward society, broaden his concepts, and deepen his insight. According to MacCormick, "Not only is there general acceptance of the validity of academic and vocational education but also of social education, which . . . seeks to bring the prisoner into satisfactory understanding of and relationship to society."¹

The released inmate must be able to write a letter, figure a grocery bill, and perform vocational skills efficiently. It is equally important that he have some understanding of the make-up and problems of modern society, be able to control his emotions, get along with people, adjust to adverse conditions, and think clearly and objectively about his problems and those of others. The basic aim of social and economic teaching in correctional institutions is to improve the inmate's social attitudes and insight. The social studies program assists the inmate to understand the problems of modern society and to work out ways and means of making a personal adjustment to them. Unless desirable social attitudes are developed, facts and skills will be useless to the individual and may even be used against society.

¹ MacCormick, Austin H., "Present Status of Penal Education," Address delivered before the Congress of the American Prison Association. *Proceedings of the Sixty-seventh Annual Congress of the American Prison Association*, October, 1937, p. 191.

THE INMATE AND MODERN SOCIETY

Men in prison have been removed from the stream of free society. Each year sees that stream move more and more rapidly. Changes in industry, business, and living are coming with startling rapidity. After a man spends years in prison he is then thrown out into a world which is different from that which he left. Throughout his incarceration he has dreamed of the world as he left it, he has built air-castles about what he will do when he is released. And he finds himself a stranger in a strange land.

Many inmates have developed warped ideas concerning social institutions, their relationships to society, and the purpose and importance of government. The bitter school of experience in a poor environment has given them a twisted view of the social structure. Many inmates have had firsthand knowledge of graft in business and politics. They know a great deal about the unequal arrangements in industry. They have experienced the debilitating influences of unemployment, labor strife, and poverty. They may have come in contact with crooked politicians, sharp lawyers, and incompetent or overworked judges. As a result, they often fail to see the good points of social institutions: society has not proved its value to them.

We live in a complex social order which renders it difficult even for those with the strongest characters to achieve a balanced life. Most of us, however, manage to come to a working agreement with the elements of our environment, and proceed without too serious or too obvious difficulty. The man in prison has not adjusted himself to the rules set up by society. In many ways he resembles Hans Fallada's "little man": "Masses of men with . . . pallid faces waited—for what, they themselves did not know. [Pinneberg] was one of these millions. He had a kind of feeling that . . . in spite of the fact that he was now a wage-earner once more, he belonged much more to these who did not earn than to those who earned a great deal. He was one of [the mass]; any day he might be standing here like them,—and he could not help it. Nothing could protect him."²

² Fallada, Hans. *Little Man, What Now?* (Simon & Schuster, 1933), pp. 136-137.

So Hans Fallada's "little man" stands and surveys the host of other "little men" who are profoundly puzzled at modern life's complexity. With no particular rancor against anyone, with little political knowledge or inclination, they stand aghast and agape at their precarious world. With old certainties swept away they press their noses against life's store windowpane even as Pinneberg viewed with thwarted desire the wonderful dressing table he coveted for his wife. "No, not for you, little man. Go home, little man, waste your money as you will and can and may, but leave things like this alone." And then as the "little man" impulsively and impetuously rushes into the store and recklessly purchases the dressing table, the author observes: "The temper in which Johannes Pinneberg suddenly found himself is not at all dissimilar to the mood in which a man commits robbery and murder or joins a riot. Pinneberg happened to buy a dressing-table, but it comes to the same thing."⁸

Unless prison can show the inmate how to adjust satisfactorily to his environment, he will once again come into conflict with society's regulations.

All phases of the educational program must assist in developing the attitudes and abilities which will make this adjustment possible. The study of social and economic problems has its place in aiding the man to keep up with changes going on in the outside world while he is in prison, in helping him to think through some of the social problems with which he has already come in contact, in showing him the implications of society's institutions and arrangements, and in rendering him better able to make decisions.

ELEMENTS IN AMERICAN SOCIETY WHICH MAKE SOCIAL
AND ECONOMIC UNDERSTANDINGS INCREASINGLY
MORE IMPORTANT

The United States is a democracy. This means that as a people we set great store by certain rights, such as the right to vote, the right to a trial by jury, the right to achieve as high a position as our energy and ability justify. Modern developments make it increasingly difficult to achieve these social objectives.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 150-151.

The United States is an industrial nation, operating under a system of partially regulated capitalism, and depending on competition to provide the necessary goods and services. The extent to which government should regulate and control business, industry, and labor is just now receiving much attention both by the national and state governments and by the public generally. The extent to which government and industry should be responsible for the welfare of each individual citizen, whether or not every man should and can be guaranteed the right to work at reasonable wages, whether or not the government or industry should or can provide a reasonably good living for all to a greater extent than has been true in the past, are points which are being fiercely debated.

Ours is a tradition of freedom and individual initiative. Born of revolution and embarking upon a new course in national government, the United States has exhibited the vigor, exuberance, and occasionally the lawlessness of a growing, burly youngster.

In the past when the conditions of industry became too burdensome or irksome, when depressions or panics occurred, when one became dissatisfied with his surroundings, or when difficulty threatened, men could pack their belongings and families into covered wagons, trek west, and establish themselves in a new, fertile country where land was cheap and living good though rugged. Today the frontier is gone; the individual must necessarily make an adjustment to his environment or become an outcast. Those who in an earlier time might have been admirably adapted to exhibiting fine heroism at some Alamo, or to living the simple life of the rural farm, now must find a way of getting along with the men and machines about them.

This change from rural to urban living and the closing of the frontier have been accompanied by a tremendous increase in the number of laws needed to regulate behavior. As cities grow larger, as transportation of all types increases rapidly for goods and people, as means of communication multiply and improve, as industries grow huge and control the destinies of large numbers of people and immense blocks of capital, more and more

laws are passed to regulate the complicated relationships and situations which arise. This rapid increase in the number of laws accounts in part for the increase in criminals and prison population.

In addition to this increase in complex living and in the number of laws, no thinking observer of modern life can fail to note many serious maladjustments in our economic and social arrangements.

Society does not make it possible for many of its citizens to enjoy a reasonably good standard of living even though they exert maximum effort.⁴ The modern economic and industrial system, through its advertising and modern methods of production, stimulates desires and wants which the individual often cannot satisfy. Housing conditions can only be described as atrocious for a large part of the population.

All too often graft is discovered in our political and industrial systems. The legal system needs much repairing and overhauling. The "connections" between criminals, crooked lawyers, police, and politicians which prevent the apprehension and conviction of the notorious criminal, the "copping" of pleas (pleading guilty to a lesser crime than that stated in the indictment), inconsistency of sentences, and the emphasis on legal technicalities, all tend to vitiate the effectiveness of law and the respect for government and law. Leading lawyers are urging that the law take more account of progress in social sciences, and give more attention to basic issues and consequences involved, and less to technicalities and precedents.

This is the setting in which the correctional institution is placed. This is the complex environment from which inmates come and to which they will return. Correctional education cannot bring about marked improvements in social and economic arrangements. It has, however, a definite responsibility for aiding the inmate to interpret the industrial and social environment. The viewpoint in such teaching must be both realistic and optimistic. The only rational position which correctional teachers

⁴ See Calkins, Clinch. *Some Folks Won't Work* (Harcourt, Brace, 1930).

in this field can adopt is to accept conditions as they are, admit injustices and maladjustments where they exist, interpret causes as accurately and objectively as possible, and stress opportunities which do exist and efforts which are being made to correct bad conditions. Correctional education has the responsibility of modifying warped ideas concerning the economic and social structure as well as developing vocational and academic skills and knowledges. Cantor states: "It seems strange, to say the least, that even the more critical criminologists fail to call attention to the relation between crime and the economic structure of American Society . . . Anthropologically, however, the slightest appreciation of American civilization will convince one of the far-reaching influences of economic acculturation."⁵

OBJECTIVES OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS

In the preceding brief survey of the interrelations between society and crime, the basic function of correctional education was stated to be the improvement of inmate attitudes toward society. This is no new concept. A teacher who has just retired after many years service in one of the New York State prisons said recently that the aim of education in prison has always been to improve inmate attitudes. Advances in prison education have not been brought about by changing the basic aim but by clearer definition of objectives and by introducing activities and procedures which give evidence of being more successful than those heretofore used. The study of social and economic problems is one of the new activities through which changes in the social attitudes of inmates may be accomplished. When the Wallkill experiment began, a list of objectives for the social studies work was tentatively adopted. The list was modified continually as the work progressed. The objectives given below are, with slight modifications and additions, those which resulted from the first year's experience.

⁵ Cantor, Nathaniel F., *Crime, Criminals and Criminal Justice* (Henry Holt and Co., 1933), pp. 443 and 445. See also all of Section 9, Chapter XXV for a discussion of the economic order and crime.

- A. To give the men a realistic understanding of existing economic conditions.
1. What is the employment situation?
 2. Why were 10,000,000 people on relief in 1935?
 3. Are plants expanding?
 4. Are the basic industries running at capacity?
 5. Is technological unemployment inevitable?
- B. To develop a better appreciation of government and its functions.
1. What is a democracy, how does it work, who elects officials?
 2. What good things does the government do?
 - a. Regulates relationships between individuals, enforces law, protects property, prevents fires, builds roads, carries mail, cares for the unfortunate, promotes education and scientific study, protects the worker, etc.
 3. How does government in other countries work?
 4. What is a community and how may community problems best be solved?
- C. To chart the trends of modern life by interpreting events.
1. What changes are taking place in industry, community life, government?
 2. What is the meaning of events in the light of what is known about history, economics, psychology, etc.?
- D. To correct anti-social attitudes toward society.
1. Admitting that there is graft in business and in government, does it follow that the majority of people or institutions are dishonest?
 - a. Prison officials are not racketeers.
 - b. The parole board has the best interests of the inmate and society at heart.
 - c. Our legal system has many admirable points.
 - d. Business is not based on graft and crooked dealings.
- E. To develop methods of making sound decisions based upon the weighing of the available facts.
1. How can propaganda be detected?
 2. What interests are trying selfishly to use the government for their own ends?
 3. What can a good citizen do to preserve the fundamental liberties of American democracy?
 - a. The rights of free speech, free assembly, to vote, and to have a decent job.
 4. What seems to be the truth about present events?

5. What are the opinions of reliable authorities?
 6. Are these conclusions supported by statistics?
- F. To guide the man in fitting himself for a vocation.
1. What are specific requirements in various trades?
 2. What are the wage scales paid?
 3. What are the best occupational opportunities for released prisoners?
 4. What can be expected in the way of working conditions?
- G. To assist the inmate to improve his personality and his ability to get along with people.
1. What characteristics should I improve in order to make a better adjustment?
 - a. In the home.
 - b. On the job.
 - c. In other social and economic relationships.
 2. What personal traits does an employer most desire in an employee?
 3. Why do some persons with plenty of intelligence and skill still have difficulty holding a job and getting along with people?
 4. What traits are best suited to modern living conditions, what traits are practically useless, and what traits constitute actual handicaps?

The purpose of general objectives is to provide direction for teaching procedures and the preparation of teaching materials. A list of objectives is a function of the situation in which it is formulated and must be influenced by the setting. For this reason every institution should establish its own list of objectives for social studies. Having reviewed some of the major social and economic factors which have molded the attitudes of inmates prior to their incarceration, and having established major objectives all of which stress social attitudes and concepts, the attitudes which inmates exhibit while incarcerated become of first importance to the correctional educator.

CHAPTER III

PRISONER ATTITUDES AND CORRECTIONAL
EDUCATION

EXPERIENCED penal workers may find themselves in disagreement with some of the statements in this chapter. The study of attitudes is interesting but difficult. Attitudes are elusive; generalizations about them are dangerous; scientific measures are far from perfected, and even the best measuring devices probably lose much of their reliability and validity when used to measure inmate characteristics. There are no attitudes common to all prisoners, and one can rarely be certain that inmate expression is thoroughly sincere. To attempt to describe inmate attitudes, then, is to display considerable temerity.

However, it is quite generally agreed that all correctional education must focus upon the prisoner himself. Before planning courses and activities which have as a major objective the changing of attitudes, the attitudes of prisoners must be carefully studied. Indeed, prison education of every sort encounters certain inmate attitudes which constitute barriers to effective teaching. When he can devise ways to minimize, eliminate, or utilize these attitudes, the prison teacher will find the remainder of his task comparatively simple.

Few careful studies of inmate attitudes have been made. A number of ways of making such studies suggest themselves. At the New York State Vocational Institution, inmate attitudes are being studied by means of a questionnaire which the institution staff fills out. Guards, teachers, chaplains, and other members of the personnel are participating in the study and finding it very worth while. At Wallkill, instructors kept careful records of expressions of inmate attitudes, and a summary was made at the end of the year. This chapter is one result of the Wallkill study. Another method, which so far as the writer knows has not been

tried, might be to give to men about to go out on parole a questionnaire in order to determine their reactions to the educational program of the institution and their attitudes toward work, the family, courts, government, the community, and the like.

Perhaps the attitudes most commonly held by the majority of the inmate group are those which result from the prison environment. Experience seems to indicate that many of the attitudes generated in prison are common to a rather large proportion of inmates. Some of these attitudes and their effect on educational work in institutions are presented in this chapter, together with certain attitudes toward social and economic problems which, it is believed, are common to a large number of inmates.

If this chapter stimulates thinking in the field of inmate attitudes and encourages further study, it will have served its purpose. It is believed, also, that many of the suggestions will be valuable in orienting new teachers in the correctional field. An understanding of inmate attitudes is basic to all good teaching, and is especially essential in teaching social and economic studies to inmates.

ATTITUDES WHICH CONSTITUTE BARRIERS TO TEACHING

*Emotional Tension Resulting from Prison Isolation
and Monotony*

The ordinary prison régime establishes an environment of isolation, routine, and monotony which intensifies certain emotions and ideas, and weakens others. The ambitions of the prisoner who has spent any length of time in these institutions tend to become atrophied. His mind grows numb. He daydreams, and wishful thinking takes the place of a constructive expenditure of energy. For him, the outside world takes on an unrealness; effort seems useless. Under such conditions, the inmate is inclined to feel that it is easier to sleep from twelve to sixteen hours a day than to think and be aware of his prison environment. The less intelligent prisoner therefore finds himself at a loss when transferred to a medium security institution such as Wallkill Prison where he has every evening to spend in any legitimate way he wishes and where he has considerable responsibility for plan-

ning his own program. He feels more at home in the maximum security prison in which he is accustomed to being locked in his cell from 4:30 p. m. until 6:30 the next morning, and where most of his activities are regimented.

Not uncommonly, prison monotony and isolation result in a prisoner, apparently normal when committed, developing a prison psychosis known in the prison vernacular as "stir-drunk," "stir-crazy," or "stir-simple." The more intelligent inmate fights this feeling and tries to keep his mind occupied with worth-while interests. Varying with the individual inmate, therefore, this condition presents a barrier to attempts to stimulate interest in self-improvement. Prison education and socialization programs must accept part of the responsibility for preventing this disintegration of personality.

The Constant Craving for Freedom

Another attitude which is so common that it seems to permeate every corner of every correctional institution is the intense desire for liberty. It overshadows all else in the minds of incarcerated men. Warden Lawes states that "no prisoners are contented with prison life no matter how comfortable you make it." Inmates are almost unanimous in declaring for a park bench, where one is free from restraint, in preference to loss of freedom no matter how luxurious the confinement might be made. Major activities of most inmates include crossing the days from the calendar, trying to make the days pass more rapidly, searching for ways to reduce the number, and anticipating the day of release.

An inner tension is present within each inmate almost constantly, and occasionally becomes so strong that, in the words of the prison, "Jim has a bug on today." This means that Jim is so overwrought with the feeling of confinement that he is "touchy," inclined to be grouchy, pugnacious, and generally disagreeable. Worry over the family outside often accentuates this tension. When these "seizures" occur (as they do more or less frequently with almost every inmate), the best course the teacher can pursue is to leave the inmate alone temporarily or, if possible, find something which will get his mind off his troubles.

This bitterness against confinement creates in many inmates an antagonism against almost everything and everyone within the prison and leads the inmate to resist efforts to encourage him to acquire knowledge, skill, and new viewpoints while in prison. Inmates frequently express the desire "to forget everything about the place" when they leave.

Attitudes toward Other People in the Institution

In many institutions most prisoners have a suspicious attitude toward fellow inmates as well as toward prison officers and employees. This suspicion is frequently accompanied by a veiled antagonism. Fear that one fellow inmate will "squeal" on another for some infraction of a rule or a too-frank statement of opinion often engenders this attitude. It arises occasionally as a result of harsh or unsympathetic treatment received from some prison officer. A third source of antagonism may be found in the treatment received at the hands of the law prior to incarceration, in the form of third degrees and unjust legal and court procedures. Such mistreatment is often exaggerated by the inmate and may even exist wholly in his mind, but it nevertheless affects his attitude.

This suspicion of everyone in the institution results in reticence on any subject related to prison, or on topics on which a frank expression might cause unfavorable reaction on the part of prison officers. For example, inmate Jim interrupted himself just as his contribution to a group discussion of graft in government was getting interesting and said, "Gee, if I wasn't under wraps, I'd tell you all about it"; and Bill's remark followed Jim's: "After I see the 'three wise men' (meaning the Parole Board) I'll give you the low-down on why it's hard to go straight." This same suspicion shows itself also when any new activity is started which is intended for the prisoner's benefit. His reaction usually is: "It looks all right but there must be a catch in it somewhere."

Prison traditions of long standing emphasize the barrier between officers and men. One of these traditions is that there is an insurmountable wall between the inmate and all prison employees. This has been written into the rules and regulations of

some correctional institutions. Officers are expected to refrain from communicating with inmates except to carry on the actual routine of the prison. It is difficult to see how the institutional personnel can change the attitudes of inmates if they cannot communicate with them.

This situation—inmates versus officers—also affects educational activities. It sets up a resistive attitude toward the entire program on the part of many inmates, which may be expressed somewhat as follows: "Whatever they want me to do, I'll refuse to do unless they make me." This gives some indication of why it is often a long, slow process to introduce and popularize a new activity with inmates. Education is faced with perhaps the hardest possible challenge: it must, in realistic fashion, show its value before most inmates will have anything to do with it.

The average prisoner appears to be extremely self-centered during his prison life. He refuses to participate in anything in which he does not see "his cut." The prison atmosphere is naturally not one of "good will to men." In the majority of cases each man is looking out for number one and for number one only. Another prison tradition encourages this attitude: the inmate is often told by prison officers (with the best of intention) and by other inmates at the beginning of his incarceration that the best way "to do time" is to "stay by yourself and you will stay out of trouble." It is not difficult to see why, in the face of such attitudes and traditions, it is extremely difficult to socialize the prisoner or carry on any vital group activities. And yet it is just such activities which should be most effective in preparing a man to assume his place again in free society. It is one reason why individualized instruction should not be considered a synonym for individualized education. This confusion in thought, and the traditions described, exclude group activities almost entirely in most correctional institutions.

The Influence of "Public" Opinion in Prison

Even when an inmate is sincerely interested in self-improvement, he may have to brave adverse opinion on the part of both prison officers and fellow inmates. The attitude of guards and

other prison officers toward the inmate and educational activities can make or break the best of programs. A word, a look, a gesture often decides whether an inmate will use his time profitably or will vegetate. Instances are to be found in almost every institution in which a guard, largely because of his own ignorance, ridicules the educational program and the inmate who tries to take part in it. The potentialities of the guard group in affecting the attitudes and behavior of inmates are slowly being recognized in the establishment of schools for prison officers to develop insight into the purposes of institutions, and to train guards in the use of techniques which will conform to modern principles of correctional treatment.¹ Fortunately, it appears that prison officers are encouraging inmates to take part in educational activities more frequently than in the past.

The influence of other inmates also makes itself vigorously felt on a prisoner who really desires to improve his time in prison. As one inmate put it, "Sure, several of us guys would like to improve our way of talkin', and get to be more den a common mug in usin' English, but de minute we do, de gang calls us high-brows." In a word, the inmate who really has a desire to improve his condition by acquiring knowledge and skill must sometimes buck the ridicule and opposition of almost everyone with whom he comes in contact.

The "Take-It-Easy" Tradition

Another attitude common among a large number of inmates is the desire to "do the 'bit' the easiest way possible." As one old-timer expressed it to a newcomer: "Learn the ropes, buddy. There are soft jobs here if you know how to get them; this 'can' isn't such a bad place if you know your way around." This attitude is based on more than laziness and the desire to get out of work. Inmates argue that the State forced them to come to prison, the State pays them practically nothing for their work, and consequently they don't propose to do anything for the State if they can avoid it. This attitude is another illustration of

¹ See Wallack, W. M., *The Training of Prison Guards* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938), for a description of the New York Central Guard School program.

the reason why inmates frequently taboo any activity in which they feel the institution wants them to participate. It presents a real obstacle to attempts to interest a considerable portion of the inmate population in educational programs.

The Odds Are Too Great

In the competition for jobs in free society, the released prisoner finds himself at a tremendous disadvantage. He must face prejudice against him as an ex-criminal as well as the normal desperate competition for jobs. The attitude of many citizens is, "Why should a released prisoner be given a job when there are so many law-abiding citizens who need one?" In a depression this situation is accentuated. There is no effective agency for securing jobs for men going out on parole. After a man has been in prison for from two to five years, he has lost most of his contacts with the outside world and in many cases it is almost impossible for him to secure a position. Such a situation discourages men from putting forth any great effort to acquire a trade or improve their educational opportunities. They are inclined to say, "What's the use? I won't be able to get a position in that line anyway." An outsider's first reaction to such an attitude is, "What a short-sighted viewpoint!" And yet if one assumes an objective view and mentally places himself in the position of the inmate with years of prison ahead and little hope for a decent job upon release, it is not difficult to realize that it takes character, foresight, and considerable will power to rise above the odds and make a real effort to derive all the benefit possible out of prison experiences.

"How Do They Know Whether I'm Fit for Release?"

Another phase of penal work which vitally affects the attitudes of inmates is the administration of parole. Considerable progress has been made in this field, but it has not yet reached a point where the eligibility of an inmate for parole is really based on the improvements he has made in his own attitudes and behavior. Right or wrong, many prisoners feel that the Parole Board conducts their original trial over again when they appear

before the Board to be considered for parole. Many inmates believe the Board places more stress upon the circumstances surrounding the crime than upon the attitude of the man and the changes which he has made in himself.

Unless one can break through this feeling of injustice which the inmate holds against parole and its administration by society, it is difficult to secure the proper attitude for rehabilitation. In one experimental discussion group in which an attempt was made with inmates to discuss the parole system, the law, and the courts, in order to straighten out some of the warped ideas held concerning these phases of society's attempt to curb crime, the same barrier was encountered which has been mentioned heretofore: Inmates refuse to discuss these matters frankly, fearing that if they do someone will report them to the Board.

Wanted—An Incentive

Modern programs of education in public schools, adult education centers, and the like are usually based, in theory at least, on the principle that little can be done toward educating an individual unless some goal or incentive is present. In fact, modern psychology holds that little, if any, education can take place unless a rather strong tension toward a goal is present. In prison it is difficult at present to provide any strong incentive. In the case of many inmates it is practically useless to depend upon the individual's desire to better himself for the sake of self-improvement alone. No money incentive is present—at least until the prisoner is released. The limited outlook of most inmates prevents them from looking far ahead. They feel also that the odds against them are too great to make it worth while for them to put forth effort in study or in the acquiring of skills.

Ever since the establishment of the reformatory system, it has been recognized that the only real incentive that many prisoners have is that of gaining their release. Most reformatories and a good many prisons are at present using some system by which inmates can gain "good time" and thereby obtain an earlier release. Unfortunately, much of this is as yet based on the extent to which the inmate conforms to institution rules rather than on

actual changes in the individual. Until parole is based upon the changes in attitudes of the man and upon his efforts to better himself while in the institution, attempts at resocialization and education in the prisons will achieve only partial success.

SOME INMATE EXPRESSIONS OF ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

As a result of these influences and attitudes, prisoners have expressed the following objections when interviewed on the subject of participating in educational activities:²

1. "I want to be left alone. I keep out of a crowd, that's the way to do time."
2. "I have too long to serve yet. I can't concentrate on anything until I see my way out. When I get to the last six months, I will be glad to take some kind of training."
3. "You can't teach me nothing about government, I know the racket."
4. "I never did like school and I'm not going to school now."
5. "There is no use for me to spend time and energy when I know that there will be no opportunity for me to get work when I get out."
6. "What's the use, the parole boys will tip them off that you are an ex-convict the first job you get."
7. "I can't learn. It always seemed to come hard to me and there is no use for me to try."
8. "I know my trade. I got a dollar an hour outside, why should I work for the State for five cents a day?"
9. "I'd just as soon take some training but I've a good job in the institution and don't want to lose it."
10. "I can get work, I don't need no damned theory. I've earned more than the college boys outside."
11. "Why study? It isn't what you know, but who you know, that counts."

One inmate, explaining the indifferent attitude of many inmates toward educational opportunities, said, "When you come to prison you feel like a man who has just come in from the cold outside, wearing an overcoat. The host says to his visitor, 'Take

² These objections were expressed in one form or another by most of a group of 185 men interviewed at Wallkill Prison.

off your coat and stay awhile,' and the visitor replies, 'No, thank you, I'll be going in a minute.' Prison is like that, you can never settle down and get interested in anything."

Fortunately, there are some prisoners who grasp educational opportunities like men starved, and a relatively large group who can be brought to see the value of improving themselves while in prison. An educational staff with good insight can get surprising results in effort and accomplishment by providing sympathetic understanding and a worth-while program of education. Unfortunately, it can be stated with considerable certainty that lack of interest in education on the part of inmates is all too often a commentary on the weak, antiquated, and unattractive program of education available in many institutions.

SOME INMATE ATTITUDES TOWARD SOCIETY

"Government Officials Are Corrupt; Every Man Has His Price."

This was an oft-repeated expression in the Wallkill social studies classes when discussing the costs of government, relief, and similar topics. Inmates will argue that 50 to 90 per cent of the money paid for government "sticks to somebody's fingers"; inmates who come from New York City and are familiar with Tammany Hall will even defend graft in government.

No doubt this attitude is in part, at least, a defense mechanism. It takes the form of, "I'm not so bad, look at the Teapot Dome crowd, or ——— (a New York politician). I just got caught, that's all." The social studies teacher needs plenty of facts and ingenuity to guide the discussion to desired goals.

"All Business Is a Racket."

Inmates sometimes disconcert the teacher by such outbursts as the following: "What is the difference between my throwing a brick through a laundry window because a man won't take protection, and the man who makes a million because he won't let his men join the union and get decent wages?" or "Both unions and employers engage in racketeering. It is all a matter of who gets the best men. The side that does will win the strike in a

walk." And again, "All landlords are profiteers and grafters. What a racket they've got!"

On the other hand, many inmates will champion men like Henry Ford, claiming that he got his money fairly and pays good wages. The social studies teacher must be alert to capitalize on such points and bring out the desirable aspects of modern society.

"What This Country Needs Is a Strong Leader."

Among Italian inmates Mussolini is usually highly regarded. "Mussolini doesn't allow strikes, he pays women two weeks' wages when they have babies, and sets the profits a firm can make," they say.

Another explanation for the "strong leader" attitude on the part of some inmates may lie in their experiences in "mobs" or gangs before coming to prison. The gang leader is supposed to be the bravest, strongest, and most efficient. The "big shot" is the one many inmates look up to, both prior to coming to prison and during their prison life.

This reverence for the strong man or "big shot" appears to have a bearing on teaching method. The accepted function of a social studies teacher or discussion leader in adult education classes outside of institutions and in public schools is to present facts, stimulate thinking, draw out discussion, and leave decisions largely to the group, without injecting his own point of view to any great extent. Experience at Wallkill indicated that this procedure must be modified somewhat in teaching inmates. In the eyes of the inmates the teacher is the leader; he is expected to know all the answers. "Why does he keep asking us what we think?" queried several inmates in some of the first Wallkill classes. The teacher will find it best to demonstrate occasionally that he has opinions and can back them up effectively.³

"Aw, Pay No Attention to Him—He's a 'Commy'!"

Any patriotic organization searching for "Reds" to exterminate will have to look elsewhere than in prison. There are very

³ See Chapter VIII on "Teaching Methods" for further discussion of this point.

few communists in prison, and those few are usually looked on with contempt by the great majority of the population. In the sense that they think the United States is the finest country on earth inmates are, for the most part, patriotic. When the comment cited above, favorable to Mussolini, was made, there was spirited protest from most of the class to the effect that "we want no dictator here." One inmate at Wallkill was almost ostracized by the rest of the inmates for his communistic views. Indeed, the teacher of social studies has to use care in discussing conditions in the United States that might be improved. The Wallkill social studies teacher once remarked, perhaps a bit facetiously, that "if the teacher says there are 10,000,000 unemployed (in 1935), he is branded a 'commy'."

"Only Saps Work!"

There are a good many inmates who have known gangsters and others who lived well by their wits, for a time at least. Consequently, to them any one who punches a time clock, is subject to the beck and call of an employer, and draws a modest pay check is just a "sap." "He's just a working stiff," they assert.

In a milder form, such an attitude probably prevails among many persons not in prison. The same comment might be made about many of these attitudes. The prison teacher of social studies will probably find, however, that if and when inmates do discuss social and economic problems they pull no punches and wear no gloves, and the teacher had better be prepared to beat them to the punch—figuratively speaking, of course.

SUMMARY

This commentary on inmate attitudes may sound discouraging. It should be remembered that this chapter has stressed the difficulties and barriers the social studies teacher will meet in most institutions. A few institutions have created an atmosphere which does not generate many of the attitudes described but rather develops a cooperative and optimistic spirit on the part of the majority of inmates.

In contrast to those inmates exhibiting antagonistic and anti-

social attitudes, many inmates can be found in almost every institution who are earnestly endeavoring to improve themselves and to learn how they can best adjust themselves to the social and economic problems which they will meet. A recent paper on the law courts of New York State, prepared by an inmate at Sing Sing, showed excellent insight and careful research. An inmate at Auburn Prison, about to go out on parole, told the social studies teacher that he had an entirely different outlook since participating in the social studies classes. He stated that he could now take the \$12-a-week job which he had formerly spurned with contempt, and like it. One "hard-boiled" inmate at Wallkill said to the teacher seriously after a class, "You watch out, I'm afraid you'll change my ideas." The teacher treated the remark lightly, but the man came back with, "No, I mean it. If you keep on answering my arguments day after day, I'll just have to change."

Commenting on the teacher at Wallkill, an inmate said, "How well he succeeded may be judged by the large measure of confidence given him by the men in his classes. He succeeded in doing what has rarely been done before: getting prison inmates to talk freely in a group and to a civilian about subjects that are usually strictly taboo."

The presentation of social and economic problems to inmates is an intensely interesting job. In large measure, of course, the key is the personality of the teacher and the extent to which he can secure the confidence and respect of inmates.

The writer is fully aware that this chapter does not go far below the surface in examining the attitudes of inmates and that at least one large volume could be devoted to this subject alone. It is recognized that some of the attitudes described are merely surface indications of deep-lying conflicts. Such an analysis is a task for the psychiatrist. This discussion does describe, however, attitudes almost universally encountered in dealing with prison inmates and it points out many attitudes which must be overcome by the prison teacher.

CHAPTER IV

A PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING APPLIED TO EDUCATION IN CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS

CHAPTER III has presented a review of certain inmate attitudes which might be termed an introduction to prison psychology. In dealing with these viewpoints the prison teacher needs to be able to use the best approaches and techniques that educational psychology has to offer, in addition to that all-important knowledge which can come only from experience.

The psychological viewpoint accepted by the teacher of social and economic problems determines in large measure the methods and procedures which he will utilize to overcome the resistance, apathy, and antagonism which he will meet. Such questions as the following must be answered before the program of teaching can be efficient: How does learning best take place? What procedures will bring about desirable modifications in behavior most effectively? What does psychology offer to aid the prison educator in selecting, organizing, and teaching social and economic problems?

In presenting the following summary of the psychological principles on which social studies teaching should be based, no attempt has been made to "sell" a certain brand of psychology. This new science has many schools of thought. The principles given here are those which have functioned effectively in prison teaching. This chapter is obviously not a complete presentation of educational psychology. It should be supplemented by the study of good textbooks, such as those listed in the Bibliography (pages 154 to 159). This summary is, however, essential to an understanding of the teaching methods and materials discussed in later chapters.

PSYCHOLOGICAL PRINCIPLES

Education Is Growth and Development

The concept of education as growth and development of personality is firmly established in educational thought, although unfortunately in many classrooms it does not control the teaching. To Dewey—

“Education is thus a fostering, a nurturing, a cultivating process. All of these words mean that it implies attention to the *conditions of growth*. (1) . . . Etymologically, the word education means just a process of leading or bringing up. . . . Normal child and normal adult alike are engaged in growing. The difference between them is not the difference between growth and no growth, but between the modes of growth appropriate to different conditions. (2) . . . The criterion of the value of school education is the extent in which it creates a desire for continued growth and supplies means for making the desire effective in fact.”¹

Learning as growth and development has a somewhat specialized meaning for correctional education. A child is an organism in which attitudes, habits, and skills are relatively few and flexible. Growth and development are inevitable, although not necessarily in the right direction.

A youthful or adult delinquent presents a more difficult problem, although the principle of growth is still valid. Inmates of prisons and reformatories are usually sixteen years of age or over. The prison educator is, therefore, confronted with the task of altering and replacing attitudes and habits already more or less strongly fixed. Desirable development in correctional education must mean growth in other directions than that which has already taken place. Much of the growth which has occurred prior to commitment is anti-social in nature. Eliminating undesirable development through the substitution of more desirable inmate

¹Dewey, John, *Democracy and Education* (Macmillan Co., 1916), p. 12. See also Rugg, Harold, *Culture and Education in America* (Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1931), p. 297. Frazier, G. W. and Armentrout, W. D., *An Introduction to Education* (Scott, Foresman and Co., 1933). Wheeler, R. H. and Perkins, F. T., *The Principles of Mental Development* (Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1932), p. 8.

attitudes and interests, and modifying characteristics so that their expression will be acceptable in free society constitute the work of the correctional teacher.

Learning Goes on within the Individual

As Dr. Rugg has phrased it, “learning depends upon the pupil trying to learn rather than upon the teacher trying to teach.” Education cannot be a process of “giving something to” an inmate. It cannot be prescribed and “taken” in the way that one might swallow a curative draught. This concept that education is growth which takes place within the individual makes teaching one of the most interesting, but also difficult, professions to carry on effectively. With such a viewpoint the teacher can no longer hand out certain facts or demonstrate certain skills and disregard the reaction of the student. Neither the “take it or leave it” nor the “here it is—you learn or else” technique has much place in correctional education. Teachers must therefore judge their work by changes which take place in each inmate rather than by the number of lessons presented.

Learning Goes on Constantly

All aspects of one's environment are educating him constantly. The delinquent “learned” his way into the institution. The various influences with which the inmate has come in contact prior to commitment have constantly “educated” him. The process continues in the institution. The guards who direct his movements teach him hatred of or respect for authority. The methods of discipline likewise teach him bitterness or a sense of justice done. From other inmates he may acquire new ways of committing crime. The food, the architecture, the teachers, the rules and regulations, and hundreds of other elements are influencing his habits and attitudes twenty-four hours a day. The “stir-drunk” inmate who becomes dull and simple from long-routinized behavior, the recidivist who goes out to repay society for his searing experience in prison, the man who makes good on parole because some guard once treated him like a man or because a teacher gave him a new slant on life—all

these have learned in prison. Therefore, all factors of the institutional environment should be consciously planned to exert desirable educative influences on the inmate.

This principle applies equally within the classroom and the shop. The inmate may be learning anti-social attitudes at the same time that he is learning spelling, because of the attitude and method of the instructor. The influences of the classroom must be such that all learnings will be desirable.

As Kilpatrick has said: "We as teachers may think first and most of the algebra or the history, as if the pupils were learning only that and as if it counted somewhat most. But much more than algebra is being learned. Usually, so we have to admit, it is these other things—the concomitant or attendant learnings—that count for most in the child's life. It is out of the resulting attitudes that the child's future choices will mostly be made."²

Education, then, consists in so setting the stage that the individual will be stimulated to worth-while mental or physical action, or both, which will result in definite changes for the better in his behavior.

The Individual Learns Best When He Reacts as a Whole

Muscles, nerves, organs are all so interconnected and fused that an individual always reacts as a whole when he functions effectively. Each activity of one part of the human organism has its corresponding or accompanying activity in other parts.³ Learning is most efficient when the whole individual reacts as a unit to a situation. Inefficient and disintegrating activity occurs when an individual desires to do one thing and is forced to do another. Learning of any sort is meager under such circumstances, and the sooner the teacher can discover a situation to which the student will react positively enough to devote all his attention and energies to it, the sooner maximum learning begins. The individual then moves forward as a unified per-

² Kilpatrick, William H., "Recent Psychological Developments," *The Journal of the National Education Association*, December, 1935, p. 278.

³ See Child, Charles M., *Physiological Foundation of Behavior* (Henry Holt and Co., 1924), pp. 2 f., for a technical discussion of this point.

sonality. He tends to stand still or retrogress when constantly torn between conflicting drives.⁴

The inmate of correctional institutions for youths and adults presents a unique educational problem: He is present against his will; he tends to resent every activity he is expected to perform; and he is, therefore, not reacting naturally and wholly to the situation. This is a barrier that correctional education must face by making the learning situation as vital as possible to the inmates. Compulsory education—the laying down of a rule that all inmates must attend school for certain definite periods—is not the way to secure the best learning results.

An Individual Responds Primarily to an Entire Situation Rather Than to Separate Parts

Experiments have shown that one sees an entire situation first—be it picture, incident, or idea—before he analyzes the elements of the situation. Real learning does not consist of a study of detailed parts and the putting of these together to form a whole. It is rather the grasping of a large problem or situation which gives meanings to the parts. Learning is essentially the understanding and appreciation of meanings and relationships. The difficulty witnesses have in describing an incident illustrates this point. When one sees an automobile accident he takes in the scene and action as an entity. "An accident," his brain tells him; but later the casual observer can relate accurately few, if any, details of the affair.

Facts and happenings assume meaning only when related to a main problem vital to the learner. This is the reason why memorizing of isolated facts in geography, history, civics, or economics too often proves ineffective, particularly when improved attitudes and changed behavior are the goals: the facts in such teaching are presented as isolated entities separate from their setting in some significant whole or problem.

The point for education in this principle (and especially for the teacher of social and economic problems) is that unless a

⁴ See Dewey, John, *Moral Principles in Education* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1909), p. 8, for a further discussion of this point.

significant problem or unit is seen whole by the student, the learning of discrete details or facts will have little bearing on subsequent attitudes and behavior. Too many institutional programs are based on an opposite psychology—that of memorizing separate facts. “Learn thirty words a day and soon one will be able to use the English language fluently,” one institutional program says in effect.

In the material presented in Chapter VII each topic or problem represents a “whole” or unit. In the teacher’s material of each Wallkill unit the first division is called an “Overview.” In the student units the first division after the statement of the problem is called “Points to Keep in Mind.” Reference to the Overviews in the teacher’s unit and to the Points to Keep in Mind of the student units will reveal that both these sections attempt to “set the stage.” They reveal the large elements of the problems, indicate certain of their implications, and describe their settings in the social and economic scene. The extent to which this is done efficiently determines the reader’s or learner’s mind-set and enables him to see the significance of the various facts, figures, and situations presented throughout the unit.

In selecting problems or units, care should be taken to choose those (or preferably have them chosen by the class and individual) which are really problems to the learners. It is comparatively easy to break a large subject into separate parts; it is not so easy, but more productive of results, to select really significant and psychological wholes rather than logical “wholes” or blocks. A submitted outline for class study in geography in a correctional institution lists such main heads as “The Middle Atlantic States,” “The Study of the Continent of North America,” and follows with such sub-heads as “Coast Line,” and “The Use of Maps and Scales.” These topics represent logical breakdowns which make no attempt to present significant problems and units from the standpoint of the learner. Suppose, however, that an inmate, or class of inmates, is faced with the problem of “What industries are increasing or decreasing in different parts of the country?” as part of the larger problem, “How can I get a job when I get out of prison?” Then cer-

tain facts about the Middle Atlantic States become meaningful, and will be much more readily studied. Efficient learning of new skills, habits, knowledges, and attitudes depends in large part on the extent to which the wholes or units or problems stimulate, unify, and integrate the learning.

No Effective Learning Is Possible without Interest, Drive, Purpose, Tension, or Motive

This principle has been implied throughout the discussion. If an individual is to study and act as a whole or integrated individual he must be interested in that which he studies. The problem must be vital to him. The terms “interest,” “purpose,” “tension,” “drive,” and “motive” are used by psychologists to describe the power of a real problem situation to stimulate thought and action on the part of people. For example, let the prisoner’s release depend on his passing an examination and he will expend his maximum effort. The ever-present and all-powerful basic problem of every inmate is “How can I get out of prison soon?” A single examination would probably bear little relation to his preparation for release. But if his efforts and success in preparing himself for release—in other words, his efforts at rehabilitation or social re-orientation—are made the condition of release, he has a real motive for putting forth effort. Only as institutions make rehabilitation *in fact* the basis for release will they capitalize on the greatest possible goal in stimulating inmate interest and effort.

While the desire of inmates to be released should be utilized in programs of correctional education, it should not be considered the best or final factor which may motivate inmate learning. If “getting by” the Parole Board constitutes the only drive or interest the inmate has in learning, there will be little carry-over in improved attitudes and behavior after release. Such an interest is called “extrinsic” by educational psychologists, which means that the student works for a goal entirely outside the learning itself. Effective education should soon arouse a real interest on the part of the inmate in improving himself because he wants to make good *after* release, and be-

cause he recognizes education as a worth-while way of doing this. He thus has an interest in solving problems—personal, social, and economic—because he recognizes his genuine need for solving them. Such an interest is “intrinsic”; it is rooted in the learning itself and in its lasting value to the individual. The desire to get out is, then, spurious as a basic educational interest; it is one that probably must be utilized in some cases to encourage the prisoner to start an educational program, but it is up to the teacher to broaden and deepen that interest into the desire for genuine self-improvement. Once this transition is made, the real goal of the inmate is moved beyond the Parole Board to socially desirable adjustment after release.

If, then, the individual inmate has a real purpose—an actual tension toward a goal—in learning, acquiring skills, and revising attitudes, he will put forth the necessary effort to achieve this purpose. And if, then, problems in social studies can be made vital and close enough to situations which the inmate will face upon release, real interest and effort should eventuate.

Practice Is Necessary to Fix Skills, but It Should Be within a Meaningful Situation

The psychological principles discussed up to this point are basic in any learning situation. Learning to read, gaining concepts about democracy as a form of government, learning to play basketball, developing poise in debate, or acquiring skill in squaring a board, are all dependent on the learner's interest, on his grasping a large whole or unit and the place of the specific facts, skills, and concepts in the whole. If the inmate is to learn to square a board with least waste motion and efficient application later, he must have first thought through the carpenter trade itself and the part that squaring a board plays in the trade and particularly in making some article. In the social studies, concepts and attitudes are paramount and these only result when facts and situations take on significance in the light of a previously conceived whole. Ability to name the products of each of the forty-eight states has little significance in determining the prisoner's attitude toward democracy, but this knowl-

edge takes on real meaning if he is trying to determine why the different sections of the country often have opposed interests.

Because of the importance of concepts and attitudes in the social studies, little has been said concerning the acquisition of skills, or the learning of facts. However, the acquisition of certain skills is an important goal in social studies. Chief among these skills are: ability to maintain a scientific or objective attitude in discussing problems, ability to weigh facts and arguments, ability to distinguish between opinion and facts, ability to keep emotion out of the discussion or at least well under control, ability to draw valid conclusions from facts, ability to see relationships between parts of a situation, ability to organize and express ideas, and ability to look at a situation from all viewpoints.

The earlier psychology set up special exercises to develop each of these abilities—exercises which in themselves had very little significance. There was extensive practice on each ability *but not in its natural setting*. Then the student was supposed to be able to apply each skill or ability. Research has shown that abilities are acquired best when practiced in a meaningful situation. When the discussion becomes heated for the first time in a social studies classroom, then the time is ripe to begin practice on keeping emotions controlled in discussion. Practice is necessary. But practice should take place under as realistic conditions as possible.

Geographical, historical, economic, and social facts must be learned if social studies are to be more than “gab-fests.” Drill is necessary to fix such facts. But if the facts are to be useful to the individual, drill will only be resorted to when the usefulness of knowing the facts is clearly seen by the learner. The part facts play in solving a problem and their significance as part of the whole must be clarified first. The example given above concerning the chief products of different parts of the United States is a case in point. The old school would have drilled on those facts with little or no discussion of the part they play in understanding problems of the country. The mod-

ern teacher presents the problems which men and women have to meet and shows the necessity of knowing facts from history, geography, and other sciences in order to understand and solve those problems. Drill has a very definite place. It is, however, not the end of teaching but only one means to the more important ends of understanding problems and making decisions.

SUMMARY OF PSYCHOLOGICAL VIEWPOINT

The viewpoint here presented holds that learning is growth and development, that it takes place within the individual, and can be effective only as the individual is integrated in his efforts. Such integration can result only from vital drives and tensions growing out of a variety of experiences that have meaning for the individual. In such a program the teacher is the stimulator of interests through the environment which he presents to the learner, and he is then the guide to further the learning—in discussing, reading, constructing, observing, experimenting, creating, analyzing, etc.—as it needs guidance. Such vitalized learning as that outlined should result in many worth-while attitudes and desirable new modified behavior patterns in addition to needed skills and knowledges.

CHAPTER V

PROCEDURES FOR SELECTING AND PLANNING SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS FOR TEACHING

WHAT shall be taught? is the first question which faces the social studies teacher. What problems, materials, and activities will best prepare an inmate to cope with the social and economic situations he will face on release?

In the broadest sense, social and economic problems include almost every human problem. The 1936 Year Book of the Department of Superintendence defines social studies as follows:

“No human action or saying can be actually isolated from actions and sayings that have gone before, that are going on concurrently, and that will go on in the future. . . . The social studies embrace bodies of knowledge and thought pertaining to the relations of human beings—men, women, and children—to one another and to the physical environment in which they live and work.”¹

Social and economic institutions of all kinds are involved. Labor, capital, education, religion, government, social security, recreation, health, and crime provide the subject matter. During recent years much interest has been shown by people of all types in those problems growing out of the maladjustments in our machine and power economy. The Hoover Committees on Recent Social Trends and Recent Economic Trends produced several large volumes which suggest the thousands of problems involved in these various fields. Out of this mass of material what should be selected for use in correctional institutions?

Several different procedures for selecting social and economic

¹*The Social Studies Curriculum*, Fourteenth Year Book of the Department of Superintendence, 1936, p. 53.

problems to be taught have been and are being used in New York State correctional institutions.

THE PROCEDURE USED IN THE WALLKILL EXPERIMENT

The Curriculum Committee of the Engelhardt Commission began the process of selecting basic materials by surveying available data concerning inmates of correctional institutions. Inasmuch as the material was to be used first at Wallkill, a study was made of the activities engaged in by inmates at that institution and also of the characteristics of the inmate population. Several conferences were held which brought together officials of correctional institutions, penologists, curriculum experts, and social studies specialists.

The Committee decided upon two criteria which should guide the selection of large social and economic areas for development: (1) Areas selected must involve many of the significant problems in modern life. (2) Areas selected must be those which most nearly touch the lives and interests of the majority of the group which will study them.²

Social and Economic Areas Selected

Four areas were selected as best meeting the criteria established. No teaching materials in the socio-economic field were available at Wallkill. Therefore, it seemed best to provide an up-to-date body of content for the use of teachers. This content material took the form of four source-books and was prepared with the aid of curriculum specialists and workers in the Curriculum Laboratory at Teachers College, Columbia University, continuous contact being maintained with the prison throughout the production of the source-books. The scope of each source-book is indicated by the description which follows.

1. *America at Work*—This source-book surveys the problems of the American worker. It deals with work opportunities, trends in occupational fields, and conditions of work. Such topics as

²For a more comprehensive list of Criteria for Selecting and Developing Problems, see Bruner, H. B., *Some Suggestions for the Study of Modern Problems* (National Crisis Series, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934), pp. 28-32.

the following are developed: types of job opportunities; percentages of people working in various jobs; the distribution of the nation's income; training needed for various jobs; problems facing workers in present economic society; employer's attitude toward labor problems; employer and employee relationships and mutual responsibilities; the role of government in helping employers and employees.

2. *Getting Goods to People*—This source-book surveys the modern scene from the standpoint of the producer, marketer, and consumer. It treats such topics as: sources of our food, clothing, and shelter; the problems farmers face in producing and marketing goods; the problems factories face in producing and marketing goods; the problems involved in getting goods from producers to retailers; the mutual relationships and responsibilities of consumer, business, and industry; job opportunities in retailing.

3. *Housing America*—This source-book deals with the problems of the housing and construction fields. Such topics as the following are covered: new developments in these fields; where America lives; how America lives; changes which have and are taking place; changes in work opportunities and in living which are resulting from recent changes and trends in housing construction; how housing can be improved; how various countries are attempting to solve housing problems.

4. *Wheels of Progress—A Study of America's Transportation System*—This source-book surveys in considerable detail the present status and problems of America's transportation system. It develops the following large problems: "How Modern America Moves," a description of all forms of transportation in modern America; "Why Modern America Moves" and "Where America Moves," a discussion of the services rendered by our transportation system and the effects of the development of transportation on the life of the country; "Who Turns the Transportation Wheels of Modern America," a survey of job opportunities, number of people employed in transportation services, and working conditions; "Recent Inventions, and Legislation Which Has Affected the Transportation System"; "How

Achievements of the Past Have Developed the Transportation System.”

Each of these source-books was prepared primarily for the use of the teacher of modern social and economic problems. Illustrative materials of all types are part of or accompany each source-book, including pictures, charts, graphs, pamphlets, books, clipping files, etc. A complete bibliography is also part of each source-book. Each book is organized according to the following divisions: I. Outline, designed to indicate the various topics covered. II. Overview, which provides a “bird’s-eye” view of the unit. III. Content material. IV. Suggested activities—a body of things for students to do in studying the unit.

While the material is prepared for the teacher, the attempt was made to keep the source-books as simple in language as possible in order that they might be used as reference materials by students; the teacher could then select sections of the material for mimeographing in preparing teaching units for class use. The material is up-to-date insofar as socio-economic material can be up-to-date. Because of the very nature of this subject and the problems with which it deals, it must constantly be kept new and fresh as changes occur.

How the Basic Materials Fit the Institutional Situation

Correctional education rightly places much stress upon vocational training. A large proportion of inmates are not skilled in any trade. This places this group on a low economic level. The environment on this level and the economic insecurity which accompanies intermittent labor and low wages are contributing factors in causing men to turn to crime. Vocational training and adjustment may aid in removing many of these contributing factors and assist in the rehabilitation of men. The Wallkill basic socio-economic materials have a strong vocational trend.

The source-book entitled “America at Work” touches the interest and lives of workers in all fields. What are the occupational trends? What do the changes in production, processing, and distributing mean to men in industry? What can they expect from employers and what do they owe employers? What is

the responsibility of government for the worker and what responsibility has the worker for the government? What kind of living can a man expect to make in various fields and what conditions of work? Such questions provide the approaches to the interests of men through which the larger problems of the social and economic world are introduced.

Everyone is a consumer and many men will be employed in the business and servicing fields. Therefore, the problems of the consumer and the people who are employed in these areas are of importance to inmates. These problems are considered in the source-book, “Getting Goods to People.” The complex system by which goods get from the producer to the consumer, the steps through which goods pass, the problems which arise in the process—costs, prices, taxes, etc.—are vital to anyone in modern life. The problems of the farmer apply specifically to a certain group of inmates who will engage in agricultural occupations.

Housing is a vital problem of concern to every citizen today. This field discussed in the “Housing” source-book has specific application to men who are prepared or are preparing to enter the building and construction trades. The huge housing projects made possible by government aid for the rehousing of large numbers of families, though not adequate to solve the problem, have significance for bricklayers, plasterers, carpenters, and indirectly for many other groups of workers dependent upon the construction industry. Low-cost housing, rent reduction, and tax programs also touch the lives of many inmates inasmuch as they have families to care for.

Transportation in all its phases and industries dependent upon it employ a large proportion of workers today. This field is surveyed in the source-book, “Wheels of Progress.” The auto shop is a popular and feasible area of training for inmates. Everyone makes use of several types of transportation in getting from place to place and in transporting his own or his employer’s goods. Automobiles, trucks, subways, railroads, and the airplane are vital necessities to modern living. Any job which a man may enter will be dependent in some way or other upon the transportation facilities of the country.

This problem of making the important social and economic problems vital to men in prison is common to all the source-books. To make the transition from wages in any trade to the wage level in all industry and the feasibility of raising the general standard of living, for example, taxes the ingenuity of the teacher. By using an approach or rather many approaches which touch the lives of inmates intimately, many of these larger implications—interdependence, the breaking up of family and community mores and traditions, the need for more self-control and self-discipline in a changing world where old taboos are being broken down by our changed and changing ways of living—can often be brought out as natural steps from the specific to larger ideas. But it is not easy and takes intense thought and hard work to find approaches that will interest. Careful and detailed planning is essential in making the transition from the specific to the more general but very vital concepts of social and economic living without which the man in the modern world is lost and socially illiterate.

The compilation of source-books has certain disadvantages. To begin with, it is an expensive process. The Wallkill source-books have not been printed because of the high cost, and hence their usefulness is limited. Furthermore, such materials become rapidly out-dated as the social and economic scene shifts. It would probably be more practical to collect books, pamphlets, and visual aids already available from many sources and to use these as background material.

The Selection of Problems for Class Teaching

Having developed or collected basic materials, something tangible must be prepared on which to base the class procedure. Teaching units cannot be prepared effectively prior to experience with inmate classes. They must necessarily emerge from experience and experiment. Inmate interests must be ferreted out. Problems must be selected which fit these interests. Ways must be found to tie these interests and problems closely and vitally to the larger social and economic concepts which form the heart of the course. A teacher, from experience in teaching

adults outside of prison, states the necessity of this step very aptly: "One of the first tenets of a dynamic program of education for workers is to suit the material discussed to the particular interests and experiences of the workers in the class. This means that the teacher must familiarize himself with the experiences and background of his students, and use such experiences as the basis of illustrative material for whatever course he is teaching at the time, whether it be psychology, sociology, English, or literature. The first student in a class of adults, therefore, should be the teacher."³

During the first three months of the Wallkill experiment no attempt was made to develop a definite procedure. The instructor had the difficult preliminary task of getting the inmates to accept him as well as the type of material he was presenting. Not only was the material different from the usual prison school or shop subject matter, but the teaching method was an innovation inasmuch as the discussion procedure was made the basis of class work.

The three months' try-out period was not only an orientation time for both instructor and students; it was a period of "cut and try." Different approaches were tested, records were kept of inmate reactions, and inmate interests were recorded to provide a base for selecting problems. Newspapers were used as the basis for discussion in one class; in another the instructor followed the forum procedure; the work of the shop was used as a point of departure in other classes; new developments in machinery used in the shop were presented to stimulate interest in social and economic changes.

The procedure which gave best results in the Wallkill classes was to select specific trade interests in the work of each shop and find newspaper or magazine references which would be interesting because they were related to these interests. For example, in the carpentry-masonry group the pre-fabricated house was discussed and illustrative materials were brought in to develop the topic. From this beginning the question of low-cost

³ Educational Standards Committee assisted by Works Progress Administration, Adult Education Program of the Board of Education and New York University, New York, February, 1937, p. 20.

housing was raised, and private and governmental plans for re-housing large blocks of our population which have low incomes were discussed. In the barber shop, the necessity of knowing how to talk to a customer was used as a starting point, and the importance of being informed about current happenings provided a base for a discussion of social and economic problems.

At the end of three months it was decided that a tentative plan should be developed for teaching in order that there could be some continuity to the work, the men would feel that they were really getting somewhere, and there would be more "body" to the work. In addition, it is almost impossible for anyone, even a skilled tradesman, to be sufficiently informed about all trades so that he can continue over a period of time to base the work upon specific trade interests and processes. Certainly one man cannot be expected to know his field in social and economic problems (itself an almost limitless area) and at the same time know the details of all trades. This does not mean, of course, that in developing a problem, the instructor will not approach it with illustrations drawn from areas as close to the interests of the men as possible. All good teaching will be based on inmate interests. Otherwise there will be violations of two basic educational principles; namely, that all work should be based on vital interests of the learner, and that all work should proceed from the known to the unknown.

During the three months' try-out period certain interests which cut across all trades and others which are common to groups of trades were discovered. The problems or topics given below were selected for development into units, as being, in most cases, closest to the interests and needs of the men.

1. Getting a Job Today
2. Jobs for Builders of Houses
3. Are Higher Wages Necessary and Possible?
4. Men and Machines
5. Labor Unions
6. Modern Ways of Doing Business
7. Social Security
8. Price Spread between the Producer and the Consumer

9. The American Farmer and His Problems
10. Bettering Farm Marketing Conditions
11. Government

Recent Social Studies Development at Wallkill

The Wallkill Prison staff has used a somewhat different procedure in selecting social and economic problems, although the materials and experience developed during the Engelhardt Commission Project have been utilized extensively. A committee, composed of shop instructors, teachers, and the librarian, conferred personally with each instructor, assisting him to examine his trade analysis to determine points at which social and economic problems are involved. These points were listed for each shop, and tentative units were developed and tried out. The librarian supplied materials for the teachers. After try-outs, the units were revised by the committee. Subject matter, approaches, and activities were increased so that the units are usable in all or several types of shops and classes. The excerpt from the 1936-37 Wallkill Annual Report which follows describes the results obtained to July 1, 1937.

Curriculum Planning in Socio-economic Education at Wallkill Prison, 1936-37⁴

At the beginning of the school year, as an outgrowth of weekly teachers' meetings, a committee was organized to develop a program for the promotion of socio-economics as part of the trade training. A year ago material of this type was introduced and taught by a specialist in social education, but while the content was excellent, it was felt that inmate interest was not challenged to its highest possible degree and that some changes in organization and presentation were in order.

OBJECTIVES

The following general objectives of the program were set down:

1. To familiarize the inmate with changing industrial trends.
2. To socialize the inmate by presenting to him new and revitalized concepts of society and modern civilization.

⁴The Socio-economic Committee preparing this report was composed of William Rogers, Chairman, H. R. Rudolph, Charles Johnson, and Charles Scanlan. N. J. Henzel, Director of Vocational Education, prepared the Annual Report.

3. To develop in the individual correct attitudes toward employers, government, himself, and work in general.
4. To arouse an interest in analyzing industrial, civic, and social problems.
5. To broaden the inmate's general information in order to instill more confidence in himself, and thus raise his morale.

CONTENT

This field of instruction is so broad and the available information so inexhaustible that it was necessary to select from the mass such topics as could most readily be related to the regular trade instruction and to concentrate on the development of such specific units as gave promise of being successful when placed in the hands of existing instructors.

With the foregoing in view and always with an eye to the objectives as set down, the Committee selected the following main sections: Industrial Organization, Labor and Wages, Capital and Its Place in Society, Government Participation in Industrial Welfare, Transportation, Buying and Price Control, Lending and Borrowing, and Communication.

Many units of instruction may be built around these general topics. As an example, the following outline, one of many developed, shows the possibilities of expanding the section on Industrial Organization.

Industrial Organization

- I. *Unit 1—Industrial Revolution.* In this unit, the causes, characteristics, and results of each of the following are discussed:
 - A. Agricultural age.
 - B. Development of crafts.
 - C. Inventions leading to the Industrial Revolution.
 - D. Machines and the rise of mass production.
 - E. Machines and their effect upon hours of labor and unemployment.
 - F. The effect of machines upon skilled workers.
 - G. Union labor's machine philosophy.
- II. *Unit 2—Labor Unions.* In this unit, the historical background of the growth of trade unions leading to the present trade, labor, and industrial unions is covered. Also, the aims, the advantages, and the disadvantages of the union policies are discussed. In discussing unions, the following are considered:

- A. Knights of Labor.
- B. American Federation of Labor.
- C. Congress of Industrial Organizations.
- D. Collective bargaining.
- E. Arbitration.
- F. Union label.
- G. Open shop.
- H. Closed shop.
- I. Black list.
- J. Boycott.
- K. Jurisdictional disputes.
- L. Sympathy strike.
- M. Strike (local and general).
- N. Picketing.
- O. Scabs.
- P. Growth of Unions in comparison to business cycles.
- Q. Union labor's part in government legislation.

Each of the foregoing units may furnish subject matter for a number of class sessions, dependent upon the thoroughness with which the instructor wishes to explore the field. The interest of students in any particular discussion, its timeliness, and possibility of desirable outcomes are other factors which determine the amount of time to be devoted to each unit.

PRESENTATION

In order to integrate this type of instructional material with the trade training, a procedure which we have found to be essential, the approaches are through existing trade interests. Instructors have been taught that while ultimate objectives are to awaken broader social and economic concepts, these can best be attained by seizing upon those topics which are of immediate interest. Thus, while specific objectives for each lesson are known to the instructor and the content is broadly outlined, the occasion for introducing a topic should appear to grow casually and informally out of a classroom or shop situation.

The following tentative procedures have been adopted for the guidance of instructors:

1. An average of one hour a week should be devoted to socio-economic problems.
2. A division of the central library under the supervision of the librarian serves as a clearing house for all pertinent socio-economic material.

3. Instructors must cooperate by submitting to the librarian clippings and references to current newspaper and magazine articles, documents, speeches, executive orders, reviews, summaries, etc. These will be catalogued and cross-indexed under suitable section and unit headings.
4. The librarian furnishes to instructors current bibliographies of materials available.
5. When a topic has been selected, the instructor will be supplied with a skeleton outline of the subject, accompanied by a statement of the fundamental facts to be covered and a guide to such helpful supplementary information as graphs, texts, posters, etc., which may be found in the library.
6. Teachers should stimulate inmate activity by calling attention to timely articles, posting clippings, etc. Inmates should be encouraged to bring to class topics of interest drawn from their reading of books, newspapers, and magazines.
7. Teachers should observe and record inmate interests. If interest lags, the topic might well be dropped or reserved for some future occasion.
8. Attitudes of inmates during the following discussions should be recorded. Although it is recognized that socio-economic teaching is extremely difficult to evaluate, the painstaking recording of inmate attitudes over a long period may shed light on the perplexing problem of changing attitudes. The possibility of devising a tool for charting inmate attitudes is a fascinating subject for research, and well worth the attention of the progressive teacher.

TEACHERS' OUTLINES

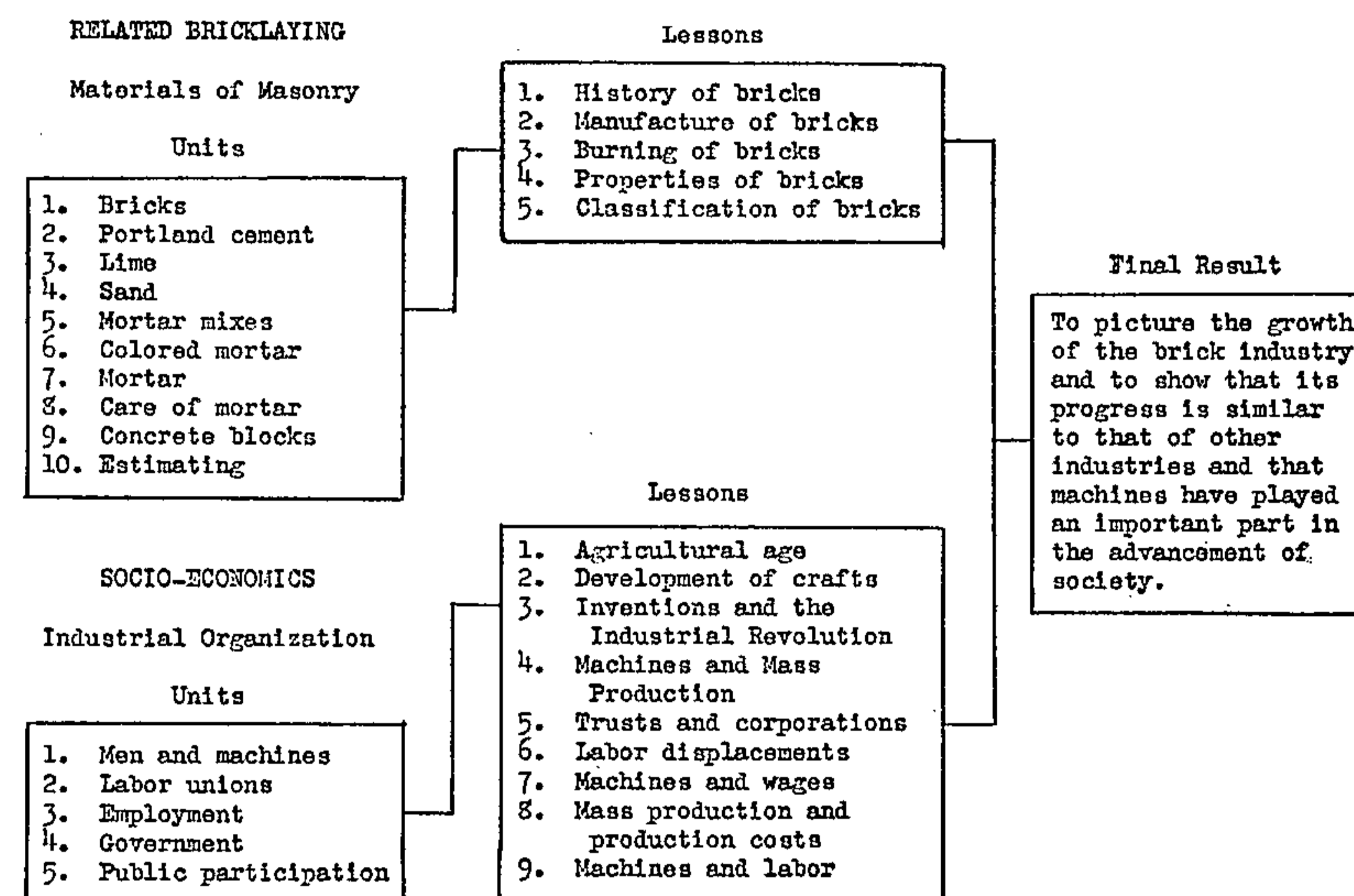
Outlines for many units have been completed and introduced. These are of a broad nature, suitable for presentation in any class or shop. It is the task of the individual teacher to analyze his course of study to determine where and what portions of these outlines may best be utilized. How this is achieved in a typical course of study is illustrated by the following:

Course: Related Masonry
 Section: Materials of Masonry
 Unit: The History of Bricks
 Socio-economic Unit: Mass Production
 General Unit: Men and Machines

An attempt has been made to illustrate this integration graphically

in the chart showing the Synthesis of Socio-Economic Material and Trade Instruction.

SYNTHESIS OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC MATERIAL AND TRADE INSTRUCTION



CONCLUSIONS

Although the use of socio-economic materials is still in an experimental stage at Wallkill, enough has been learned during the past year to render further exploration into this field an adventure that is looked upon with enthusiasm by the Committee and instructors generally. The inmate response was excellent. The teaching staff, challenged with a progressive type of education, assisted in the development of subject matter and methods, and freely exchanged ideas.

Much remains to be done. The Committee will continue to function during the coming school-year and has set for its task the development of additional units, the study of subject outlines of existing courses, and the further correlation of the two types of instruction.

THE NEW YORK STATE VOCATIONAL INSTITUTION PLAN

In the spring of 1938, a curriculum development program was begun at the New York State Vocational Institution at

West Coxsackie, New York. The Social Studies Committee has added an important step in the selection of social studies materials. In addition to utilizing occupational interests, an intensive study of inmate attitudes has been made with the cooperation of the entire institutional staff. This procedure provided a body of definite attitudes which social studies teaching, as well as other institutional activities, must correct if the function of the institution is to be carried out effectively. Incidentally, much indirect staff training has been effected by this study of inmate attitudes through group discussions at teacher and general employee meetings.

For source materials the institution has secured the loan of about two hundred publications from the State Library. The Coxsackie project is just getting under way, but should prove an interesting and valuable experiment. This illustrates an alternative to the preparation of source-books used in the Wall-kill experiment.⁵

SUMMARY OF PROCEDURES FOR SELECTING MATERIALS

The selection of problems for social and economic teaching seems, then, to rest on the answers to the following questions:

1. What attitudes of inmates need revising?
2. What materials will contribute most to the solution of problems which inmates will meet after release?

Some of the attitudes of inmates have been discussed in a previous chapter. The types of problems which inmates will meet on release include the following:

- A. As a worker
 1. Problems common to all workers.
 2. Problems involved in specific vocations and occupations.
 3. Problems peculiar to the released inmate.

⁵The Social Studies Committee at the New York State Vocational Institution has just completed an excellent mimeographed Course of Study in Social Science which carries out many of the suggestions in this book. This course of study bases social studies problems and teaching squarely on inmate attitudes and interests and appears to be the best yet produced for institutional use.

- B. As a member or head of a family
 1. Problems involved in family relationship.
 2. Problems involved in spending and saving.
- C. As a member of other social groups
 1. Problems involving crime and its consequences.
 2. Problems involved in getting along with others.
 3. Problems involved in social and economic arrangements.
 4. Problems involved in securing good government.
 5. Problems involved in education and religion.
- D. As a user of leisure time
 1. Problems involved in proper use of leisure.
- E. As a member of a developing society
 1. Problems involved in change.
 2. Problems involved in national and international development.
- F. As a developing human being
 1. Problems involved in personality development.
 2. Problems involved in getting along with others.
 3. Problems involved in achieving and maintaining health.

It is reasonable to expect that units in each of the above fields will be developed and discussed with inmates in order that the work of the course may encompass their major activities and problems.

DEVELOPING THE COURSE OF STUDY

Having determined inmate attitudes, interests, and needs, and having selected areas and problems to be taught, an educational department is ready to take the next step of developing a general plan which will assist the teacher in his work in the classroom. This involves a breakdown or analysis of the following points for each area or large problem:

1. Inmate attitudes in the area.
2. Inmate interests which can be utilized, and suggested approaches.
3. Outcomes desired in the form of concepts, skills, and understandings.

4. Divisions or sub-problems suggested for development into teaching units.
5. Suggested class and individual activities.
6. List of suggested materials for use in teaching.

Prefaced by the general aims and objectives of social studies, and a discussion of educational psychology and method, such an analysis, if carefully done, will constitute the major part of a course of study. It does not indicate the exact items to be taught or the exact order of teaching, as in former courses of study, but such a procedure is not considered desirable inasmuch as the interests of each group will vary and an alert teacher will wish to capitalize on current happenings. The analysis should provide the teacher with a wealth of suggestions for problems and teaching procedures. Some simple requirements can be set up to see that an entire year is not spent on one type of problem and that major important phases are covered.

An illustration of a partial analysis of the general area, "The Inmate as a Member of a Community," is given on page 53.

In preparing the Course of Study in Social Science just completed at the New York State Vocational Institution (see note at bottom of page 50) this plan of analysis was followed at the writer's suggestion. The one unit given below illustrates how such an analysis has been excellently worked out in one institutional situation. The commitment age at the New York State Vocational Institution is sixteen years to nineteen years. The Course of Study in Social Science was prepared under the leadership of Mr. Price Chenault, Principal of Schools at the institution, by a teacher committee composed of Emmett Ruland, Chairman, James Austin, Ferdinand Ballieul, Jacob Baltuch, John B. Costello, and George Drojarski. Mr. Frederick C. Helbing is Superintendent and Mr. Donald D. Scarborough is Assistant Superintendent. Unit V, "The Home and Its Activities," from the Course of Study, is given on the following pages immediately after the analysis entitled "The Inmate as a Member of a Community."

THE INMATE AS A MEMBER OF A COMMUNITY

<i>Inmate Attitudes and Concepts</i>	<i>Inmate Interests to be Utilized, and Suggested Approaches</i>	<i>Desired Outcomes (Attitudes, Skills, Knowledge, Understandings)</i>	<i>Problems for Development into Units (on three different levels)</i>	<i>Class and Individual Activities</i>	<i>Materials</i>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Everybody for himself. 2. They don't give an "ex-con" a chance. 3. All officials are grafters. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Elections. 2. Political machines. 3. Getting a job. 4. Providing a decent home and decent living conditions for family. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Members of a community are interdependent. 2. A community strives to further the interests of its members. 3. Members of a community get type of community they want. 4. Ability to think objectively. 5. Mastery of new words. 6. Ability to organize ideas and present them orally and in writing. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The prison—a community? 2. What is a community? 3. What keeps a community together? 4. What services does a community provide its members? 5. How is a community organized? 6. How does a community function? 7. How does the community protect its members? 8. Education. 9. Recreation. 10. Delinquency. 11. Model communities. 12. How are community services paid for? 13. Are communities responsible for housing? 14. What are the implications and principles of group life? 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Debates: Delinquency is result of bad housing; government should build good housing for all. 2. Report on certain model communities. 3. List all services provided by community. 4. Diagram community relationships. 5. Figure cost of services in certain community. 6. Make balance sheet of cost of services and values received. 7. Discussion of questions on lesson sheets. 8. Set up qualifications of a model community. Rate prison on each. Also New York City or some other community. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Current news-papers, clippings. 2. Units, lesson sheets. 3. Books (list). 4. Magazines. 5. Tests. 6. Visual aids.

Unit V—The Home and Its Activities

Inmate Attitudes and Concepts:

1. My "old man" will take care of me.
2. Any place is my home where I can hang my hat and get three square meals a day.
3. My mother and my old man fight all the time.
4. The folks expected me to give them all the money I earned and then gave me nothing.
5. Why should I work around the house after I have worked all day?
6. The old man has no right to tell me what to do. I am old enough to be my own boss.
7. My brother or sister gets everything and I get nothing.
8. When I came to the institution I struck a home.
9. Take all you can get for nothing.
10. When I am away from an institution I am away from home.
11. My home is a noisy place where there is always squabbling.
12. "Home Sweet Home."
13. When my stepfather or stepmother came into my home, I began to get into trouble because he or she did not care for me.
14. My parents are foreign and are not wise to American ways.
15. The old folks take life too seriously.

Desired Outcomes:

1. An understanding that the "old man" will not always be there to care for him and to be able to exist, it will be necessary to make a living by his own efforts.
2. A better meaning of house, home, and family.
3. To develop a better understanding of the part he should play as a member of the family.
4. To have developed a loyalty to the members of the family and to assist him to understand the part he should play as a member of the family.
5. To have developed an understanding and respect for the laws that govern the home (written and unwritten).
6. To have an understanding of the factors that may tend to cause dissension in the home; which means prevention.
7. To have developed an appreciation for the government's efforts to improve the home and the home life.
8. To inculcate an understanding that home training influences an individual morally, religiously, emotionally, physically, and mentally.

9. To develop an appreciation of a well-organized and wholesome home.
10. To develop an understanding and appreciation of the social agencies which aim to help the family and home life.
11. To appreciate the fact that compromise is necessary if a family is to live together.
12. To realize that financial status does not make a home and that every member of the family has a responsibility in making home a livable place.

Inmates' Interests to Be Utilized and Suggested Approaches:

1. The desire to be visited by some member of his family.
2. The desire to receive cigarettes and other articles from home.
3. The desire to obtain a job on release through the family influence.
4. The desire to have a place to go upon release.
5. The desire for parental affection and approval.
6. The desire to be helped by members of the family in case of need.
7. To find out from members of the class which of the following attitudes existed when arrested:
 - a. I have disgraced my family.
 - b. It is another adventure.
 - c. My mother and father were responsible for my arrest.
 - d. I did not take the advice of my parents.
8. Describe the homes of those boys known to you who have gotten themselves into a "jam."
9. "The boys of the road" frequently come in conflict with the law. Why is that so?
10. The desire to make a good adjustment while on parole so that he may not be returned to the institution.
11. The desire to establish a home of his own which may be free of the complications found in his parents' home.
12. The desire to be with brothers and sisters.
13. A desire for feeling of ownership and/or partnership.

Problems for Development:

1. Why is the family so important to society?
2. Explain the factors that make good homes.
3. Compare the family of today with the family of early times.
4. What are your responsibilities to make a good home?
5. What are the problems that confront the average family today? How would you remedy these problems?
6. Compare the standard of living of the average American family with that of the average European family.

7. How does a democratic family function?
8. List a number of things that are happening in society that are changing the nature of the family.
9. At what age should a boy begin to prepare for family life and in what ways?

Class and Individual Activities:

1. One of the social problems facing the American people today is the question of the unstable family. By this is meant a family that is constantly moving about in search of employment. This is a thinking activity in cause and result. Make a list of causes of an unstable family.
2. List occupations that give seasonal employment. Give location and problems related to these occupations. What kind of reward should people have that follow these occupations?
3. Prepare a report on the Federal Housing Administration.
4. How has each of the following affected modern family life?
 - a. Installment buying.
 - b. The automobile.
 - c. The radio.
 - d. The motion picture.
 - e. The newspaper.
 - f. Scientific inventions in the home.
5. Here are a few problems that face every person planning to be married:
 - a. How much income is necessary?
 - b. Do you plan to have a home of your own or do you plan to live with your in-laws?
 - c. Should man and wife have the same religion?
 - d. Should man and wife have same recreational interests?
 - e. Should you marry a person of like or unlike personality?
 - f. Should you marry a person who is your equal in intelligence?
 - g. How much education do you expect in the person you plan to marry?
 - h. What should be the attitude of your parents toward the person you intend to marry? Why?
 - i. How much and what kinds of insurance should the family have?
6. How is the social legislation going to affect home life?
7. Case study; Refer: *Social Life and Personality*, pp. 112-113.
8. Make a study of government and social agency activities in providing a temporary home for boys who have taken to the road.
9. List the primary responsibilities a boy should assume in the average home.

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CHAPTER VI

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING UNITS

HAVING established objectives, adopted a psychology of learning, analyzed inmate interests, selected problems, and worked out a general plan or course of study, materials must be developed for use in the actual teaching process. What shall the teacher prepare for his own use? What materials shall be put in the hands of the students, with which they can work? What form shall these materials take?

WHY ORGANIZE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING ON A PROBLEM RATHER THAN A SUBJECT BASIS?

If the reader should happen to be a teacher of history, he may be commenting to himself, "There must be a great deal of my subject in these social studies problems." The teacher of geography or civics might make a like comment, and they would all be right. Almost every unit raises questions of civics, geography, history, economics, and sociology.

Chapter III gives the psychological basis for merging subjects and using the problem approach. Trends in organizing modern social studies courses appear to be in the direction of breaking down the traditional subject barriers. According to Rugg, "The older curriculum in social studies divided the work into geography, political history, and civics. Geography, for example, was studied by states—by political units; more recently, by economic and geographic regions. This made it inevitable that the facts of one political unit should be studied in isolation from the facts of another."¹

The main criterion which should govern the organization of the study of social and economic problems is "What generali-

¹Rugg, Harold, *Teachers Guide for an Introduction to Problems of American Culture*. (Ginn and Company, 1929), p. 12.

zations, understandings, and facts do people need to know in order to make decisions about important problems of modern life?" As was stressed in Chapter III, understandings and interpretations are the desired ends—not facts. Facts are absolutely necessary, but they are only means to more important ends. Inmates need to understand the purposes and place of organized labor in modern industry and life. Facts are needed to form a basis for understandings and decisions as to what attitude "I" will take toward unions. But facts have meaning and significance only when related to the problem itself.

Teaching units should be organized around problems. All pertinent facts should be brought in to solve these problems. The facts may come from the field of history, or geography, or civics, or from all these fields.

Experience has proved the value of units as a basis for teaching. "The term 'unit,'" Caswell and Campbell state, "implies unity or wholeness. It suggests that there is a central force or factor which binds together the particular phase of instruction to which reference is made."² The need for unity or wholeness from the standpoint of the learner was emphasized in Chapter III.

The "Problems for Development into Units" listed in the analysis of the area, "The Inmate as a Member of a Community," illustrate unit titles. Some of these on pages 44 and 45 also indicate the type of problem which may give a unit its qualities of unity or wholeness. "Getting a Job Today" immediately defines a certain area of research which has vital meaning to an inmate.

A unit, then, is a body of teaching material organized around a definite problem designed to arouse interest and activity on the part of the student and supplying certain aids to the solution of the problem.

PRINCIPLES TO BE FOLLOWED IN DEVELOPING UNITS

The following principles should be adhered to in the preparation of teaching materials:

1. Units should start with problems important to the learner.

² Caswell and Campbell, *Curriculum Development*. (American Book Company, 1935), p. 402.

2. Units should have connections with previous experiences of the learner.
3. Units should be realistic; that is, they should not gloss over undesirable conditions.
4. Units should be comprehensive; that is, they should present all sides of every problem, although emphasis may be placed on the point of view which is socially most desirable.
5. Units should point a "way out"; that is, they should present or result in definite conclusions.
6. Units for use in the classroom should be written in simple English but in an interesting conversational style.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD UNIT

A good teaching unit should include the following features: statement of a problem; overview; approaches; content material; activities; and checking devices.

Statement of a Problem

A clear, provocative statement of a vital problem comes first. In order to stimulate thought and action upon the part of the individual, a problem situation must be presented in such a way that he will want to find a solution. As Kilpatrick states, "Study and learning are themselves part of the effort to face a new situation in the best possible way."³ A worth-while problem situation accepted by the learner provides him with a goal and stimulates him to purposeful activity in achieving it.

Overview

A mere statement of the problem is, of course, not enough to stimulate purposeful action. The setting of the problem and its significance must be made apparent to the learner. Therefore, some type of overview is necessary. This should bring out certain striking facts which show the significance of the problem, especially in relation to the learner's interest. Accounts of actual incidents should be brought in from newspapers and other

³ Kilpatrick, W. H., "Recent Psychological Developments." *N.E.A. Journal*, Vol. 24, No. 9, December, 1935, p. 278.

sources. In the Wallkill student units here presented the section marked "Points to Keep in Mind" provides this overview and also the factor of "Wholeness"—presenting the entire problem as a unit in its setting. This is one place for the use of visual aids, graphs, pictures, and other devices which will get the problem clearly before the group.

Approaches

Having developed the large aspects of the problem, one is then in a position to increase the interest of the learner by indicating some of the challenging problems involved which bring out differences of opinion and show the need for facts. This procedure should result in lively discussions by the class and set the stage for the selection, by individual class members, of problems involved in the larger issue, or the selection of a problem for the entire class to attack.

Content Material

The amount of content material to be included in the unit will vary with the amount of reference material available to the class. As the Fourteenth Year Book of the Department of Superintendence states concerning the organization of teaching material, "Where the original material is lacking or exists in an insufficient number of copies, the fuller, narrative type of report is to be desired."⁴

The value of a variety of content material is stressed by a teacher of adults outside of prison. "It is not enough to use general illustrative material. Frequently the question under discussion can be much more effectively presented with special statistical or pictorial graphs—not statistics that require a college degree to understand, but simple statistics which tell the story. This is particularly true in the field of the social sciences. Newspaper clippings are extremely important sources of information. A worker may not have the time to read books, but he does read

⁴ Department of Superintendence, Fourteenth Year Book, *The Social Studies Curriculum*. (N.E.A., 1936), p. 242.

the newspaper. He should be encouraged to learn to read the newspaper—both between the lines and on the lines."⁵

Activities and Checking Devices

A large number of activities should be worked out by the teacher. He should have in mind a number of things which the class or individual student can do in order to further the solution of the problems. No class will necessarily complete all the activities which a teacher may list, and new ones may be suggested by members of the class. Individual and class activity is the most important part of the entire teaching process, and the skill with which activities are suggested or stimulated and the enthusiasm with which they are attacked by the class will determine the values which will come out of the teaching.

FORM OF UNITS

There is no one form of unit which must be followed in detail. Provided the principles set forth above are observed and the characteristics of a good unit are incorporated, the exact form units take may vary to suit the needs of the situation and teacher.

The length of a unit may also vary, depending upon teaching conditions. Some teachers may wish to compile units which will last for a considerable time—even an entire school term. However, where inmates are entering and leaving a class constantly (as is the case in many institutions because of transfers to other institutions, parole, and other causes), units of comparatively short length are preferable.

The unit on Labor Organization prepared at Coxsackie and included in the next chapter illustrates a form of organization in which a larger unit is broken down into smaller ones, each of the latter designed to be covered in one or two class periods. Other units do not break the content material down into specific lessons. While the "short-unit" procedure has a possible advantage of setting definite lesson limits, this may prove a disadvantage in that it tends to make teaching more or less routine and in-

⁵ Educational Standards Committee assisted by Works Progress Administration, *Adult Education Program of the Board of Education and New York University*. (New York, February, 1937), pp. 20-21.

flexible. The length of time spent on various sub-problems of a unit depends so much upon the reference material available, class interest, and other factors, that it seems best to leave the determination of day-by-day lessons to the teacher. In last analysis, the skill of the teacher determines the effectiveness with which any organized body of content material will be used.

SUMMARY OF THE PROCEDURES FOR DEVELOPING SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING MATERIALS

In preceding chapters procedures for selecting and organizing social studies materials have been discussed. The following summary presents a unified picture of the steps involved:

- I. Preliminary activities to secure a base for the program
 - A. Study and reduce to definite statements the attitudes of inmates.
 - B. Study and list the social and economic problems and situations which inmates must meet after release.
- II. Planning a "course of study"
 - A. Determine general objectives.
 - B. Determine a philosophy of penal education, a psychology of learning, and methods of teaching.
 - C. Select large areas or problems in which inmate interests and needs predominate.
 - D. List inmate attitudes in each area.
 - E. List for each area approaches to inmate interests which may be used in stimulating inmate effort.
 - F. Indicate problems for each area which should be developed into units.
 - G. List desired outcomes, skills, facts, concepts, and attitudes in each area.
 - H. Suggest activities, devices, and teaching procedures which can be used in each area.
 - I. Suggest types of materials, books, visual aids, etc., which should be useful in each area.
- III. Preparing teaching materials
 - A. Select from the course of study problems which are to be developed.

- B. Secure as much content and illustrative material relating to the problem as possible.
- C. Organize a teacher's unit or lesson plan.
- D. Organize clear, concise, simple, and interesting unit material for class use including:
 1. Problem
 2. Overview
 3. Approaches
 4. Content
 5. Activities and tests

Objections can be raised to such an organized procedure on the ground that it formalizes the teaching. There are, no doubt, a few natural teachers whose skill approaches genius and for whom an organized procedure is a hindrance rather than a help. The great majority of teachers, however, need and welcome an organized plan. This by no means implies a fixed and formal procedure from which there can be no deviation. Furthermore, teacher participation in planning the procedure, from developing the course of study to conducting classes, has been stressed throughout this book. Curriculum development should be a co-operative enterprise. By developing interesting units based on learner interests and needs and including varied activities, the teacher provides himself with a tool or set of tools which, with skillful use, can produce excellent results in learner growth. Such units rightly used anticipate difficulties, focus attention, arouse interest, and provide a solid base for class and individual work. Perhaps the most important value of a good unit is that it places a vital problem in the center, thereby putting class, textbooks, activities, and teacher in their proper relationships—the class as problem solvers, and textbooks, activities, and teacher as aids in the solution of the problem.

CHAPTER VII

ILLUSTRATIVE SOCIAL STUDIES UNITS

NEW YORK STATE CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS have developed a comparatively large number of units in social studies. These vary in form, content, and excellence. Some are outlines for the use of the teacher, while others consist of content material to be read by the student, and several incorporate many of the principles discussed in this book. Some of the differences result from lack of central coordinating supervision, the Division of Education having been organized only recently. Experimentation and different institutional conditions, however, will always make variety in teaching materials necessary and desirable. Social studies units have been developed and used at Wallkill, Elmira, Albion, Westfield, Woodbourne, the New York State Vocational Institution, Auburn, Great Meadow, Clinton, and Sing Sing. The following list of unit titles indicates the range of problems developed by these institutions:

TITLES OF SOCIAL STUDIES UNITS

DEVELOPED BY NEW YORK STATE CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS

1. Satisfying the Customer
2. Labor Unions
3. Changes in the Trade
4. Men and Inventions
5. To Work or Not to Work
6. Government and the Individual
7. Public Participation
8. Machines and Wages
9. The Agricultural Age
10. Development of Crafts
11. The Industrial Revolution
12. The Worker and Mass Production
13. Big Business and Little Business
14. Labor Displacements

15. How Do People Depend on Each Other in Modern Life?
16. The Family
17. Liberty in the United States
18. Personal and Property Rights
19. Group Organization
20. Government and the Farmer
21. The Supreme Court—Is It Important to the Individual?
22. Social Security—For Whom?
23. Education—For Whom and for What?
24. Insurance
25. Income and Outgo
26. Thrift and Financial Institutions
27. Money and Investments
28. Thinking and Solving Social Problems—Scientific Thinking
29. Why Social Science?
30. Problems of Housing
31. Personality—What Is It?
32. Personality—How Does it Develop?
33. Personality—Can I Do Anything about Mine?
34. Getting a Job Today
35. Are Higher Wages Necessary and Possible?
36. Price Spread between Consumer and Producer
37. American Farmer and His Problems
38. Straight Thinking
39. Political Parties—Do We Need Them?
40. Big Business
41. Government Control of Business
42. Municipal Government of New York City—Finance, Revenue, and the Comptroller
43. Municipal Government of New York City—New York City Council
44. Municipal Government of New York City—Housing
45. American City Government
46. Petroleum
47. Railroads
48. Communication
49. Trade and Transportation
50. Sociology—Outline of Course
51. The Constitution
52. Modern Ways of Doing Business

It was impossible to print in full all the fifty-two units listed above. The eight units following, in full or in part, illustrate the

principles and procedures stressed in this Manual. Units were selected which dealt with a variety of problems and illustrate applications of certain points discussed in previous sections of the Manual.

I

GETTING A JOB TODAY¹

The unit, "Getting a Job Today," could well be used as an introductory unit. It raises many questions concerning conditions and problems in modern industry and government. There is a strong vocational guidance tone to it, but as stated in the Student Unit, there is no attempt to cover specific occupations. The unit places emphasis on the individual, and presents certain specific aids to getting a job. Pointed reference is made to the situation of the released inmate in his attempt to secure and hold a satisfactory position. A unit for the teacher's use, suggesting methods, approaches, and activities, and outlining the content, precedes the student unit.

TEACHER'S UNIT

Problem: How can a man secure a job upon his release from prison?

This interest seems to be the closest to the hearts of prison inmates. They cannot go out on parole until they have a job acceptable to the Parole Board. Much in this unit about unemployment will be discouraging, but in presenting a fair picture it must be included.

GENERALIZATIONS

Society does not give the ex-convict a "square deal" when he is seeking employment. Securing a job becomes increasingly difficult for a man coming out of prison.

Vocational training in prisons can prepare men to become high-grade apprentices in certain trades, but it can seldom send a man out as an expert in his trade.

Personal guidance should play a more important part in future programs of rehabilitation.

The government recognizes that causes beyond the control of the individual affect jobs.

¹This unit was prepared and taught by C. M. Wieting at Wallkill Prison during the experimental project of the Engelhardt Commission.

No agency or organization can make up for lack of individual training or skill; therefore the individual is wise to make use of all educational opportunities while in prison.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

To know what economic conditions are in the United States today.

To understand the effects of the recent depression upon wages and working conditions.

To know what attitude society takes toward released prisoners.

To find out what the individual can do to prepare himself for a better job outside.

To understand the part of the government in employment.

OVERVIEW

Inmates in prison worry most about some sort of job. In most cases they cannot go out on parole in New York State until they have a job that has been investigated by a parole officer and approved by him. Needless to say, this first job is seldom one that inmates wish to remain in permanently.

Vocational training in prison would receive a tremendous impetus if, through guidance service and the cooperation of employers, men coming out of prison could be placed at once in the trade for which they are trained. Then the men would be eager learners and effective workers. They would see the purpose in the things they are learning.

This unit does not pretend to give men a sure-fire formula for securing jobs today. First, it points out that getting a job today is doubly difficult for many reasons. Police sometimes take an unfair attitude toward ex-convicts—so do many employers. The United States is in the midst of a depression that still leaves millions of unemployed seeking jobs. New inventions limit the employment field; seasonal work sometimes makes it impossible for men to earn a decent living.

Men who have been in prison for many years are sometimes unable to work. In prison, life is regimented—almost every move is planned and directed. This limits individual initiative and the ability to adapt to changing conditions. Other ex-convicts are broken in health. Some men are unable to work hard after years of enforced idleness or semi-idleness behind the bars.

What are the favorable points which must be stressed with the inmates? The depression seems to be lifting and there is an increasing demand for skilled labor in industry of the types some of the men in prison are trained to do.

Men should know how to go about securing jobs when they leave prison. They must know the fundamentals of their trade, how to make a personal application, what employers are looking for in men, and the important problems of the businessman.

There are certain definite trends for the future that are pointed out in the student unit. These are based on socio-economic premises.

The attitude to take in teaching this unit is one of frankness. Nothing is to be gained by covering up the difficulty of finding a job. At the same time, some hope must be held out to the men, and the facts show that some men are getting jobs. As much specific material as possible should be included for each trade.

SUGGESTED APPROACHES

Through an interest in getting a job

This interest exists to a large degree for most men, and they want to know how they can get a job when they get outside. The only trouble is that there is no certain way of promising them a position even if they are trained vocationally.

Through an interest in the attitudes of society

Most of the men wish to know what society thinks of an ex-convict. Those who are second offenders understand this attitude, and are often discouraged by it. As fair and as honest an evaluation as possible should be made of social attitudes.

Through an interest in economic conditions

There is a legitimate interest in business conditions. The use of statistics should not be overdone, but certain basic facts must be understood.

Through an interest in prison psychology

How do men in prison feel about being incarcerated? Can they keep their morale through years of imprisonment? What do they think about in considering their career outside prison?

These seem to be pertinent questions which can and might be raised with the group.

Through an interest in the Parole Board

Men in New York must have a job approved by the Parole Board when they leave prison if they are first offenders. This has a tendency to breed an unfair attitude toward the Parole system. Many of the men declare that the Parole Board should find them jobs in the

trade for which they are trained in prison. If this were done, much of the present criticism against the existing system would be removed.

OUTLINE

- I. Getting a job today is doubly difficult for an ex-convict.
 - A. Society takes a very unfair attitude toward a man who has been in prison.
 1. Many police forces are unwilling to give ex-convicts a chance to hold down a job.
 2. Many businessmen believe that they cannot trust an ex-convict.
 3. Society as a whole is prejudiced against the ex-convict.
 - a. There are many people who think that the convict has had his chance and, therefore, deserves no further consideration.
 - b. It is hard to get a job where the individual must handle money in any way.
 - B. Industrial conditions in the United States are uncertain.
 1. The country has been going through a severe depression.
 - a. A. F. of L. estimated that 12,500,000 were unemployed in 1936.
 - b. In February, 1936, relief checks were paid to 24,000,000 persons.
 - c. The average wage in the United States is \$23 a week.
 - d. Business firms are afraid to expand.
 - e. Basic industries have not recovered greatly.
 - (1) There are more men in the textile, building, and iron trades on relief than there are at work.
 2. Technological advances have changed working conditions.
 - a. There has been a sharp increase in production, but many men are still out of work.
 - b. New inventions eliminate many skilled men whose places are filled by semi-skilled or unskilled men or women.
 3. There is an increasing trend toward monopoly in business.
 - a. Each year there are fewer small independent firms in the United States.
 - (1) This means fewer job openings and fewer chances of working up the ladder.
 4. Seasonal unemployment still exists.
 - a. Many people cannot find jobs the year around.
- II. Some ex-convicts are unable to work.
 - A. Because of their prison confinement many men are unable to re-orient themselves to a complex society.

1. Regimentation destroys individual initiative.
 2. Many men have become institutionalized.
- B. Many men come out of prison at an age which makes it impossible for them to get jobs.
1. Modern corporations do not hire old men.
- C. The health and spirit of many of them has been broken by doing a long "bit."
- D. Many times the prison assignment has nothing to do with the kind of work the men should be fitted for outside.
- III. Favorable aspects of the employment field for ex-convicts.
- A. Men who have become skilled tradesmen in prison are prepared for better jobs than many of them held before their imprisonment.
1. The demand for skilled men is increasing.
- B. The public is coming to understand the wisdom of absorbing ex-convicts in gainful occupations to keep them from returning to a profession of crime.
1. Better systems of parole are being tried.
 2. Trained guidance men are being employed in some prisons.
- C. Long-time industrial trends seem to point to increased employment.
- D. Inmates with a knowledge of the fundamentals of their trades are finding out how to go about securing jobs.

THINGS TO DO

1. Through a discussion by the teacher, suggest all the difficulties which may face the ex-convict when he goes outside. List these on the board; if the men know of specific instances of discrimination, have them presented. For each difficulty brought up, secure constructive suggestions about what should be done. Bring in specific instances of active attempts of people and groups to help.
2. In using the section, "Some Ex-Convicts Can't Work," develop a good outline of the theory of rehabilitation and the philosophy behind it. Explain some of the fundamentals of psychology as they apply to penology. In this section depend a great deal upon the men and the suggestions which come from the class.
3. What are the essential things to know about getting a job? Most of the men have had experiences in getting a job; they know the things that have worked in their favor. Call for suggestions. Give the men very specific material. Stress the fact that you are not talking about the first job needed for the Board, but the job which they plan to keep.

4. Statistics are included in the unit from the 1920 and 1930 census. These figures run in parallel columns and are easily followed. This is a very effective device. Turn to this sheet and have the men pick out those trades which seem to be increasing rapidly and give an explanation of this increase. In 1930 there were almost twice as many barbers as there were in 1920. Why? One man brought up the increase of bobbed hair among women.
5. On page 80 of the student unit there is a section on "Occupational Trends." With the sheet before the men, explain to them the implication of these movements. Here is an excellent place to call attention to the value of socio-economic material.
6. Pages 82 and 83 of the student unit are made up of a check sheet used by employers in picking men to work for them. Have the men go through the qualifications and determine what things are needed most to succeed in their trade. If they have pencils, they can check the items individually and then compare them later.

PROCEDURE REPORT

This unit was covered over a period of three weeks, the classes meeting one hour a week. The first week the entire period was spent in discussing the set-up the ex-convict faces when he leaves prison. The men were very bitter against the Parole Board in particular and society in general for what they termed "unfair treatment."

The second week the material on "Essential Things to Know About Getting a Job" was covered. This material was specific, and should have been helpful. It did not excite a great deal of interest, however. Yet some of them took the sheets with them from the classes for the addresses which they may use at a future date. In most of the classes the qualifications employers consider in hiring men were used this session.

At the third class there was a discussion of occupational trends, relief, and the effect of the jobless on unemployment. An attitudes test was given to the class and after its completion discussed by all of them.

There was a strong interest in the attitudes quiz. Many of the men wanted to know why it was given, and what it was for, fearing no doubt that it would be used against them.

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STUDENT'S UNIT

Problem: What things enter into getting a job upon release from prison?

Getting a job today is very difficult for anyone, and doubly difficult for the ex-convict. Nevertheless, there are certain things that every man should know in trying to get a job.

THINGS TO KEEP IN MIND

1. There are several million unemployed in the United States. The number is large, but it must be remembered that all these men are not fitted for all jobs. In some skilled trades there is an actual demand for workers.
2. There is discrimination against ex-convicts. While this discrimination is very strong against ex-convicts as a group, it is much less strong against the individual.
3. Labor turnover takes place every year. Men die, or get too old to hold down places in industry. In times of depression the turnover is slower.
4. Skilled men are always at a premium. If you are trained well, you stand a better chance of getting a job regardless of conditions. During the depression few new apprentices were brought into industry. Now conditions are better, and skilled men are wanted.
5. Vocational training in prisons is valuable, but it cannot make every man an expert in his trade.
6. Personal qualities still play an important part in securing a job. Some things can be done for you, but in the long run you must live your life, earn your living, and fit yourself into society.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Is the depression over? Will there be future recessions and depressions?
2. Can the government afford to carry millions of people on relief indefinitely?
3. Do employment agencies help workers?
4. Are present wage scales high enough?
5. Does being in prison for long terms make a man unfit to hold down a job?

INTRODUCTION

This unit dealing with "Getting a Job Today" must discuss certain points which have been stressed in other units. Something must be said about unemployment, inventions, and changes in government, but the specific purpose of the unit is to discuss and to clarify the position of the ex-convict in his struggle for employment.

The material included is based upon research and study by experts in the various fields. Statistics have been included in several places to illustrate important points.

Getting a job is going to be difficult; this study approaches the problem with the idea that a full knowledge of *all* the factors that go into finding work and keeping it will help you.

It is of course impossible to cover the entire field, or to find information about every trade, that is up-to-date and accurate. That is the work of a Guidance Program.

If you have any information to add, it will be welcomed in the class. Many of you have had experience in industry that should be considered by the class.

"GETTING A JOB"

The set-up the ex-convict faces.

When the day of release dawns, the ex-convict in New York State has, besides a state suit, a lot of well wishes, \$20, his back compensation, his past record. If he is a second offender, the chances are he will have to find a job for himself. If he is a first offender, he must have a job before he can leave prison.

The first job that a man secures when he gets out of prison is seldom one he likes, or one that he intends to remain in. Here are some factors which make it difficult for the ex-convict to find work.

1. Attitude of law enforcement officials.

Some police dislike ex-convicts and do everything they can to make life uncomfortable for them. Sometimes a man is forced to leave town because of the hounding of unfriendly officers.

2. Many businessmen discriminate against ex-convicts.

Businessmen are interested in the preservation of property. Because they are constantly worried by theft, they have taken a discriminatory attitude toward ex-convicts. Surveys indicate that most businessmen in *theory* do not discriminate against the individual. They admit that some ex-convicts are good workers, anxious to make good, and willing to try. Despite this, they are generally reluctant to hire an ex-convict.

3. Technological advances have changed the social scene.

It is often impossible for prisons to provide adequate education along industrial lines to the men in prison who wish to learn. Whether they provide this education or not, the ex-convict who lacks up-to-date technological knowledge usually has more difficulty in finding work than a man with similar training outside.

Keeping pace with the times is a difficult job. Even men outside cannot understand what has happened to them when they lose their jobs. Thousands of people are put out of jobs each year by new inventions and ways of doing things.

Lack of knowledge about things that have happened, or are happening, may keep the ex-convict from securing a job.

4. Business firms are afraid to expand.

When a business firm's profits are unsteady, when overhead and taxes are rising, when the future seems very uncertain, the ex-convict finds that there is very little chance to "break into" a new job. Business firms are more likely to be laying off men than hiring new ones.

5. Government debt is rising.

The government is now billions of dollars in debt, and the budget is still out of balance. Everyone feels this burden; taxes of all kinds are levied. Goods rise in price, and corporations and individual firms are unwilling to pay high wages.

The real danger lies in a wave of inflation which will fall heavily on the middle class and those who have money. As long as inflation seems possible, there will be little activity in many kinds of business.

6. Seasonal unemployment.

Many jobs are seasonal in nature, and men so employed cannot expect to make a good living. The job which the ex-convict finds is

generally one that is very insecure. He is the last to be hired and the first to be fired.

There is very little that can be done to eliminate seasonal unemployment. The only suggestion that can be offered to the man is that he try to get into a job that is open the entire year.

Some ex-convicts cannot work.

Some men who have been in prison for many years are unable to re-adjust themselves to work outside. They have become "institutionalized." The long routine of prison, with every move determined in advance, unfits them for taking their own initiative.

Upon his entrance the inmate thinks backward and forward toward the street. As time passes, the ability to re-create past happenings fades. The daily routine becomes the all-absorbing issue. In defense, men start to live in a dream world. They tell the same things over and over until they themselves believe they are true. This natural reaction, if not carried too far, is not harmful. The danger is that many men in prison do nothing else but dream. They are more anxious to "make good" in prison than they are to prepare themselves for getting employment and keeping it, after they leave prison.

It is not difficult to understand why an inmate, as a rule, does not have a strong interest in his prison job. Every inmate feels that he is justified in doing as little work as possible for the state. But what will happen when the man comes out of prison after a long term? Can he go from a "soft" job into a "hard" job and hold up his end? Years of habit are hard to break. The way an inmate acts will determine to a large extent how he will act outside.

Prisons are now setting up intensive training programs for inmates. The smart inmate is the one who uses his time to prepare for an occupation when he gets outside.

ESSENTIAL THINGS TO KNOW ABOUT GETTING A JOB

Employment agencies in New York State.

Non-profit making agencies.

1. Those operated by federal, state, and city governments.

These employment agencies give free service. Their service is usually intended for adults. Those interested in any job or vocation out of town would do well to visit or write to a federal or state employment office. In New York City the United States Department of Labor maintains an employment service at 641 Washington Street, Manhattan, and branch offices at 1 East Twenty-eighth Street, Man-

hattan; 500 Cortlandt Avenue, Bronx; 214 Duffield Street, Brooklyn. The City of New York maintains the City Employment Bureau at 59 Leonard Street, Manhattan.

2. Agencies operated by social and welfare organizations.

Many social service and welfare organizations maintain non-profit-making employment bureaus. The best known of these are the Y. M. C. A., Y. M. H. A., the Knights of Columbus, and the Red Cross. This service is open to non-members of these organizations. A list of these agencies may be obtained through the Welfare Council, 44 East Twenty-third Street, Manhattan.

3. Agencies operated by employers and organizations and equipment manufacturers.

Employers' organizations, such as the National Cloak and Suit Manufacturers Association, the Merchants Association, and the like, often help to place workers in positions. Equipment manufacturers maintain employment offices in which they not only try to place applicants for positions but also provide practice for them in the use of their machines. Examples of these are the Remington and Underwood Typewriter Companies.

4. Agencies operated by trade unions.

Trade unions, such as the International Ladies Garment Makers' Union and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers' Union, maintain employment bureaus. Of course these positions are limited to the particular trade or industry. Their services are limited to union members, although apprentices desiring to learn the particular trade are also placed. Children of union members or friends of such members are given preference.

Private agencies operated for profit.

There are many private employment agencies operated for profit by individuals or corporations.

Some agencies of this type have been known to engage in sharp practices, such as collecting fees and sending an applicant to a position which is either non-existent or very temporary, perhaps for a week.

The reputable agency charges only a nominal registration fee and a fair percentage of the wages after the applicant has been employed for a reasonable length of time. Should the applicant lose his position soon after being placed, the reputable agency will find another job without charging another registration fee or deducting a percentage of the wages for the short time employed.

How friends may help.

1. The quickest way to locate a position.

One of the best ways to locate a job is through information and recommendations given by friends and relatives. Friends, relatives, and acquaintances known through such connections as church membership, lodges and clubs, and political organizations, may be willing to give employment to those whom they know. It is quite true, however, that people sometimes prefer not to employ their friends or others whom they know intimately. If a friend is an employee, he is in a position to learn of vacancies with his own firm or firms engaged in the same business.

How advertisements may help.

1. Help-wanted columns in newspapers, trade journals, etc.

The help-wanted columns of newspapers contain offers of positions. In normal times, newspapers like the *New York Times* contain several pages of help-wanted advertisements. The advertisements are arranged in columns according to type of position offered, in alphabetical order, thus: Accountants, Bookkeepers, Boys Wanted, Clerks, Druggists, etc. Trade papers and magazines, such as *Women's Wear*, *Printers' Ink*, *Builders' Trade Paper* contain offers of positions in their lines. As a rule these positions are specialized and are for experienced workers only.

2. Kinds of advertisements to answer.

Great care must be exercised in selecting the advertisements to answer. It is well to keep the following rules in mind in selecting advertisements to answer. (1) Try to select advertisements of well-known, reputable firms. It is difficult to follow this rule always because most advertisements do not give the name of the firm but simply a newspaper box number. (2) Avoid advertisements that promise too much, such as "light work," "short hours," "unusually high salaries." Advertisements which describe the position in too glowing a manner are usually unreliable. Often such advertisements are merely for canvassers and house-to-house salesmen. While there is nothing wrong in being a salesman or solicitor, these advertisements are deceptive in that they do not openly mention that the work is canvassing.

3. Advertising yourself.

Positions are sometimes secured by advertising your services in "Situations Wanted" columns. This is a good method to use, especially if you are a trained worker in a definite field of work.

Canvassing.

1. Personal.

Canvassing for a position personally means going from place to place asking for a position. Most large firms, such as public utilities and retail stores, maintain employment offices with regular staffs of personnel directors to interview and select applicants for jobs. Canvassing should not be done in a haphazard manner but should be planned to save time and energy.

2. By mail.

Canvassing for a position may be done by mail. This method will save time and expense since many more places can be reached than by personal visits, but it is of doubtful value unless combined with other methods, such as the interview, or contacts through other persons.

Overcoming special handicaps.

People coming out of prison have a handicap to overcome. Many firms are prejudiced against ex-prison men while other firms are willing to employ them. The Osborne Association does much to assist discharged prisoners in their efforts to rehabilitate themselves by procuring jobs for them and giving such other assistance as they may require. This Association helps prisoners fit themselves to earn an honest living, by conducting educational courses of a definite vocational nature. Their work center is at Tom Brown House, 114 East Thirtieth Street, New York City.

FUTURE OCCUPATIONAL TRENDS²

1. Long-term increase of employment in occupations having to do with the qualitative refinement of our civilization: Housing, industrial design, recreation, town planning and management, for example.
2. Increase in use of labor-saving machinery of all kinds, bringing various consequences in train, such as: (a) Displacement, which may be only temporary (many people hope), of groups of workers whose labor is "saved." (b) Growing proportion of routine, repetitive tasks in some lines, and (c) in other lines, increasing demand for more intelligent, trained workmen to run, repair, and watch complex machines. (d) Need of highly trained individuals to design and make the machines. (e) Fewer

²The remainder of this unit is quoted from *Scholastic Magazine*, Vol. 28, No. 4, February 22, 1936, pp. 18-19, Scholastic Corporation, Pittsburgh, Pa.

- hours of labor per day. (f) Increase in avocational activities and leisure-time pursuits.
3. Increase in personal service occupations.
 4. Increase in public service occupations of all kinds.
 5. Probable long-term expansion of adult educational facilities, including recreational and vocational.
 6. Increase in certain skilled trades having to do with machine production, like tool-making, heat-treating, die-making, sheet metal work, and decrease in other skilled trades of the individual craft type, like carpentry, stonecutting, and masonry, perhaps.
 7. Increasing difficulty in establishing and maintaining small, independent businesses, except in personal service and a few similar lines.
 8. Gradual decentralization of industry combined with growth of garden farming among factory workers.
 9. Continuing overcrowding in certain "white collar" and professional lines like the law. Expanding commerce and industry will absorb many thousands of clerical workers, but many now trained, but not experienced, in clerical work will have to find something else to do. When means are found for financing additional social services that are really needed, such as public health services, many white-collar workers trained for these services will be absorbed.
 10. More strict selection for higher educational institutions—but wider, richer, more varied curricula in secondary schools, particularly in vocational courses; opportunity for further learning extended, vertically, to adult groups of all ages; and downward toward the provision of nursery schools for children below kindergarten age.

*A Few of the Occupations That Have Increased
from 1920 to 1930*

	Census Figures	
	1920	1930
Bakers	48,172	75,296
Barbers—Hairdressers	216,211	374,290
Brick and Stone-Masons	131,264	170,903
Cabinet Makers	45,511	57,897
Carpenters	887,379	929,426
Chauffeurs and Truck Drivers	285,045	972,418
Linotypers and Typesetters	140,165	183,632
Electricians	212,964	280,317
Elevator Tenders	40,713	67,614
Farm Laborers	4,186,128	4,392,764
Garage Owners—Officials	42,151	69,965
Garage Laborers	31,450	66,693
Insurance Agents	119,918	256,927

Plasterers and Cement Finishers	45,876	85,480
Plumbers and Steam Fitters	206,718	237,814
Roofers and Slaters	11,378	23,636

*A Few of the Occupations That Have Decreased
from 1920 to 1930*

Apprentices to Building and Hand Trades	73,953	40,138
Blacksmiths, Forgemen, and Hammermen	221,421	147,469
Stenographers and Typists (Men)	50,410	36,050

Qualifications Employers Consider in Giving Promotions

Physical Health

Vigor
Speed
Endurance
Recovery
Nerves
Appearance

General Type

Social Cheerfulness

Tolerance
Sympathy
Helpfulness
Modesty
Honesty
Veracity
Dependability
Fairness
Self-control
Thrift
Teamwork
Home Life

Remarks:

Mental Analytical Ability

Mechanical Ability
Creative Imagination
Persistence
Teachableness
Emotional Control
Concentration
Memory
Depth
Outside Interests

Best Adapted for:

Criticism:

Workmanship Accuracy

Versatility
Promptness
Thoroughness
Up-to-date-ness

Training Mechanics

Engineering
Mathematics

Commendation:

Geometry
Apprenticeship
Estimating
Administration

Needs More Training?

Leadership—Initiative—Vision

Plans Follow-up
Will Power—Stubborn Patient Self-mastery
Energy—Intense Steady Nervous Physical
Enthusiasm—Constant Excessive Contagious
Self-confidence—Modest Sure Visionary Touchy
Decision—Quick Flexible Intuitive Analytical
Courage—Aggressive Quarrelsome Quitter
Responsibility—Accepts Delegates Fails Excuses
General Knowledge—Economics Politics Business
Loyalty—To men To management Suspicious Rooter
Self-Analysis—Morbid Blindspots Confusing
Ambition—Too much Wrong direction Well founded
Maturity—Early Late All-round Never grow up
Teaching Gift—Native Trained Adaptable Patient
Sense of Humor—Irritating Smoothing Gullible
Judge of Men—Driver Leader Disciplinarian

II

MODERN WAYS OF DOING BUSINESS³

The unit, "Modern Ways of Doing Business," stresses the concept of interdependence in modern society. One of the activities of the unit is an analysis which each student makes as to ways in which he, in his trade or occupation, depends on people in other occupations. This analysis was found very interesting and caused considerable discussion. The unit offers an opportunity to broaden the concept of the inmate. From constant emphasis on ME, he is led to a realization that no one can be absolutely independent of others. Each worker and member of a community has a reciprocating relationship, and cooperation is essential. The "leading-on" possibilities of this unit are numerous: comparison of past and present leads into study of earlier societies; increasing interdependence raises many questions about social values. A more appropriate title could probably be selected. As in Unit I, there is a Teacher's Unit followed by a Student Unit.

³This unit was prepared and taught by C. M. Wieting at Wallkill Prison during the experimental project of the Engelhardt Commission.

TEACHER'S UNIT

Problem: How do people depend upon each other in modern life?

This unit will discuss the interdependence of modern industry as it affects every person in the world. An effort is made to explain how trade is carried on, where the raw materials come from, and who buys the finished product.

GENERALIZATIONS

Every trade is dependent upon other trades to keep it supplied with raw materials, tools, transportation, and necessary supplies.

In the past many people were almost completely independent.

Modern living depends upon interdependent factors.

In the United States capitalism is the system of doing business—factories, farms, mines, railroads, and fixed assets are privately owned and profits accruing go to private persons.

The growing nationalism of all countries endangers world trade and understanding.

The concept of interdependence is necessary for a well-rounded understanding of modern life.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

To find out how people used to do business and carry on trade.

To understand the type of social order in which we are now living.

To know how the capitalistic system works in a democracy.

To see what changes and limitations are needed in our economic system to take care of the maladjustments which now exist.

To understand why the individual must conform to limitations placed upon him by others.

To know how specific trades depend upon other trades.

OVERVIEW

The title of this unit, "Modern Ways of Doing Business," is slightly confusing. The problem is, "How do people depend upon each other in modern life?" This title is used, however, to get away from the rather vague concept of interdependence and to tie up the unit with something in which the inmate is interested; for example, the way in which his trade is affected by business changes.

To this end a form is included in the unit which each man should use in making an analysis of the dependence of his trade upon other

trades. This exercise will be enlightening and interesting. It is then possible to go to the next step—an explanation of the interdependent agencies used in modern society to conduct business and industry.

Teachers will notice that the historical contrast is made between the independent past and the interdependent present. Remember that in most cases the men have a very poor historical background; do not yield to the temptation to try to teach them the history of the world in this one unit.

Capitalism is defined and reference is made to the way of doing business typical of this system. Buying and selling is considered with special reference to the structure of the modern corporation.

The natural and clinching section of the unit asks the inmate to inquire into the industrial scene and try to picture his place in the system when he is released.

The effectiveness of this unit depends upon the kind of background which has been established in the previous units. When it was taught at Wallkill, it came toward the end of the year when an attempt was being made to round off the work of the year.

SUGGESTED APPROACHES

Through an interest in a vocation.

When this material is taught to a group of people in a specific vocation, start with that trade or job and trace the interdependence between it and other trades.

Through an interest in corporations.

The good and bad of large corporations is a common topic of debate and discussion today. Books like *The Modern Corporation and Private Property* by A. A. Berle and Gardiner C. Means review these advantages and disadvantages.

Through an interest in history.

To understand the present business picture it is necessary to know the past. This will include material about primitive, nomadic, agricultural, and industrial societies.

Through an interest in economics.

In this unit there must be developed an understanding of certain economic principles.

Through an interest in government.

The modern state enters into business more and more. Witness

Russia, Germany, and Italy. In the United States the struggle between business and government is becoming intense.

OUTLINE

I. Historical background:

A. How people did business in the past.

1. Primitive society—
 - a. People had no property and lived on a communal basis.
2. Nomadic society—
 - a. People had property in the form of cattle and slaves. They moved from place to place in search of a better living.
3. Settled agricultural society—
 - a. People settled down in one place to farm; cities grew up to take care of trade.

Under feudalism the land was worked by peasants and owned by an overlord. The people were bound to the soil.

In monasteries the people were self-sufficient; religion formed the tie that bound the group together.

Relations developed between groups with better roads and ways of getting from place to place.

The Age of Discovery changed the whole scheme of doing things and carrying on business.

4. Industrial society—
 - a. The Industrial Revolution was the period during which new machines made factories possible and the handicraft trades were ruined.
 - b. Capitalism is the economic system under which commodities are produced for profit.
 - c. Cities grew up and became more important than the rural farm.

II. Interdependence of the peoples of the earth:

- A. The farm produces the food which is needed by all.
 1. Anything that happens to the farmer is certain to affect the rest of the country.
- B. The cities with their factories and stores process and distribute the goods of the country.
 1. More people work for wages today than ever before.
- C. How the United States needs other nations.
 1. Many of the basic commodities used in this country come from foreign countries.
 - a. Rubber, tin, coffee, silk, and many other things.

2. Because of our rich resources and excellent factories, we produce more goods than we can use in this country.
 - a. Thus our prosperity depends on our ability to export our surplus. If other nations are to deal with us, we must trade our goods for theirs.

III. Buying and selling in the United States:

A. The capitalistic system of production and distribution.

1. The producer grows or brings the raw material to the processor.
 - a. There are 6,300,000 farms in the United States, thousands of mines and forests.
2. The wholesaler is a buyer when he gets his goods from a producer and is a seller when he disposes of them to retailers.
3. The ultimate consumer is the person who uses the goods in their final form.

B. The structure of modern business.

1. Occupational groups—
 - a. Men, clerks, managers, all function under an organization which is geared to buying and selling.

IV. The theory of production for profit:

A. The nature of capital.

1. Consists of factories, land, machines, money, and resources.
 - a. With this, the owner is able to make money if people are willing to buy his product.

B. Exchange.

1. Under the capitalistic system people compete against other firms for the market.
 - a. There is a tendency for monopolies to be formed. Corporations, such as United States Steel, Standard Oil, General Motors, American Telephone and Telegraph, are typical.

V. The inmate's chance of securing a job under our system of doing business:

- A. The bigger concerns become, the more impersonal they are. For this reason it may be harder for the ex-convict to get a job.
 1. Personnel directors demand complete records of past employment.
- B. Maladjustments are more likely to be severe in a highly interdependent business system.
 1. Any upset is bound to result in widespread unemployment.
 - a. The majority of people today work for others.

- C. There is a demand for skilled men in industry.
1. Men in prison would be wise to make all possible use of educational facilities.

THINGS TO DO

1. Because this is an adult group, they will have had many first-hand experiences in the business world. It might be interesting to have some of the men explain the type of business they were in and how they operated it to make money.
2. Charts and graphs showing the materials which come from other countries could be prepared. The material we ship out of this country could be shown in the same manner.
3. If someone in the class is well versed in history, he might be willing to give a report on some of the primitive ways of doing business. One man in Wallkill, who is well versed in anthropology, could give a very excellent report on this subject.
4. Literature from modern business organizations could be distributed in the class. This might give the men some idea of the way in which our big corporations are run.
5. This would be an excellent place to use some of the commercial films that are put out as advertisements. They generally show the organization of the firm, and give some idea of its interdependence on other organizations.
6. This would be a good place for a report on the activities of the stock exchange, a city bank, or like subjects. Here, again, some person in the class might have first-hand experience.

PROCEDURE

All the shop instructors in Wallkill made an analysis of their trades during the summer. Some of them drew up detailed charts showing the ways in which business was done in their trades. These charts were of great value in teaching this unit.

The men in the class made suggestions for enlarging the content of the charts in many cases. The blackboard was used to list the steps by which goods passed from the stage of raw material to the finished product.

When this procedure had been followed for the individual business, the mimeographed chart included in the unit was followed through and explained. This proved to be a very difficult task, and in many cases it was beyond the comprehension of the men.

The ways of doing business under modern industrial society is explained in the unit. This was read through in class and those points which were not clear were explained.

The unit was covered in two to three class periods. This did not give time for assimilation of basic concepts, even though during the year a background had been built up that made teaching this unit somewhat easier.

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STUDENT'S UNIT

Problem: How do people depend upon each other in modern life?

This unit will discuss the interdependence of modern industry as it affects you. An effort will be made to explain how trade is carried on, where the raw materials come from, and who buys the finished product.

THINGS TO KEEP IN MIND

1. Every trade is dependent upon other trades to keep it supplied with raw materials, tools, transportation, and necessary things.
Take your own shop as an example. Where did the tools come from? Who uses what you make? What people depend upon you to do certain things?
2. In the past many people were almost completely independent.
Read Stuart Chase's description of a Colonial farm included in this unit. Perhaps you can duplicate this experience with stories about the way your folks have lived.
3. Modern living depends upon interlocking factors.

This is what makes living today so difficult. Something may happen in Africa which will start a world war. A flood in New York State stops a factory in Texas.

4. The individual must conform to limitations placed upon him, for we are living in an interdependent world.

That is the reason we have laws. The more people there are, and the more complex society is, the more laws we need.

THINK THESE OVER

1. What are the main steps by which your trade has developed?
2. Why do people work as hard as they do?
3. In what way does the city man depend upon the farmer? The farmer upon the city man?
4. How is the United States dependent upon other parts of the world?
5. What trades does your trade depend upon?
6. What trades depend upon your trade?

INTRODUCTION

During the past few months we have studied about wages, labor unions, the effect of machines upon men, and ways of getting a job. In every case it is apparent that we are living in a world that is interdependent.

Start with the things you do and make in your shops. In every case you will find that hundreds of outside operations are involved. If something should happen nearly anywhere you would be affected.

Things were not always this way. In a sixteenth century monastery all the work was done by the people living within the walls. They needed nothing from the rest of the world.

On the colonial farms in this country about the same conditions existed. People were independent; they could do what they wanted to do. The best government was that one which left them alone.

Today everything is different. Even our food comes from all over the world. Events in China may cause a war in Europe. What the Standard Oil Company does in Italy raises the price of gasoline in New York.

These things are happening all the time. Millions of people are unable to understand or explain the depression, wars, unemployment, or living conditions.

By knowing more about the interdependence of modern ways of living, you will benefit. You will be able to see why certain things are happening. You should be able to make wiser choices in selecting a future occupation.

HOW DOES THE WORK IN YOUR TRADE DEPEND UPON OTHERS?

Shop

Source of
Raw Materials

Process and Manufacture
before the Material
Reaches the Tradesman

Transportation and
Communication

Distribution

Consumer

Finance

How people used to do business.

The best way to understand the methods used in modern business is to look briefly at the past. In fact, examples can be found of peoples living in every one of the stages in different parts of our modern world.

A. Primitive society:

There are savage tribes living in Africa without property in cattle or land. There is no written language. Superstition and customs are very rigid. People live by hunting and fishing. Money and trade are unknown. Completely independent.

B. Nomadic society:

Most of the Ethiopians, to cite an example, fall in this class. Their property is made up of slaves and cattle. They wander about from place to place looking for a better place to graze their cattle. They barter among themselves. They seldom use money. Very independent.

C. Settled agricultural society:

1. Early feudalism—

Under this system a lord was granted a certain piece of land by the king. Serfs and freemen tilled the soil for him, raised the cattle, made all the clothing, manufactured needed tools—in short, did everything.

2. Monasteries—

At the dawn of the sixteenth century there were hundreds of monasteries that were self-contained units for living. All work was done by the people living within the walls. They depended on the outside world for nothing.

3. Commerce—

Trade in the early Middle Ages was primitive. The villagers were able to produce everything they needed. Trading towns developed on the seacoasts. Guilds, much like modern trade unions, grew slowly.

4. Discovery—

A revival of learning swept over Europe during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Printing was invented around 1450. Trade with the New World began with the discovery of America. There was an increasing demand for goods.

D. Industrial society:

1. Industrial Revolution—

The Industrial Revolution was studied in the unit on "Men and Machines." The invention of textile machinery marked the beginning of the modern factory. New methods of generating power were discovered.

2. Capitalism—

Men needed money to run the new factories and this brought about a concentration of wealth. Banks were formed to help men get money. It was natural that corporations should be formed.

"Capitalism means a system in which the means of production—factories, farms, mines, railroads, fixed assets generally—are privately owned and the profits accruing therefrom go to private persons rather than to state or to social groups." Stuart Chase, *A New Deal*.

The Colonial farm.

Stuart Chase, in his book *The Economy of Abundance*, gives a fine picture of the Colonial farm. Chase's description is taken from the records of a family which settled in Connecticut about 1700.

You will enjoy reading the entire exact description from which the following is taken:

The bridegroom's father built the couple a house near his own. The bride's dower furnished it. The whole community helped to build it. While they worked, refreshments were served them. Upon completion of the house a party was held for all who helped build it. This was known as a "house warming." All the lumber used in the building was locally cut, most of it hand hewn.

The kitchen was the heart of the house. Four-foot logs were dragged to the very hearth, to burn a week or more. The fire never went out from October to May. Matches were unheard of.

Journeymen shoemakers passing along the road were offered the hospitality of the house in return for the job of making shoes for the family.

Flax was grown and spun by the women of the house. Wool was carded from the sheep. Linen was bleached at home. Work clothes were made of linsey-woolsey—two threads of linen to one of wool; with leather breeches for master and man. Boots were unheard of.

Potatoes were rare, chocolate and coffee almost unheard of, tea a great luxury for company only. The bill of fare included Indian pudding (from corn), turkey, goose, pork, mutton, salt beef, eggs, wild birds, rabbits, pies, baked apples, apple dumplings, fritters, milk, butter and cheese (made in the buttery in the summer), molasses from corn stalks, gingerbread, doughnuts, cookies, seed cakes, a few vegetables. Oranges were a rare delicacy, suitable only for holiday presents.

Idleness on the part of master or mistress, child or slave, was disreputable.

Yet the tempo of life was unhurried. Manners were cultivated; little girls curtsied and little boys bowed to strangers on the road. The bolts on the great front door were never shot while the family was at home: who entered was welcome to drink, food, and shelter.

The first buggy seen on this farm frightened the horses and mules, as the first automobile frightened farm animals a century later. Doctors were few. Smallpox was the curse of the community. Sanitation was bad. Yet the two for whom the house was built lived to be eighty, and two generations of their offspring lived out their lives in the house.—Adapted from Chase, Stuart. *The Economy of Abundance*, pp. 55-60. (Macmillan, 1934.)

Here indeed is a typical example of almost absolute independence. Little, if anything, came from the outside. There might be wars in Europe, domestic trouble at home, rioting in Boston, but the farm would go on much as before.

The present-day farm.

How different is the modern farm from the Colonial one just described! Isolation is no longer a characteristic of the farm. "Its people, its occupations, its institutions and its organized life have become interdependent with the rest of society. The influence of the tractor on the conquest of millions of untilled acres for agriculture has been considerable." There are now over a million tractors in operation.

Nearly every farmer has a car, which he uses in place of the horse and buggy. He thinks nothing of driving twenty miles to town for a repair for his threshing machine. Sunday he may drive fifty miles to go swimming.

The radio brings him the latest news about the price of hogs. He finds out that the threat of war in Europe has raised the price of cotton another dollar.

The family buys its clothes from a Sears Roebuck catalog. Baking is too much trouble, so bread is bought in the store. The washing may be sent out to a laundry.

The house is lighted by electricity and has an electric refrigerator, range, ironing machine, and an oil burner. The electric power comes from Niagara Falls, six hundred miles away.

Dependency of the city.⁴

From a boat coming up New York Harbor, looking northward to the Battery, or from the Palisades, looking eastward on a clear day, one gets the sensation of a vast accomplishment, and a vast activity. These hordes and hordes of people whose lives interlap, overlap, seldom have a full realization of how they depend for existence one on another. Each does his job mechanically. Little thought is given to its importance in the lives of others. Only the stranger wonders: "How do they manage to seem to each run in a different direction and yet never become entangled?" The answer is simple: Organization. But an organization so finely strung that the least jar throws vast numbers of people into turmoil. To illustrate: Rush hour in the city. L trains and subways are jammed. Traffic creeps. Streets are crowded with homebound workers. Darkness is falling fast. Far in the north of the city in a public Power Plant in front of a vast switchboard, workers see a light blink on and off rapidly. Danger—Power line weakened. The head operator plugs in a call—speaks rapidly, briefly—workmen hurry to repair the line—too late. The line is shorted. The city is plunged in darkness. Trains stop. Underground in the subway darkness, confusion, and terror reign.

⁴This section was written by a Wallkill inmate.

On the street, traffic is hopelessly snarled. The complete organization has given way in the twinkling of an eye to complete disorganization. Doctors in great modern hospitals are forced to operate by searchlight. Traffic is directed by searchlight, and in the twentieth century the humble candle once more lights both the Fifth Avenue mansion and the Hester Street tenement alike. Only in instances of this type is the expression "interdependence" given any real meaning.

The next morning the papers will write a history of the Power Plant. Photographers will photograph it from different angles, the head operator will be interviewed, the mayor will issue a statement about how the necessity for public economy forced him to cut the personnel of the Power Plant to a minimum, a famous general will write to his paper illustrating how easily New York could be rendered helpless in case of a sudden attack by an enemy nation, and the Voice of the People will be filled with letters screaming about the inefficiency of the Power Plant authorities. Next week it will all be forgotten. But it will still be there. We all depend one on another.

The factory system.

The ancient farmer raised a cow, killed it, stripped the hide, tanned it, cut the leather, drew the form, and made the shoe by himself and for his own use. Today, before a shining pair of Oxfords emerge in the store window, the cow passes through thousands of hands.

Men used to be skilled craftsmen, able to perform every operation in their trade. Today this skill is not necessary in most manufacturing. An unskilled or semi-skilled workman performs one operation. It may be putting one nut on a bolt, watching a single gauge, or making one cut with a knife.

This system is based upon the DIVISION OF LABOR.

The results of the Division of Labor were gratifying both to the consumer and the producer. The Division of Labor was responsible for Mass Production and paved the way for Mass Profits. The greater the Volume of Production the less the Cost of Production becomes. To illustrate the Division of Labor: 100 workers produce 100 pairs of shoes a day by the old craft method. The average production per man per day is 1 pair of shoes. When the Division of Labor is employed, production is stepped up to 150 pairs of shoes per day—the average output per man is now 1½ pairs a day—a 50% increase in efficiency—a 50% increase in volume of production—and a proportionate increase in profit.

Interdependence of the peoples of the earth.

Sir Philip Gibbs has remarked that "the death of an unknown Hindoo worker in a mill strike demonstration in Bombay materially affects my life." This is true to a great degree. A strike in Shanghai in which unknown Chinese workers were killed affected garment workers in New York factories. Peasants in Japan are living off bark, or starving to death, because of the increased use of rayon in the United States. This condition is causing Japan to invade China and might in the end lead to a war involving the United States.

The San Francisco General Strike of 1934 hurt business in Stockholm, Havre, Antwerp, and Moscow. Longshoremen in Barcelona struck in sympathy. Trade fell off, stock markets fell, business in general felt the reaction. Ships lay idle in the docks—contracts were broken—men were laid off—prices went up.

Dependency of the United States on other nations.

Suppose the United States went to war with a great foreign naval power. If our coast were blockaded, how long could we continue to live in comfort?

It is true that within our boundaries we have more mineral resources than any other country with the exception of Russia. It is true that we are the greatest industrial nation on earth, but it is doubtful if we could withstand two years of such a blockade without a serious breakdown in industry.

We lack five basic minerals—manganese, chromium, nickel, vanadium, and tungsten. Silk, coffee, and rubber come from outside the United States.

This country must export agricultural products, machines, cotton, and hundreds of other products if the people in this country are to make money. If the people of foreign countries are hard up and cannot buy our goods, we have a depression and everyone suffers. A general war in Europe would be a calamity to the United States.

Buying and selling in the United States.

Getting goods from the *producer* to the *ultimate consumer* is a task that involves the services of thousands of *middlemen*. Trading is carried on in retail stores, which in turn are dependent upon wholesale stores. They buy from the *manufacturers*, who must secure the raw materials. Another set of *middlemen*—transportation companies, traveling salesmen, bookkeepers, business managers, workers, and others—provide needed services in moving and processing goods.

In every exchange of goods the setting of a price is involved. In

most communities in the United States merchants set definite prices on their goods. What determines this price? The first factor is the **COST** of the materials used: the wages paid to workmen, clerks, and managers; the cost of the factory and the machines used; the cost of selling the product.

The second factor entering into price is the **SUPPLY**—the quantity of goods available. Pork is high this year because the A.A.A. limited the number of hogs raised.

The third factor is the **DEMAND**—the number of people who want the thing. Car manufacturers determine their prices somewhat by the number of people who want them. During the recent floods people paid five dollars for a ride of less than a block. The demand was great so the price was high.

Our system of doing business is based upon **COMPETITION**. In theory any person may enter any lawful business he wishes. He will enter that business in which he can make the greatest profit. Capitalists believe that what is good for the individual is good for the community. This does not always work out in practice; then the government must either regulate the business or run it.

One of the characteristics of modern business is the growth of **CORPORATIONS**. With the exception of banks and insurance companies, no stockholder, officer, or director is financially responsible for the debts of a corporation. Large numbers of people may invest. The promoter and the banker provide the essential means of supplying industry with capital.

Some of the biggest corporations in the United States today are United States Steel, Standard Oil, General Motors, American Telephone and Telegraph, American Tobacco, and General Foods.

When one company or a group of companies working together are able to set prices without regard to supply and demand, we say they have a **MONOPOLY**. The Aluminum Company of America controls ninety-eight per cent of the aluminum manufactured. The chain stores are doing an increasing amount of the grocery business.

Small businessmen are complaining about the growth of large business and are demanding that the government break up the large corporations, put special taxes on chain stores. Some states have chain store taxes now, and recently ten thousand merchants went to Washington to lobby for a national law.

What does this mean to the man going out of prison who is looking for a job? It might be summarized something like this:

1. Big business in most cases is more efficient than small businesses; this tends to drive the small owner out.

2. It is more difficult to get a job from a huge corporation than from the owner of a small shop.
3. Everything that happens in the world has an effect on all of us.
4. The farm depends upon the city; the city depends upon the farm; the rest of the world depends upon the United States; the United States depends upon the rest of the world.
5. If we know about things, and understand why they happen, we can more accurately predict what will happen in the future.

III

FORMS OF GOVERNMENT⁵

The unit on "Government," as was recognized when it was used at Wallkill, attempts to cover entirely too much ground. Because it was desired to present as many different types of units as possible in the one year, some units were only partially covered. This unit has real possibilities and was well received in most classes. There is so much discussion today concerning the various "new" European governments, and so much labeling of public men and public policies in our own country as "red," "fascist," "dictator," and the like, that most people are confused and welcome any explanation which will clarify their ideas on types of government. The same applies to economic systems. It is perfectly possible that such a unit as this might well consume an entire school term with much use of newspapers and other current materials.

It is fully recognized that some "red-baiting" legislator might object to having the word "communism" mentioned in a prison class. However, no one can escape hearing such ideas today, and the man in prison had better gain some concepts from a teacher loyal to the "American Way" than from a soap-box orator. This unit is frankly designed to indoctrinate the student with the idea that democracy is the best plan yet devised, and closes with a description of the meaning of "Americanism" by the New York County American Legion.

As in Units I and II there is a Teacher's and a Student's Unit.

⁵This unit was prepared and taught by C. M. Wieting at Wallkill Prison during the experimental project of the Engelhardt Commission.

TEACHER'S UNIT

Problem: What are the reasons for the widespread questioning of present systems of government?

Since the World War many changes have taken place in governments. The men in prison are often confused about the meaning of these systems. This unit will try to make clear distinctions between different economic and political systems.

GENERALIZATIONS

We are living in a world that is changing rapidly. New forms of government are being developed.

In a democratic government the people are allowed to express their choice in selecting officeholders.

When business conditions become bad during periods of depression, people start questioning the type of government under which they live.

No government is run perfectly. There is some graft, waste, and inefficiency in every system, as there is in every human institution.

The intrinsic worth of the individual is a new concept in society.

No one nation has a monopoly on truth, justice, or right.

Certain basic issues are common to all nations. We are living in an interdependent world.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

To understand the fundamentals of the economic and political system of the United States.

To find out more about the systems of government which are used in other nations of the world.

To show the men the advantages of democratic government.

To explain the close relationship between political and economic systems.

To show that we are living in an interdependent world.

OVERVIEW

This is a culminating unit. The purpose of this unit is to review and tie together some of the points which were made during the teaching of the other units. The unit is much too sketchy and covers too much territory. It should be broken into five or ten units.

Men in prison have many reasons for disliking government and government officials. They have come up through a realistic environment in which they have seen "dog eat dog." They know the tricks

of crooked politicians, and having seen corruption go unpunished, they often take the attitude that they are in prison because they didn't "know the right people." Law-enforcement officials become the "personal devils" of their existence.

The aim of this unit on government is to build up a better appreciation of the function and aim of our democratic system. Problems with which we are faced are suggested. Then a brief description is given of the leading political and economic systems in use today. The hoped-for conclusion is that our democratic system is the best one for dealing with the problems which face this nation. No attempt is made to cover up the maladjustments that exist, but a possible program of improvement is pictured.

The unit closes with a résumé of what the New York County American Legion believes "Americanism" to be. The statement is so fine and so clear that parts of it are included in the unit.

Things far off look better than those close at hand. Men who believe that this country needs a dictatorship in the form of Fascism or Communism may think twice before they continue that agitation if they have a better understanding of other systems.

SUGGESTED APPROACHES

Through an interest in political conditions.

Many of the men come from immigrant stock. For example, there is a large proportion of Italian men in the New York State prison population. Fascism, Naziism, and Democracy are subjects often discussed.

Through an interest in economic conditions.

During times of depression people question their system of government. Capitalism, Communism, Socialism, and Cooperatives are often praised and condemned.

Through an interest in the United States.

The families and friends of men in prison are citizens of the United States. Despite the inmate's feeling of dislike for law officials, most of the men are patriotic. Very few of them hold radical ideas.

Through an interest in setting up a hypothetical government of convicts.

What would men in prison do if they were placed on a reservation in the United States with no political or economic system? Would they have prisons and laws? How would they do business?

Through an interest in basic issues.

Certain large problems are basic the world over. What are these problems and how are other nations dealing with them? Men show interest in those things which they know will affect them.

Through an interest in the way political and economic systems affect the citizen or common man.

People living under various systems enjoy divergent standards of living and different rights, privileges, and responsibilities. How and to what extent do political and economic systems affect the individual?

OUTLINE

- I. The background of present political and social systems.
 - A. Each change in the world has given rise to new laws, new wars, new ideas, and new institutions.
 1. By a knowledge of these forces the individual may hope to make the wisest possible choice.
 - B. Those who were able took power and held it in social systems.
 1. The king justified his rule by saying that the "Divine Right of Kings" placed him on the throne.
 2. Lords and landowners held power in feudal times.
 - a. Gave people protection in return for unquestioned obedience.
 3. Rulers never doubted that they were superior to the common herd.
 - a. Education was only for the upper classes.
 - C. Growth of trade spread new ideas.
 1. Philosophy of liberty and equality gained credence among certain classes.
 2. Businessmen and manufacturers used this lever to seize the control from the lords and nobles.
 3. The system of capitalism came into being in answer to the need for new ways of doing business.
 - a. New inventions during the Industrial Revolution further speeded progress.
 4. Democracy was possible because of new discoveries.
 - a. The United States is still a young nation.
 - D. Present political and economic systems are the direct outgrowth of the backgrounds of each nation.
 1. This is the reason a study is made of these systems in this unit on government.

- II. Basic problems facing our country.
- A. Which are worth the most: property rights or human rights?
 - B. How much liberty shall people have?
 - C. Can everybody have a good living?
 - D. How shall we do business?
 - E. What must the United States do to defend itself against enemies?
 - F. How can machines be controlled so all will benefit?
 - G. How much education is necessary?
 - H. What part shall labor have in determining industrial policies?
 - I. How can the law guarantee justice?
 - J. Can the future be consciously planned?

III. Political systems.

- A. A democracy is a political system that provides for rule by the people.
 1. Officials are chosen by a majority vote.
- B. Autocracy is rule by one man or a few individuals.
 1. Most of the one-man governments are dictatorships.

IV. Economic systems.

- A. Under capitalism industry is in private hands.
 1. The government merely performs those functions which private business cannot profitably perform.
- B. Anarchism is unlimited individualism and abolishment of all laws.
 1. To be effective, all men would have to be perfect.
- C. Communism is a system under which all factories and farms are owned by the people themselves through the government.
 1. No one works for private profit.
 2. Everyone is employed by the state.
- D. Cooperatives combine some of the features of communism and of capitalism.
 1. Competition between government and private business gives low prices to all.
- E. Socialism is a movement which aims at the collective organization of the community in the interest of all.
 1. Socialism in its pure form is not now in effect in any country.

V. What is "Americanism"?

(See "Americanism" at end of Student Unit, a statement by the 1936 Americanism Committee of the New York County American Legion.)

- A. Belief in democracy, justice, and liberty, freedom of speech, of press, of assembly, and of religion.

- B. Guarantee of certain rights to all citizens.
 1. Freedom of speech.
 2. Freedom of press.
 3. Freedom of assembly.
 4. Freedom of religion.

THINGS TO DO

1. Using the blackboard in the classroom, list as many things as the men suggest concerning the things governments do. The list should be long and impressive. Excerpts from Stuart Chase's *Government in Business* might be read.
2. Read the problem included on page 112 of the student's unit. Using the board, list as many essential features as are suggested. If provision is not made for certain things, ask the men what they would do about those things.
3. Ten "Basic Issues" are listed on pages 107 and 108 of the student's unit. Any one of them might form the basis for a week's discussion. State the issue, listen to one or two arguments, one or two viewpoints, and go on. When the realness of each issue has been established, the stage is set for the discussion of political and economic systems. How do they deal with these issues?
4. Illustrate each system with actual examples if you can find them. Listen to some of the points brought up by the class.
5. If any of the men have been abroad, they may be able to give first-hand reports of certain countries.
6. There are several well-written economic and political primers. Take some of these books to class and recommend them as worthwhile and interesting.
7. Use magazine and newspaper articles to illustrate or introduce different points. Use local illustrations of people exercising the right of citizenship, of free speech, and the right of assembly. Give instances of people starting with nothing, and three or more living examples of men who achieved greatness by hard work.
8. Cite local problems of relief, unemployment, etc., to illustrate maladjustments.
9. Have the men list and compare advantages and disadvantages of different systems.

PROCEDURE

Three periods were used in teaching the unit on government. The entire unit was looked through and explained in the first class. Then the problem given on page 112 was explained and the men suggested the type of government they would prefer if all criminals

were sent to an isolated area for the rest of their lives. The object of the problem was to discover the type of government they would wish. In every case their system was much like that now used in the United States.

During the second period, the basic issues listed on pages 107 and 108 were discussed. Some had been used as units during the year, and all the ideas had been considered. The reason for talking about these basic issues was to show how the different political and economic systems met the basic problems in each country. Political systems were explained in this class.

The third, and last period, was used in explaining the economic systems common in the world. More time should be given this than was allowed by the schedule at Wallkill. The "Statement of the New York County American Legion" was read in class.

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STUDENT'S UNIT

Problem: What are the reasons for the widespread questioning of present systems of government?

Since the World War many changes have taken place in governments. Russia is a Communist state, Fascists rule Germany and Italy, kings have lost their thrones and some have regained them. The New Deal in the United States has centralized government control.

POINTS TO KEEP IN MIND

1. We are living in a world that is changing rapidly; new forms of government are being developed.
The World War caused the fall of many governments. The United States entered the war hoping to "make the world safe for democracy." How far we have failed in this effort is shown by conditions in Europe today.

2. Democratic government such as we have in the United States is an advance over autocracy or dictators.
For centuries kings and generals dictated to the common people. The common people had nothing to say about their laws or officials.
3. When business conditions become bad during depressions, people start to question the type of government they have.
For example, Hoover was defeated for the presidency in 1932 because his party was blamed for the depression. Mussolini went to war in Ethiopia to distract attention at home.
4. Nations, like human beings, sometimes use force to gain and hold the things they need or desire.
Governments may settle disputes by killing, the stronger nation winning. Individuals often use the same methods, but then the state punishes the killer.
5. No government is run perfectly; there is some graft, waste, and inefficiency in every system.
This statement is true, but that is no reason in itself for establishing a new kind of government. What are conditions in other countries under different systems?

THINK THESE OVER

1. Why is the cost of government \$137 per person in the United States?
2. Why did millions of immigrants once come to the United States?
3. Does this country need a strong leader?
4. How is our country different from other countries?
5. Why is the United States one of the most powerful nations in the world?

INTRODUCTION

This is the final unit for this year; therefore, an attempt will be made to summarize the material that has been covered in this course in *Industrial Trends*.

The word "Government" is used in its broadest sense, to include all federal, state, and city functions. Governments of other countries are brought into this unit for purposes of contrast. Everywhere people are questioning their present systems of government. Why? What are they looking for?

There are many terms that will be used in this unit which are often confused. Definitions will be made from time to time when it seems that they are necessary.

What are the effects of capitalism, Communism, cooperatives,

Socialism, or Fascism on the *average* man living in a country under one of these systems? This is a question which we want to answer in this unit.

No one of these systems came into being full grown. Each developed because of social changes which brought with them different attitudes and different ways of doing things.

At first people gave little thought to the system of government under which they lived. The common people had nothing to say about who ruled them or how.

The strong man seized the power, then identified himself with God. The "Divine Right of Kings" became an established theory. Nobles and lords assisted him in ruling over the peasants. The rights of these rulers were beyond question.

The ruling class saw nothing wrong with the system. Such has been the history of all systems through history. The group, or class, which benefits by a certain way of doing things cannot see the evils of that system.

Education in former times was confined to the upper class. Men were not believed to be free and equal. Therefore, the rulers could see no reason for educating the masses. In early Colonial days in the United States the governor of at least one state hoped that education would not come to upset the common people.

When people of the earth began to trade, ideas as well as goods exchanged hands. The viewpoints of the people broadened. The idea of LIBERTY—not for the lord alone, but for all—was taught. Businessmen and manufacturers who wanted concessions from the nobles seized upon this method of gaining power.

The system of democracy which preached the equality and freedom of all men brought forth new forces that changed the world. New inventions gave man the ability to conquer nature, and feverishly he began to build and exploit. Inventions multiplied on inventions. The search for markets grew more intense. European nations were driven to wars of conquest. The backward nations of the world were forced to yield to the white man's civilization. With the final conquest of Ethiopia by Italy, none of the land of the world remains unclaimed by the strong. France owns Indo-China, Morocco, Algeria; the United States has Puerto Rico, Hawaii, and Alaska; England boasts that the sun never sets on her possessions.

When all the backward nations had been colonized, the world markets were closed. Nations had to fight against one another to survive. During the World War the white man's civilization tottered precariously on the ledge. It left all the European nations weakened, spiritually and economically.

The power of the world markets has been slowly shifting. Japan has adopted the methods of the West and is forcing her way through China. There is unrest in India and in Africa. There is a growing danger of a total collapse in our ways of carrying on government and business.

The struggle for security is not new on the part of men. It has dominated his every thought since civilizations began. Since the beginning of the world there have been mistakes, hatreds, famines, wars, distrust, and fears. Man has always desired a state that would give him peace, security, and plenty for him and his. He has tried many times, and the end is not yet.

One lesson still remains: no one nation has a monopoly on truth, justice, or right. The nation that conquered yesterday, today crumbles in the dust, but out of the ashes come new ideas, new institutions, new governments, and new ways of doing things.

BASIC ISSUES

1. *Which are worth the most, property rights or human rights?*

This is an issue in the United States today. Those with property insist that it shall not be taken away from them.

2. *How much liberty shall people have?*

There is no such thing as unrestrained liberty in a complex society. Robinson Crusoe could do what he wished on an island alone, but when Man Friday arrived, the situation was complicated and Crusoe's liberty was limited.

3. *Can everyone have a good living?*

In "The Chart of Plenty," government figures show that every family in this country could have a decent income. The Brookings Institution proved that we are not producing all the goods necessary and possible.

4. *How shall we do business?*

In the past we have practiced unrestricted competition. Today business is restricted by the government. What shall we do now? Go back to the past or continue to take over business?

5. *What must the United States do to defend itself against enemies?*

The government is spending billions of dollars for defense. The last war debt is still unpaid. Each individual must decide if he will fight for his country if another war breaks out.

6. *How can machines be controlled so all will benefit?*

Everyone admits that machines are capable of doing great good. They perform tasks which human beings shun. Yet today they put millions out of work. Some plan must be worked out to pass on the benefits of the machine.

7. *How much education is necessary?*

Skilled men are more in demand today than are unskilled workers. Higher education helps people get jobs. How can men keep up with changing conditions?

8. *What part shall labor have in determining industrial policies?*

This question involves the right of forming labor unions and sharing in the profits of industry.

9. *How can the law guarantee justice?*

Law must keep pace with today's requirements. Sound law functions to protect society and punish those who break essential rules.

10. *Can the future be consciously planned?*

The alternative to planning is accidental chance. What things would have to be done to make planning possible on a national scale?

POLITICAL SYSTEMS

A political system has to do with the affairs of government. Each nation has some kind of government. There are those who make the laws and those who enforce them. It is the duty of these officers to maintain order, to prevent and punish crime, to provide education for the people, to protect them against foreign enemies, to build roads, to carry the mails, and to do many other things.

There are two extreme types of political systems—democracy and autocracy.

A DEMOCRACY is a political system that provides for rule by the people. The men who run it are chosen by the majority of the people. Elected officers are supposed to do the will of those who vote for them. The United States and France are examples of democracies.

AUTOCRACY is the rule by one man or by a few individuals. The ruler is called a king if he inherits his position by birth. Japan is still ruled by a "Divine Right Emperor." Most of the one-man governments today are DICTATORSHIPS. These dictators surround themselves by a group of men who believe as they do and

then rule with an iron hand. Freedom of speech and of press are not allowed. The schools teach the rightness of the system in control. Elections are not held allowing free choices. *Fascism* is a dictatorship. It is guided by the will of the dictator. It rests upon a person rather than upon the people and their will. Fascism at the expense of political freedom may make possible greater economic efficiency. Mussolini has organized a "corporative state" in Italy. Because of its narrow foundation, the single individual, Fascism cannot tolerate criticism. This explains the persecution of the Jews and political parties in Germany.

There are many political systems that fall between these two extremes. Many countries—England for instance—have a king, but their parliament has just as much power as the United States Congress. Rumania has a king and elected officials who have some power. So we could go from country to country, inspecting their political systems.

ECONOMIC SYSTEMS

There are also two extremes of economic systems—Capitalism and Communism. The United States is the best example of the capitalistic system and Russia of the communistic.

1. In a Capitalistic system industry is in private hands. Anyone who can acquire property is allowed to do so. He may use this property in any way he sees fit, subject to certain government regulations for the common good. Individuals and corporations engage in business to make a profit. Laborers work for wages and try to get as much as they can. Some of them organize labor unions to give them better bargaining power. The government carries on a minimum of activities, only those which could not be maintained at a profit by private business.

2. The opposite of Capitalism is Anarchism. Anarchism is one hundred per cent individualism and the abolishment of all law or personal restraint. The anarchists in the United States number around four hundred. They are divided roughly into two sects. The first call themselves "philosophical anarchists" and follow the teachings of Kropotkin, who, humorously enough, was born a Russian Prince. They believe in passive resistance, equalization of wealth, and organization through examples of Christian acts. The second group call themselves "militant anarchists" and base their political creed on the teachings of Michael Bakunin. The mainsprings of their political philosophy are bombings, assassinations, and terror. Their membership is drawn largely from the Italian, Spanish, and French, although the movement was started in Russia. Both anarchist groups are op-

posed to the policies of the Communists, on whom they look as deadly enemies. The first act of the Communist government in Russia on coming to power in 1917 was to "liquidate all anarchist groups."

3. At another extreme is Communism—a system under which all factories and farms and stores are owned by the people themselves under the direction of the government. Individuals may own clothing and goods that are for immediate use, but they cannot own any productive property in their own name. No one works for profit. The state employs everyone and distributes the national income among the workers. Russia comes the nearest to living under this system, but many modifications have been made from true Communism. Communists are willing to use force, if necessary, to gain their aims.

4. Some countries have a strong cooperative movement. Such a system combines some of the features of Communism and of Capitalism. Many of the factories are owned by private individuals, but they are in competition with other industries owned by the people collectively. The government operates some of the industries for its own profit. In a cooperative organization business is run not for profit, but for the purpose of distributing goods as cheaply as possible to the people.

5. Socialism is a movement which aims at the collective organization of the community in the interest of the mass of the people by means of a common ownership of the means of production.

Socialism is more a religious than an economic system. Marx's teachings have taken on the character of a revelation to be commented upon but hardly to be questioned by believers. The doctrine assumes that men will work from a sense of duty without regard to whether the work is hard or unpleasant. Socialists believe that society can advance faster than the individuals who make up society. Pure socialism has never been put into practice. The Socialist Party in the United States advocates government ownership of basic utilities. They wish to make this change peacefully and through democratic methods.

"AMERICANISM"

A Statement by the 1936 Americanism Committee of the
New York County American Legion

Every American Legionnaire pledges himself "to foster one hundred per cent Americanism."

What is meant by "Americanism"?

This word is used by different sorts of people. Courageous citizens striving for the common welfare of mankind proclaim their "Amer-

icanism," and so do others scheming for the narrow and special interests of their own selfish crowd. These groups, holding contradictory ideas of "Americanism," call each other "Un-American."

Yet to distinguish real "Americanism" from counterfeit is not difficult. The true American spirit—"Americanism"—is expressed in a determined and magnificent human struggle to achieve Democracy, Justice, and Liberty.

Democracy means an equality of opportunity. Justice means the equality of all before the law. Neither Democracy nor Justice is possible without Liberty.

Liberty demands freedom of speech because without freedom of speech there can be no search for the Truth. This search is vital to "Americanism"; for unless great numbers of people constantly seek to discover new Truths we cannot know how to make our world a better place in which to live.

Freedom of speech includes freedom of inquiry, freedom of discussion, and—more important—Freedom of Education. The freedom of teachers to teach facts without bias and of scholars to learn facts without bias must never cease. Only by means of education, by knowing about all things, can we equip ourselves to search for and recognize the Truth.

We face the fact that many people, recently converted to new and un-Democratic forms of government, are eager to bring about similar changes here in America. Some of their ideas may be new to us; some may seem dangerous. Nevertheless, believing in Freedom of Speech for others as well as for ourselves, we must not attempt to abuse or silence them.

It is well for present-day Americans to remember that in America, as well as elsewhere in the world, some of the most sincere patriots have been abused by the intolerants of their own day who made no effort to understand them. George Washington, as a British subject, holding ideas of Liberty for the American colonies, was abused as a traitor . . .

We learn that the great man is that pioneer who has the foresight to make new plans, and the courage to express his ideas for the use of society. We say that he is "ahead of his time." Americans, therefore, are not afraid of change. A society that does not permit change does not permit growth or improvement. It is dead.

In a Democracy citizens are not ruled by force and told by the state what they shall think. Americans in their struggle for Democracy stand forever opposed to Dictatorship by a person or by any special group. For Dictatorship means the end of Tolerance; it means the intolerant suppression by armed force, of Democracy, Justice, and Liberty.

True American Patriotism, or a "one hundred per cent Americanism" is a one hundred per cent belief in Democracy, Justice, and Liberty.

PROBLEM

If the government of the United States, weighed down by a rising debt and backed by public opinion, was to cast about for some way to cut down the cost of crime, what do you think would be the result?

We will assume for sake of argument that she would proceed to follow the example of England two hundred years ago and ship her inmates to self-sustaining penal colonies. Since the United States could hardly make Alaska self-sustaining, we will further assume that she will use the vast amounts of government lands in the states of Arizona, Utah, Idaho, and New Mexico for this purpose. The boundaries of this colony would be rigidly marked off and patrolled by government troops. The entire inmate population of the United States would be exiled there for good.

The initial outlay on the part of the government would be: farming implements, tools, clothing, rifles, ammunition, cattle, sheep, horses—and enough food supplies for a year.

What went on within the boundaries would be of no concern to the government; the individual would be without law and would be possessed of unlimited freedom—but he would not be allowed to leave the territory.

All offenders would be sent automatically to this territory upon conviction.

What do you think the results of this plan within this territory would be in one year? In five years? In ten years?

IV

THE HOUSING PROBLEM⁶

(With special reference to New York City)

This unit on "The Housing Problem," prepared and taught at Sing Sing Prison, stresses New York City housing conditions. The unit was used with a group of inmates with average or better than average intelligence. It is to be supplemented in the near future by opaque projector pictures.

There is a wealth of material on this subject, and many in-

⁶This unit was developed and taught by Thomas Murtaugh, teacher, at Sing Sing Prison.

mate interests can be tapped. Many trades are affected by plans for new housing for large numbers of people. Everyone lives in a house and most of us cherish the hope of owning or occupying an ideal or "dream house." The unit could be improved by illustrations of more concrete problems, such as bad housing and its effects, problems concerning the advantages and disadvantages of renting and owning, tracing effects of government financing, and many other problems.

Desired Outcomes

1. An understanding of the facts about American housing conditions.
2. An understanding of the effects of bad housing conditions upon health and character.
3. An understanding of why slums and blighted areas exist.
4. A desire to make home more attractive.
5. An attitude of sympathy for people who live in the slums and an interest in their welfare.
6. An appreciation of good home architecture.

Generalizations

1. A nation's standard of living is determined not by the possession of numerous non-essentials and luxuries but by the possession and effective use of those things, such as good housing, which contribute to healthful and harmonious group life.
2. There exist in America a growing realization of the importance of housing to human welfare and increasing activity on the part of many agencies to improve it.
3. A large majority of American families live in houses which are inadequate according to minimum standards set up by housing authorities.
4. Bad housing tends to prevent the development of good personality and character.

OUTLINE OF THE HOUSING PROBLEM

- I. Effects of Bad Housing.
 - A. Health
 1. Lack of sunlight—
 - a. Lowers general tone.
 - b. Lessens resistance.
 - c. Causes rickets.
 - d. Increases spread of tuberculosis.

2. Lack of fresh air—
 - a. Has a depressing effect on well-being and vitality.
 3. Overcrowding—
 - a. Spreads disease: Common colds, sore throats, bronchitis, influenza, diphtheria, scarlet fever, measles, mumps, chicken pox, whooping cough, cerebrospinal fever, infantile paralysis, pneumonia, tuberculosis.
 - b. Adverse effect on the nervous system.
 4. Dampness—
 - a. Produces rheumatism.
 - b. Favors development of colds, pneumonia, tuberculosis.
 5. Lack of running water—
 - a. Adequate supply a necessity for drinking and cooking.
 - b. Makes impossible cleanliness of persons, clothing, the home.
 6. Lack of sanitary flush toilets—
 - a. Use of common toilets spreads diseases.
 - b. Use of outdoor privies spreads diseases, such as hook-worm, with consequent anemia.
- B. Morals**
1. Areas of bad housing and high truancy and delinquency rates coincide.
 2. Tenement-house child loses necessary protective period—
 - a. Cramped at home, finds his way to street out of mother's sight.
 - b. Encounters bad companionship, forms gangs.
 3. Crime maps show—
 - a. Highest rate in slum areas.
 - b. Homicides, houses of prostitution, low-grade amusement places concentrated in slum areas.
 4. Immorality—
 - a. Lack of privacy.
 - b. Use of common toilets.
 - c. Dark halls and passageways.
 - d. Lack of adequate sleeping quarters.
- C. Safety**
1. Structural hazards.
 2. Fire hazards.
 3. Life hazard due to congested area.
- D. General welfare**
1. Industrial efficiency—worker more efficient if he:
 - a. Lives under pleasant, healthful conditions.
 - b. Sleeps in quiet surroundings with abundant fresh air.

- c. Is contented with his dwelling; that is, if he does not have to live in a drab, dilapidated, and over-crowded home.
 2. Class hatred, social unrest, and revolutionary propaganda are the products of slums. Lloyd George said: "You can't raise class A-1 citizens in C-3 homes."
- E. Economic effect**
1. Increased taxation—
 - a. Police, fire, health activities increased.
 2. Ultimate bankruptcy of city.
- II. Remedies for Bad Housing.**
- A. Careful regional planning**
1. Rectify mistakes of the past.
 2. Decentralize industry, workers—prevent congestion.
 3. Prevent blighted areas through zoning and deed restriction.
 4. Provide efficient transportation routes.
- B. Modernization of the building industry**
1. Reduce construction cost.
 2. Free house from bondage of land through production of prefabricated, movable house.
 3. Efficient methods of marketing will reduce costs of distribution; eliminate profits of middleman. Movable house better security for loans—not tied to land—not tied to environmental influences which bring rapid depreciation.
- C. Nation-wide educational program**
1. Arouse public opinion.
 2. Educate consumers to benefit by good housing.
- D. Program for participation in housing for national, state, and local governments**
1. Enlarge group of consumers.
 2. Provide decent housing for lowest-income group (Government helps).
 3. Long-term credit—low-interest rates.
 4. Guarantee home mortgages and loans.
 5. Revise tax system to encourage use of the land rather than speculation.
 6. Strengthen insurance laws to protect holders of insurance policies on houses.
 7. Government power stations to serve as "yardsticks" to regulate the costs of utilities service.
 8. Encourage decentralization of industry.

III. Immediate steps toward better housing lie mostly in the effort to reduce the cost of housing.

A. First cost of house

1. Cost of land—
 - a. Cost based on desirability of location and consequent demand.
 - b. Cost of purchasing and marketing.
 - c. Profits of the seller.
 - d. Legal fees.
2. Cost of building the house—
 - a. Cost of architectural service.
 - b. Removing old buildings from lot.
 - c. Installation of utility services.
 - d. Cost of material and labor.
 - e. Cost of management of construction.

B. Cost of financing

1. Interest rates.
2. Fees.
3. Cost of protecting lender from insecurity of investment.
4. Costs due to ignorance of buyer with regard to business methods.

C. Cost of living in the house

1. Taxes and insurance.
2. Cost of repairs and remodeling.
3. Cost of current utilities service.
4. Cost of management of the property if rented.
5. Cost of transportation from home to place of work.
6. Cost of depreciation of property.

IV. Economic Effects of a Housing Program.

A. Vital to recovery

1. Building of factories, stores, office buildings, apartments practically ceased during the depression.
2. Shoes, clothing, food, tobacco declined by only 20% to 30% during depression, but lumber, bricks, cement, building materials fell off from 40% to 60%, and building contracts fell off to 12%, of what they were in 1928.
3. What does this mean to the 3,000,000 workers affected by this drop in buildings; e.g., carpenters, electricians, plumbers, bricklayers, plasterers, general laborers? Also affected are those making a living producing: lumber, steel, brick, plumbing fixtures, building equipment, furniture makers, makers of household goods.

4. There are 750,000 new homes needed each year, but during recent years building stagnated, and in 1935 only 70,000 new homes were constructed.

CITY, STATE, AND FEDERAL EFFORTS TO PROVIDE BETTER HOUSING

*Tenement house department (old Charter),
New York City, presents annual report.*

Record of four years reveals 6,000 reduction in occupied old-law tenements, safety factor advanced, new fire escapes installed on 22,500 structures, 2,000 buildings vacated.

The survey showed that, during the last four years, largely as a result of the strengthening of the laws governing outmoded multi-family dwellings, new fire escapes have been provided for structures housing 125,000 families, and fire-retarded hallways for 45,000 families.

The Department issued 5,400 vacating orders, but found it necessary to vacate only about 2,000 buildings.

The "cycle survey," started early in 1935, to give a complete record of the condition of each multi-family building, is 60% complete, and the full records in Queens and Staten Island are available. Among the older sections where this survey also is finished are Harlem and the lower East Side of Manhattan; Red Hook and the Navy Yard sections, Brownsville, and the older parts of Williamsburg in Brooklyn.

The "minimum estimated cost" during the last four years of the work of providing fire-escapes for 22,500 buildings housing 125,000 families was fixed at \$4,500,000, and the cost of fire-retarding cellar ceilings in 20,635 buildings housing 120,000 families was estimated at \$2,000,000.

(In the original unit there followed here four pages of statistical information concerning New York City housing and housing conditions in other large cities of the United States. Since such information is available in numerous sources, it is not included here.)

*HOLC Summarizes Record as Lender: Federal
Agency Calls American Home Owner "World's
Best Risk," \$3,100,000,000 Dealt Out.*

As a corporation which has dealt out almost \$3,100,000,000 to about one million home owners in the bleak years of depression, the conclusions reached by the HOLC were regarded as of some significance bearing upon the financing of the Administration's proposed program of large-scale home construction.

The conclusions were based on the facts that with more than

thirteen years to go, \$719,811,590 had been paid back to the HOLC by October 31, 1937, of which \$327,611,731 or more than 10% of the entire debt, was in principal, and \$392,369,859, in interest; and that approximately 85% of the loan accounts are now entirely current or held by borrowers who are meeting monthly bills in addition to making regular payments on their arrearages.

The statement said that HOLC has sold 4,497 homes for \$16,649,359, but always with consideration of the effect which such sales might have on the real-estate market.

Contrary to common reports, the statement added, the corporation had on hand only 58,545 other properties, representing \$293,154,538. Of these it said 39,153, consisting of 48,909 units, were available to yield income, and only 10.4% of the rentable units were vacant.

The average rent of HOLC properties was stated as \$26.10 per month, with collections averaging about 97%. Rent revenue in October, 1937, was \$1,144,691 compared to \$162,344 a year before.

With 24,970 loans aggregating \$56,229,136 paid in full and erased from the books up to October 31, 1937, HOLC reports it now has listed 886,000 borrowers on its loan records.

The statement added that the corporation had \$99,525,918 of delinquent accounts, including both principal and interest, on accounts other than those on which foreclosure action had been started.

The statement also pointed to about 500,000 homes reconditioned through HOLC operations since 1933, "a large share of which are better homes than they were when the depression struck."

*State Board of Housing to Redraft Provisions of
New York State Constitution Relating to Housing.
Plans to Be Submitted at State Constitutional
Convention Next Spring.*

The New York State Housing stressed certain changes in the New York State Law which, they believe, are essential to any properly conceived long-range and low-rental housing plan, suggesting the following:

1. Provision for state loans to housing authorities and loans to cooperative housing associations, as well as to limited-dividend housing corporations under state regulation.
2. A law to authorize cities to acquire reserve land for future building sites and other public uses.
3. Legislation permitting municipalities, towns, villages, and counties to loan funds and make grants to their own public housing authorities.
4. Redrafting of the present condemnation procedures, with the

objective of enabling public bodies to acquire adequate land more cheaply and easily.

The State Board of Housing, through its counsel, Mr. Ira Robbins, stated that increased public ownership of land in and about the cities would result in many advantages. Mr. Robbins likewise said: "The future of the movement to improve housing conditions is to a great extent dependent on the formulation and execution of a long-range policy in acquiring and using land. We should begin to acquire reserve lands for housing, agricultural, educational, and recreational purposes."

*Charles Abrams, Counsel to the American Federation
of Housing Authorities, Gives His Ideas on Housing.
Private Financing Urged with Federal Backing.*

Mr. Abrams recently stated that the government should not attempt to finance the entire housing program through budgetary appropriations. His statement: "Two things are needed for a housing project: (1) Loans for construction, and (2) subsidies to supply the deficits. The loans can be obtained from private sources at low interest rates, if the government will guarantee those loans as it proposes doing under the new FHA program. A large program can be secured only if the money is borrowed from private sources. We cannot talk of a housing program in billions and have it solely through Congressional appropriations that are a charge against the budget. Private financing must be invited. If the government borrows it all on its own credit, higher interest rates must result, and the higher interest rates are, the higher the rents.

"If, however, private institutions can be induced to lend directly to housing authorities, as has been done abroad, we can have a large program. The subsidies, however, must be provided in large amounts by city, state, and Federal Government."

Spend What for a House?

How costly a house can the average man of modern income afford to build? Government housing experts advise against undertaking to finance a house costing more than two or two and one-half times your annual income. That would be a \$4000 or \$5000 home for the man making \$2000 a year.

Equally important, say housing economists, is how dependable is your income? A man who has held a particular job with a steady income for several years is a better financial risk than one whose income has fluctuated from year to year.

Typical payments.

Some typical FHA financed cases are those of a Kansas clerk who earns \$86.50 a month and pays \$14.41 a month on a \$2250 home, and an Oklahoma bottling plant operator who receives \$110 a month and pays \$23.51 on a \$2600 home. More than two-thirds of those borrowing on FHA-insured mortgages have incomes of less than \$3000 a year. More than half earn \$2500 or less.

How to get information.

What should a prospective builder do to arrange for FHA mortgage insurance? An architect, contractor, building material dealer, real estate firm, or banker can guide him on that.

What about seeking and selecting a lot? FHA experts advise extreme care in picking the site for a house. The prospective purchaser first should find out if the neighborhood is zoned. He should not buy if the zoning rules permit uses which may be detrimental to his property.

Housing authorities advise selecting a neighborhood where there are people whose interests and background are similar to those of the prospective home-builder.

The tax rate should be investigated and the possibility of future assessments considered; that is, the likelihood of being called on to pay for paving, sewers, curbing, or sidewalks.

The lot should be convenient to schools, churches, shopping, and, in large cities, to transportation and recreation facilities.

A Good House for \$5000—The United States Government says it can be done.

Of the more than 125,000 homes built under Federal Housing Administration insured mortgages, more than half cost less than \$5000, and 33% cost less than \$4000. The average value was \$5497.

They were built in all sections of the country. Some are stucco, shingled, or clapboard, others are of brick or stone. Officials say none was shoddy for all met FHA requirements of sound construction, reasonable comfort, and sanitary convenience.

Using FHA designs, members of the National Lumber Association built more than 3000 houses last year. Three plans were used—a four-room bungalow, a four and one-half room, two-story house, and a six-room two-story house.

The six-room house, of colonial design, cost on an average \$3858. Built in a Washington suburb—a relatively high-price locality—it cost \$4120.

These prices included the cost of the lot—for the Washington

house, \$666—of landscaping, sodding the lawn, refrigerator and stove, and a contractor's profit.

The average cost of the four-room bungalow was \$3165. That figure included also the completed house, landscaped lawn, and a \$660 allowance for the lot.

One decidedly cheaper item in building is financing. Asking still lower rates for low-price homes, President Roosevelt described financing in his message to Congress as "one of the largest items" in housing costs. He proposed to reduce the cost of FHA financing of under \$6000 homes by 1%.

A 1% reduction of an eighteen-year, monthly amortized mortgage is equivalent to an 18½% saving on the first cost.

Lower financing, better design, and more efficiency, all mean a larger house for the same money or the same house for less money.

SUMMARY

It is not true that the home-owning urge is dying out in America. According to a recent *Architectural Forum* survey, four out of five middle-class Americans would like to have homes of their own. The reason they do not is that they can't, or think they can't, afford it.

At present, for most of them, that is true. During the Depression residential building came almost to a standstill. And when Recovery got under way, the men who produce materials for houses and the laborers who build them ran their prices and wages up so high that in general it is cheaper to rent a house than to buy one.

Now that American business is suffering a new sinking spell, President Roosevelt hopes to revive it with three mighty stimulants. One of them is to mobilize \$12,000,000,000 to \$16,000,000,000 of private capital to build 600,000 to 8,000,000 small houses (and apartments) a year for the next five years.

President Roosevelt's scheme was to ease the credit terms obtained through the Federal Housing Administration. FHA does not lend Government money to housebuilders. It simply guarantees mortgage loans granted by banks, realtors, and other private sources. Under the present set-up, the would-be home-builder must have his plans and his credit approved by FHA, then pay in cash at least 20% of the cost of his property (including house and land), which may not be over \$16,000. The remaining 80% may be paid over twenty years in monthly installments covering the principal, interest (5%), FHA insurance charge and mortgager's service charge (each ½ of 1%). The President proposes that this be changed to let FHA guarantee mortgages covering 90% of the cost of properties worth up to \$6000, share interest and service rates. Thus, if local conditions

permit you to build one of the houses for \$6000, including land, you could move into it for a down payment of \$600, pay the rest like rent over twenty years, beginning at \$46.10 per month, the interest to diminish with the principal. The President would also ease the terms for large-scale builders.

The plans accompanying this unit are of a house in no way extraordinary but which is the most important kind of house in America right now. It is an attractive example of what architects class as "the \$5000 house." This is the house which most mature Americans dream of owning some day, partly because it suits their taste and partly because it is the best they can hope to afford.

(The original unit included a model small house plan taken from *Fortune* magazine. Similar plans are available in many sources and the Sing Sing unit plan is therefore not included here.)

V

SATISFYING THE CUSTOMER⁷

"Satisfying the Customer" is a rather unique unit in that it was used by an instructor of automotive repair. It represents



SATISFYING THE CUSTOMER

"I said I'd do this to the next guy who put grease spots on my upholstery."

Customers seldom take such drastic action as this. They just won't come back. That's the worst punch you could take. Don't risk your job because of such little things as these.

⁷This unit was developed and taught by Thomas Partlan, Instructor of Automotive Repairing, Wallkill Prison. It illustrates the way in which shop instructors at Wallkill are carrying on the teaching of social and economic problems since the Engelhardt Commission's experimental project ended.

one way in which social and economic problems can be made a part of related teaching in vocational education.

This unit is for the teacher's use only, but includes questions for class discussion as well as problems and activities.

TEACHER'S UNIT

GENERAL OBJECTIVE

To show that society in general is made up of individuals of balanced personalities who conduct their affairs according to time-tested business codes.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

To establish satisfactory criteria for contacts with the customer and work done for him.

- A. To determine the extent of responsibility in completing a job.
- B. To determine what factors enter into the establishing of a satisfactory understanding with the customer.
- C. To determine whether consistent respect of customer's property is good business, regardless of the value of the property or the return expected in repairing it.
- D. To determine the degree of efficiency that pays best in the long run.

POSSIBLE APPROACHES

- A. Questions
 1. Should efficiency be sacrificed for speed?
 2. Is the customer always right?
 3. What is the effect on the customer if the mechanic does a one hundred per cent job on the engine but leaves the car hood, wheel, floor, etc., dirty?
 4. Should there be any difference in the degree of efficiency with which large and small jobs are done?
- B. Complaints
 1. Price.
 2. Personnel.
 3. Work done
 - a. Promptness.
 - b. Cleanliness.
 - c. Completeness.
- C. Newspaper articles.
- D. Personal experiences.



CONCLUSIONS AND INFERENCES

- A. Extent of Responsibility.
1. Car should be thoroughly cleaned after repair job.
 2. The mechanic has a right to be proud of a job well done.
 3. Unsuspected hazards should be pointed out to the customer.
 4. A dependable mechanic tends to eliminate the need of employer supervision.
- B. Satisfactory relationship with the customer.
1. Respect and willing accommodation pay dividends.
 2. The customer's opinion should be given consideration.
 3. Minor services should not be charged for.
 4. The customer should never be directly contradicted.
 5. Overcharging eventually leads to loss of business.
 6. There is an interdependence of service stations for same make of car, gas, oil, etc.
- C. The customer's regard for his car.
1. It should be remembered that the customer usually feels that his own car compares favorably with others.
 2. The same attention should be given all cars no matter what their original price or present condition.
 3. It is good business to maintain a sympathetic attitude toward old car troubles. (The great percentage of repair work is here.)
- D. Degree of efficiency.
1. Efficiency is always the first consideration.
 2. Transient trade should be given equal consideration with local trade.
 3. A car is only as good as its dealer.
 4. A poor job will prevent the customer's return.
 5. Good will is built up by the customer's spreading reports of work efficiently and promptly done at reasonable rates.

TOPICS AND EXERCISES

Written

Should rates be charged according to the customer's ability and willingness to pay?

Relate a satisfactory personal experience with a garage or service station.

Relate an unsatisfactory personal experience with a garage or service station.

Should an inferior grade of parts be used for replacements?

Should there be a repeat charge for an unsatisfactory job?
How does the service station absorb losses due to free minor services?

Make a list of services that you think should be free.

REFERENCES

- "Satisfactory Service," *Motor Age*, June, p. 26.
"Mechanic's Part," Wright: *Automotive Repair*, p. 337.
"Satisfied Customer," Roenigh: *Lubrication*, p. 19.

VI

CHANGES IN THE BRICKLAYING TRADE BROUGHT ABOUT BY THE INCREASED USE OF MACHINES⁸

This unit is another illustration of the way in which Wallkill Prison shop instructors are incorporating social and economic problems in their related teaching. It is for the teacher's use.

TEACHER'S UNIT

GENERAL OBJECTIVE

To show through the history of the brick industry that the machine has done much to create jobs, bring about lower costs, and promote better social and economic conditions for society.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

- A. To show that high speed and increased efficiency of manufacturing counterbalances the higher costs of labor and raw materials.
- B. To show that because of the public demand for cheaper commodities, the machine has been the salvation of industry.
- C. To demonstrate that although the machine has displaced some labor, it has always created new jobs.

APPROACH

The firing of bricks was first done in open kilns, next, in intermittent kilns; now it is done in tunnel kilns.

Relative cost differences.

Open kiln—bricks handled eight times; bricks fired with wood; twenty days to fire.

⁸This unit was developed and used by William Rogers, Instructor in Bricklaying and Masonry, Wallkill Prison.

Intermittent—Bricks handled five times; bricks fired with coal; ten days to fire.

Tunnel—Bricks handled twice; bricks fired with gas or oil; forty-eight hours to fire.

OTHER POSSIBLE APPROACHES

- A. Prepared brick mortars and consequences.
- B. Transportation of equipment and supplies (effect of greater efficiency).
- C. Researches of combined trade organizations.

DISCUSSION OUTLINE

- I. Why, with rising cost of labor and raw materials, is building cheaper per cubic foot than it was? Conclusion desired:
 - A. Although same number of men are employed in brick industry, their production per gang has stepped up from 200 to 50,000 bricks.
 - B. Through machines, substitutions are now available which are better and cheaper than the old materials. Ex.: Solid brick wall *vs.* shoe-tile construction.
 - C. Daily labor production higher.
 1. Swing scaffold.
 2. Concrete mixer.
 3. Gasoline hoists.
 4. Brick containers.
 - D. Closer cooperation between builder and supply houses.
 1. Research.
 2. Trade literature.
 3. New materials.
- II. Do you think that the public has done much to advance the use of these machines and labor-saving devices? Conclusion desired:
 - A. Public has been unable to pay the previous high costs.
 1. Mortgage foreclosures.
 2. Lack of cheap workingman's house.
 3. Failure of many builders because of lack of sales.
 - B. The government, through surveys, has found need of cheaper housing.
 - C. Government propaganda has created public interest in cheap housing.
 - D. Active builders have resorted to processes and substitutes to cut costs.

E. Manufacturers have been challenged to lower cost of materials.

F. Contractors have improved their equipment.

III. Has this change affected labor adversely? Conclusion desired:

- A. Lower cost of building has advanced building activities, thereby giving work to more men.
- B. In order to keep costs down, equipment to speed labor production has been installed.
- C. As machines speed production, shorter working days are possible.
- D. Hard work is done by machinery, thereby easing the work of man.
- E. Higher wages due to higher production has aided the laborer financially.
- F. Cheaper building and faster production have made building trades dependent upon larger territory for employment.
- G. Mass production and machines are opening new and fertile fields to those interested.

IV. Conclusions and Inferences.

- A. The machine has entered every industry and although in some instances it has displaced labor, in many cases it has more than replaced those losing jobs.
 1. Ford Motors.
 - a. \$4,000,000 machinery—20,000 additional men employed.
 - b. \$9,000,000 machinery—40,000 additional men employed.
 - c. \$10,000,000 machinery—37,000 additional men employed.
 2. Concrete mixer gave work on dams, roads, and bridges.
 3. Automobiles displaced 2 blacksmiths but gave employment to 15 mechanics and 10 service station employees. In 1870, 324 persons of each 1000 were needed to produce necessities. In 1930, 400 were needed to produce necessities.
- B. Man should make the machine his servant. He should dominate and control its inroad into displacing employment.
 1. Unless people work, they cannot buy.
 2. Unless people buy, machines will be idle.
 3. Only through the machine can cheaper commodities be purchased. Ex.: Tailor-made suits *vs.* factory-made houses. Cost of concrete per yd. in 1920 as against cost in 1935.
 4. Percentage of population that owned horse and buggy as against percentage that now own automobiles.

- C. In the home, man has all conveniences needed for comfort.
- D. Through the radio and automobile he is kept in constant contact with world events, as well as being entertained.
- E. Because the machine has stepped up production, man has more free time to himself.
- F. Machinery has elevated wages beyond the subsistence stages, thereby making possible both luxuries and savings.
- G. Because of the machine, man's entire environment has changed.
 1. Easy access to new places.
 2. Less drudgery.
 3. More time for education.
 4. Better housing conditions.
 5. Active part in political, social, and economic issues.

VII

HISTORY OF LABOR ORGANIZATION⁹

The unit on the "History of Labor Organization" is entirely for class use. It was used at the New York State Vocational Institution, which has been overcrowded recently, and classes have consequently been large. The turnover is rapid also, the average length of time boys spend at the institution being about twelve months. For these reasons, this unit is designed to be a part of an individualized instruction procedure. After reading the material, the boy takes the test attached to the lesson or unit sheet. The unit is one of a series on labor and capital.

The language of the unit is simple and interesting, and has a conversational tone. The teacher was not afraid to use some slang and near-slang expressions: "pepped them up," "threw it out," "shot in the arm," "grabbed," etc. Some academicians may feel that this lowers standards, but it would probably make correctional teaching much more effective if more teachers could and would speak and write in a "peppy," conversational way. There is, of course, a limit to this, but a teacher with judgment will know what constitutes lowering himself to the boy's level in the right and the wrong way.

⁹This unit was written and taught by George T. Drojarski, Teacher, New York State Vocational Institution.

STUDENT'S UNIT

Labor organization started a long time ago. First, men in a certain trade in each large city joined together in what was called a guild, which is like the union of today. They did this to control prices, hours of work, wages, and to see that too many workers did not go into their kind of work.



HISTORY OF LABOR ORGANIZATION

In the United States, around the year 1790, a "Union" was set up by shoemakers. Some other unions were formed, but real organizations didn't start until 1869 when a secret organization called "The Knights of Labor" was formed. It had special handshakes, lodge rooms, and costumes like the Masons, Shriners, or Elks of today. They became rather strong, but the people did not trust them, and they were too rough in their ways of handling strikes.

It was easy, therefore, in 1881, for a man named Samuel Gompers, to start what is now known as the American Federation of Labor (A. F. of L.). It was made up of many trade or craft unions. It was different from other organizations because it wasn't secret; it tried to get what it wanted peaceably, and it did not want to start a third party against the Republicans and Democrats. Its motto was "Help those who help us" as far as politics was concerned.

Other organizations gave competition to the A. F. of L. but one by one they dropped out. One of the best known was the I. W. W., the Industrial Workers of the World.

In 1913, the President of the United States appointed a Secretary of Labor to his Cabinet, so labor organizations could feel that their problems were being well considered. The first eight-hour day law (for railways) was passed by Congress in 1916. In 1919, Communists led a big strike on the Steel Industry, and the unions lost much in money, reputation, and membership. The membership built up, however, up to 1929 when the big depression came. That cut down the membership greatly, and unions lost a lot in power. Then the N.R.A., the National Recovery Act, pepped them up because the government was trying to do by law just what they had been trying to get. The Supreme Court said the N.R.A. was unconstitutional and threw it out, but the unions still were pepped up by the "shot in the arm" that the N.R.A. gave.

Still, it looked as though the unions would slip again. Then John Lewis grabbed the chance to do things at the right time. He broke from the A. F. of L. to start the C. I. O., as described in the last lesson. Whether it will turn out to be a good thing or not, no one knows, but it has put a fighting spirit into labor. In late 1936 and 1937, strikes were started everywhere, and great numbers of men joined unions. They must control themselves, however, for public opinion is getting sore at so many strikes.

The following is a True-False test. If the statement is true, mark a "T" before it. If the statement is false, mark an "F" before it.

- () 1. A guild was a gold plated piece of metal.
- () 2. The aims of unions today are much like those of long ago.
- () 3. The shoemakers made about the first labor organization in the United States.
- () 4. The Knights of Labor were appointed by the King of England.
- () 5. The Shriners are a labor organization.
- () 6. The Knights of Labor failed because they were foreigners.
- () 7. Labor organization and companies don't give a darn about what the public thinks.
- () 8. The A. F. of L. doesn't want to make a Labor Party, while the C. I. O. does.
- () 9. Samuel Gompers was the first head of the A. F. of L.
- () 10. The A. F. of L. started about fifty-five years ago.
- () 11. The leader of the A. F. of L. is John Lewis, while William Green is head of the C. I. O.
- () 12. I. W. W. means "I won't work."

- () 13. The Secretary of Labor always does what the union wants him to.
- () 14. The N.R.A. pepped up the unions.
- () 15. People always stick up for strikers.

The following are regular answer-type questions:

1. What do A. F. of L. and C. I. O. mean?
2. What is the main difference between the two systems?
3. If you were in a union, what things would you want to fight for?
4. Is it the fault of new machines and inventions that men are out of work?
5. Copy the cartoon at the beginning of this unit. Under your sketch, explain what you think it means.
6. Which is better, "Help those who help us," or "Form a new political party"?
7. Who is the present Secretary of Labor?

VIII

EDUCATION¹⁰

The following unit on "Education" demonstrates the use of problem-work sheets as an approach. It is taken for granted that the teacher will introduce the subject and give an overview of it. In this preliminary presentation the teacher should use such devices as the following: Stories of prominent people who acquired a good education in different ways, a display of various educative influences, short case histories presenting the problem, "Who is educated?" and the like. Individuals or groups then apply themselves to the work sheets or other problems which may arise during the preliminary discussion.

WORK SHEET

Problem: To learn the meaning of the term "education"

- I. Read the definition of education given in the outline.
- II. Define the following terms. Write on another sheet of paper.

Acquisition	Environment
Fact	Intellect
Skill	Physical
Culture	Moral
Adjust	Ethical

¹⁰ This unit was prepared and taught at Elmira Reformatory.

III. Fill in blanks with conclusions reached in class discussion concerning factors testing a person's education.

- A.
- B.
- C.
- etc.

IV. In a short theme defend or condemn the following statements.

- A. A ditch digger can be better educated than a prosperous lawyer or businessman.
- B. A perfectly contented hobo is better educated than a respected, hard-working businessman who has financial worries.
- C. A single man has a better chance to be educated than a married man.

WORK SHEET

Problem: To determine whether education can be acquired only through formal schooling.

I. From a high-type newspaper we get _____, _____, and _____.

II. A tabloid is _____.

III. The types of knowledge I can get from a newspaper are:

- | | |
|----|----|
| A. | G. |
| B. | H. |
| C. | I. |
| D. | J. |
| E. | K. |
| F. | L. |

IV. Write articles, pro or con, on the following topics:

- A. It is better to read a paper such as the *New York Times*, *Herald Tribune* or the *World Telegram* than a tabloid such as the *Daily News* or *Daily Mirror*.
- B. Hearst papers are inferior newspapers.

OUTLINE

I. The meaning of education.

- A. Education means more than the acquisition of skills and facts and a knowledge of the culture of the world past and present. It means the ability of the individual to adjust successfully to his environment, intellectually, physically, and morally.

B. The following factors might well be a test of a person's education.

1. Ability to earn an adequate living.
2. Ability to lead an ethical, moral life under adverse as well as favorable circumstances.
3. Ability to adjust as easily as possible to rules and regulations.
4. Ability to cooperate easily with others.
5. Ability to stay within one's means.
6. Ability to maintain one's health in as good condition as possible.
7. Ability to maintain one's reasoning power at a high level, aspiring toward perfect ability of mind and logical thought.
8. Ability to increase one's general knowledge and acquirement of skill in a well-rounded manner, but not at a detriment to the maintenance of a suitable physical, economic, social, and moral level.
9. Ability to use properly one's leisure time.
10. As a goal or desired result of the above-mentioned points, the attainment of contentment in life with the fullest physical, intellectual, and moral development compatible with one's position in life.

II. Formal education, while extremely valuable, is not the only means of becoming educated.

- A. Education begins almost at birth and continues until death.
- B. Formal education or school attendance occupies a short period of one's life, hence it cannot guarantee perfect education of the individual.
- C. Schools cannot always give the amount of education needed for the individual.
- D. Schools try to create real situations of life for their students, but are not always able to do so.
- E. After one has left school, conditions arise, necessitating new education.
- F. Schools, however, are a most efficient, economical means of education.
 1. Proper equipment; many times but not always.
 2. Correct teaching methods.
 3. Trained teachers.
 4. Aim to impart ethical and health and social education, as well as intellectual and vocational education; aim at full adjustment of the pupil.

G. Types of schools.

1. Elementary.
2. Junior high.
3. High—academic, vocational trade, commercial.
4. Colleges.
5. Private business schools.
6. Private schools for trade training.
7. Continuation schools.
8. Schools maintained by unions.
9. Schools maintained by employers.

H. Other means of education.

1. Extension courses in colleges—open to those who though not high school graduates are qualified for the course by experience and intelligence.
2. Correspondence courses.
3. Education at one's place of employment.
 - a. Avoidance of blind alley jobs, if possible.
 - b. Stress fact that this means usually the main source of the adult education, at least vocationally.
4. Newspapers.
 - a. Types of newspapers.
 - b. Types of information offered by newspapers.
5. Magazines—kinds and relative value.
6. Books—fiction—and non-fiction.
7. Radio.
8. Movies.
9. Lectures.
10. Forums.
11. Clubs.
12. Art galleries—mention those in various cities of the state, especially New York City, Buffalo, and Albany. List those in the places in which you live.
 - a. In New York City: Private art galleries open to the public. Metropolitan Museum of Art. Brooklyn Museum.
13. Museums—mention those in various cities of the state, especially New York City, Buffalo, and Albany.
 - a. In New York City: Museum of Hebrew Seminary. Museum of Natural History. Metropolitan Museum of Art. Museum of the City of New York. Daily News Museum. Brooklyn Museum.
 - b. Planetariums.
 - c. Zoos, Botanical Gardens, Aquariums.

- d. Visits to local places of historical, economic or geographical interest such as, in New York City: Grant's Tomb, Fraunce's Tavern, Stock Exchange, Federal Reserve Bank, Statue of Liberty, and the Brooklyn Navy Yard.
- e. Travel.
- f. Experiences.
- g. Conversations and discussions.
- h. Hobbies
 - (1) Necessity of each individual's having a plan by which he may take advantage of the means of education available to himself according to his own individual needs.
 - (2) People who have succeeded without formal education—an inquiry into reasons for success.
- i. Such national and international figures as: Thomas A. Edison, Henry Ford, Charles Schwab, Hitler, Mussolini, and others.
- j. Successful men of your acquaintance lacking formal education.
 - (1) Why could these men be considered as educated?
 - (2) How did they become educated though lacking formal education?
 - (3) Do they lack or are they weak in any quality necessary for a well-rounded education.

(In the original unit there followed here eight pages of additional outline on the development of education from the days of primitive man to the present, and seventeen pages of content material on various phases of out-of-school learning. Most of the latter consists of quotations from prominent writers in the field of education.)

CHAPTER VIII

THE PLACE OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE
INSTITUTION EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

WHETHER social studies shall be taught as part of other courses, in separate classes, in discussion clubs, or whether they should be organized on some other basis depends to some extent upon the institution and its program of education. In general, the writer recommends separate classes, although phases of social studies can and should be a part of other classes. Much of the work in English classes might well be based on social and economic subjects. The simple news weeklies, "My First Reader" and "My Weekly Reader," contain excellent material of a social and economic nature through which reading, English, spelling, and composition can be taught. One teacher in a correctional institution has used a study of the post office to teach both English and arithmetic. Materials prepared for illiterate or near-illiterate adults in recent years have been based on adult activities dealing with the family, occupational activities, and the use of public services, such as the bank and the post office. Social studies, in this writer's opinion, should be the core of all work in institution classes on an elementary or junior high school level.

Certain phases of social studies can also be made a natural part of related vocational teaching. In the Wallkill plan shop teachers developed units concerning labor conditions, workmen's compensation, employer and employee relationships, and similar problems. Where vocational education makes up the major portion of the program, as it does at Wallkill,¹ this plan works well, although there are certain phases of social and economic study which are difficult to incorporate in trade-shop teaching.

¹The minor importance of non-vocational education at Wallkill is due, in part, to the fact that only three small classrooms were provided in the entire plant.

While social studies materials should be a part of all subjects, separate social studies classes are necessary if this phase of the program is to be effective. At Elmira and at the New York State Vocational Institution all work is departmentalized—social studies forming one department. Close correlation between social studies and vocational work is being developed at the New York State Vocational Institution through cooperating committees which determine the phases of social studies which shall be taught by the shop instructors and the phases for which the social studies teachers shall be responsible.

Elmira makes frequent use of projects in which English, social studies, commercial, and other classes cooperate. Social studies classes develop issues which are then worked up in debate form by English classes. English classes work out oral interview techniques to be used in applying for a job and present them before social studies groups for criticism. In fact, at Elmira it is often difficult to know what the subject is when one steps into a classroom. For example, an oral English class is organized as a model community and the class heatedly debates community functions, policies, and procedures. The boys read from standard textbooks how communities operate; each boy decides on a procedure for the class "community," outlines his arguments, and presents them to the class. A lively discussion usually follows. The major English objectives—speed and accuracy of reading and clear, accurate, forceful written and oral expression—are stressed. In addition, values of a social nature are derived.²

Discussion groups and current events clubs have proved effective at Elmira and Sing Sing in stimulating interest in social and economic problems. Debate clubs also perform this function. The Debate Club of Woodbourne Prison recently competed against an outside high school team on the question of the unicameral legislature. The unicameral legislature was entirely unknown to the group until it was suggested as a debate topic. Such informal groups cannot substitute for a well-organized, comprehensive social studies course, but they have been found

²Peter M. Calabrese, teacher in Elmira Reformatory, uses the project method with great skill.

valuable in arousing interest in social and economic problems, and have proved to be excellent ice-breakers for the introduction of social and economic courses.

Sing Sing is about to launch another method of organizing social studies. The course is to be on the elementary level and is being built around visual aids with accompanying units for classroom use before and after the showing of the pictures. The opaque projector is to be used for most of the course and sets of cards, on which are mounted pictures, charts, maps, and graphs, are being prepared to develop definite concepts. The use of the opaque projector allows the teacher to build his own course and does away with dependence on miscellaneous motion picture films which lack continuity. The United States Industrial Reformatory at Chillicothe, Ohio, has also made wide use of visual aids in social studies teaching, and has what is probably the largest and best institutional collection of slides and films in the country.

The plan of teaching social studies utilized at Wallkill Prison during the Engelhardt experiment was somewhat unique. The study of Modern Social and Economic Problems was carried on in each shop which was giving organized trade instruction. These included the barber shop group, machine-blacksmith-welding group, carpentry-masonry group, laundry-tailor group, the boiler-room maintenance group, auto repair group, and the agricultural group. Mr. C. Maurice Wieting, an experienced social problems teacher and writer, was employed to teach the material in all shops. He was, in effect, a "rotating" teacher, going into each shop or into classes which are made up of related shop groups once each week. The schedule for these classes follows:

INDUSTRIAL TRENDS CLASS SCHEDULE

Tuesday

7:45-8:45	Auto Shop
8:50-9:50	Carpentry-Masonry-Plastering
3:00-4:00	Laundry-Tailoring
5:30-6:30	Advanced English

Wednesday

7:45-8:45	Agriculture
8:50-9:50	Carpentry-Masonry-Plastering
12:30-1:35	Plumbing-Heating-Power Plant Operation-Refrigeration

Thursday

12:30-1:35	Furniture Shop-Painting
3:00-4:00	Blacksmith-Machine Shop-Welding

Friday

7:45- 8:45	Agriculture
9:00-10:00	Barber Shop
5:30- 6:30	Advanced English
6:45- 7:45	"Keeping Up with the World"

These classes were called, not Modern Social and Economic Problems or Socio-economics, but Industrial Trends.

Whether the plan adopted was the best procedure it is difficult to say. The shops provided many elements which could be used as approaches in developing social and economic problems. Several features of the plan, however, were not ideal. The time spent in each shop was much too limited, and the periods were too far apart. The very interest of a man in his trade in some cases made him resent taking time out for a class which was not directly connected with his trade and which would not necessarily add a dollar to his pay check the first week he was out of prison.

At Woodbourne Prison courses in sociology and economics are proving popular with men of average or better than average intelligence and some educational background.

In the light of successful experiences, then, social and economic problems should form the basis for most of the classes in correctional institutions. Separate social studies classes on elementary, high school, and advanced levels should be organized and supplemented by units of work in other types of classes and informal groups and clubs.

CHAPTER IX

TEACHING PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES

THE most important problem in developing desirable social and economic concepts and attitudes has been to find techniques and procedures that will prove effective with adults in prisons. Source material is a vital necessity and it is available to anyone with energy and background enough to look for it. A sound psychology must be accepted or developed by the teacher. Courses and teaching materials must be carefully planned and organized. However, the basic problem of correctional education is, How can a sound psychology of learning and good teaching materials be put to functional use in the classroom most effectively? In other words, what are the best teaching methods and procedures? The teacher must have numerous teaching skills to bring student and materials together successfully.

According to Caswell and Campbell, "A distinction should be made between the use of the terms teaching method and teaching procedure. Method is commonly thought of as an adopted pattern or a special or definite system of procedure. Thus we refer to the inductive or deductive method of reasoning, the lecture method, or the question and answering method of teaching a lesson . . . (Method) determines the teaching procedure. In the traditional organization of instruction, activities tend to become stereotyped and routinized so that the teaching procedure becomes a fact, a special method. . . . This concept of teaching procedure as a series of special methods admits the possibility of setting forth an entire course of action in detail in advance. On the contrary, the concept of teaching procedures here employed is that specific things to be done by the teacher cannot be determined in advance, but that guidance of procedures may be provided that will make possible suitable choice and organization of teacher activities as they may be

dictated by the situation in which they are to be used."¹ This concept does not imply that the teacher must discard teaching methods; indeed, the teacher must be competent in the use of many different teaching procedures if he is to choose activities which will be effective. A variety of teaching procedures has been used successfully in prisons and reformatories. Some of the most effective are discussed below.

THE LECTURE

By means of lecture it is sometimes possible to present a point of view without the use of textbooks or outside references. A great deal of ground can be covered in a few well-prepared lectures.

There is, however, little real motive for men in prison classes to concentrate on a lecture. It is difficult to entertain them, no matter how interesting the material. No interchange of ideas takes place, and there tends to be a passive acceptance of whatever is said by the instructor; or worse still, a determined resistance may persist without a chance to clear up differences.

Experiences at Wallkill show that most inmates feel that the teacher's task is to tell them the answers. For this reason, more use was made of the lecture than had been planned at first. It was utilized simply to introduce a subject, to present issues, and to impress the group with the fact that the instructor did know something about the subject.

THE USE OF INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION SHEETS

Individual instruction sheets have been particularly effective in certain phases of vocational education where the purpose is to teach definite facts or skills. Because of the emphasis on vocational education in correctional institutions, the tendency has been to extend the use of individual instruction sheets to all types of classes. Instruction sheets have the advantage of being definite and permit the individual student to progress at his own rate. However, entire dependence on instruction sheets for

¹ Caswell, H. L. and Campbell, Doak, *Curriculum Development*, pp. 334-335. (American Book Company, New York), 1935.

the purpose of developing attitudes, understandings, and appreciations is not justified. The individual work sheet is not to be discarded, but it should be a different type from the usual specific question sheet and should be employed as supplementary to other teaching procedures. A work sheet properly constructed permitting considerable freedom of choice, and requiring that decisions be made, can do much toward stimulating thinking on the part of students.

THE USE OF UNIT MATERIALS

Experience has shown that if men are given a brief statement of the issues involved in a problem, simply written, brief, important content material, selected discussion questions, and worth-while guide sheets, they follow the work much better. Such material must not, however, be slavishly followed page by page, although it is often necessary to go over the content material in class in order to get it across.

Units give definiteness and point to the work and concentrate attention upon important issues and information. They provide quickly a background which so many men lack and which is so necessary to discussions of social or economic problems.

CLASS DISCUSSION

Education has already been described as a developmental, drawing-out process. Group discussion appears to be a procedure which furthers such a process. Views of inmates, some of whom are well informed and many of whom have had wide experience, can be added to the points of view presented by the instructor. In fact, many inmates have had far more industrial experience than the teachers who direct the work; they therefore have valuable contributions to make if the teacher directs the class skillfully.

Discussion is not considered to be education by some inmates. They look back to their own schooling, often in a traditional system, and do not understand the value of an interchange of ideas. The dependence upon individual instruction sheets in vocational classes, mentioned above, also has an influence on inmate attitudes toward discussion. However, by introducing the

method gradually and combining it with other types of procedures, experience has shown that group discussion is probably the most effective procedure with social studies classes.

In comparing teaching methods in adult classes outside of prison, a teacher states that "Not the lecture method and not exhortation, but discussion—the give-and-take method—has been found to be most effective with adults. *The teacher must be somewhat of an actor who can stimulate sufficient emotional reaction to the material under consideration to create discussion among tired and sometimes disillusioned minds.*"² Education and study come hard to the adult mind—particularly to the worker who has not studied for years or who has never studied. One cannot use the disciplines and routines that have been developed for children. Therefore a successful class with adult workers is tribute to the ingenuity, ability, tact, and intelligence of the teacher."³

The statement that "the teacher must be somewhat of an actor" is perhaps one of the most important elements in a prison teacher's success or failure. The ability to dramatize and stimulate discussion is an absolute essential in teaching inmates.

Care must be taken to keep the discussion directed toward a definite end and to see that the men do not wander too far away from the main topic. On the other hand, discussion must not be confined within narrow limits. A tendency will also develop for a few men to do all the talking and for the rest of the class to take no part in the lesson. The skill of the teacher enters in guiding the discussion efficiently and in stimulating each member of the group to take part.

TEACHING THROUGH CLASS ACTIVITIES

The use of activities is the foundation of education in progressive schools. It is widely accepted that people learn by doing, and that activity is worth while in proportion to the extent that it is realistic. The usual types of school activities do not appeal

² Italics are the author's.

³ Educational Standards Committee, assisted by Works Progress Administration. *Adult Education Program of the Board of Education and New York University*, p. 22. New York, February, 1937.

to adults in prison. Most of them are not interested in dramatizing, collecting samples, or making booklets, maps, and friezes. The institutional situation also prohibits many of the usual types of school activities, such as excursions or field trips, surveys, and the like. Other institutional conditions often limit the development of class activities. At Wallkill, for example, the teaching period was too short and the class periods were too far apart to sustain a maximum of interest and to develop class activities effectively. However, a limited number of activities were found to be fairly successful in the Industrial Trends classes at Wallkill. These included the making of reports about things of interest to class members, constructing charts and graphs, and debating. Elmira class projects have been described elsewhere.

Correctional education finds itself faced, at this point, with one of its most difficult problems: finding and stimulating the interests of inmates to the point where they will result in worthwhile activities. Inmates will not, as a rule, participate willingly in activities simply because the teacher recommends them, and little or no value results from forcing inmates to participate.

USE OF VISUAL MATERIAL

Charts, pictures, and graphs are interesting to many inmates. Good results have been achieved with charts, drawn by inmates or brought in from outside, which clarify such ideas as the effect of machines on the worker, the interdependence of modern society, and the like. Large graphs and pictures enabled the instructor at Wallkill to develop ideas and concepts much more clearly than words or outlines could possibly have done.

A sufficient quantity of suitable visual material is not available. Some inmates are not used to this method of teaching and, referring again to their childhood school experiences, do not consider that they are learning anything by looking at pictures. On the other hand, the "Building America" series of pictured pamphlets has been popular, and motion pictures, strip films, and opaque projectors have proved their educational value when intelligently used. Such materials prove valuable in stimulating interest and enlivening the discussion of tables and graphs.

USE OF TEXTBOOKS

Progressive public schools are gradually discarding the single textbook which for so long a time has been the most important element in the classroom. Following the principles set down in the psychology of learning, good teaching focuses attention on and stimulates interest in a problem vital to the learner and then supplies a variety of materials which will aid in developing and solving that problem. Not one book but many should be provided in order to supply the necessary facts and points of view which will insure a rounded development of any problem.

Such a procedure takes more skill on the part of the teacher, inasmuch as he must have a wider knowledge of the materials in the field; he must also develop ability on the part of the student to find and organize information bearing on the problem in hand.

In addition to utilizing a variety of books, the use of newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, and other types of supplementary material adds vitality to the study of any problem. The "Building America" Series, the "American Primers," and Compton's Encyclopedias have been well received by prison classes. "The Weekly News Review," "American Observer," "Scholastic," and similar periodicals have also proved popular and useful.⁴ Men at Wallkill often signed out such materials after class and asked where they could find more on the subject under discussion.

On the other hand, some inmates do not care to read this kind of material, and some do not have the educational background to use it. It has been found also that inmate interest is often fleeting and superficial. If the same material is referred to more than once, some inmate may remark, "Oh, we had that once," although his grasp of the material may be very slight.

SUMMARY

Experience indicates that in teaching social studies in correctional institutions, the teacher must use all the procedures de-

⁴ See Bibliography for complete references.

scribed above and will need ingenuity to devise and adapt other techniques if these fail. Where attitudes and concepts are the important things to be developed, major dependence should be placed upon group discussion and upon questions and activities which require thinking and understanding on the part of the student rather than a memoriter type of class in which major emphasis is placed upon the learning of isolated facts. As has been indicated, procedures at Wallkill consisted mainly of an introductory presentation by the instructor of the major issues involved in the problem, concrete situations and illustrations to stimulate interest, the use of mimeographed unit materials, the study of supplementary visual and reading materials, and group discussion. No definite time division of a class period can be or should be indicated. "The basic requirement should not be uniformity but rather that the teacher know what he is doing and have a program sufficiently definite to insure that he does know."⁵

PLANNING THE CLASS PERIOD

One section of educational thought holds that because conditions will always vary and learning should be based on learner interest, no planning in advance is possible. At the other extreme, another educational group insist on detailed planning of every minute of the class period. One cannot predict exactly what may happen in a class period, and the skilled teacher will always vary class procedure to fit the particular situation as it develops. However, the writer knows no efficient teacher who would enter a classroom without a clear plan of procedure covering at least the outlines of what he hopes to accomplish and ways of achieving desired results. Some sort of plan is essential to good teaching. What form that plan shall take is not, however, so essential.

The importance of determining aims, objectives, various approaches, and numerous activities has been stressed repeatedly in this manual. The teacher units in Chapter VII illustrate one type of planning. These constitute guides which the teacher sets

⁵ Caswell and Campbell, *op. cit.*, p. 395.

up for himself. The following "Standard Guide for Teachers' Lesson Plans in Socio-Economics" is very well worked out. It was developed by a Wallkill committee of teachers and is designed as a guide for shop instructors. Unit VI in Chapter VII illustrates how one teacher applied this guide to specific class lessons.

Standard Guide for Teachers' Lesson Plans in Socio-Economics

I. General Objectives

Make a general statement of the proposed conclusion you wish to discuss, tying it with the trade or subject matter with which it is to be connected.

II. Specific Objectives

Under this heading, state the specific socio-economic objectives which will be covered by the general objective.

III. Approach

Write in one sentence the lead from your trade or subject matter that you will use to start the socio-economic discussion.

IV. Other Possible Approaches

List in what other trade or subject-matter lessons you might introduce the same socio-economic topic.

V. Discussion Questions

In numerical order, list the questions you will use to stimulate discussions. For your own benefit, specific data and inferences pertaining to the questions should be noted directly after each question. For example: *Question.* Why, with rising cost of labor and raw materials, is building per cubic foot cheaper than it was ten years ago?

Inferences. Although the same number of men are employed in the brick-making industry, their production per gang has risen from 200 to 50,000 bricks per day.

With the introduction of automatic rising scaffolds, concrete mixers, gasoline hoists, brick containers, etc., daily production on the job is much faster.

Through closer cooperation between builders and manufacturers, better and cheaper processes and materials are now available.

VI. Conclusions and Inferences

By showing the parallelism between your trade and the economic or social conditions of the whole country, make sum-

ming-up statistics which draw to a conclusion the original objectives of your topic.

VII. References

List the books, pamphlets, etc., from which you gathered your material. It would also be advantageous to mention the pages from which it was gathered.

For student participation, use outside assignments when possible.

A General Lesson Plan Sheet

A type of plan sheet which is simple but includes most of the elements necessary to good teaching follows. It is applicable not only to social studies teaching but to almost any type of class or subject. If the explanations of the various headings are followed, the plan should have both flexibility and definiteness. Where inmates or teachers with limited training must be used, a lesson plan of this type will be found especially valuable. This plan is a standard form in the New York State Department of Correction.

SUBJECT TEACHER
UNIT DATE.....

TEACHER'S LESSON PLAN

1. Lesson Objectives: Make the lesson purposeful, have a definite aim.
2. Preparation: Have a definite plan for stimulating interest, tie the new lesson into the previous experiences of the learner, utilize visual aids and other helpful devices, prepare the learner for the problems and facts to be presented.
3. Presentation: Present the problems clearly; bring out the essential facts which will influence the learner's concepts and decisions.
4. Application: Have the learner apply the facts to the solution of the problem, lead the learner to the making of decisions and the acquiring of desired skills. Utilize various devices for learner activity, discussion, practice, experiment, demonstration, and the like.
5. Testing: Through questions, tests, and demonstrations determine the degree to which the learner has mastered the desired facts, concepts, skills, and attitudes.

Materials and Equipment
to Be Used:

References to Be Used:

Note: The chief functions of the teacher are the stimulation of learner interest, the guiding of learner activities to definite and desirable outcomes, and the supplying of materials, equipment, and sources of information with which the learner can work.

CHAPTER X

THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER

ONE conclusion which can scarcely be challenged may be drawn from the foregoing discussion of social studies teaching in correctional institutions: The social studies teacher must be an individual with outstanding qualities of personality, background, and training to achieve a high degree of success.

Perhaps the best general description of the ideal social studies teacher is that given in the *Fourteenth Year Book* of the Department of Superintendence. It sets a very high standard, particularly in the training and background which the teacher should bring to his work.

"The first duty of the teacher is to consider and clarify his controlling conception of American society, by the study of the greatest and noblest thinkers who have contributed to the American heritage and by the acquisition of knowledge concerning the dreams, hopes, and aspirations of mankind. This ideal can never be reached (by the teacher) but a beginning can be made. . . .

"The next duty is the long, arduous, and unremitting study of the great classics in history, economics, politics, and sociology. This involves years of dedicated industry and devotion. But whoever is unwilling to set about the task is unfitted by nature for the business of teaching the social studies. No outlines, digests, charts, or methods can take the place of the servitude to study.

"After the ground work has been laid comes continuous study of the living issues which occupy the attention and thought of the contemporary world. . . . It means reading newspapers . . . documents, speeches, statutes, executive orders, novels, essays, reviews, and summaries. It means keeping a live file of materials for study, reference, and use in the schoolroom. It

means becoming more or less acquainted, by first-hand contact, with community, state, national, and international affairs, talking with politicians, businessmen, labor leaders, and all sorts of persons active in the world as a going concern.

"But the teacher of the social studies should consciously and deliberately cultivate his sympathies, for it is through sympathy, not hatred, that we come to know other people best. Some writers call this cultivating the scientific attitude. . . . The teacher, speaking for the whole community, cannot limit his vision to any purely *ex parte* statement of any case presented by special interests. . . .

"Still another quality is required of the teacher. That is un-failing interest in the lives, problems, and development of the pupils for whom, indeed, all this instruction and direction and stimulus are designed. . . .

"It is difficult for the teacher to have great knowledge, power, humility, and humanity. The point is conceded. Perhaps, in strict truth, there has been only one Christian in the world. Certainly there has been no perfect teacher in the world. But unless we have some ideal before us, where are health and guidance to be sought? As Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes was fond of saying, we shoot our arrows toward the sun, though they fall flaming to earth. Or, as Heine once put the argument, we keep on seeking, until a handful of earth stops us at last. How can it be otherwise unless we sink down into the routine of bees and ants or the sloth of the hibernating bear?"¹

Dr. Robert K. Speer stresses personal qualities in his statement of what constitutes the ideal adult education teacher. There is a certain pungent tone to Dr. Speer's statement which gives it vitality:

"Some people test for teacher selection and some people smell out good teachers. What would I train my nose for?

"1. Decent mindedness—decent mindedness about society and decent mindedness toward individuals.

"2. Respect for personality—a teacher who respects a person

¹ Department of Superintendence, *Fourteenth Year Book, The Social Studies Curriculum*. National Education Association, 1936.

in terms of what that person is potentially—what he might become.

“3. A teacher who is professionally minded—not academically minded. One who is even more concerned with people than with narrow subjects.

“4. A broadminded person who does not take subject boundaries too seriously, knowing full well that even alleged experts don’t know exactly where one subject ends and the other begins.

“5. I would want to be aware of the fact that a good man is a good man without reference to age, either youthfulness or old age (meaning over forty or forty-five).

“And I don’t want a bully. I don’t want a snob. I don’t want a dull, drab, colorless person. I do want a person with a spontaneous ability to interest groups and with a sympathetic understanding of audiences.

“I shall close by repeating what Dr. Ned Dearborn has cited as the essential qualifications for beginning leaders (teachers) in adult education:

“‘1. Competence in the field represented.

“‘2. A flaming enthusiasm to share one’s knowledge, skills, and enjoyment with others.’”²

Dr. Walter M. Wallack has set forth perhaps the best statement of the qualities needed to teach prison inmates successfully. Dr. Wallack’s statement, it seems to the writer, goes deeper than either of the others. This is probably due to the fact that Dr. Wallack knows inmates, is an expert in education, understands people, has had wide experience, and is himself a teacher in the best and broadest meaning of the word. His description of an ideal institution teacher follows:

“Institutional teachers should be qualified for their positions, not only upon a basis of training and experience, but also upon a basis of personality fitness. This was demonstrated by having given nearly a hundred different persons an opportunity to

²Educational Standards Committee assisted by Works Progress Administration, *Adult Education Program of the Board of Education and New York University*, pp. 50, 51. New York, February, 1937.

work in the new educational program at Elmira (during the reorganization, 1932-1934). Even though these workers were selected very carefully, about one fourth of them proved unfit for institutional work purely because of the inadaptability of their personalities to the type of situation which the institution represented.

“It seems that a good institutional worker, in addition to having been well trained, will be most likely to succeed if he is a physically able person, if he knows the subject matter he is to teach, if he is not a ‘sissy’ or a ‘goody-goody,’ if he is not immature and gullible, if he has poise, if he is able to give encouragement without making that his chief business, if he is a ‘square-shooter,’ if he can ‘take it,’ if he is something of a show-man and a good storyteller, and while not ‘high-hat,’ always on a plane of relationship with inmates which does not breed familiarity.”³

Finally, the teacher of social studies in correctional institutions must adapt all he studies, reads, and sees to the individuals he is teaching. Constant alertness, keen observation, and insight are essential if the teacher is to understand inmates. Only through such understanding can correctional teaching remake men.

³First Annual Report to the Commissioner of Correction, Division of Education, State of New York. Typewritten, 1937.

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